

**A STUDY OF MOTHER TONGUE INTERFERENCE IN THE LEARNING OF  
ENGLISH BY LUMARACHI NATIVE SPEAKERS**

**BY**

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**C50/75794/2009**

**APROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF  
MASTERS OF ARTS DEGREE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS AND  
LANGUAGES**

**UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI**

**2015**

## DECLARATION

This project is my original work and has not been presented in any other university for academic award of a Master's degree.

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## **DEDICATION**

To my parents,

John Bosco and Colleta

My dear husband, Steve,

My children, Precious and Miles

Loves,

Your bright smiles and warm laughter

Sailed me through the nights I burned the candles.

Your encouragement to achieve nothing but the best

Led me to this station of EXCELLENCE.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

Many people contributed in different ways to make this research project possible. I would like to extend my appreciation especially to God, for bestowing on me the wisdom and perseverance during the course of this study. I thank my family for their unconditional support throughout my study life financially, morally and even emotionally.

I acknowledge my uncle Fredrick Butuba for his guidance and moral support that he gave me. Being a veteran of the Lumarachi language and also a long time serving teacher, his knowledge and information proved to be invaluable to my subject of research. Further I wish to extend my special gratitude to Dr. Helga Schroeder for her continued support, encouragement and readiness to help me. My deepest appreciation goes to my supervisors Dr. Akida and Dr. Marete for always creating time for me and for their invaluable guidance and encouragement throughout the course of this research project.

My sincere gratitude also goes to the students in the four schools, their teachers, school management and all who directly or indirectly helped me in this study. Last but not least I would like to thank my fellow graduates from the University of Nairobi for moral support and help during our brainstorming sessions about my next steps on this project.

## **ABSTRACT**

This study investigates the extent of mother-tongue interference related to phonological processes among the Lumarachi native speakers who are learners of English. It uses the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) that looks at the differences in the language systems of Lumarachi and English languages and how these differences affect the learning of English as a second language among the native speakers of Lumarachi. The study attempts to bring to the fore the phonological and morphological structural rules and procedures that are divergent in the two languages, and how they bring about Mother Tongue Interference.

The research also highlights the grammatical bits of English that are affected by the grammatical bits of Lumarachi among the Lumarachi learners of English by examining the instances of interference due to morphological errors.

The study hypothesizes that there is MTI in the learning of English among the Lumarachi native speakers. It also hypothesizes that MTI is caused by the differences of the morpho-phonological features of both languages. It therefore means that the different morpho-phonological rules pertaining to these features explain the MTI.

This is a contrastive study which focuses on analyzing Lumarachi morpho-phonological processes beside the English morpho-phonological processes. The study limits itself to Lumarachi as spoken by the people of Butula sub-county in Busia County and not any other Lumarachi sub-group in any other area of Kenya. Reviews of Literature on MTI, morpho-phonological processes as well as books and sites on Lumarachi have been used.

The research is largely descriptive. Most of the data collected was from the Lumarachi native speakers' essays. The native speakers were drawn from certain schools in Butula sub-county. The researcher herself also elicited some data, being a native speaker of Lumarachi herself and having taught for quite some time enabled this. This study also makes comprehensive use of quantitative analysis on the data collected.

The study discusses various aspects of Lumarachi Phonology and Morphology that forms a structural basis for the contrasting as posited by the CAH. The sound system of Lumarachi, the vowel structure, the phonological processes such as epenthesis, elision, assimilation, vowel strengthening, vowel lengthening and vowel coalescence are looked at phonologically. Lumarachi noun and verb Morphology are also examined, more specifically the word classes, the morphological processes such as prefixation, suffixation and reduplication are of importance to this study.

It is noted that the phonological and morphological structural differences between Lumarachi and English cause mother tongue interference. Mother tongue interference comes about when the learner uses knowledge of his native language in the learning of his target language so that we may have a case of substituting suffixation with prefixation because the native learner is used to prefixation in his mother tongue.

This study of Lumarachi mother tongue interference helps in understanding how mother tongue interference comes about through contrasting of the languages in question. It sets a paradigm and a comparative scale for comparisons of other languages especially the Bantu languages.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS**

ADJ – Adjective

Ant- anterior

CA- Contrastive Analysis

CAH- Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CV- Consonant-vowel syllable structure

VC- Vowel-consonant syllable structure

CCV- Consonant-consonant-vowel syllable structure

CCVV- Consonant-consonant-vowel-vowel syllable structure

Cons- consonantal

Cont- continuant

Cor- Coronal

cl.PF- class prefix

ENG- English

EFL- English as a Foreign Language

L1- First Language

L2- Second Language

MT- Mother tongue

MTI –Mother tongue Interference

MAR- Marachi

Nas- Nasal

NL – Native Language

NLT- Native Language Transfer

NS- Native speaker

PPF- Preprefix

SL-Second Language

SLA- Second Language Acquisition.

SLL-Second Language Learning

SVA- Subject verb agreement

SA- Subject Agreement

TL- Target language

Vocalic- vocalic

————→ Means 'become'

／ Environment

—— Before a suffix

／／ Encloses phonemic transcription

[ ] encloses a phonetic transcription

{ } Morphemic representation

: Length of a sound

\$ marks syllable boundary

# marks word boundary

[\*] ungrammatical form

## **DEFINITION OF TERMS**

Affixation - This is a process whereby a free morpheme is put together by a bound morpheme.

Prefixation - This is a process whereby a free morpheme is put before a bound morpheme to create a new word.

Reduplication - a process whereby a piece or whole root is repeated or added to a base just like in suffixation.

Suprafixation – a process whereby tone is infused to a word to create a different meaning in a word.

## CHAPTER ONE:INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 Background to the Study

Luhya (Luyia) is a Bantu language spoken by about five million people who live in the Western region of Kenya North of Lake Victoria from Kisumu to Webuye and from Kapsabet on the East to the Uganda border to the West ([www.abeingo.org](http://www.abeingo.org)). The Luyia speakers are the second largest ethnic group in Kenya after the Agikuyu (Marlow, 2007).

It's important to note that, in linguistic reference, Luhya refers to the people and Luyia refers to the language but in practice, the two are interchanged in various sources ([www.abeingo.org](http://www.abeingo.org)). In this study, 'Luyia' is used while referring to the language and 'Abaluyia' while referring to those who speak Luyia. Lumarachi is a dialect whose origin is not clear but is thought to be derived from a Luo word 'marach' which means the bad ones in reference to the persistent tribal warfare that existed between the two communities([www.abeingo.org](http://www.abeingo.org)). According to the *2009 Kenya Housing and Population Census*, the lumarachi dialect is spoken by the Abamarachi or Abamaraki who are about 155,000 people and thus is amongst the smallest Luyia dialects.

It is classified as a Niger-congo, Atlantic-congo, Volta-congo, Benue-congo, Bantoid, Southern, Narrow Bantu, central, J, Masaba-Luhya (E342).It is one of the many dialects of the Luyia language amongst others such as:Lulogooli, Lubukusu, Lwitakho, Lutachoni, Lumarama, Lukisa,Lutsotso, Lunyole, Lunyala, Lukhayo, Lukabras, Luwanga, Lwisukha, Lusaamia and Lutiriki (Angogo, 1980; Onyango, 2006). It's important to note that, previous studies have differed in the number of dialects that the Luyia language has (Angogo 1980, Kebeya 1997, Kabaji 2005, Onyango 2006, Kanyoro 1983). Some have stated they are sixteen while others eighteen.

The Abamarachi's geographical territory is known as 'Ebumarachi' and in real sense it is in between Saamia, Wanga and Khayo land. As a result of the geographical proximity, Lumarachi is closely related to Lusaamia, Luwanga and Lukhayo. The Abamarachi's main trading centres are Butula and Bumala. The Abamarachi's largest clans are the Abafofoyo and the Abamulembo ([www.abeingo.org](http://www.abeingo.org)). They are also found in some parts of Eastern Uganda (Marlow, 2007). Lumarachi is not only spoken but there also exist written literature. Moreso, it is

used as a medium of instruction in schools during early childhood years and the first three years of primary school in Marachi land.

Examples of schools that practice this are: Emauko, Emakwara and Siribo primary schools.

This study shows rules governing the morpho-phonological processes enabling the understanding of the occurrence of MTI. It also looks at the various parts of speech that are interfered with such as nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, Adverbs, articles, prepositions etc. The study discusses the errors caused by MTI and discovered through CAH. It just mentions and explains errors caused by MTI.

It is noted that MTI comes about as a result of Lumarachi native speaker learning English as a second language. This comes about as a result of the two languages interacting. In cases whereby the structures, rules and processes are similar, positive transfer occurs. When the opposite happens negative transfer commonly known as interference occurs.

This study of Lumarachi morpho-phonological MTI looks at the phonemic inventory and the morpho-phonological processes of MAR. This helps in the understanding of how interference comes about amongst Lumarachi native speakers who are SLL of English. The study provides a contrastive study scale for other Bantu languages as well. In a nutshell, this research work seeks to find out the extent of mother tongue interference in the process of second language learning among the Abamarachi students.

### **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

Mother tongue interference is a common problem in the study of English among Lumarachi native speakers in secondary schools in Busia County. In my three years of teaching in secondary schools in the rural area. I have come across problematic cases attributed to mother tongue interference. For example, a student native speaker of Lumarachi may construct a sentence such as :

*she dance\* OR*

*he dance\*.*

This sentence construction is grammatically wrong. This is because English changes verb form with a change of subject or persons. So we say:

*I dance,*

*You dance.*

*He/ She dances.*

In Lumarachi, the verb remains constant across all the persons or subjects. For example:

*Eshina- I dance.*

*Oshina- You dance.*

*Ashina- He/ she dances.*

Therefore, the Lumarachi native speaker tends to use his knowledge of the native language to fill in and understand the English language that he is studying.

In another example, a native speaker of Lumarachi comes up with a sentence like this one:

*'The cow\* are eating grass.*

The plural marker –s has been forgotten. English marks its plural at the end so that you talk of:

*Cow- cows.*

In Lumarachi, the plural marker for the same word, in this case, i- and tsi- for singular and plural respectively come at the beginning:

*'Ing'ombe- Tsing'ombe'.*

Because the native speaker is used to placing plural marker at the beginning of words, he / she will find it difficult or challenging and even tend to forget to place the plural marker at the end of the word like in the above construction.

From these examples, it is evident that mother tongue interference may have a role to play in the creation of learners' errors. It is therefore essential to find a viable solution for the studying of English with minimal mother tongue interference or none at all. This study aims to establish the extent of mother tongue interference in learning English among Lumarachi native speakers.

## **1.2 Research questions**

The study addresses the following questions:

- i) What morphological errors influence the learning of English among Lumarachi native speakers?
- ii) What phonological processes interfere with learning of English as a second language among Lumarachi native speakers?

### **1.3 Objectives of the study**

The objectives of this study are to:

- i) Investigate the extent of Mother Tongue Interference related to phonological processes in the learning of English by Lumarachi native speakers.
- ii) Examine the instances of interference due to morphological errors in the learning of English by Lumarachi native speakers.

### **1.4 Research Hypothesis**

This study is guided by the following hypotheses:

- i) There is Mother Tongue Interference (MTI) in the learning of English among the Lumarachi native speakers.
- ii) The difference in the morphological and phonological features of the two languages leads to Mother Tongue Interference.

### **1.5 Rationale for the Study**

According to Lott (1983: 256) “Mother Tongue Interference is the errors in the learner’s use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue.”

The Oxford dictionary defines mother tongue as “the Language which a person has grown up speaking from early childhood”. This research study sought to establish the extent of mother tongue interference of Lumarachi language in the learning of English as a second language. In the course of my interaction with the Marachi students as a teacher, I came across situations and cases of what I perceived as mother tongue interference in the learning of English among the students who were Lumarachi native speakers. Such situations were mostly encountered in the classroom environment. Consider these examples:

1. The man removed a one metre panga.
2. The girl was admiring to everyone.

3. Our turn reached.
4. We went in front there before the president.
5. After all that long journey.

The sentences above all show a direct translation from the MT in an attempt to produce an exact structure in the second language.

It is true to say that the capability to converse and express oneself in English in the rural areas is related to lavish jobs and is a form of prestige. Despite this, my experience with the Abamarachi people reflected a state of society that attached lots of value to their language. Therefore, Speaking and expression in the second language (L2) in general did not get its due share in the average Marachi classroom. The time learners accorded to learning the L2 could be far less than they should or deserve. As a result, Abamarachi students of English were not able to develop proper skills and confidence to converse and write in English. It is because of this interesting phenomenon therefore that I sought to find out if that interference could be accounted for and provided remedies for future learning experiences for the learners.

This study aims to show the reasons behind students' errors. The findings would also enable the students and teachers alike to be able to deal with the problem of MTI once they learn and know the circumstances that trigger it. In addition, the findings provided a linguistic description of the under described dialect of Luyia language and thus contributes to the study of Bantu MTI in the learning of English.

In conclusion, this study supported the assertion by Weinrich (1970:64-65) that interference is a major problem that occurs in bilingualism as the learner is influenced by both the SL and the TL. This is also in line with Corder as cited by Richard (1967:19) that, errors are a result of interference in learning a second language from the habits of the first language. The study examined the differences in grammatical systems of the two languages as a contributor to the students' transfer of their L1 into their L2.

## **1.6 Scope and Limitation**

The research focuses on studying negative transfer traced in the grammatical bits of the two languages; and more specifically the morphological and phonological processes.

The research dealt with common grammatical transfers in the learning of English basing on some grammatical forms, and ratio of equivalents. To get answers to this, a description of MAR was necessary in terms of its morphology and phonology. The morphological processes to be discussed are: prefixation, suffixation, reduplication and agglutination (though not a process, it's important to this study); the phonological ones are assimilation, labialization, nasalization, palatalization, vowel lengthening and weakening, vowel insertion and vowel coalescence.

This study will not describe ENG as it has already been described in so many studies. This study has also not dealt with identifying instances of positive transfer but explained why the errors occurred. In addition to that, this study will not focus on errors that are not mother-tongue-interference related.

## **1.7 Literature Review**

(Dulay et al 1982:97) define interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. On the other hand, (Ellis 1997: 51) refers to interference as 'transfer', which he says is 'the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2'. He argues that transfer is guided by learners' perceptions about what is transferable and by their stage of development in L2 learning. In learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules (Selinker, 1971, Seliger, 1988 and Ellis, 1997) with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task as we shall see from the data collected.

Extensive research has already been done in the area of mother tongue interference in different areas on the target language. This research seeks to investigate the negative transfers of Lumarachi students in the learning of English as their L2.

Beardsmore (1982) suggests that many of the difficulties a second language learner has with the phonology, vocabulary and grammar of L2 are due to the interference habits from L1. The formal elements of L1 are used within the context of L2, resulting in errors in L2 because the

structures of the languages in question are different as in the case of this study between MAR and ENG. The phonology and grammar of the two languages shall be considered.

Albert and Obler (1978) claim that people portray interference more on similar items in their study of lexical interference. This means that languages with similar structures are more susceptible to mutual interference than languages with different structures. This study compares ENG and MAR lexical items and determines whether their differences or similarities will bring about interference.

Massoud and Saedi (2011) in their paper a phonological CA of Kurdish and English, compare and contrast the sound system of Kurdish and ENG. In their paper, they quote(Ringbom1994:738) claims that it's in the area of phonology that predictions of CA work best. This is relevant to this study as it undertakes the contrasting of the sound system and the phonological processes of MAR and ENG.

Dreasher and Anderson (1990) in their investigation of the role of NLT have applied CA of Brazilian Portuguese and American English phonology. They also look at the type of errors and the phonological processes that occur and attempt to categorize them from their source. This is important to this study as they claim that CA seems a better predictor of the types of errors that occur than language universals theory which seems a better predictor of relative difficulty; and this study uses CA as a tool. This is relevant to this study as it looks at the type of errors and the morpho-phonological processes happening therefore acting as a guide.

Odden (2011) in his online handbook of Bantu phonology looks at the main phonological phenomena found in Bantu languages such as tone, vowel harmony, syllable structure and so on which are very important bases for this study as MAR being one of the Bantu languages has a lot to infer from them. This study looks at the MAR tone and syllable structures as the forms of comparison between MAR and ENG.

Katshemererwe (2009) in her paper, Computational morphology and Bantu language learning: an implementation for Runyakitara, uses morphological analysis to support language learning for

a group of Bantu languages that Runyakitara stands for namely: Runyankore, Rukiga, Runyoro and Rutooro. This study gives a firm basis on morphological analysis of concepts such as: agglutination, reduplication, inflection, allomorphy, verb and noun morphology that is important in this study.

Oluoch (2014) studies MAR loanword adaptation in B-U dialect of Dholuo and looks at a case of borrowing from MAR, Lunyala and Swahili. He looks at MAR phonemic inventory, syllable structure and MAR morphology which are vital for this study.

Although MAR has been understudied, that's not to say that research has not been done on it. Marlo (2007) has done a comprehensive research on MAR verb tonology and the discussion on tone guide this paper especially when looking at the suprasegmental features of MAR under the morphological process of suprafixation.

Akwala(2008) in the morpho-phonological nativisation of MAR loan words: A case of borrowing from Dholuo, has a lot of data from the MAR language which is important for this study; like the MAR consonants and vowel systems.

In her paper, Dialect and learning of English as a second language in Kenya Njeru (2013) talks about MTI as one of the major problems in perceiving the L2. This study looks at this phenomenon amongst the MAR native speakers who are learners of English.

### **1.8.1 Introduction to the Theoretical Framework**

The study adopted the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis theory pioneered by Lado (1957) and Fries (1945). According to (Fries 1945:9), the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. The Contrastive Analysis concept is that a structure of a certain language is created then it is used in comparison with another language's structure. Through this, similarities and differences are identified. Therefore, the identified differences enable one to understand the problems that a second language learner encounters.

This theory postulate that, structural differences of the two languages involved would result in interference.

### **1.8.2 History of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)**

CAH was initiated in the sixties when structural linguistics and behavioral psychology was dominant then. It originated from Lado (1957). He claimed that the plan of the book rested on the assumption that one can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning or ease learning by systematically comparing the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the students (Lado 1957:8).

The linguistic model is structuralism which is expounded by Bloomfield (1933) then elaborated by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957). Structuralism assumes that each language has a structure that can be documented and compared with another language. (Esser 1980: 181) argues that CA may be said to be in the field of applied linguistics because the analyzed material could become teaching material. The theory is also based on the assumption that learners will tend to transfer features of their L1 to their L2 utterances. (Lado 1957:2) illustrates this by stating:

“Individuals tend to transfer forms and meanings and their distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture.”

This is well summarized by (Corder 1971:158) who brings in the notion of “transfer” as that which is associated with “carrying over the habits of his mother-tongue into the second language.”

In the same breath, Ellis (1965) also suggested that CAH has a psychological foundation which is where the first language is substituted for prior learning while second language is substituted for second learning. This is known as the transfer theory.

On the other hand the behaviorists looked at interference in two ways:

- (a) As positive transfer
- (b) As negative transfer.

They say that both types refer to automatic and conscious use of old behavior in new learning (Powell 2009:19). The difference being that positive transfer will ease SLL while negative

transfer will complicate. Corder (1983) suggested the term 'mother tongue influence' which he claimed belonged to the behaviorist learning theory.

### **1.8.3 Tenets of the procedure of CAH**

(Whitman 1975:191) stated four major component procedure of the CAH as follows:

- i) Taking two languages; L1 and L2 and choosing or writing formal descriptions of them.
- ii) Picking forms of contrasting from the descriptions given.
- iii) Making contrasts of the forms chosen above
- iv) Make a prediction of difficulty through the contrast.

For the procedure of prediction, Stockwell et al (1968) proposed a procedural hierarchy based on the three different forms of transfer: positive, negative and zero; and a comparison of the phoneme contrasts of the two languages in question. He stated that positive transfer will take place when the languages in question are structurally similar; negative transfer will take place when the languages in question are structurally different and zero transfer will occur when the structures of the two languages are not similar.

(Ellis 1985:25-26) proposed the following procedure:

- i. Description – A formal description of two languages is made.
- ii. Selection – certain items which may be entire sub-systems such as the auxiliary system are selected for comparison.
- iii. Comparison – Identification of areas of difficulty and similarities.
- iv. Prediction – Identify areas that are likely to cause errors.

(Hammerly 1982:26) proposed a hierarchy of difficulty in terms of the persistence of pronunciation errors after considerable instruction. His hierarchy consisted of forty five items by mean error.

In contrast to the discussions concerning the versions of CAH, (Gass and Selinker1994:65) provided two main criticisms:

- (a) Not all actually occurring errors were predicted by this hypothesis- Many L2 errors are not attributable to L1 patterns and that there can be similarities between L2 patterns produced by speakers of different L1s.

(b) Not all predicted errors occurred- Some errors predicted by difference between L1 and L2 do not occur.

(c) Not all the errors arose from interference only.

This study will tell whether these criticisms posited above will be determined in this study.

#### **1.8.4 Versions of CAH**

As per the different linguistic analysis and research, various versions based on predictability are talked about in the field of research such as:

a. Strong

b. Moderate;

c. Weak.

Wardhaugh (1970) classified the strong version of CAH as the version that claims the ability to predict difficulty through contrastive analysis. The assumption is that the two languages can be compared *a priori*. From theoretical deductions it claims the following:

- The main obstacle of L2 learning is the interference of the learner's native language system.
- The greater difference there is between the NL and TL, the greater the difficulty.
- A systematic and scientific description of the two languages will help predict the difficulty.
- The CA's results can be used as a reliable source in the preparation of teaching material, in course planning and the improvement of classroom techniques.

In describing the weak version of CAH, (Wardhaugh 1970:126) refers to it as the observational use of contrastive analysis. He says here the focus shifts from the predictive power of levels of difficulty to the explainable power of the errors that are observed. This version has developed into Error Analysis. From this observation, the CA is viewed as the theory while EA is viewed as the assessment tool. Brown (1987) also suggested that, the strong version focuses on the prior prediction of linguistic difficulties while the weak version focuses on the *posteriori* explanation of errors in language learning.

(Oller and Ziahosseiny 1970:186) proposed a moderate version of the CAH based on their study of spelling errors on the dictation section of the UCLA placement test in English as a second

language. They claimed that the strong version was too strong while the weak version was too weak. They categorized the moderate version as follows:

“The categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning. Therefore, whenever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result. “

In the same breath (Brown 1987:162) explains the idea applying it to learning:

“Interference can be lesser when items to be learned are more similar to the existing items than when the items are entirely new and unrelated to existing items.

### **1.8.5 Focus of the Present Study**

The focus of this study is on specific instances where L1 interfered in the morphological and phonological processes of the second language learner’s writing. The present study will also identify the effect of the differences and/or similarities between the structures of L1 and L2 on the target language.

This study also adopted the idea of transfer as ‘*forward transfer*’ as classified by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008). The study investigated the effect of L1 on L2 and not vice versa. Therefore the study does not focus on bidirectional transfer that is the effects of L2 on L1.

The study also adopted the procedures postulated by Ellis (1985) but altered a little:

1. Describing the language of focus: MAR.
2. Selecting the items for comparisons (in this case the morphological and phonological processes of both languages)
3. Identifying errors in compositions.
4. Try to explain the errors through comparing ENG and MAR.
5. Predicting by looking at the areas likely to cause errors.

To illustrate this using examples; this is how the CAH will be applied; assuming steps 1 and 2 have been done, as they are just before the data analysis, these here are examples of errors from some compositions:

1. We were told to enter into the school bus.
2. He like ugali.
3. I am tall more than him.

**Comparison:**

All the above sentences are grammatically wrong in ENG. This is how they would be said in MAR:

**direct translation**

1. [χuaβolwa χuindzire mu ibasi ya sikuli] we were told to get inside the school bus.
2. [jaʃama busuma] He/she like Ugali.
3. [ndi murambi χumuʃira] I am tall past him.[more than]

**Explanation:**

It is clear that the errors in the sentences above are due to direct translation. The learner uses his knowledge of expression in the NL to try and elicit an SL in the learning process. He ends up directly carrying over mother tongue expression to the SL in his attempt to produce a TL. Sentence 2 lacks subject verb agreement in ENG. This is because in Lumarachi all the persons bear the same verb as subject-verb agreement is covert in the three persons so they tend to look the same unlike in ENG where the change is overt. In sentence 3, MAR has no comparative words like in ENG so it tends to compare as above, using words like 'past'. The correct sentences should be:

1. We were told to get into the bus.
2. He likes Ugali.
3. I am taller than him.

**Prediction:**

The learner will tend to carry over expressions in his MT to his SL as an approximation of what's wanted in the TL. This is obvious in areas where comparison and subject-verb agreement occur.

This study will make use of the weak version of CAH as explained by Wardhaugh (1970) because it will deal with the explaining of errors observed. Therefore, this study will not make prediction of difficulty through contrast as the behaviorists did.

An important aspect of this study is that, it provided an interesting comparison of a language that has been under-researched. The comparison of a European and an African language is a move

away from a previous research focus on mainly the European languages and this is useful for the current local teaching context.

## **1.9 Research Methodology**

This section discusses how data collection and data analysis will be done.

### **1.9.1 Data Collection**

The main data collection instruments included students' own written compositions. Each sample student was asked to write two compositions, one in form of a dialogue between the student and a second person while the other composition was on continuous prose based on free, creative and imaginative writing. The dialogue composition was meant to elicit the student's conversational skills and competences. The compositions enabled the researcher to find out the students' English grammatical usage of words and substantiated the hypothesis of mother tongue interference in the study. The dialogue enabled studying of the structural patterns and speech competence of the students. In essence the compositions helped to find out the word classes the students had problems with and the language patterns that caused difficulty in the students' learning of English as a second language. The phonological processes were determined through the analysis of the sentences picked out as being faulty.

The study employed a cross-sectional method of collecting data. The cross-sectional method compares how samples of L2 learners at different levels of proficiency understand and produce linguistic action. In this study, cross sectional method allowed analysis of compositions of students, drawn from different classes, that is, from form 1 to form 4 in and in 4 different schools namely: Butula boys high school, Busiada girls' high school, Buyimba mixed day and boarding high school and Bumala B mixed day high school.

The subjects were 64 students both boys and girls aged between 15-19 years. Each school had sixteen students participating in this project. The number of the compositions written were: 114; 64 for the imaginative and 50 for the dialogue. Each composition had a limit of between 350 to 450 words. The students in these classes were not all Marachi native speakers; systematic random sampling with the class teachers' help enabled me to pick students who were only Marachi native speakers.

The imaginative compositions were administered on random days without the students' prior knowledge. It was administered as a random class assignment by the English teachers. Butula boys and Busiada girls were the first ones to write the imaginative compositions on two consecutive days respectively and then followed by Buyimba and Bumala B mixed schools on different days. The dates of the administration of the dialogue compositions were communicated to the students by their English teachers in advance after completion of the imaginative writing. The compositions were then marked by the researcher, beginning first with the imaginative ones; then the dialogue ones. Errors were identified, then grouped as per morphologically or phonologically motivated. The researcher's role as one of the sources of primary data was to point out the errors. The researcher being a Lumarachi native speaker enabled her to identify the errors she came across. I will sample some of the compositions and attach them in the appendices.

### **1.9.2 Data Analysis**

(Politet al 2001:383) views data analysis as the process of organizing, providing structure and eliciting meaning. In this study, data analysis commenced after issuing the first writing test. Various ways of data analysis were used. First, administering of the compositions was done on different days. Then, the compositions were marked while noting down the errors. Thirdly the errors were then classified morphologically and phonologically. Fourthly, the comparison of the morphological and phonological processes found in both languages was done basing on the errors discovered. Thereafter, the tabulation and frequencies calculation were done. This helped in the pointing out of MTI and determining whether it could be attributed to either the difference or similarity of MAR and ENG morpho-phonological processes.

### **1.10 Summary**

This is an introductory chapter that has set the foundation of the study by spelling out the research problem, objectives, research questions, hypotheses scope and justification of the study. The research methodology has also been explained.

The relevant literature review has been given as well as the Theoretical framework that will guide the study. The CAH is a theory that tries to point out comprehensively the problem

brought about by the structural difference of the languages in question. It recognizes different levels of language and is able to deal with whichever level of comparison.

Therefore, the CAH is an adequate tool to handle problems concerning structural differences of any two languages at any given time, in this case, MAR and ENG. To be able to assess the validity of CAH, this study will use it in the description of data from Lumarachi.

## CHAPTER TWO: ASPECTS OF LUMARACHI MORPHOLOGY AND PHONOLOGY

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at Lumarachi vowel and consonant systems as these components play a role in many of the morphological and phonological processes analyzed here. For a clear understanding of the morpho-phonological aspects of language it's necessary for one to grasp some knowledge of that language's phonology and morphology. Therefore, the Lumarachi noun and verbal morphology are looked at as well as the Lumarachi sound system.

### 2.2 Lumarachi Phonology

#### 2.2.1 Lumarachi Consonants

According to (Akwala 2008: 32) Lumarachi has nineteen pure consonants, two semi-vowels, four pre-nasalized compounds and 1 consonant cluster. The consonants of Lumarachi are given below. Each consonant is represented using its IPA symbol, followed by the orthography, then the words in Lumarachi and their meaning in English.

These consonants are represented both phonetically and orthographically. The table also shows the distribution of the Lumarachi consonants in all positions.

**Table 1:** Lumarachi Consonants

IPA Symbol	Orthography	Word	Gloss
b	b	/ibaibo/	Bible
β	b	/abebusi/	Parents
p	p	/pangula/	Rearrange
f	f	/ifiro/	Soot
t	t	/temaa/	Try
d	d	Idajwa/	Cock
s	s	/esianua/	Offertory
tʃ	ch	/tʃama/	Like/ love
dʒ	j	/tsindʒugu/	Groundnuts
g	g	/inzaga/	Bhang
χ	kh	/χaba/	Search

k	k	/kona/	Sleep
l	l	/li a/	Cry
l	l	/mu akusi/	Witchdoctor
r	r	/ria/	Eat
w	w	/wandze/	Mine
j	y	/lijabo/	Boat
m	m	/mundu/	Someone
n	n	/nungiro/	Cooking pot
ɲ	ny	/buɲasi/	Grass
ŋ	ng'	/iŋgaya/	Thin
mb	mb	/rumba/	Sulk
nd	nd	/ndala/	One
nz	nz	/inzuha/	Snake
ts	ts	/itsa/	Come
ʃ	sh	/iʃiejo/	Broom

In the Lumarachi consonants shown above, there are consonants that occur in free variation. To begin with /b/, has the allophone [b] which occur in borrowed words into the language and [β] which occur in the original words of the language as shown above and also consider these examples:

**Table 2:** allophones for /b/

<b>Lumarachi</b>	<b>Translation</b>
[ibirika]	kettle
[ibraʃi]	brush
[ibesini]	basin
[maβuju]	eggs
[tsimbaβasi]	blessings

The consonant /l/ also has allophones that occur in free variation. There is [l] that occurs medially in a word and there is [ɫ] that occurs initially in a word and in syllables with the same [ɫ] following each other as shown above. Consider these examples too:

**Table 3:** allophones for /l/

<b>Lumarachi</b>	<b>Translation</b>
[mala]	finish
[sala]	vomit
[ɫia]	eat
[uɫiɫa]	listen
[mulafu]	light skinned

**Table 4:**Lumarachi consonant classification

This table represents the Lumarachi consonants according to their manner and place of articulation.

	<b>Bilabial</b>	<b>Labio-dental</b>	<b>Alveolar</b>	<b>Post-alveolar</b>	<b>palatal</b>	<b>Velar</b>	<b>Velar-labia</b>	<b>uvular</b>
Plosives	p b		t d			k g		
Fricatives	β	f	s	ʃ		χ		
Affricates			tʃ	dʒ				
Nasals	m		n		ɲ	ŋ		
Trills			r					
Laterals			l					
Glides					J		w	
Prenasalized stops	mb		nz nd					ŋg

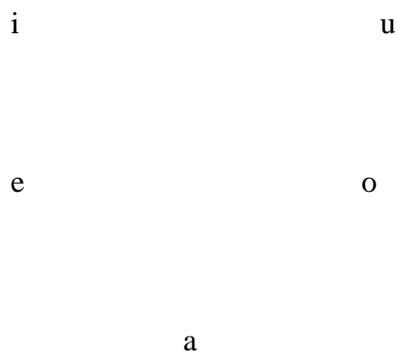
Adapted from Akwala (2008:37)

From the above table it is also clear that Lumarachi has four prenasalized stops as shown. These stops occur medially or in final positions but not initially. The points of articulation include: labial, dental, alveolar, palate, velum and the uvular; the manners of articulation represented are plosives, nasals, fricatives, affricates, laterals, glides and trills.

### 2.2.2 Lumarachi vowels

The phonetic inventory of Lumarachi has five vowels. These five short vowels can be prolonged to come up with corresponding long vowels in the same language making a total of ten vowels as will be shown in a table shortly. Here are the five vowels:

**Figure 1:** Lumarachi vowel chart



From the above table, we can see that Lumarachi vowels can be classified according to articulatory parameters such as: vowel height, backness or frontness and the degree of lip rounding. We can term Lumarachi a vowel language as per (Odden 2003:4) this means that it has the potential for greater variation in vowel harmony.

**Table 5: An orthographic representation of Lumarachi vowels.**

IPA symbol	Orthography	Word	Gloss
a	a	/fuja/	Wash
e	e	/esitabo/	Book
i	i	/indaa/	Lice
o	o	/muliro/	Fire
u	u	/muχana/	Girl
a:	aa	/musaatsa/	Man
e:	ee	/βeera/	Slash
i:	ii	/siira/	Fry
o:	oo	/βoola/	Say
u:	uu	/βuusuma/	Skin disease

### 2.2.3 Lumarachi syllable structure

Luhya as a group favors words that have an open syllable structure. According to (Akwala 2008:52) there are several types of open syllables in Lumarachi. They include:

- i) CV structure
- ii) CVV structure
- iii) CV: structure
- iv) VCV structure
- v) CCV structure

#### 2.2.3.1 CV structure

This is whereby a consonant is followed by a vowel. For example:

/lola/	see	CV\$ CV
/βeka/	shave	CV\$ CV

### 2.2.3.2 CVV structure

This is a structure whereby a consonant is followed by a diphthong. For example:

/sia/	mill flour	CVV
/Khesia/	greet	CVV (in the second syllable)

### 2.2.3.3 CV: structure

This is a circumstance where a consonant is followed by a long vowel. This happens in Lumarachi. For example:

/raa/	put	CV:
/ma:la/	finish	CV:CV

### 2.2.3.4 VCV structure

This is whereby a word in Lumarachi begins with a vowel and ends in a vowel. For example:

/ira/	take (there) or kill	VCV
/uka/	wonder	VCV

### 2.2.3.5 CCV structure

A Lumarachi word can have consonants occurring initially in a sequence followed by a vowel. For example:

/flama/	bend	CCV\$ CV
/pwa/	drink	CCV

## 2.4 Lumarachi morphology.

Morphology is the branch of Linguistics that studies word formation (Lieber 2009:3) Therefore the ‘word’ is the most important unit in the study of morphology. The word classes should be worth mentioning at this juncture because they form the basis of analyzing the morpho-phonological processes. The Lumarachi morphology recognizes the following word classes:

**Table 6:** word classes

<b>Word class</b>	<b>Orthographic Example</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
Noun	<i>isiongo</i>	pot
Verb	<i>lomaloma</i>	talk
Adjective	<i>murambi</i>	tall
Adverb	<i>kala</i>	slowly
Preposition	<i>ekulu</i>	up
Conjunction	<i>khubera</i>	because
Determiner	<i>ino</i>	this (employs usage of demonstratives)

### 2.4.1 Noun Morphology in Lumarachi

Like all Bantu languages, Lumarachi has a noun class system with the number varying between 12 and 20. (Zerbian and Krifka 2006:3) The nominal class system in Lumarachi bears the agreement pre-prefix and the class prefix. The agreement pre-prefix and class pre-prefix also display the concord agreement unique to particular noun classes. Therefore, the noun class prefix is the determinant on how the other word categories in the sentence will behave. Consider these nouns and adjectives in sentences in the example below:

*Table 7: Agreement pre-prefix and class prefix on noun morphology*

<b>SINGULAR</b>	<b>PLURAL</b>	<b>GLOSS</b>
O-mu-sungu murambi	A-ba-sungu barambi	tall white man/ tall white men
PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ.	PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ.	
E-si-sala sihongo	E-bi-sala bihongo	big chair/ big chairs

PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ.	PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ.	
E-i-daiwa imali	e-tsi-daiwa tsimali	black cock/ black cocks
PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ.	PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ	
e-li-swi lirambi	a-ma-swi marambi	long hair/ long hairs
PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ.	PPF-clPF-ROOT ADJ.	
O-mu-khono mutiti	e-mi-khono mititi	small hand/small hands
PPF-clPF- ROOT ADJ	PPF-clPF- ROOT ADJ	

It's important to note that the pre-prefix relate to definiteness in Lumarachi while the absence of it brings about indefiniteness. Additionally, that's why demonstrative pronouns act as articles or determinants because of lack of their equivalents in Lumarachi. For example:

The book is on the table.  
 [esitaβo eso sili χu mesa ejo]  
 Book that is on table that

Hyman and Katamba in their study of Bantu languages point out that in the Ugandan Bantu language; Luganda speakers elicit definite translations in English for Luganda forms taking the pre-prefix and indefinite translations for those without the pre-prefix. (Hyman and Katamba 1993:219)

Allomorphy can also be witnessed here whereby the different noun classes have different inflectional affixes for the plural marking corresponding to a single morpheme and also worth noting is that the inflectional morphemes are prefixes.

Knowing this concept of the Lumarachi noun classes is important as it will ease the clear understanding of why there are occurrences of MTI in the data to be analyzed. However, the noun classes will not be dealt with in details.

### 2.4.2 Lumarachi verb morphology

A verb in a Bantu language may acquire many prefixes and suffixes (Katshemerwe 2013:26) and Lumarachi is no exception. This is to say that Lumarachi is highly agglutinative. Take this example for instance:

*Table 8: agglutination*

<b>Agglutination</b>	<b>word/sentence</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
Nda+la+khu+rekh+e+ra 1PS-FUT-O-leave-APPL-FV	[ndalaxureχera]	I will leave for you
A+la+mu+alis+i+a literally) she will take the baby to sleep 3PS-FUT-O-sleep-APPL-FV	[alamualisia]	(She will make the baby sleep

The affixes may represent the tense markers, object markers, roots, mood, and aspect and so on. This agglutinative feature of Lumarachi is appropriate to be looked at here since it will have a bearing in this study. This is because the agglutinative nature of Lumarachi as we shall see tends to elicit direct translations from the NS.

### 2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, a description of the Lumarachi consonant and vowel systems, some aspects of Lumarachi morphology and the syllable structures have been looked at. This chapter has provided a basis for the understanding of data on the succeeding chapters.

## **CHAPTER THREE: LUMARACHI MORPHOLOGICAL AND PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSES**

### **3.1 Introduction to Lumarachi phonological processes.**

This section will look at some of the phonological processes in Lumarachi that explain or elaborate on mother tongue interference together with their phonological rules. To begin with, (Schane1973:49) defines phonological processes as when morphemes are combined to form words, whereby the segments of neighboring morphemes become juxtaposed and sometimes undergo change.

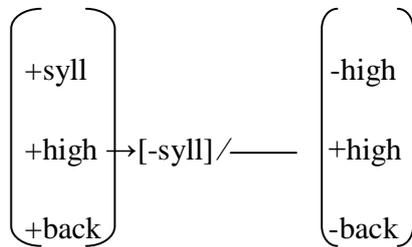
On the other hand, (Clark and Yallop 1995:62) view phonological processes as complex articulation which capture both secondary articulation (a superimposed articulation) and complex articulation (involving more than one place of articulatory activity in the vocal tract)

This study will make use of the first definition where the segments of neighboring morphemes come together and even undergo change. The following are the phonological processes in Lumarachi that will guide this study.

### **3.2 Assimilation processes**

(Katamba 1989:80) defines assimilation as the modification of a sound in order to make it more similar to some other sound in its neighborhood. He adds on to say that this process is an effortless move from one sound to another. On the other hand (Schane 1973:49) says that this process involves a segment taking on features of a neighboring segment. This study looks at the assimilation processes as described by Schane.

In Lumarachi, a high back vowel changes into a glide when immediately followed by a non-high vowel or a high vowel with opposite value for the feature [BACK]. The rule is formalized as follows:



Examples:

*Table 9: assimilation*

<b>Word</b>	<b>phonetic transcript</b>	<b>gloss</b>
Omu+ana	[omwana]	child
Khu+iya	[χwija]	beat
Mu+itsa	[mwitsa]	friend
Mu+ene	[mwene]	him/herself

This kind of assimilation is known as progressive assimilation, meaning that a sound becomes more like the sound preceding it.

### 3.2.1 Voice assimilation

Katamba describes this phenomenon in (1989:88) as whatever happens to be the specification of the feature [voice] of the preceding segment of the root is automatically carried over into the suffix. He also says that voicing may spill over into adjacent segments. Hence the rule of suffix voice agreement is an instance of regressive assimilation.

This brings about the aspect of directionality. (Katamba 1989:84) a sound may become like the sound that precedes it (progressive or anticipatory assimilation) or the sound that follows it (regressive assimilation).

In Lumarachi, we have examples showing both progressive and regressive assimilation as shown below:

*Table 10: voice assimilation*

<b>Verb</b>	<b>gloss</b>	<b>sentence</b>	<b>gloss</b>
[Kula]	buy	[ŋgu:la]I buy	
[deχa]	cook	[nde:χa]	I cook
[βiχa]	keep	[mbi:χa]	I keep
[lila]	cry	[ndi:ra]	I cry
[tsia]	go	[nzia]	I go
[pa:nga]	arrange	[mba:nga]	I arrange

This process shows that the nasal always anticipates the place of articulation of the consonant that follows it. As a result of the anticipation the speaker adjusts the place of articulation of the nasal to the preceding consonant. This is termed as progressive assimilation and the rule can be formulated as follows:

- (i)the nasal is realized as [n] before alveolar consonants like [t, d,tʃ,l ]
- (ii)the nasal is realized as [m] before bilabial consonants like [p, b, m]
- (iii)the nasal is realized as [ŋ] before velar consonants like [k, g]

However, it is also important to note that there is regressive assimilation in the third example above. The strengthening of the continuant [β] so that it is realized as a stop because of being preceded by a nasal and succeeded by a vowel.

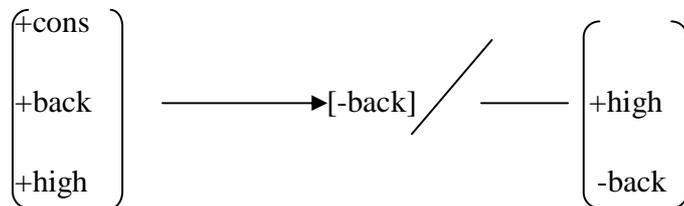
Conclusively, we can talk about voice assimilation happening both progressively and regressively.

### 3.2.2 Palatalization

This is a process whereby a velar consonant is articulated partly in the palatal region due to fronting (Katamba 1989:86) In Lumarachi, when a velar consonant is followed by a front vowel, anticipatory fronting of the part of the tongue that makes contact with the roof of the mouth occurs. For example:

<b>Word</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
[k̠ukhu]	grandmother
[k̠inga]	carry
[kuliɣa]	name

Can be summarized with this rule:



Apart from the velar consonants, alveolar consonants in Lumarachi can also be palatalized when they occur initially followed by a word which begins with an alveo-palatal consonant. For example:

<b>Word</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
[ʃjalo]	world
[ʃjanua]	offertory

### 3.2.3 Labialization

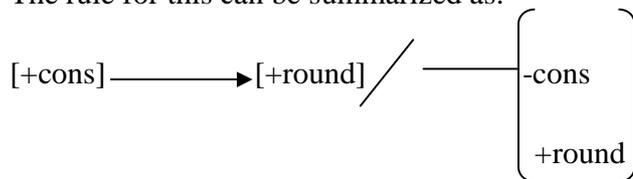
This is an assimilation process that has the effect of rounding the lips before the articulation of the consonant is completed in anticipation of the next segment which is a rounded vowel. (Katamba 1989:87) In Lumarachi, simultaneous labialization occurs, where both lip rounding and protrusion occur. Take this example for instance:

Word	phonetic transcript	gloss
Munyu	[m <sup>w</sup> uŋ <sup>w</sup> u]	soup
Mundu	[m <sup>w</sup> und <sup>w</sup> u]	person

Transitional labialization is also is also evident in Lumarachi where the lip rounding and protusion is seen at the end of the main articulation as part of transition to the next segment. For example:

Word	transcription	Gloss
Luikho	[l <sup>w</sup> uikho]	relation
Khuira	[χ <sup>w</sup> uira]	kill

The rule for this can be summarized as:



### 3.2.4 Nasalization

According to (Katamba 1989:93) nasalization is a feature that is assimilated by vowels. He says it is possible to find vowels that that are always nasal and which are presumed to be underlying nasals.

(Clark and Yallop 1995:32) describe this process as a moment when the velum is lowered to allow air to flow through the nasal cavity as well as through the oral cavity during the production of vowels.

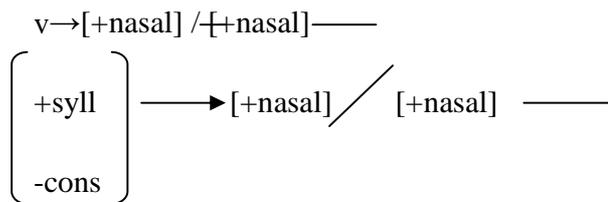
In prenasalization, as it happens in Lumarachi, a component of nasal articulation occurs in the initial part of the basic articulation of a segment. For example:

<b>Word</b>	<b>phonetic form</b>	<b>gloss</b>
Mbundu	[mbundu]	uncooked particles of flour
Indaa	[indaa]	lice

Vowels appearing in the environment following a nasal, the vowel acquires the nasality feature in Lumarachi. For example:

<b>Word</b>	<b>phonetic form</b>	<b>gloss</b>
Inyumba	[ɪɲumba]	house
Ni:na	[ni:na]	climb

It is evident that the nasal before the vowel affects the vowel after it and can therefore be summarized as:



Another instance of nasalization in Lumarachi is when the vowel appears immediately before a nasal consonant so that the nasalization is termed regressive:

<b>Word</b>	<b>phonetic form</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
Omwana	[omwana]	child

Indika

[indika]

bicycle

As the speaker pronounces the above vowels in anticipation of the articulation of a nasal consonant appearing immediately after a vowel, the velum adjusts itself early thus nasalizing the vowel preceding the nasal.

The rule may be stated as:

$/v/ \rightarrow [+nasal] / - [+nasal]$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} +syll \\ -cons \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow [+nasal] / - [+nasal]$

Lastly, nasalization in Lumarachi also occurs where a vowel appears after a nasal and consonant that are clustered together, whereby, the consonant has been harmonized to the nasal. Examples of these include:

<b>Word</b>	<b>phonetic form</b>	<b>gloss</b>
Ndema	[ndema]	I cut
Ngonya	[ <sup>ŋ</sup> gonɲa]	I search

It is important to note that the above illustrations of nasalization in Lumarachi are unmarked.

### 3.2.5 Vowel Harmony

(Hyman 1975:233) defines vowel harmony as an assimilatory process by which vowels and some phonetic features agree. Vowel harmony can either be a segmental or a supra-segmental feature. This study will deal vowel harmony as a segmental feature.

In Lumarachi, vowel harmony is attested in the demonstratives and nouns pointed out by the demonstratives. The demonstratives are determined by the nouns in question. The vowels can be shown or summarized as follows:

Table 11: vowel harmony

<b>Noun</b>	<b>demonstrative (singular)</b>	<b>Noun</b>	<b>demonstrative (plural)</b>	<b>gloss</b>
[omwana]	[ojo]	[ abana]	[aβo]	that child/ those children
[esisala]	[eso]	[tsisala]	[etso]	that chair/ those chairs
[sitabo]	[sino]	[βitabo]	[βino]	that book/ those books
[liχande]	[lino]	[maχande]	[ako]	that knife/ those knives

### 3.3 Elision

This refers to the omission of sounds in connected speech. Both consonants and vowels may be affected and even whole syllables elided.

In Lumarachi, elision may occur in fast speech. For example:

<b>Sentence</b>	<b>gloss</b>	<b>fast speech</b>
[ndi nende ibagi]	I have a bag	[ndi nde ibagi]
[li mu inzu]	it is in the house	[ili munzu]

The syllable /ne/ and the vowel /i/ which acts as the prefix has been omitted.

### 3.4 Vowel lengthening

In Lumarachi, vowels are lengthened to emphasize. Usually occurs in the environment between consonants. Consider these examples:

<b>Word</b>	<b>gloss</b>
[ti:ra]	hold
[sa:mba]	burn/ roast
[χomba]	lick

The rule can be written as such:

$$V \rightarrow [+long] / \text{---} [+cons]$$

### 3.5 Vowel coalescence

This is a process where two vowels are replaced by a single vowel which shares the features of the replaced vowels. In Lumarachi, some nouns illustrate this feature especially in their plural form:

<b>Underlying form</b>	<b>phonetic</b>	<b>gloss</b>
Aba+efi	[abefi]	thieves
Aba+ana	[abana]	children

Emi+uya

[emuja]

airs

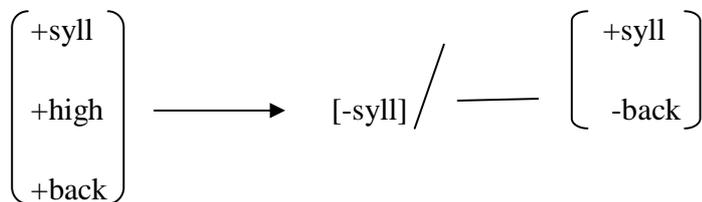
### 3.6 Glide formation

This is also known as devocalization. This is whereby glides are formed with changes affecting the major class features. In Lumarachi, when the high back vowel /u/ is followed by any other vowel other than itself and /o/, it glides into /w/. Here are the examples:

Underlying form	phonetic form	gloss
Omu+ana	[omwana]	child
Omu+ifi	[omwifi]	thief
Omu+ebusi	[omwebusi]	parent

The rule can be summarized as such:

/u/ → /w/ / — [a,e,i]



### 3.7 Epenthesis

This is the process which allows insertion of a sound into a word. Insertions occur to alter the syllable structure especially of a borrowed word to fit into the phonology of a language in question. In this case to form an open syllable structure of CV which is characteristic of Lumarachi.

There are three types of epenthesis namely: prosthesis, paragoge and anaptyxis. All these three are present in Lumarachi.

### 3.7.1 Prosthesis

This is whereby a sound is inserted initially in a word. The following are examples:

Table 12: prosthesis

<b>Word</b>	<b>phonetic form</b>	<b>gloss</b>
idirisha	[ridirisha]	window
Riembe	[riembe]	mango
Sijiko	[sijiko]	spoon
Igilasi	[igilasi]	glass

It is important to note that the vowels are added to the words initially to act as a number marker. The above process can be formalized as:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow [+syll] / - [+stem]$$

### 3.7.2 Paragoge

This is whereby a sound is added to the end of a word. In most cases, it is the vowel that is added. In order to create acceptable syllable structure vowels are inserted word finally. The following examples in Limarachi will illustrate this:

Table 13: paragoge

<b>Word</b>	<b>Phonetic form</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
Isukuli	[isukuli]	school
Iparedi	[iparedi]	parade
Itochi	[itochi]	torch
Isukari	[isukari]	sugar

Most of the words that have the vowel insertion at the end are not originally Lumarachi words. Most of the words are loan words from English. The rule can be summarized as such:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow [+syll] / [+cons] -\#$$

### 3.7.3 Anaptyxis

This is whereby an extra vowel is inserted between consonants especially in borrowed words. Lumarachi does not allow a sequence of two consonants within a syllable unless the preceding consonant is a nasal. To break the consonant clusters that may happen in Lumarachi, a vowel is inserted between these consonants to create acceptable syllable structure as shown in these examples:

Table 14: anaptyxis

Word	phonetic form	gloss
Itiripu	[itiripu]	trip
Ijipu [idʒipu]	jeep	
Ipulani	[ipulani]	plan
Igilasi	[igilasi]	glass
Iburashi	[iburafɪ]	brush

This process can be summarized as follows:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow [+syll] / [+cons] - [+cons]$$

### 3.8 Introduction Lumarachi Morphological Processes

Morphological processes are those that deal with word formation in different languages of the world. They can be summarized under two main processes namely: Inflection and Derivation. When we talk about inflectional word formation we are looking at processes that express grammatical distinctions like number, tense, person, case among others but does not change the category; whereas derivational word formation are those that deal with formation of new lexemes or word forms .(Lieber 2009:7)

### 3.9 Lumarachi Morphological Processes

The processes that are found in Lumarachi are as follows:

- (a) Affixation- In Lumarachi we have prefixation which occur on the inflected nouns that show number or plural. For example:

*Table 15: prefixation on inflection*

<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
[omwifi]	- [aβefi]	Thief/ thieves
[Sikombe]	- [βikombe]	cup/cups
[liβuju]	- [maβuju]	egg/eggs
[imbwa]	- [tsimbwa]	dog/ dogs

So this shows that inflection is through prefixation. Then we have affixation also under derivation where we have nouns being derived from verbs. For example:

*Table 16: prefixation on Derivation*

<b>Verb</b>	<b>gloss</b>	<b>Noun</b>	<b>gloss</b>
[χola]	do	[Omuχoli]	worker
[ira]	kill	[muiiri]	killer
[ria]	fear	[muriiri]	coward

(b) Suprafixation / tone- Whereas English is a stress language, Lumarachi is a tonal language. Marlo (2007). (Okombo 1982:26) notes the basic patterns of tone as:

High (H)	[/]
Low (L)	[-]
Down stepped	[!/]

This study will make use of the low (L) and High (H) tone as the basic tone in Lumarachi. In this case, change in tone signify difference in words. For example:

Table 17: *Tone*

<b>Word</b>	<b>Tone</b>	<b>gloss</b>
Omulosi	HH	Whistle
	LH	Wizard
Omusala	HL	Medicine
	LL	Tree
Indaa	HL	stomach
	LL	Lice

(c) Reduplication- In this process, a piece of the root is repeated. Material is added just like in affixation but the added material identity is partially or wholly determined by the base. For example:

Table 18: *reduplication*

<b>Word</b>	<b>reduplication</b>	<b>gloss</b>
[kala]	kalakala	slowly
[luangu]	luangulangu	quickly
[tira]	tiratira	do something casually

**CHAPTER FOUR: MOTHER TONGUE INFLUENCE IN ENGLISH LEARNING  
AMONG LUMARACHI SPEAKERS.**

**4.1 Introduction**

This chapter analyses data collected from the written compositions. The analysis is done with the help of tables and diagrams as explanations are given. This chapter also groups the errors according to word classes, phonological and morphological errors. The errors of MTI are accompanied by explanations, comparisons and predictions.

Table 19 shows the distribution of the respondents sample across the four schools

Table 19: Distribution of respondents by sampled schools

<b>SCHOOLS</b>	<b>MALE</b>	<b>FEMALE</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
Butula Boys' High School	16		16
Busiada Girls' High School	–	16	16
Buyimba Mixed School	8	8	16
St. Peter's Bumala B mixed school	8	8	16
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>64</b>

As indicated in the table above, the sample consisted of 64 students randomly selected from four secondary schools in rural Butula Sub-County. The students were selected across forms 1 to 4 with equal gender representation. This was to ensure that every sector of the population was presented without prejudice. Each subject was given an imaginative composition and dialogue to write entitled 'The day I will never forget' and 'a dialogue seeking permission from parent/s to attend end of year school party respectively. All the compositions tests were written and submitted in time. From the 64 compositions distributed for the imaginative, all were collected, but 50 compositions were collected for the dialogue writing as some students failed to turn up on the days the composition writing test was carried out. Table 7 shows the responses as received by the researcher.

Table 20: Distribution of respondents by type of composition

Schools	Imaginative	Dialogue
Butula boys high school	16	16
Busiada girls' high school	16	14
Buyimba mixed high school	16	10
Bumala B mixed high school	16	10
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>50</b>

#### 4.2 Phonological errors

This is a summary of all the phonological errors collected with regards to the different processes of interest such as assimilation, vowel displacement, elision, vowel lengthening, vowel coalescence, epenthesis and strengthening.

Table 21: Phonological processes

Class	assimilation	displacement	elision	lengthening	coalescence	epenthesis	strengthening
form 1	68	74	49	29	63	92	118
form 2	83	82	48	27	68	110	83
form 3	82	77	50	35	79	74	72
form 4	83	65	44	36	48	60	40
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>316</b>	<b>298</b>	<b>191</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>258</b>	<b>336</b>	<b>313</b>

Sometimes a change in one sound may bring about a change in the meaning of the word, to an extent that communication is hampered. Take an example of what was found in the compositions:

Hunt      Tall      Can  
 Hand      Doll      Gun

- a) My friend went into the forest to *hand* animals.

- b) She stood there *doll* and elegant.
- c) Her sister was playing with a *gan* of fruits.

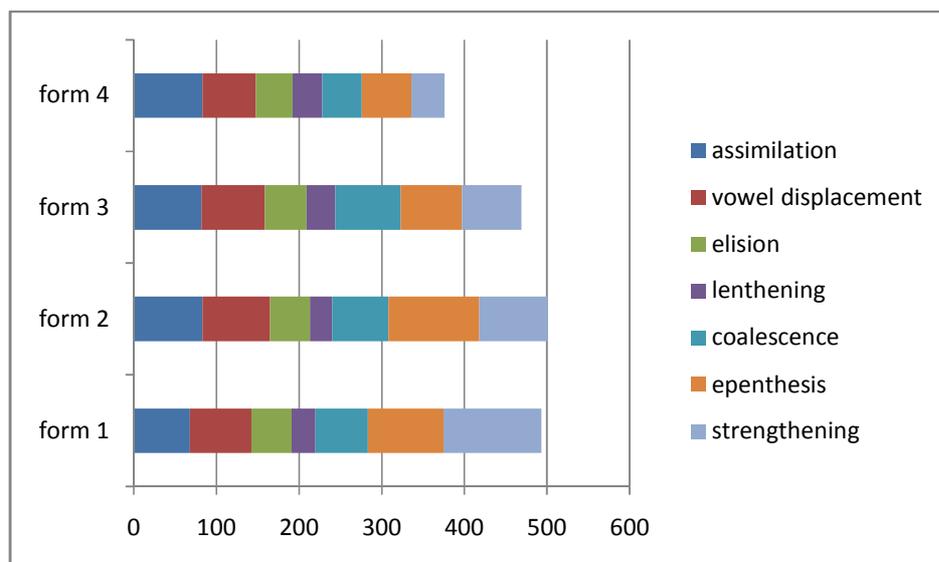
In this case, the mispronunciation of some words like above led the learner to misspell the words in question. So where the voiceless counterpart was required, the voiced one was given and vice versa. In the case of (a) the consonant cluster ‘nd’ exists in Lumarachi while ‘nt’ exists in English. The subject elicits the consonant cluster he is aware of rather than the one in the language being learnt.

Most of the errors made are due to the difference in sound systems, due to misinterpretation of spelling symbols, and the grammatical rules of the languages in question. The ability to pronounce the structures or words is as important as the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Even the simplest words misspoken or misarranged keep one away from communicating effectively as shown above.

### 4.3 Interference due to Phonological Processes

In terms of phonological errors, the study focused on finding the instances of interference with respect to the processes of voice assimilation, elision, vowel lengthening, coalescence and epenthesis. Figure 2 below shows the type of errors due to interference in the phonological processes across the classes.

Figure 2: Overall levels of phonological errors due to phonological processes



The phonological processes elicited almost equal number of errors in almost all the classes. The highest number of errors produced was due to epenthesis, vowel strengthening, vowel coalescence, vowel displacement and assimilation.

#### **4.4 Results of Analysis of Phonological Errors**

From the production of English by the sample learners, it was evident that there were pronunciation difficulties or problems that were encountered. This clearly suggests that the sound systems of both English and Lumarachi contrast remarkably. A number of difficulties that were observed must have arisen from the difference between the two languages.

Evident was the **vowel displacement** by the learners. MAR has fewer vowels as compared to those of ENG, meaning that the learner has more new vowels to learn and distinguish. A specific area of difficulty in English was the differentiation in the place of usage of the short and the long vowel. The following illustrations can certify this.

- i) I was now tired of this\* people, instead of these people.
- ii) John arrived fast\*, then Moses came second. The long vowel is obviously in the word first.

This phenomenon accounted for many spelling errors committed in the learners' essays.

Another area of difficulty with the vowels is what we may term as **vowel insertion or epenthesis**. The learners from Lumarachi tend to break up the English consonant clusters by inserting a vowel, especially [i, e or a] between them to create a sound similar to those common in their language. The examples given below that appeared in the students' compositions attest to the fact and were obviously faulty spellings. For example:

[helep] for [help]

[Milik] for [milk]

[jusiful] for [jusful]

[brandi niju] for [brand new]

[madi gad for [mud guard]

[workaforce for [work force]

Thirdly, there was the problem of simplification of English diphthongs. Vowel blends are rare in Lumarachi than there are in English. From the production of the sample learners, it was observed that many tended to reduce these sounds to the monothongs by omitting one of the component vowel sounds something close to **vowel coalescence**. The frequent examples that gave problems are [ei] and [ou] reduced to [o] or to its closest variant. The following illustration gives proof that transfer of the NL norm affects the SLA.

- a) Miriam was let\* for the party and remained standing at the get\*
- b) The school bus left me behind and it forced me to use my on\* money

Another problem identified by the researcher was that of using the phoneme [h] in initial position of a word. There is the problem of insertion or omission of it. English has what is referred to as semi-vowels or frictionless consonants such sounds include [w, l, j]. The sound is spread through the positions of words. However, the phoneme [h] does not occur in the initial position of Lumarachi words. It is often the voiceless velar fricative [χ] that is used hence words like [χandi] (again) and [χalwale] (the small sickness).

In the case of English, the learner may either omit it where necessary or add it unnecessarily at the beginning of a word. There was evidence of this problem, by looking at the following examples:

- a) Granny was old now and she had no air\* on her head.
- b) Someone was trying to get into the compound over the edge\*
- c) We sat comfortably in the otel\* for our lunch.

These sound and pronunciation difficulties were not only confined to the vowels but also featured in the consonants.

Voicing posed as an area of difficulty to the sample students used in the research. While classifying some English consonants such consonants are put into pairs. The sounds of each pair are produced in the same manner and at the same point of articulation, but one of them in each case is voiced and the other is voiceless.

English sounds which are voiced tend to be articulated with relatively weak energy while the articulation of the voiceless, is relatively strong and emphatic Ellis & Tomlinson, (1980). A look at the sounds like [s, p, t & k] will show that their production requires a strong effort in the Fortis, while sounds like [z, b, d & g] will require a weak effort or the Lenis as defined linguistically.

Lumarachi lacks voiceless consonants in particular positions of a word, for example in the initial and final positions. It is therefore common among the Marachi learners of English to interchange the voiceless and the voiced phonemes in their effort to create a production in English using what is close to their other production in their first language.

The following examples were elicited in the sample students' compositions and obviously resulting to problematic English lexis and phonology.

(a) /b/ for /p/

- She went to meet her employer\* at 3p.m.
- Maize is our stable\*(staple) food
- I could not travel simbly\* (simply) because it rained heavily.

Due to existence of prenasalized consonants in MAR, the students find it comfortable to pre-nasalize the consonants in ENG. The example below is also a case of pre-nasalization but we can also talk about **consonant strengthening** like it happens in MAR when a verb changes to a simple sentence.

(b) /d/ for /t/

- i) Suddenly, the hunder\* (hunter) became the hunded.\* (hunted)
- ii) Sensing an imbending\*(impending) danger, the elephants climbed up the moundain\*.  
(mountain)
- iii) The government would not force him out of the countdy\*.(county)

(c) /s/ for /z/ - (the spelling implies the intended sound)

(i) He cautioned that unless we were careful, we would lose\* (lose) everything.

(ii) Little did I know that I was going to scoop a prize\*(prize) for my effort.

The MAR hardly or never at all, use [z] phoneme and an average learner who has not continuously been exposed to it, would use or produce it correctly.

(d) /g/ for /k/

There were a number of constructions which displayed the Lumarachi voice affinity to the [g] phoneme. This is also a case of **assimilation**.

c) My sister and I stayed with our angle\* (uncle) for six years

d) By the time we returned home the good Samaritan who had taken us under his roof was clocking sigsty\* (sixty)

Since there is no [x] - /eks/ phoneme, the Marachi lump it with either /k/ or /g/

There are affricates that offer serious difficulty and are confusing to the speakers of Lumarachi learning English. This is the Lumarachi [ts] and will be found in words like tsunami but usually the [t] is silent in ENG. This was clearly portrayed in the sample learners' essays by way of spelling.

- The small boy was trying to say sometsing\*
- Before our geographical club left, the recited the national antsem\*
- Rex did not provide and antser\* to the question at all.

Whenever the sound [θ] orthographically written as 'th', some Lumarachi learners will automatically replace it with the affricate [ts] as shown above.

#### 4.5 Analysis of Morphological Errors

With regard to mother tongue interference due to morphological errors, the focus was on usage of: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, clause and articles. As (MacKay 1967:3) points out a "pronunciation"... error may be due to a transfer from the native language; an analogy with something correctly learned in the foreign language; a wild guess, vagueness in remembering the

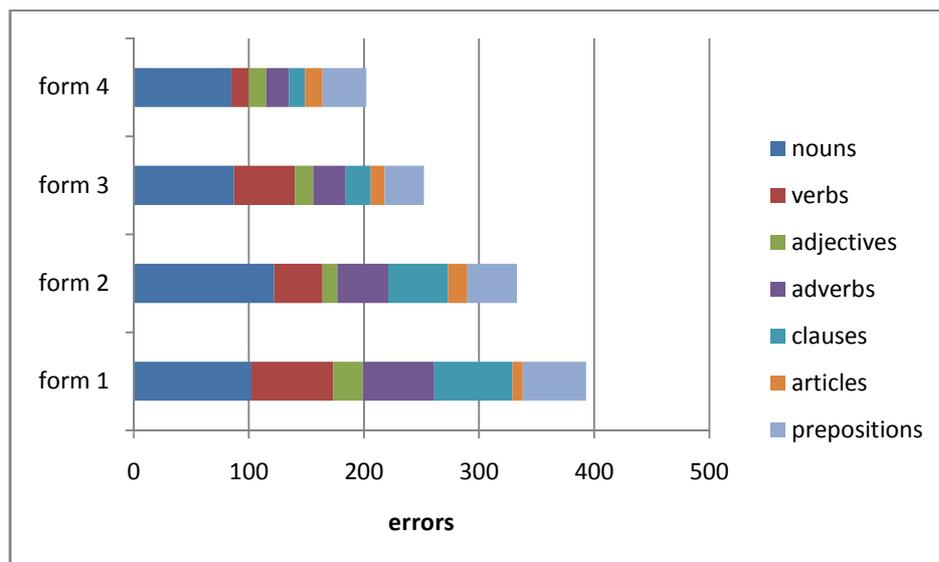
right form; or general lack of accuracy and language skill” of all these, the transfer or interference from the language is the most common one.

The following are examples of the morphological errors that have been identified from the compositions presented by the learners of forms one, two, three and four who were selected as samples for this investigation. The table below summarizes all the morphological errors.

**Table 22:** Total morphological errors

<b>Class</b>	<b>Nouns</b>	<b>verbs</b>	<b>adjectives</b>	<b>adverbs</b>	<b>clauses</b>	<b>articles</b>	<b>prepositions</b>
form 1	102	71	26	62	68	9	55
form 2	122	42	13	44	52	17	43
form 3	87	53	16	28	22	12	34
form 4	85	15	15	20	14	15	38
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>396</b>	<b>181</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>154</b>	<b>156</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>170</b>

*Figure 3: Proportion of overall morphological errors*



The morphological errors were grouped as per the word classes they affected. The examples will be shown later as the errors are contrasted analytically and explained. Overall, the most affected word class was the noun with an error frequency range of 85 – 125, followed by the prepositions with a range of 34 – 55, the others were: adverbs 20-65, verbs 15-72, clauses 14-68, adjectives 13-28 and the articles with a frequency error range of 9-17.

From the table above, we can also see that form ones were the most affected by the MTI. They elicited most of the morphological errors as their errors added to 393, followed by the form twos at 333 errors, then form 3 at 252 errors and the form fours at 202 errors. These are the form ones in all the schools.

#### 4.5.1 Noun Errors

The nouns concerning errors were the highest made. There were 396 noun errors. Here is the summary of the errors per class.

**Table 23:** Total noun errors

<b>Class</b>	<b>Nouns</b>
F1	102
F2	122
F3	87
F4	85
TOTAL	396

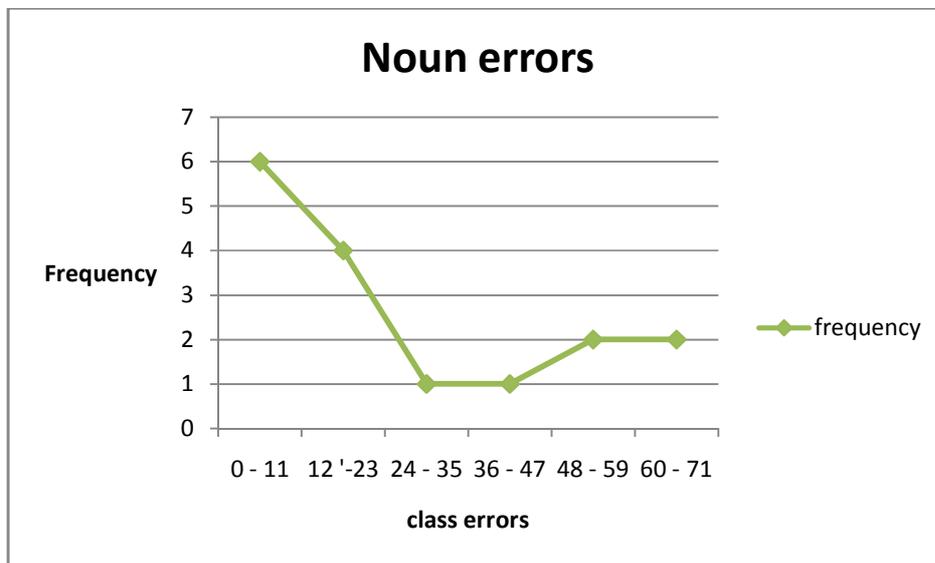
From these errors, a frequency table of as well as the class range for all the noun errors was created. Here is the representation in a table.

**Table 24:**noun class versus frequency table

<b>class of errors</b>	<b>frequency</b>
0 – 11	6
12 -23	4
24 – 35	1
36 – 47	1
48 – 59	2
60 – 71	2

This table means that the noun errors per composition ranged from 5 being the lowest to 71 being the highest. This means that for any composition with a noun error, the errors would be five and above. This information can therefore be summarized as follows in this frequency line chart,

Figure 3: Noun errors frequency.



From the polygon above, most learners made errors concerning nouns ranging from 0 to 30. In the class group 40 to 70, a few exceptional learners made these errors. It was evident in compositions that a number of learners had difficulty in dealing with plurals. Learners failed to realize that not all English nouns form their plural by adding the morpheme 's' at the end of the word. So they had words like:

- a) The man carried the luggages\* to the car.
- b) I removed\* the beddings\* out for drying\*.
- c) My sister went to the supermarket to buy some equipments\*.
- d) That day he came to visit with his childrens\*.
- e) The gigantic man had hairs\* on the head.
- f) When we went for games, everyone removed their shoezes\*.
- g) The cow have\* eaten grass.

### Comparison:

In the above sentence examples, it is clear that the learners have generalized by adding morpheme -s to almost every noun they come across. Clearly seen in all the sentences above it's

important to note here too that what English considers as countable and uncountable nouns is not the case in Lumarachi. Nouns like ‘hair’ and ‘shoes’ do have plural forms in Lumarachi e.g.

[liswi] (hair) – [maswi] (hairs)

[Silaro] (shoe) – [bilaro] (shoes)

Then, for pluralisation in Lumarachi, the morphological process involved is prefixation unlike suffixation in English.

Sentence (b) is also a special case of direct translations for words like ‘removing’ and ‘drying’ for this sentence can be put this way in Lumarachi:

[nda+la+rus+i+a eβuriri lwanyi βiome]

1PS-FUT-remove-APPL-FV bedding out to dry.

### **Explanation:**

So a Lumarachi native speaker carries over such knowledge as above and elicits a sentence like in ‘g’ where the noun ‘cow’ does not have a plural marker, so it becomes an error. The correct sentences should have been:

- a) The man carried the luggage to the car.
- b) I took the bedding out for airing.
- c) My sister went to the supermarket to buy some equipment.
- d) That day he came to visit with his children.
- e) The gigantic man had a lot of hair on the head.
- f) When we went for games, everyone took off their shoes.
- g) The cow has eaten grass.

### **4.5.2 Errors Related to Pronouns**

Misuse of pronouns was witnessed in some essays, especially the personal pronouns.

For example:

- a) I told him the boy she\* is my brother.
- b) That morning the woman went to the forest. He\* came back with lot of firewood.
- c) Is who?\*
- d) The dog jumped at it\*. (referring to a child)

- e) The door it\* hit her
- f) The man he\* always came late.
- g) The tree fell on him, that man\*.

**Comparison and explanations:**

From examples (a) and (b) above, there's the use of pronouns with inappropriate gender. This is because the pronoun in the native language is gender free unlike in English where it is gender specific so it causes difficulty to the learner. In example (c): There's omission of the pronoun. In Lumarachi, the question would be:

ne wina? Meaning 'is who?'

so this is learner's IL approximation of TL which turns out to be faulty and directly translated.

In examples (e) and (f), the noun is used together with the pronoun that represents them because of the agglutination that occurs in MAR unlike in ENG. This is how it is represented in MAR:

[muliangokwa+mu+tuom+ere]

Door-SG SA-OA-hit-pr.prf

[musatsa oyo ye+tsa+nga nachelewe.

Man that 3PS-come-pr.ongoing-when late.

whereas in example (g), there's use of the pronoun together with the demonstrative. This happens in Lumarachi, since they do not have determiners, they tend to use demonstratives in place of determiners; and the demonstratives occur together with the nouns and pronouns they refer to unlike in ENG. In this case, the native speaker uses both the pronoun and the noun in a sentence, as well as a demonstrative and a noun. For example:

[musatsa oyo, musala kwa+mu+kwir+i+ra]

Man that tree SA-OA-fall(PASSIVE)-APPL-IND

“In this case, the affix for SA is interpreted by the native learner to stand for the pronoun.”

Example (d) exhibits a unique case whereby in Lumarachi diminutives exist. They can be used to show how little something is and the attitude of speaker towards what he or she speaks about. The sentence in Lumarachi would be something like:

[imbwa irumirire χana αχo]

The dog jumped at that 'little' child

The correct sentences should have been:

- (a) I told him the boy was my brother.
- (b) That morning the woman went to the forest. She came back with firewood.
- (c) Who is it?
- (d) The dog jumped at him/ her.
- (e) The door hit her.
- (f) The man always came late.
- (g) The tree fell on the man.

**Prediction:**

Learners are like to have MTI cases where pronouns and demonstratives occur. Agglutination may also bring about wrong constructions in the TL.

**4.5.3 Errors Related to Verbs**

In this sub-section, we look at examples of the errors that affected the verbs. The verb errors per class are as presented here:

**Table 25:** Total verb errors

<b>Class</b>	<b>verbs</b>
form 1	71
form 2	42
form 3	53
form 4	15
<b>TOTAL</b>	181

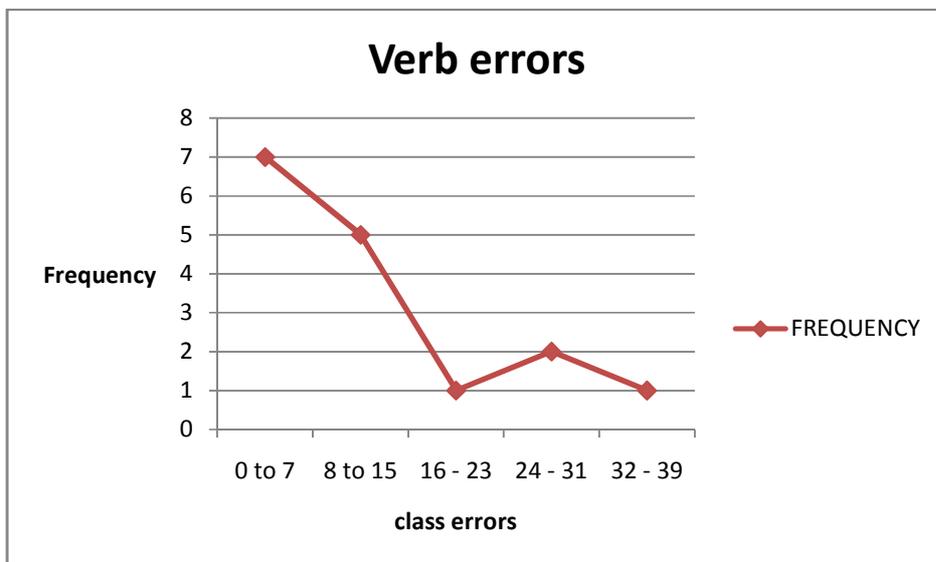
From the data above, the class and frequency table created is as shown:

**Table 26:** Verb frequency/ class table

CLASS	FREQUENCY
0 to 7	7
8 to 15	5
16 - 23	1
24 - 31	2
32 - 39	1

The total number of verb errors was 181. These are the total verb errors across the 4 schools and among 114 compositions collected. From this data, the frequency and verb class errors was created to come up with this frequency line chart:

Figure 5: Total verb errors



From the figure above it is clear that most learners made errors ranging from 5 to 20 of the total number of errors. This means that most learners made errors with regards to verbs ranging 5-15. The 20 to 40 class of errors was almost evenly distributed.

Here is how the verbs were misused. Take these examples:

- a) He like\* ugali.
- b) I have\* read English yesterday before I slept.
- c) The child cried tears\* when the mother left her.
- d) The people laughed laughs.\*
- e) I am\*with\* book.
- f) He cutted\* the cow's ropes.

#### **Comparison and explanation:**

From the above examples, sentence (a) depicts knowledge of learner's NL that subject-verb agreement in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person on the verbs is absent. This is not the case; it is only covert unlike in ENG where it is overt. The learner therefore transfers this knowledge to ENG construction therefore creating an error. In sentence (b), the learner uses the past participle verb "have" to show past tense as it happens in Lumarachi, for example:

[Somere lusungu mungoloße] (I have read English yesterday).

In Lumarachi, the equivalent word for 'study' is read so the learner carries this over to the TL. Absence of equivalent auxiliary verb like 'has', 'have' and 'had' to mark the perfect aspect in Lumarachi makes the native speakers find difficulty in adopting these English auxiliaries. Additionally, because Lumarachi is an agglutinating language, it has the aspect affixes attached to the root. Sentence (e) also falls in this category, though it can be viewed as a direct translation too. The learner fails to use the auxiliary verb showing the perfect aspect therefore leading to the ungrammaticality. It would be grammatically correct if put in Lumarachi:

[ndinende sitaβo]. (I am with book, meaning I have a book)

Sentence (c) and (d) show that transitive and intransitive verbs differ between English and Lumarachi. These two examples would be correct when said in Lumarachi, consider:

- a. [mwana jariramasika] (The child cried tears)
- b. [βandu batseχa tsinzexo]. (People laughed laughs)

Sentence (f) is a case of generalization where the morphological process for past tense formation is through suffixation of –ed or –d in English so the learner uses this knowledge on every verb. The correct sentences should have been:

- (a) He likes Ugali.
- (b) I studied English yesterday before I slept.
- (c) The child cried when the mother left her.
- (d) The people laughed.
- (e) I have a book.
- (f) He cut the cow's ropes.

### **Prediction:**

From the findings above, MAR native speakers learning ENG will tend to have problems with perfect aspect marking, past tense marking, overt SVA marking and differentiating transitive and intransitive verbs in the respective languages.

### **4.5.4 Errors Related to Adjectives**

Examples:

- a) I saw a (car of white)\*.
- b) He lived in a (house big)\*.
- c) I am tall\* more\* than him

d) The boy was thin\* amongst\* all.

e) The snake was very very\* long.

**Comparison and explanations:**

In Lumarachi, adjectives post modify nouns unlike in ENG where they sometimes pre-modifiers in the case of attributive adjectives. For example:

[ndalolamutokaakwarachari] – I saw a white car

(I saw car of white)

[yamenya mu inzuikhongo] (He lives in house big).

In the case of examples (c) and (d), it is clear that the NL show comparative and superlative forms with separate words or in comparison to others like in the superlative. For example;

[ndimurambiχumushira] (I am tall past him/her)

[musianiojoyalimunyelele χushiraβosi] (Boy that was thin amongst all ).

This is unlike English comparatives and superlative forms formed from suffixation of –er for comparative and –est for superlative in the case of monosyllabic or disyllabic adjectives. Sentence (e) is also a case of MTI since there's no equivalent for superlative form 'longest', instead the repetition of the adverb 'very' is used to emphasize on the length in Lumarachi. For example:

[inzuχayaliindambisananasana] (The snake was long very very very).

Or

[inzuχαjali indambi ya makana] (The snake was long(of amazing size) )

The correct sentences should have been:

(a) I saw a white car.

(b) He lived in a big house.

(c) I am taller than him.

(d) He was the thinnest of them all.

(e) The snake was very long.

**Prediction:**

MTI in MAR native speakers learning ENG is likely to occur in cases where adjectives' arrangement in a sentence and comparison are likely to be.

**4.5.5 Errors Related to Adverbs**

**Table 27:**Total adverb errors

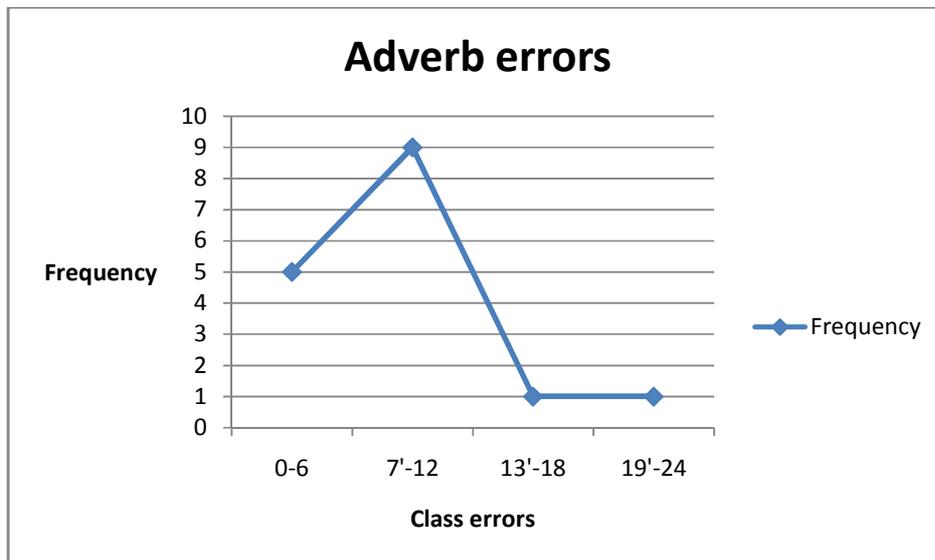
<b>Class</b>	<b>adverbs</b>
form 1	62
form 2	44
form 3	28
form 4	20
<b>TOTAL</b>	154

This table shows the total verb errors per class. Form 1 had the highest number of errors followed by form 2, form 3 and then form 4 as shown. Here is how the errors were distributed per the number of errors:

**Table 28:** adverb class-frequency table

<b>Class</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
0-6	5
7-12	9
13-18	1
19-24	1

Figure5: Frequency of adverb errors



These were some of the errors concerning adverbs in sentences.

- a) The policeman came *quickly quickly* and arrested the man.
- b) Instead of reading, they were busy *playing playing*.
- c) He sat there watching people *dancing dancing*.

#### **Comparison and explanation:**

These examples were a clear indication of the morphological process of reduplication that happens in Lumarachi (and not in ENG) and was carried over for a different meaning of expression in ENG where the meaning would be represented as:

[luanguluangu] - quickly quickly-meaning very quickly.

[βajaβajanga] – play playing-meaning joking/ fooling around.

[ʃinashinanga]- dance dancing- meaning dance repeatedly.

The correct sentences should have been:

- (a) The policeman came very quickly.
- (b) Instead of studying, they were busy fooling around.
- (c) He sat there watching people dancing continuously.

#### **Prediction:**

MAR learners of ENG are likely to impose reduplication process on certain words to try and bring out the same meaning like in their MT, in which case they create errors.

#### **4.5.6 Errors Related to Articles**

There were errors with regards to articles' usage. Consider:

- d) He has cup.
- e) She wanted spoon not plate.
- f) Once upon a time there lived a man. That man was very rich. That man liked to go to shamba.

#### **Comparison and explanation:**

In examples **(a)** and **(b)** there is omission of the necessary articles to make the structures grammatical. This is because Lumarachi has no articles equivalent to ENG 'a', 'an' and 'the' but uses the demonstratives as the articles. This explains example **(c)** where the demonstrative has been repeated severally in place of the definite article 'the'.

The correct sentences should have been:

- (a) He has a cup.
- (b) She wanted a spoon and not a plate.
- (c) Once upon a time there lived a man. The man was very rich and he liked to go to the shamba.

#### **Prediction:**

Omission of articles in ENG and replacement of article 'the' with a demonstrative is likely to be made as an MTI error by a MAR NS learning ENG.

#### **4.5.7 Prepositional errors**

The total preposition errors collected was 170. These were the errors per class:

**Table 29:** Total preposition errors

<b>Class</b>	<b>prepositions</b>
form 1	55
form 2	43
form 3	34
form 4	38
<b>TOTAL</b>	170

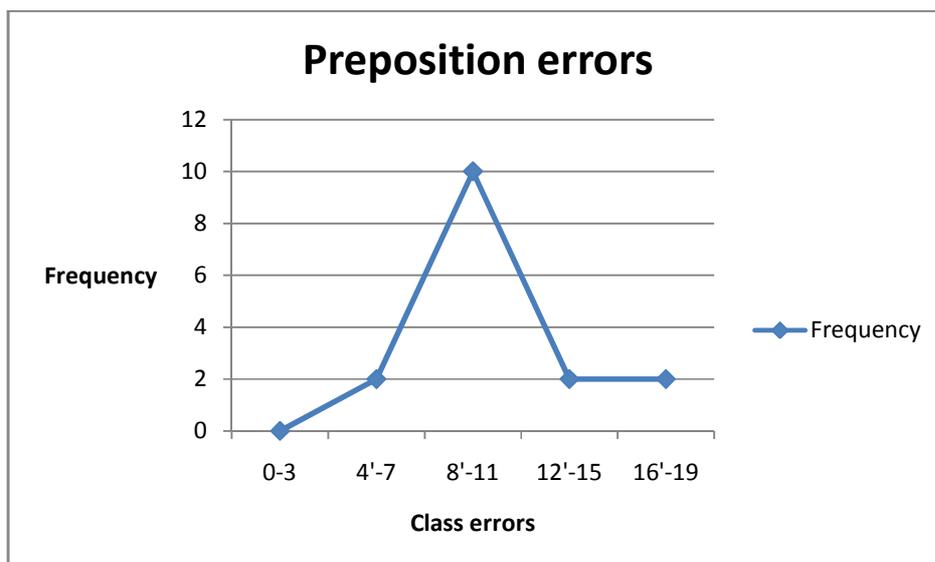
From these errors, a frequency and class error table was created to show the frequency distribution on a line chart. The table below shows this information:

**Table 30:** preposition class/frequency table

<b>class</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
0-3	0
4-7	2
8-11	10
12-15	2
16-19	2

From the class above, it is clear that most compositions had errors concerning verbs between 8 and 11; which occurred upto 10 times. The other class errors had same frequencies except for the 0-3 class which had none. The prepositional errors can be summarized in a chart as follows:

Figure 7: prepositional errors



These are some of the errors caused due to MTI:

- (a) Reach at home.
- (b) We were told to enter the school bus.
- (c) I ate with the speed of lightening.
- (d) The student concentrated with his work.

#### **Comparison and explanation:**

From the examples given, these sentences and clauses are faulty. The learner directly translates the phrases from the NL and the result is interference in ENG. Most prepositions in ENG observe collocation rules, if not, they are violated and so become ungrammatical. Due to limited prepositions in MAR, compared to ENG most students who are MAR NS tend to use the limited preposition vocabularies from their MT or get confused at the large repertoire of prepositions in English so they shy away from learning how to use them.

The correct sentences should have been:

- (a) Reach home.
- (b) We were told to get into the school bus.
- (c) I ate in lightning speed.
- (d) The student concentrated on his work.

### **Prediction:**

Preposition collocation is likely to cause errors of MTI among MAR native speakers who are learning English.

### **4.5.8 Errors related to clauses**

These are some of the errors made:

- (a) That day I did not go to the market. Because I went to school yesterday.
- (b) Although he came early but he did not find him.
- (c) The boy was in pain and he did not cry.
- (d) Mother told me to choose; to go to school and stay at home.

### **Comparison and explanation:**

From the above sentences, it is clear that learners used the conjunctions inappropriately in the case of sentence (c) and (d). This could be as a result of limited conjunctions in Lumarachi compared to the numerous ones in ENG which the learner has to learn. Sentence (b) used two subordinating conjunctions in the same sentence. This is a clear indication of MTI. Consider the same example in MAR:

[kata ni-etsa mapema si-a-mu-nyola ta.]

although SA-come early NEG-SA-OA-find NEG

There is double negation in this sentence unlike in ENG, the learner carries the same idea of double marking to portray double contrast in the sentence above, which becomes an error in ENG.

Sentence (c) uses 'and' where 'but' is needed. This is typical of Lumarachi because there is no equivalent 'but' in ENG. consider:

[omusiani yaulila βutsuni na si-a-[i]a ta]

The boy felt pain and NEG-SA-cry NEG

Sentence (a) is an error as a result of a hanging subordinating clause. This is as a result of MTI because MAR allows to begin a sentence with a subordinating clause and to be left hanging, consider:

[jikira a-le-tsa ni ta ni sii?]

because SA-FUT-come is NEG what?

The correct sentences should have been:

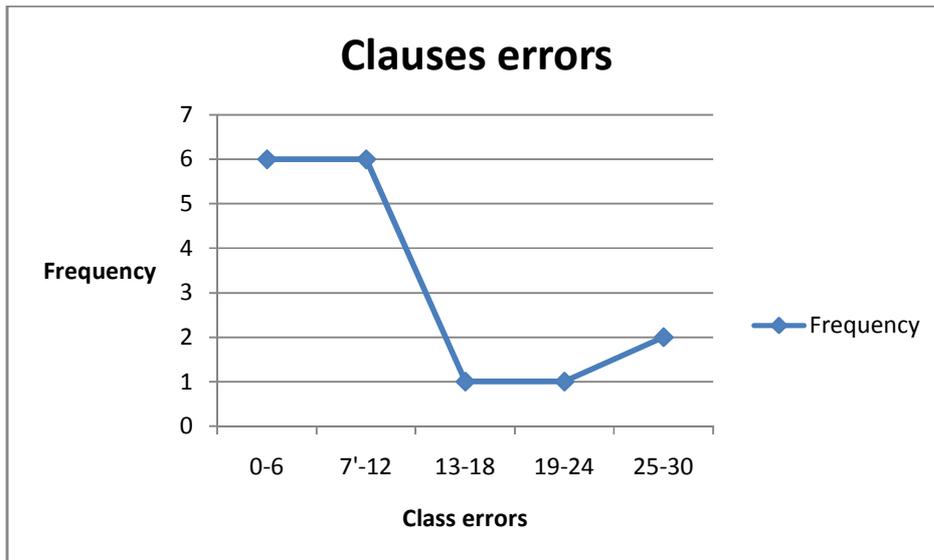
- (a) I did not go to the market because I went to school.
- (b) Although he came early, he did not find him.

(c) The boy was in pain but he did not cry.

(d) Mother told me to either go to school or stay at home.

These errors can be summarized with this diagram:

Figure 8: clauses



#### 4.6 Summary of results

This chapter has tried to elucidate the learners' responses as portrayed. It has also attempted to highlight the various types of errors as they manifested themselves in the various essays that were written from the various forms from the selected schools. This chapter has also analyzed the data collected through contrasting the two languages as guided by the morphological and phonological rules. Phonological versus morphological errors have also been looked at in details displaying in diagrams the data collected. This is a table showing total error per school:

**Table 31:** morphological errors per school

<b>SCHOOL INITIALS</b>	<b>ERRORS</b>
<b>BTL</b>	298
<b>BSD</b>	520
<b>BYA</b>	681
<b>BMA</b>	808
<b>TOTAL</b>	2307

In diagrams this study will summarize as follows: morphological errors were the highest errors made by the students, followed by the phonological errors and then other errors that are neither morphologically or phonologically oriented and also not as a result of MTI. These other errors were as a result of misspelling, inconsistent tense sequence, absurd idiomatic expression, wrong sentence structure, misuse of passives and errors of expression.

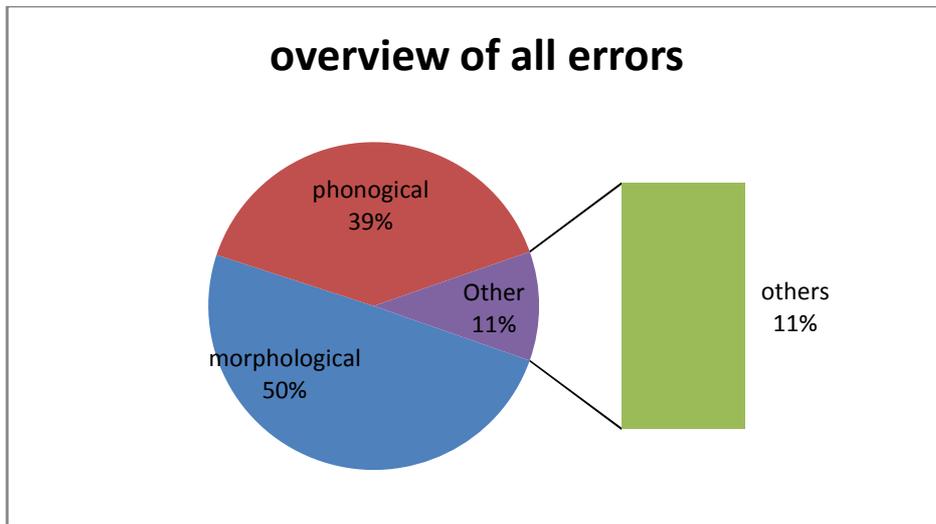
Consider:

**Table 32:** Total type of errors

<b>TYPE OF ERRORS</b>	<b>NO. OF ERRORS</b>
<b>morphological</b>	2307
<b>phonological</b>	1839
<b>others</b>	500

The data above can be summarized in this pie chart as:

Figure 9: Overview of all errors



This is to say that most errors, more than ninety percent accounted for the MTI in the learning of the second language which is ENG in this study.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Summary**

This chapter provides a summary of findings and recommendations based on the course of the investigation. The main aim of the study was to determine the extent of mother tongue interference in the learning of English as a second language among the Lumarachi native speakers. This was determined through interrogation of 64 Lumarachi native speakers students' compositions randomly selected in four high schools. Effort was made to identify and compare the structures of the two languages in question where the similarities and differences were realized. For the investigation to achieve its objectives, it was important to review literature on language transfer and also review the theory of CAH. Literature review provided the conceptual framework for investigating mother tongue interference among Lumarachi native speakers in secondary school learners. Compositions for this study were used to collect data from learners.

The results revealed that learners persistently portrayed mother tongue interference in their daily learning of English. This could be one of the reasons for poor performance in English as a subject. The errors were identified from learners' written work, which comprised of the use of auxiliaries, tenses, concords, articles, prepositions, pronouns, plurals etc.

### **5.2 Conclusion**

With regards to the hypotheses, it is true to say that the data analyzed confirms that mother tongue interference in the effort of the Lumarachi speaking learners to learn English is due to phonological and morphological related errors. The study revealed that, MTI occurred at different levels such as syntactic, morphological, and phonological and even the lexical level. This interference impacts greatly in the students' effort to acquire and learn English. This may confirm their poor performance in English as a subject in their national examinations irrespective of other variables.

The study indicated that, most of the learners suffered from MTI, over generalization and inaccurate application of the rules of English language. The frequency of morphological errors was very high compared to phonological errors. The inaccurate application of the rules was attributed to the learners carrying over their native language's rules and applying them on

formation of morphological structures in English. There was also an element of over simplification of application of the rules.

### **5.2.1 Phonological Processes**

Phonological processes like assimilation and epenthesis contributed the most to elicitation of MTI while elision and vowel lengthening contributed the least. The processes affected all the classes: form 1 to form 4 almost 'equally' unlike the morphological errors which were varied. The phonological processes facilitating MTI are many compared to the morphological processes.

### **5.2.2 The Morphological Errors**

Findings from the written compositions showed that, errors occurred on all the grammatical constituents. With regard to nouns, faulty pluralization in English occurred because of generalization of suffixation of –s on all nouns; NL and TL difference in their view of countable and uncountable nouns and difference in their morphological process of pluralization where Lumarachi dealt with prefixation while English dealt with suffixation therefore interference occurred.

Secondly, with pronouns there was use of personal pronouns with inappropriate gender because the native learners' language is gender free and there's no restriction to pronouns belonging to males or females. Usage of both demonstratives and pronouns in the same sentence reflected the MAR language.

Thirdly, absence of overt subject-verb agreement of 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronoun with the verb in the NL caused the native lumarachi speaker to produce such sentences in TL thus interference occurred. Absence of the auxiliary 'have' in Lumarachi makes it difficult for learners to adopt this so they tend to use the past participle to portray the past tense. There's also generalization where the morphological process for PT formation is through suffixation of –ed or –d. The learner therefore uses them on every past tense formation.

Fourthly, the difference in placement of the adjective brought about the errors as English places the adjective before the noun it describes while Lumarachi places the adjective after the noun it

describes. The difference in the formation of comparatives and superlatives also created errors. In English, both the comparative and superlative forms were formed through suffixation while in Lumarachi it was by use of separate words. In addition, repetition of adverbs in sentences was due to the native learner's carry-over of the morphological process of reduplication. Also, absence of articles in Lumarachi made learners omit the articles or use the demonstratives in places of the articles while constructing sentences in English as done in Lumarachi. Last but not least, since there are limited prepositions in English, the learner tended to use the familiar prepositions as those of his native language.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

The findings from this study show that, mother tongue interference has contributed to the continued and the more recent dismal performance in English in national examination amongst the students of Butula Sub-County in Busia County. To stem this state of affairs the following activities need to be undertaken. First of all, the students should be reminded constantly of the importance of fluent English for both their school and life careers. The stakeholders, who include, the teachers, the school administration, the parents and the government at appropriate levels should adopt ambitious turn-around program of ensuring that students are provided with a firm basis for acquiring effective English skills.

The teachers should therefore put emphasis on pronunciation, stress and intonation to develop oral and reading skills. They should also prepare to teach the practical English lessons like pronunciation. Students should be helped to pronounce sounds and to understand transcription. Students should be fully exposed to the use of English in order for them to practice and experiment it at all times. The students should be made to listen to recorded material and broadcasts in English from model stations. Teachers should then provide thorough and constant structure drills and testing of English in all skills. Students should be helped to participate in symposia, drama, debates, story- telling, recitation of poems and writing of descriptive and imaginative essays. On their part, the government and the parents should establish libraries to encourage and expose students to a wider readership of English. Here, a program of supplying graded readers right away from Form One would help a great deal.

Although transfer cannot be completely eliminated for learners or people acquiring a second or third language, the rigorous program spelled out here would reduce the interference to a very large extent. After the learners' writing, teachers should identify and record errors and discuss them with learners. They should also pay more attention to writing to help learners develop skills in producing standard language. They should then introduce competitions in both writing and reading among different grades so as to improve writing and reading skills.

I would also recommend that research on MTI on speech of the learners be considered as well as other areas of Linguistics like syntax and pragmatics.

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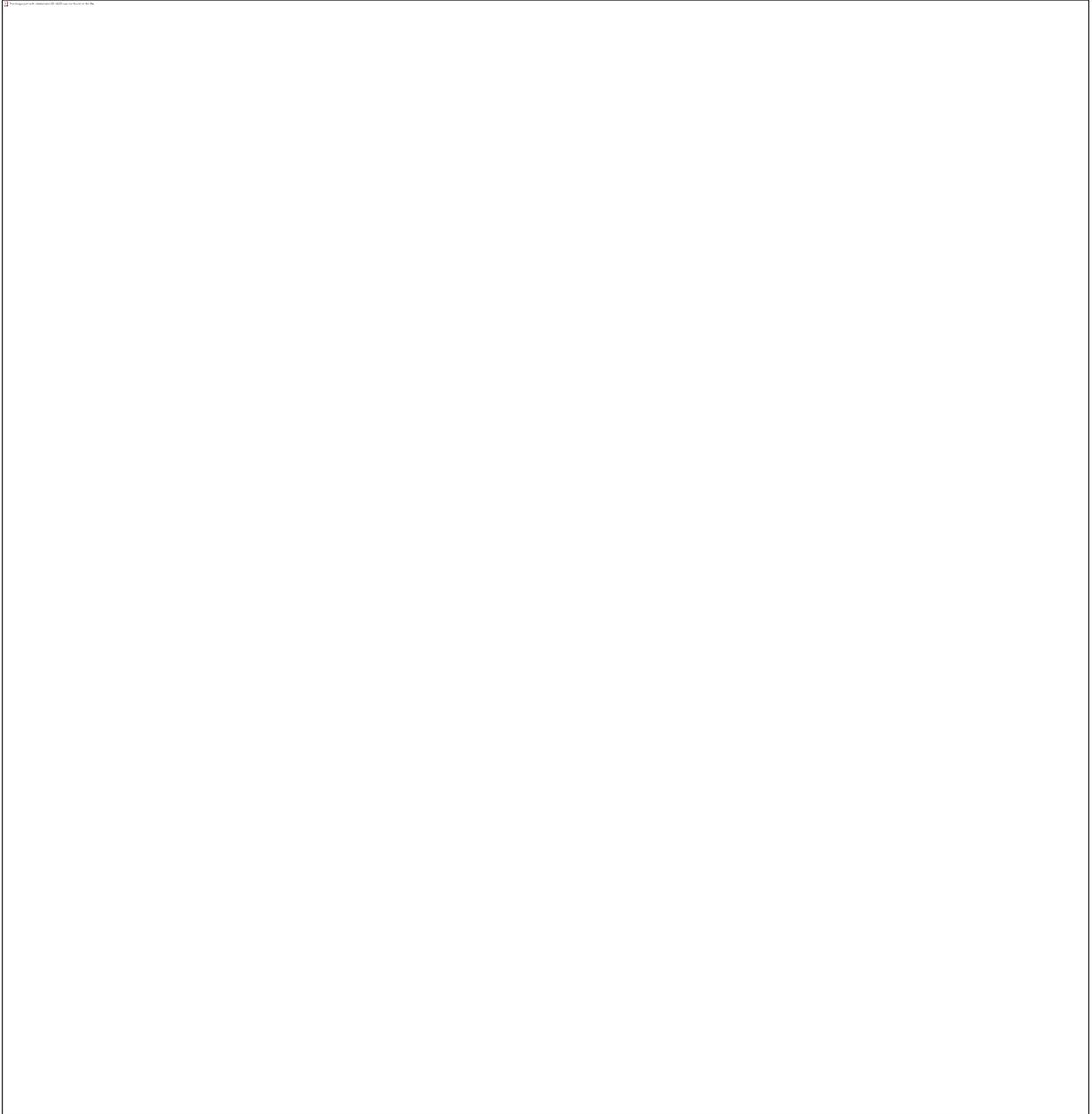
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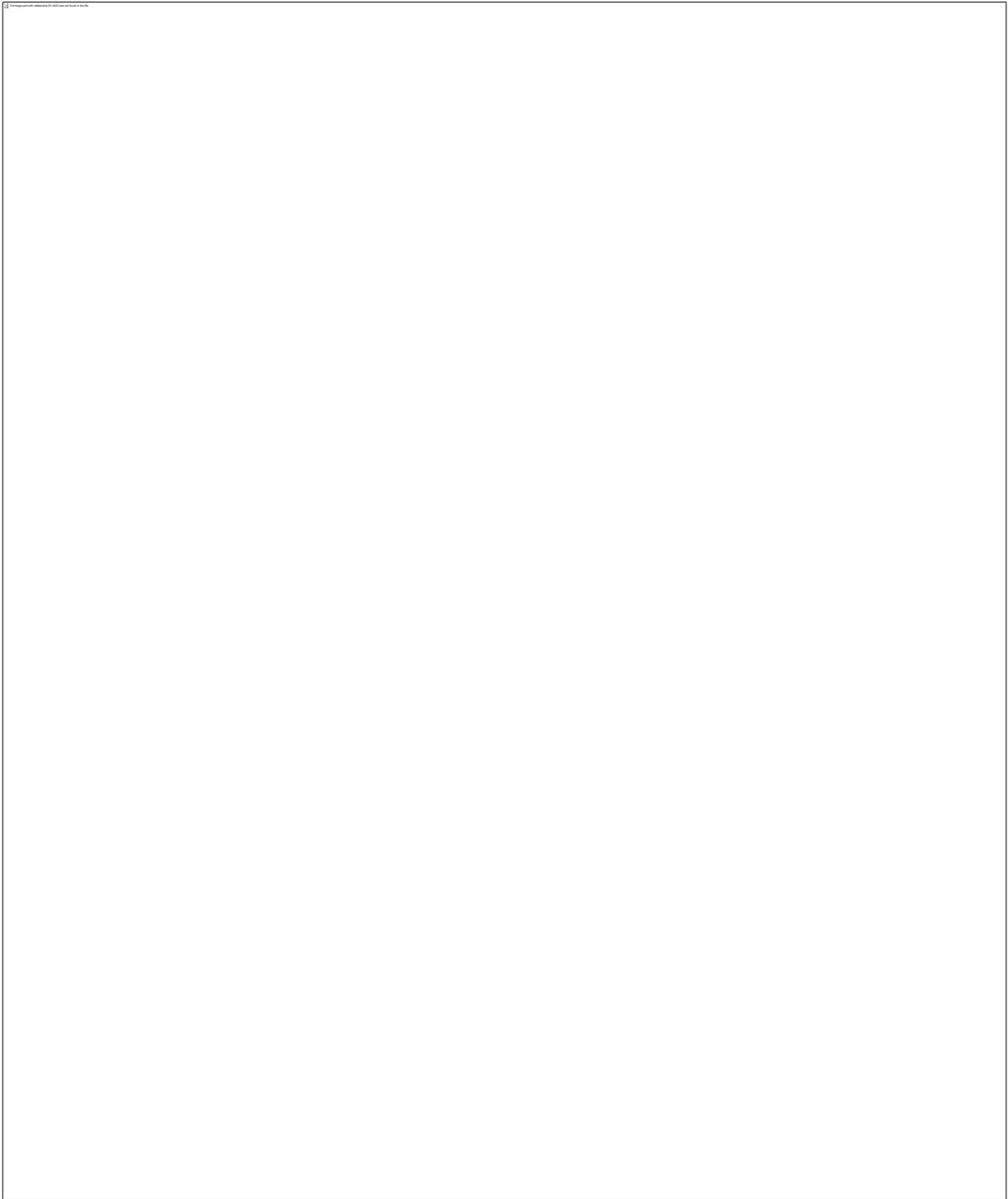
## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX ONE:LETTERS

#### 1.1 Permission letter



## 1.2:Statement of ethics

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, occupying most of the page below the section header. It is intended for the user to write their Statement of Ethics.

## APPENDIX.2: COMPOSITIONS

### 2.1: Dialogues

CONVERSATION ASKING FOR PERMISSION

(Its afternoon in the compound of Mrs. Juma, she is talking to her son)

Mrs. Juma: Bonnie! (calls out loudly)

Bonnie: Yes mother.

Mrs. Juma: Has the cow eaten?

Bonnie: Yes, the cows have eaten grass.

Mrs. Juma: So what are you doing now? I hope you are reading.

Bonnie: Yes, I am with book.

Mrs. Juma: Which book? I hope its english.

Bonnie: (keeps quiet)

Mrs. Juma: Have you read english? (with annoyance)

Bonnie: I have read english yesterday before I slept.

Mrs. Juma: I hope you are saying the truth. Go!

Bonnie: (Stands there silently)

Mrs. Juma: Why are you still standing there Bonnie?

Bonnie: I - I - I wanted to ask for permission.

Mrs. Juma: For what?

Bonnie: For a party at school tomorrow.

Mrs. Juma: A party? for what?

Bonnie: Our class teacher arranged - You can call her.

Mrs. Juma: So who will help me milk?

Bonnie: It's from 2.00pm to 6.00pm.

Mrs. Juma: Ooh. Okay. Will your friend Peter go also?

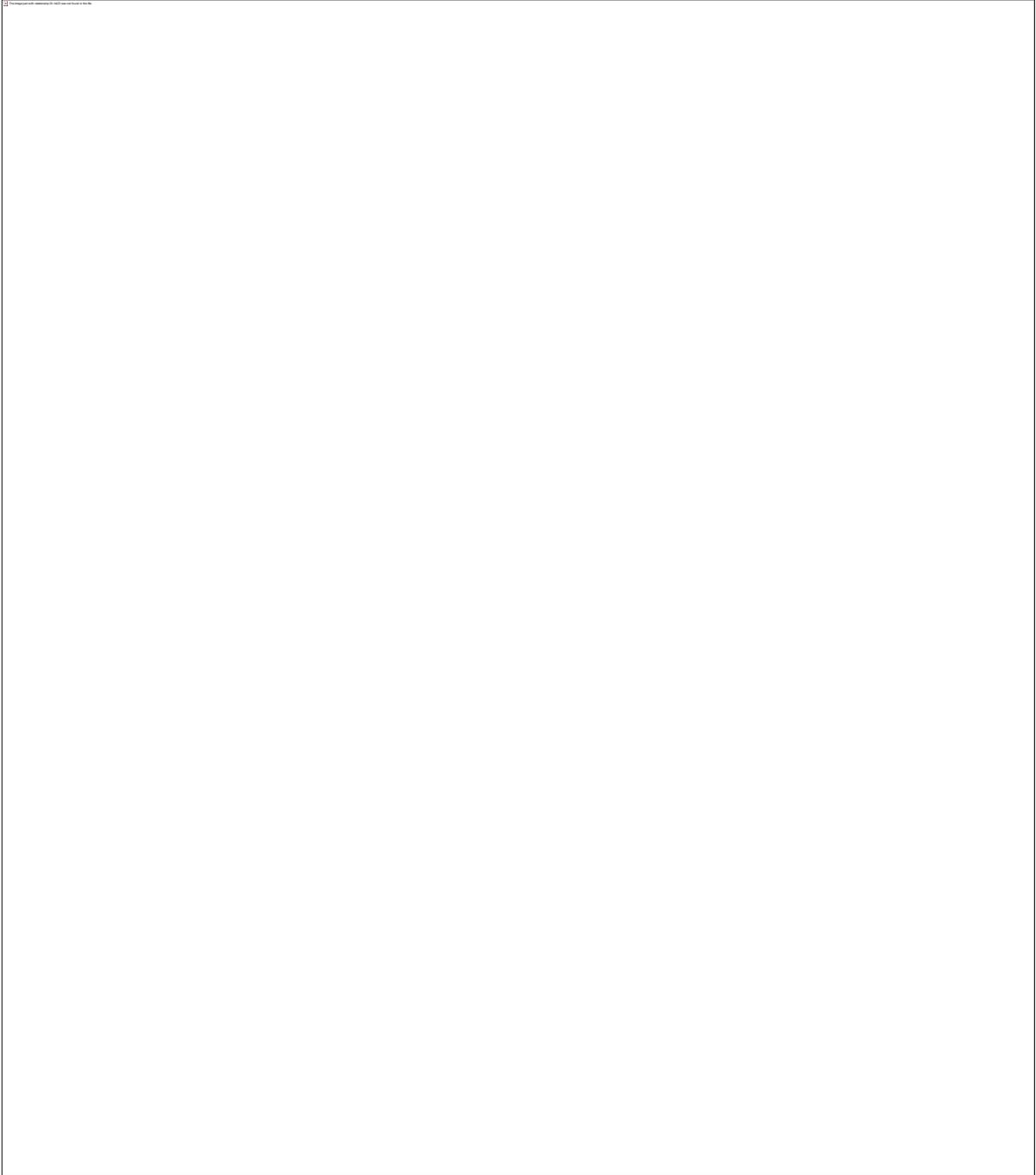
Bonnie: No, he is not in our class. My friend went to the forest to hand animals.

Mrs. Juma: OK then. Which clothes will you wear?

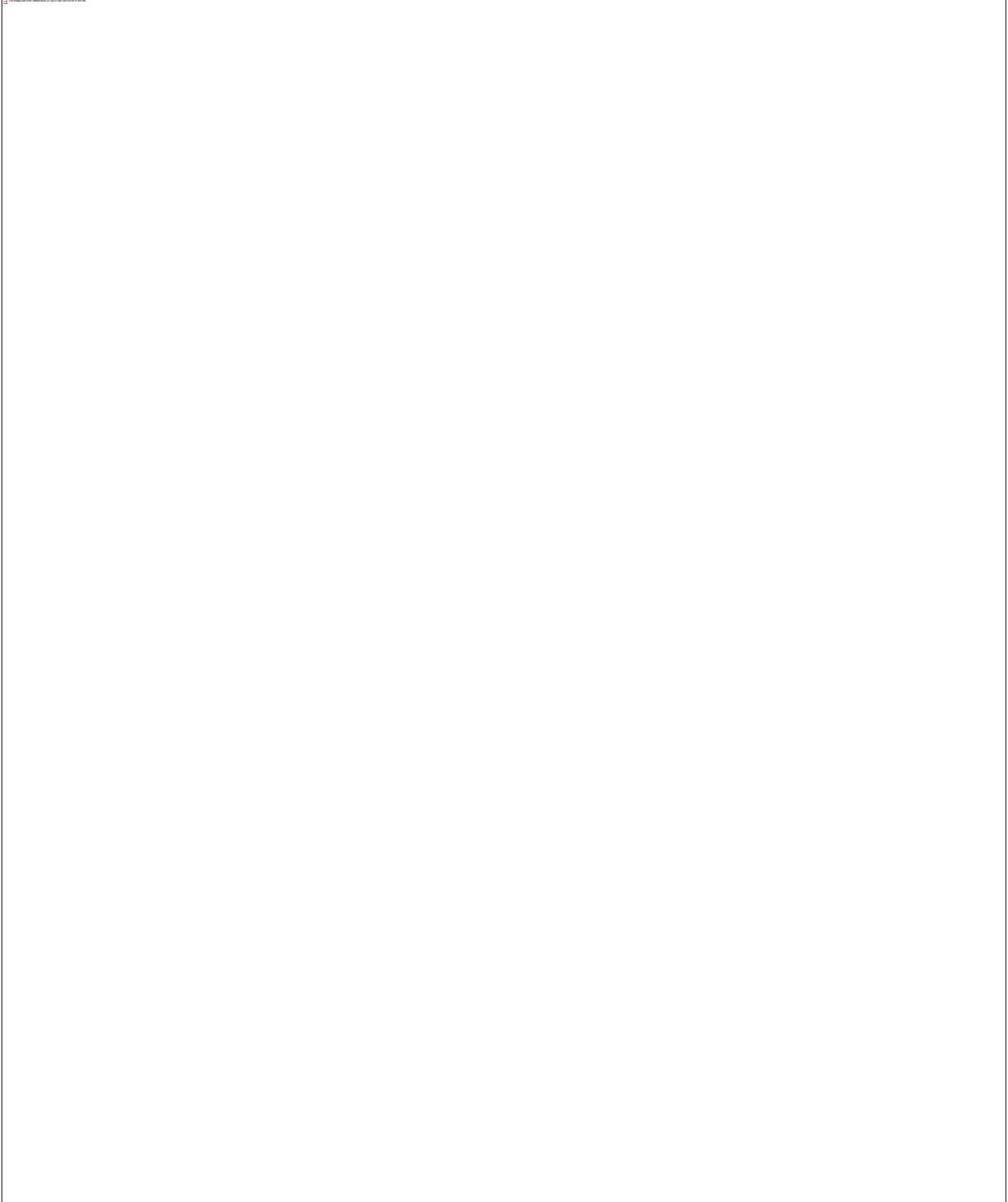
Bonnie: The ones you bought for me during aunts Sarah's wedding. They are still brandi new.

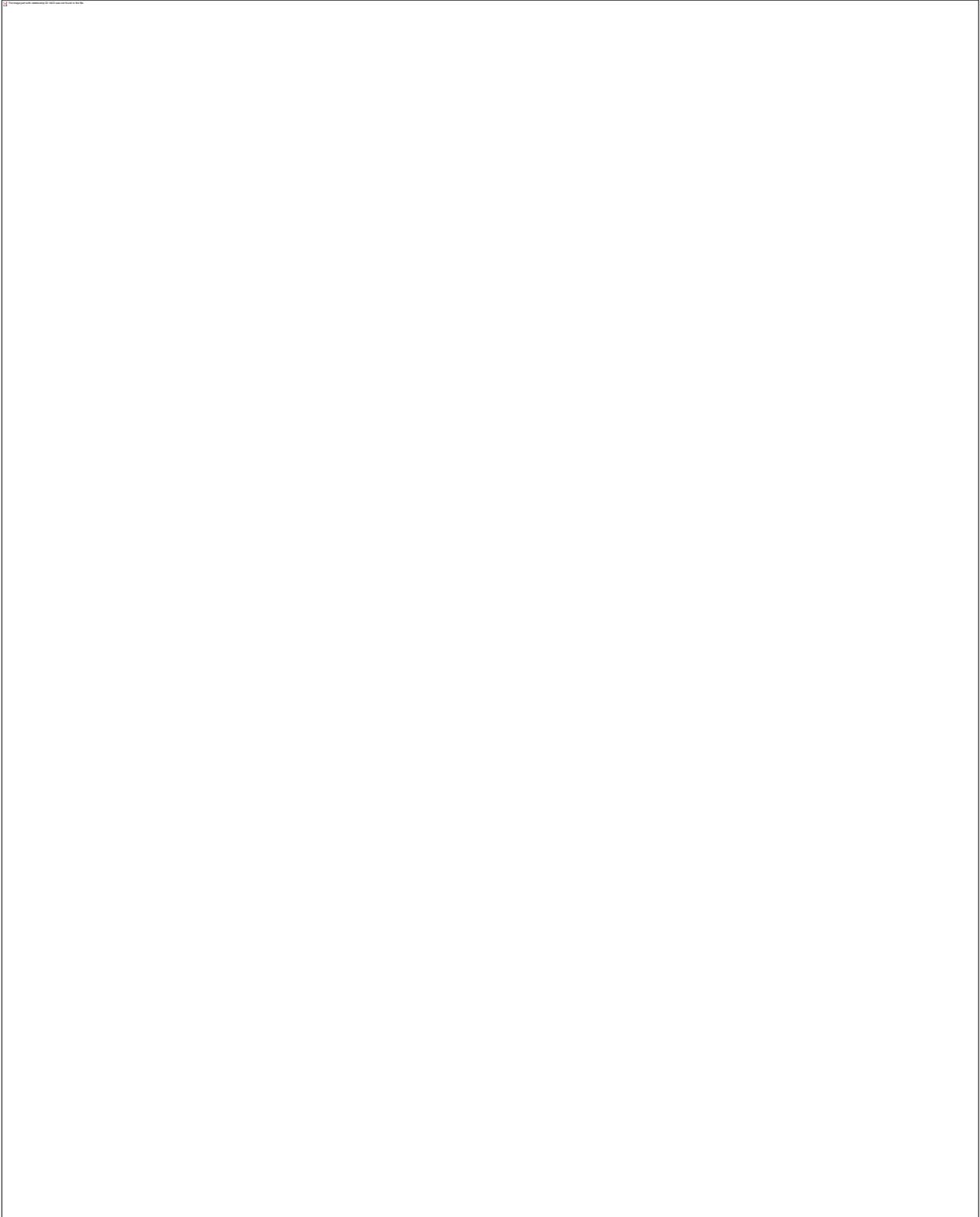
Mrs. Juma: They are not short?

Bonnie: No.



## 2.2:Imaginative



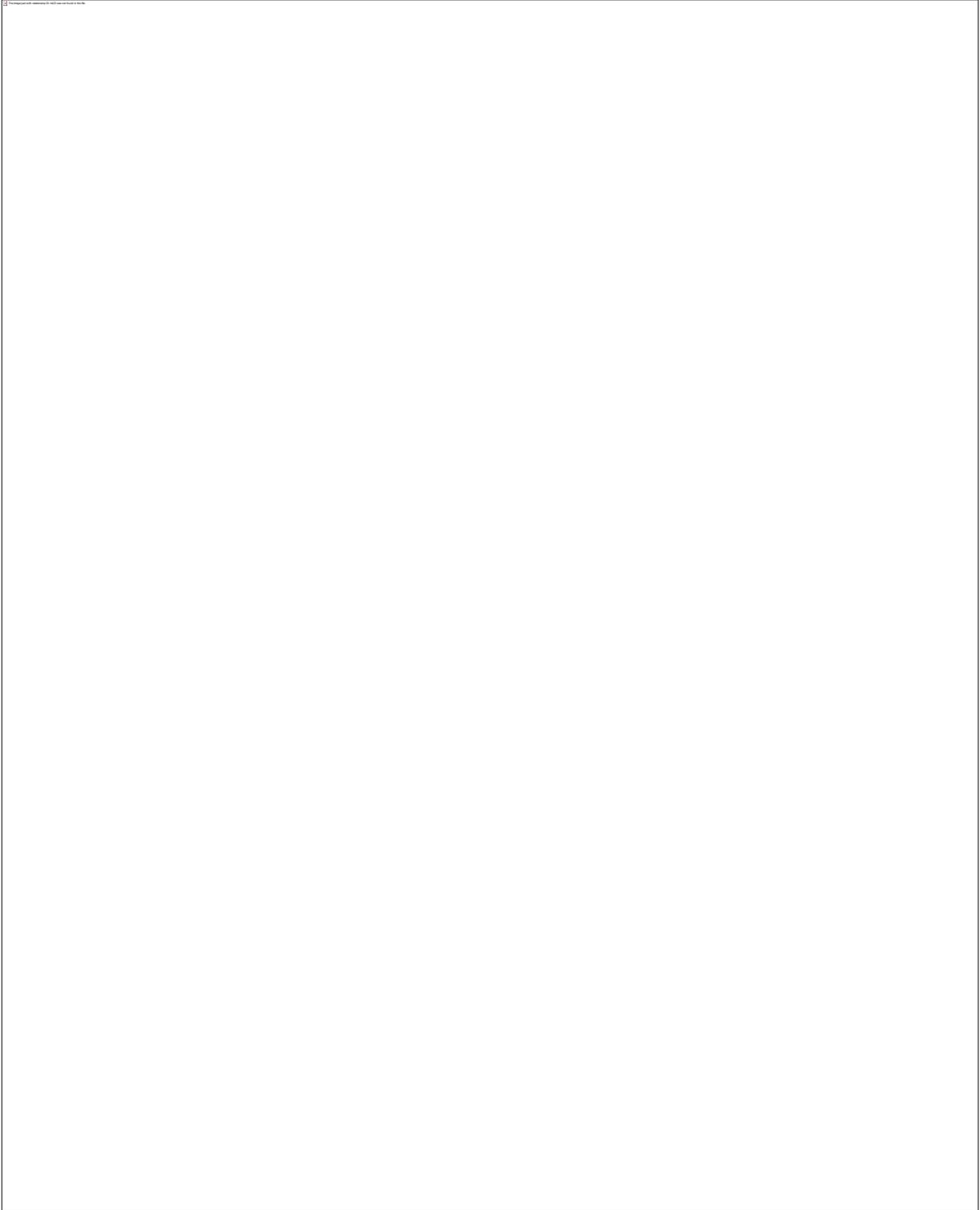


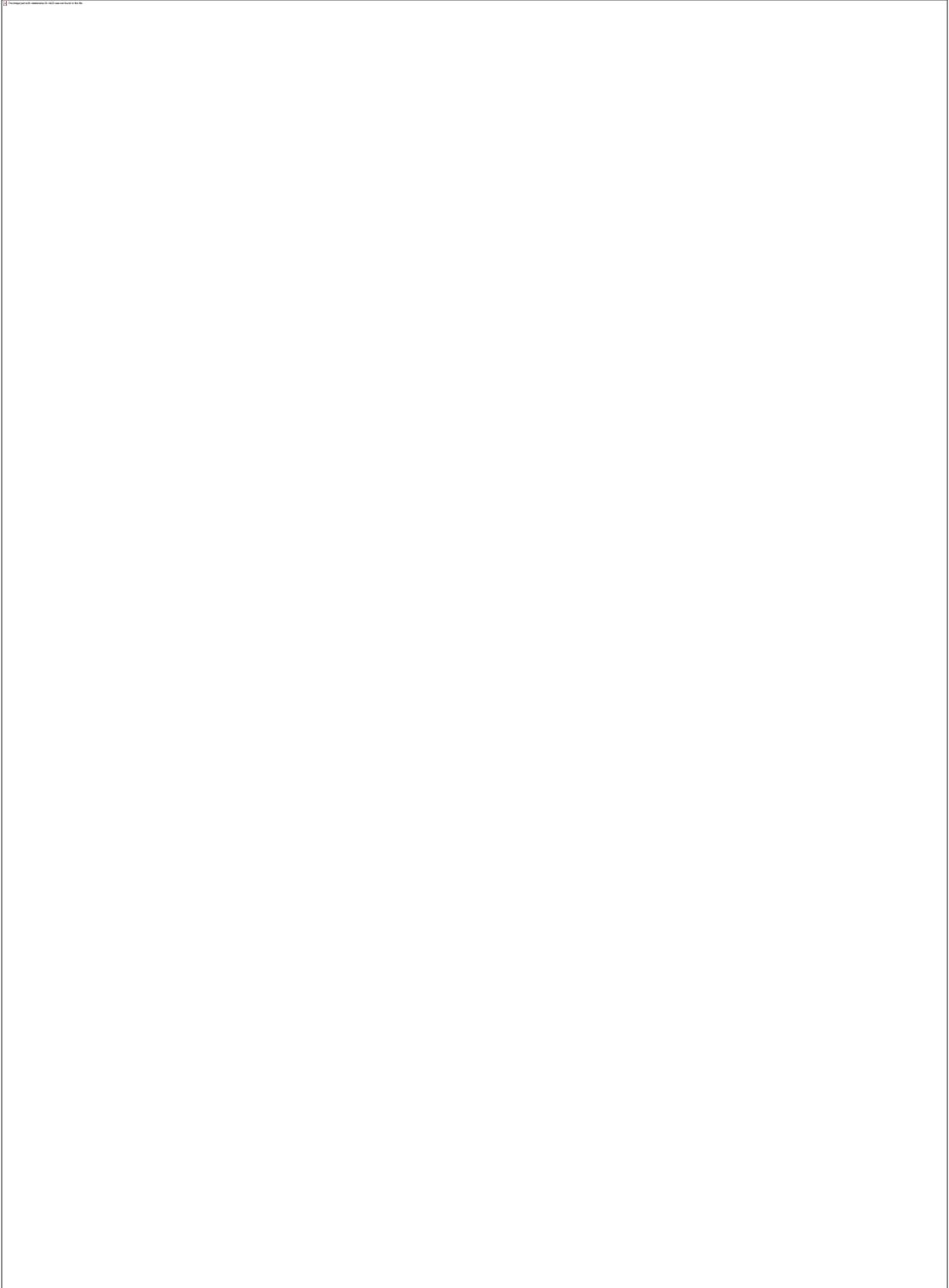
## THE DAY I WILL NEVER FORGET.

It was on Friday morning. I woke up early in the morning with a very happy mood because I knew that something good was going to happen. I jumped into the frog's kingdom to take a bath and then I returned to my bedroom. I spick and span in my black blouse and blue jeans. The aroma of the fried eggs and bacon ~~at~~ drove me to the kitchen. I found my mother preparing breakfast and so I sat down on the dining table and took breakfast. My friend Pury called me and told me to go to her place because their was a birthday party for her brother.

I hurriedly took my breakfast and wore on my black heels. I told my mother that I was going to <sup>MTI</sup>return later that evening and she gave me permission. As I was going I saw birds flying heither and theither from tree to tree. The house of pury was ten blocks away from the our house. As I was walking I realised that a black spot car following me behind. I walked fast because I thought that there was something fishy going on. The car started to increase it's speed as I started running for my dear life. In two shakes of a lamb's ~~tail~~ the car caught up with me and a hulk looking man came out and whisked me inside the car.

The car drove at a super sonic speed and before I realised ~~to~~ the car came to a halt at a place which was covered by trees and there was an abandoned house. I was thrown into a room which was as dark as a dungeon. I was as frightened as a grasshoper and my heart was beating cucuponiurly like the West African drum. I spend <sup>at incl</sup> the night there thinking of my parents on how they <sup>MTI</sup>must be worried about me.





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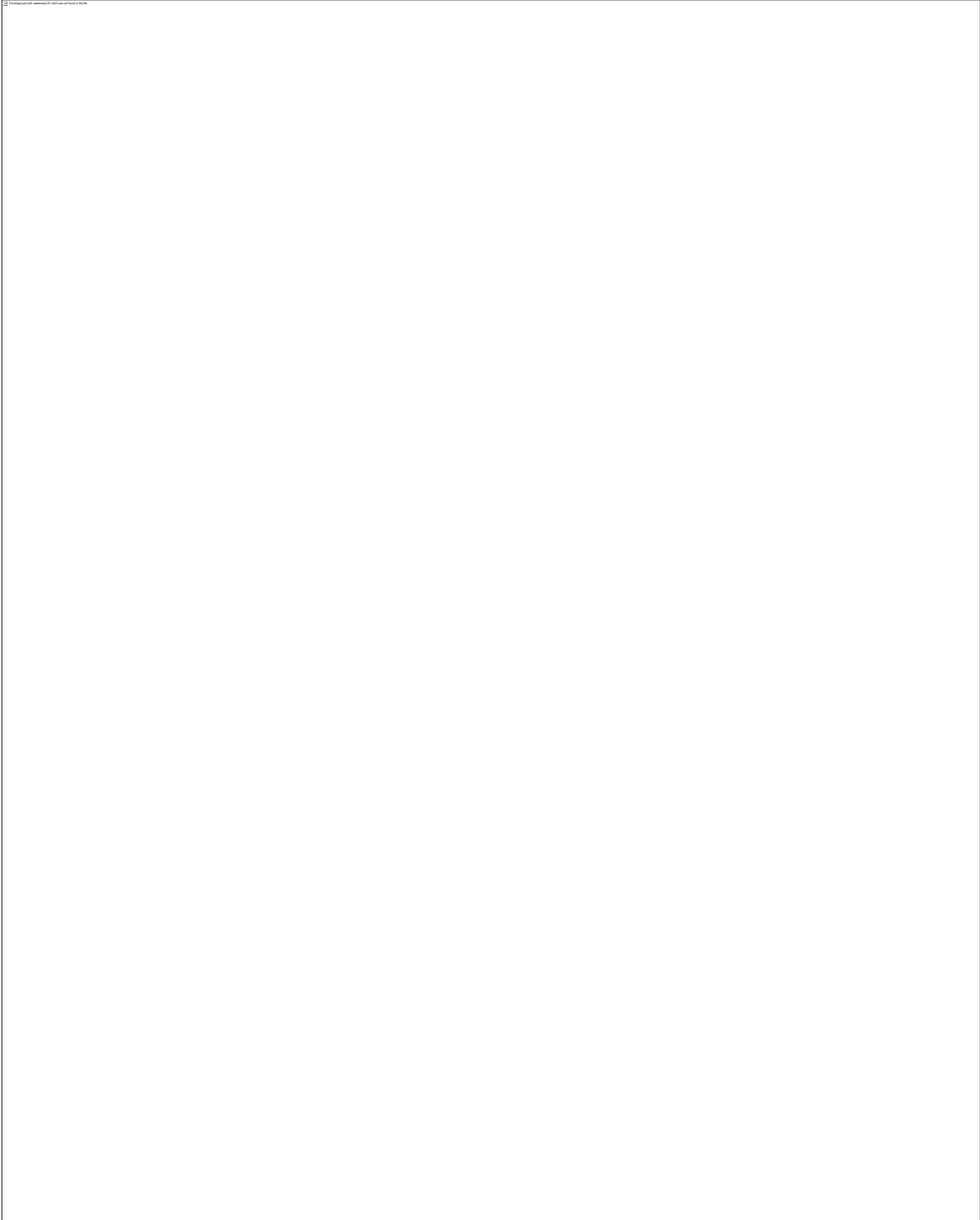
It all started when I finished my completed class eight. I had very dull dreams that when I finish I was going straight to high school. To my surprise my mother had no money to support me and my brother to go to school, so I had to sacrifice my studies for my brother to finish since he was almost finishing.

Instead of joining <sup>MTI</sup> form one I was enrolled in a certain Centre known by the name St. Mary Euphrasia which was very cheap and supported a girl child in different ways. The girls there were learning dress making and catering. I had to pursue learning dress making and catering since they had told us that after ~~finish~~ <sup>after</sup> completed the two year course they were going to take me to high school and sponsor my education until I finish.

I pushed on with life inside the Centre until it came the end of the second year of the course. Not realising it the worst happened. They gave me a shocking news which sent me to my grandfather's grave remembering her death and suffering. For a minute I thought my ears were lying to me when they repeated again that they will not sponsor me to pursue my education after completing the course.

I almost fainted but thank God I was able to handle the news in a good manner. I took my certificate that I had done in that place and opened the <sup>MTI</sup> gate. I ran as fast as I could, my legs could carry me because how I was feeling wasteful. Not realising I was almost meeting my death.

I ran until I reached the main road, where I almost got ran over with a car, but ~~lucky~~ <sup>lucky</sup> the driver took his way and to my surprise the car hit a lorry that was <sup>MTI</sup> approaching the opposite the junction. There were clashes



## APPENDIX C:

### Raw collected data

#### 1. Morphological errors

SCHOOL	nouns	Verbs	adjectives	adverbs	clauses	articles	prepositions
A	6	7	4	10	8	1	11
	7	4	3	12	5	2	8
	10	5	1	4	2	1	8
	8	3	3	6	1	1	9
B	11	10	8	12	11	2	16
	13	5	2	9	7	3	15
	14	6	4	8	3	2	10
	10	2	2	6	2	1	9
C	60	17	9	18	19	3	10
	64	8	4	11	15	3	7
	48	11	7	7	7	4	9
	53	9	3	5	3	8	11
D	25	37	5	22	30	3	18
	38	25	4	12	25	9	13
	15	31	4	9	10	5	7
	14	10	7	3	8	5	9

#### 2. Phonological errors

School		assimilation	Vowel displacement	Elision	Vowel lengthening	Vowel coalescence	epenthesis	Vowel strength.	others
	1	13	6	7	1	9	13	10	16
A	2	19	18	10	1	6	18	8	20
	3	9	6	15	3	8	10	5	15
	4	10	13	8	2	3	7	1	17

	Class/form								
<b>B</b>	1	18	15	10	13	19	11	20	30
	2	11	13	5	9	26	23	22	35
	3	17	12	6	11	28	15	20	40
	4	14	9	4	10	17	11	10	30
	Class/form								
<b>C</b>	1	25	20	11	9	24	26	33	28
	2	30	22	18	7	19	33	21	34
	3	37	18	19	12	20	21	18	27
	4	40	13	17	16	14	17	12	20
	Class/form								
	1	12	33	21	6	11	42	55	67
<b>D</b>	2	23	29	15	10	17	36	32	44
	3	19	41	10	9	23	28	29	41
	4	19	30	15	8	14	25	17	36