AN ANALYSIS OF ERRORS IN THE WRITTEN ENGLISH OF CLASS-FOUR LEARNERS IN MIGORI COUNTY.

A PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGES, UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

By

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been submitted for examination to any
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my husband, Eng. Kennedy Otieno. Your love, tireless support, unceasing prayers and belief in my abilities have brought me this far. Thank you.

To my children: James, David and Jonathan, thanks for your patience and understanding especially when I could not play my role as a mother. I hope this inspires you to even greater heights.

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ABSTRACT

The present study set out to investigate the errors made by class-four students in their written English. The sample of students was selected from twelve primary schools in the Migori County of Kenya. The study collected data from guided compositions which the participants were asked to write. It looked at a wide range of errors, which it divided into categories: writing-mechanics errors (among which spelling errors), morphological errors, syntactic errors and lexical-choice ones. Its objectives were: (a) to identify which ones were most frequent within each category, (b) to establish whether there were quantitative differences between the errors made by learners from rural schools and those from urban schools, and (c) to establish whether there were quantitative differences between the errors made by female learners and those made by male ones. The study found that errors related to writing mechanics (e.g. spelling errors) were the most frequent, that learners from rural schools made more errors than those from urban schools, and that the male learners made more errors than the female ones.

ABBREVIATIONS

L1 First language

L2 Second language

TL Target language
IL Interlanguage.

SPSS Statistical Package for Social Science

S.L.A Second Language Acquisition

EA Error analysis

ESL English as a second language

T Tense

Comp Compounding

N Noun

SVA Subject Verb Agreement

ART Article

PRON Pronoun

ADJ Adjective

CONJ Conjunction

PREP Preposition

SP Spelling

CAP Capital letter

PUNC Punctuation

D/T Direct translation

Rep Repetition.

S Sample

M Male

F Female

U Urban

R Rural

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Error:

'Deviation from the norms of the target language' (Ellis, 1994, p. 51).

Interlanguage:

'A systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of both the learner's L1 and the target language.' (Ellis, 1994, p. 710).

S.L.A. (Second Language Acquisition):

'The process of acquiring a second language after acquisition of the first one.' (Ellis, 1994, p. 76).

Mistake:

'It is the result of processing problems that prevent learners from accessing their knowledge of target language rule and cause them to fall back on alternative, non-standard rule that they find easier to access.' (Ellis, 1994, p. 51).

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Chapter one includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives, hypotheses, scope and limitations, theoretical framework, literature review and methodology.

1.1 Background to the Study

Errors in the works of second language learners are worth studying. A survey that was carried out before beginning this investigation showed that many class four pupils in Migori County construct erroneous sentences when writing compositions. Examples of sentences that are constructed by such learners are:

- 1. Teacher, repeat again. (Teacher, repeat.)
- 2. Clinton did not came to class. (Clinton did not come to class.)
- 3. Derrick did not wrote the work. (Derrick did not write the work.)
- 4. (a) Jade catched the ball. (Jade caught the ball.)
 - (b) June dhiod home. (June went home.)
- 5. (a) We have many sheeps. (We have many sheep.)
 - (b) I will invait them. (I will invite them.)

In Sentence (1) *again* can be categorized as lexical error as the student ought to have used only the verb, *repeat*, in the predicate slot. The word *again* should not be used together with *repeat* since their meaning is relatively same. The above error could be due to transfer factor as the sentence mirrors the L1 equivalent: *Japuonj*, *nuona kendo*, which directly translates to 'Teacher, repeat again.'

In sentences (2), (3) and (4a), the errors are due to the fact that the three verbs, *came*, *wrote* and *catched* are irregular forms and the learner seemed to have over generalized the rule which states that the formation of the simple past and past participle of irregular verbs can end in a variety of ways, with absolutely no consistent pattern. For example, the verb *catch* does not take the *-ed* morpheme to form its past tense. The above errors deal with word formation as the errors occur when learners try to give new formation of words in their correct tense thus can be categorized as morphological errors.

The error in sentence (4b) is on the word *dhiod*. Some learners use the Luo word, *dhio* (go), but attach the English -ed morpheme to it to form the past tense. This could have been due to

memory lapse on the part of the learner hence his use of a word which is a mixture of *dholuo* and English. It was established that when learners lack equivalent English words, mostly due to memory failier, they use *dholuo* words. This can be explained by the fact that the learner is still at the interlanguage stage. Therefore, this error falls into the lexical category as stated by Ouma (2014).

In Sentence (5a), the student made the error by adding the bound morpheme -s as a plural marker thus forming *sheeps*. This error can be categorized under morphological errors. Its correct form is 'sheep'. The error maybe due to overgeneralization of the TL plural formation rule.

In (5b), there is misspelling of the word *invait*. These two errors can be categorized under writing mechanics errors. These errors can be due to incomplete application of rule, false concept hypothesized or poor mastery of spelling.

Owuor (2017) focused on the effects of syntatic inteference on the interlanguage of learners in upper primary school. The study was done in five primary schools while targeting class six, seven and eight pupils. He used the Interlanguage theory as proposed by (Selinker, 1972) that views errors as part and parcel of the learner's language and as a useful diagnosis tool for analysis of error sources. His findings showed that some errors in ESL were related to factors other than L1, a significant number of intralanguage errors were arising as a result of target language learning process. His study is an important source of reference to this study as it serves as a source of background information to the study.

Nyamasyo (1994) carried out an analysis of the spelling errors in the written English of Kenyan Pre-university students. She used corpus based approach to give the description of spelling errors in the written English of of the Kenyan pre-university students. This study concluded that there are a variety of sources for the language difference in the sound system of English and the first language of the students in the study. She recommended the inclusion of contrastive analysis approach in the padagogy of English language courses for ESL students and for Kenyan students in particular. She also advocated for the teaching of spellings. Apart from spelling, our study will identify other error types using error analysis as tool for identifying errors then group the identified errors into linguistic categories.

In his study, Ouya (2015) focused on socio-psychological factors influencing learning of English grammar with regard to pronunciation among *dholuo* learners. Data used in his study was sampled from Muhoroni Sub-County in Kisumu County. He used Piaget's theory of cognitive development and the functionalism theory of learning as the basis of the study. The major finding of the study was that *dholuo* learners found it difficult to pronounce some words since some sounds do not exist in *dholuo* language. Therefore, words with such sounds proved difficult to pronounce as the learners' articulatory organs are not conditioned to produce such sound. Our study will, however, find out if learners will produce such types of errors in their written works.

This study focused on identifying and analysing the errors made by standard four pupils in Migori County in the English composition writing. This group of pupils was used because, according to the Kenyan educational policy on language of instruction in primary schools, the initial three years of basic schooling (class one up to three) ought to be done in the local languages used in the localities where schools are situated (Roy-Campbell, 2005, p. 86). English should be used as a language of instruction except when teaching Swahili as a subject as from class four (Nabea, 2009, pp. 211-238). Identifying errors in this study at class four will help the learners as well as teachers by providing identified errors, frequencies, sources and their causes early enough to allow the adoption of better language teaching and learning strategies that will enhance the development of writing skills among ESL learners.

The researcher specifically focused on *dholuo* speaking pupils in the rural and urban schools in the aforementioned County. Rural and urban schools were used to establish the error variability. The aim was to establish L2 gender variability in class four as well as to ascertain rural and urban schools' variability in L2 error frequency, error types and error sources.

Six Primary schools were picked from the sampled rural areas of Migori County. The pupils from these schools hardly have any exposure to English except in the classroom learning situation. The surrounding members of the community, whose language is *dholuo*, are homogenously monolingual. Therefore, the pupils end up having a difficult task in learning English as a second language since the external environment does not give room for practicing what is learnt in class. Another group of six schools was picked from the urban side of the Migori County because the pupils in these schools have exposure to English even

after the classroom learning situation. Most of the pupils from such schools are bilingual or multilingual.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

It transpires from the preceding section that there is need for further research on English errors made by learners whose L1 is *dholuo* in order to address the issue of their frequency of occurrence depending on which error category is involved and on whether they were made by learners from rural schools or those from urban schools, and whether they were made by female or male learners.

1.3 Objectives

The specific objectives for this study are:

- a) To identify the various types of lexical, morphological, syntactic and writing mechanics errors in the English of class four learners in Migori County.
- b) To establish which type of error is the most frequent.
- c) To investigate if the number of errors committed will depend on whether the learners come from urban or rural schools.
- d) To establish whether the number of errors made will depend on the gender of the learners.

1.4 Hypotheses

- a) Morphological errors are more frequent than syntactical, lexical, writing mechanics errors.
- b) The learners from rural schools will make more errors than learners from urban schools.
- c) The female learners will make fewer errors than their male counterparts.

1.5 Justification of the Study

To the best of my knowledge, error analysis research has been done in Kenyan Counties in the past by researchers such as (Owuor, 2017); (Ouya, 2015) and (Muriungi, 2015). Most of the researchers focused on higher levels of education such as secondary schools, colleges and universities. The focus on primary schools has been on upper primary.

The findings of this study will be useful to future researchers with interest in comparing the errors committed at class four with the errors committed by learners from higher grades. They will be beneficial to teachers of English language by providing identified errors, frequencies, sources and their causes early enough to allow the adoption of better language teaching strategies that will enhance the development of writing skills among ESL learners.

They will also inspire other stakeholders such as curriculum developers and textbook writers to come up with enhanced learning materials that will address the challenges students face in L2 composition writing at class four level of learning. This research will also be relevant to other research work with interest in error analysis as the findings will add a new body of knowledge to the already existing. Finally, the research will have a critical input for ESL language policy formulation and adoption to come up with new regulations and strategies for enhancing L2 writing in class four.

1.6 The Scope and Limitations of this study

This research focused on errors occurring in the compositions of class four learners in Migori County. It categorised the type of errors made by this class of language writers according to the linguistic categories such as morphological, syntactical, lexical and writing mechanics then identified the frequencies of the error types based on the mentioned linguistic categories. Error variability based on gender as well as rural and urban areas were analysed to ascertain which school type committed more errors. Samples of ESL learners were taken from three Sub-Counties that are predominantly occupied by *dholuo* speakers. Although the study followed the EA approach, it did not follow all the steps of it as it did not handle error evaluation. Comparing the results of the class four learners and higher classes from other researchers was not handled in this study because it was outside the scope of the study.

1.7 Literature Review

Waeni (2016) focused on L1 Negative Transfer in spelling and lexical choice in the English of class 8 pupils from Kaani Primary School, Machakos County. She established the extent of spelling errors attributed to *Kikamba* phonology and the extent to which the lexical errors can be attributed to the influence of *Kikamba* vocabulary. This was carried out in sixty-nine schools. The findings of this study were that most of the spelling errors are due to influence from *Kikamba* phonology and lexical choice errors are due to direct translation and word

transfer which is a result of negative transfer from learners L1. Our study identified errors committed by class four pupils, spellings being one of them, then categorised them into linguistic categories. Other types of errors were also identified and grouped into the relevant categories.

In his work, Muriungu (2015) researched on the analysis of English errors in the Verb groups from sentences produced by *Kimeru* speaking students in Imenti South Sub-County. The population for his study was seventy students from two form three-day secondary schools. He argued that at form three level, learners have more exposure to English than those in form one and two. On the other hand, those in form four would be too busy to afford the research time. He used the Error analysis model to analyse the sources of errors on a set of structured questions selected to feature all areas of verb groups such as main verbs, tense, and modal auxiliaries. The collected data was described by the researcher while providing possible causes of error as explained using the error analysis methodology. The findings were that most errors were intra-lingual because of over-generalization. Furthermore, his study proved insightful especially in to the extent that it focused on exposure as an important strategy in competence development. Even though this study will as well use error analysis, the area of study will be class four learners.

In her study of code- mixing in Migori County, Ouma (2014) exposed the patterns of language behaviour of primary school pupils within Migori County. She noted that English language has adopted to *dholuo* context especially when students interact in informal settings. The study sampled three schools and focused on establishing how code mixing of *dholuo* and English relates to Interlanguage theory in ESL. The data of this study was collected through qualitative approach. The methods of data collections included interviews and observations. The data was collected and analyzed in order to understand the relationship between pupils' code mixing, the interlocutor and the challenges that code mixing poses to second language learning. The conclusion was that the most common motivational factor behind pupils' code mixing was the need to fill a lexical gap. The analysis done using the collected data established that when learners lack an equivalent English words they resort to a *dholuo* word. This study is relevant to the current study because it is from such exposed patterns of language behaviour of primary school English language learners that we get errors in ESL. Such errors will be identified, categoriesed and given frequencies in this study.

In his study, Nyang'au (2014) investigated the challenges that students face in learning essay writing skills in English language in secondary schools in Manga in Nyamira County. He used Product Process Genre Approach. His findings were that common teaching methods included lecture, question and answer and teacher demonstration. The study confirmed that group method, peer teaching and role play teaching methods that have been proven to enhance learning writing skills are least used. He further identified challenges faced by learners of essay writing skills in English which included inadequate content mastery, incorrect use of grammar, first language interference, limited vocabulary, and inadequate teaching learning resources. These challenges represent themselves as errors in the learner's essay written work thus giving evidence that errors are present at secondary school level. It is with this perspective that this study will seek to identify the types and number of errors committed by class four pupils in Migori County.

Maore (2013) investigated the phonology and orthography of Kimeru as a first language affected their spelling of English words. One of the major similarities with this current study was in the application of Error Analysis as a theoretical framework. The data for this study was collected from creative compositions and dictation of words written by primary school learners whose first language was Kimeru. By using Error Analysis as the theoretical framework of the study, all the misspelt words were identified and classified into ten categories according to the nature of the spelling errors such as errors due to silent graphemes, errors due to pre-nasalisation of graphemes, errors due to homophones, errors due to vowels length, errors due to epenthesis, errors due to absence of the sound in *Kimeru*, errors due to metathesis, errors due to double consonant graphemes, errors due to the discrepancy between the English sound system and the spelling system and errors due to retention of letter 'e' before a suffix. The identified errors were then discussed relative to the wrongly spelt words and the subsequent phonological ideals of L1. Possible causes of misspellings were deduced by examining the nature of the misspelt words. This study will instead identify errors then classify them according to the linguistic categories and then finally ascertain the gender variability as well as rural-urban distribution.

Sirkka (2010, p. 101-110) observed that proponents of EA claim a twofold objective for the theory: the theoretical objective and the practical objective. While theoretical objectives deal with how and what learners of a language learn, the core objective stresses on ways of helping learners master a language through taking advantage of the already existing

knowledge base. This study was based on the theoretical objective by assessing the state of L2 learnt by learners in class four.

1.8 Theoretical Framework: Error Analysis

The study used the Error Analysis (EA) Theory. The study of Error Analysis and the interlanguage field was brought into prominence in the 1970s by Corder (1974). He alluded to the fact that errors made by learners could give clues about language systems in use or language learnt in L1 and that error analysis superseded contrastive analysis. The EA model proved contrastive analysis as incapable of predicting significant amounts of errors even though significance of language transfer is a reality.

According to Brown (1980. p.166), error analysis is a way of observing, analysing, and classifying the deviations of the rules of the second language and ultimately revealing the systems it is operated on. As a technique, error analysis systematically interprets the unacceptable forms produced by ESL learners.

Errors are significant in three different ways. First, they provide information to the teacher about the much learners have learnt. Secondly, they give a researcher insight into how language learning takes place. Finally, the errors are means through which learners discover target language rules (Ellis, 1994, p. 48).

A comprehensive EA process that ultimately forms the EA model or a theoretical framework was developed by the proponents of EA such as Corder. Some researchers sometimes merge some processes while other separate processes to achieve exhaustive results. Corder (1984) identifies five processes that simplify the study of errors made by ESL learners as: collection of data, identification of errors, description of errors, and explanation of errors and evaluation of errors. Although the study followed the EA approach, it did not follow all the steps of it as it did not handle error evaluation.

1) Collection of samples

Specific Samples of learner's language use was collected by giving learners a guided composition (clinical elicitation) where topics and time was controlled. The topic was

'our school' and this was written within forty minutes under the supervision of the researcher.

2) Identification of errors

The researcher must be able to recognize the learner's idiosyncrasy. This was attained by the researcher correctly identifying errors by analysing correct interpretation of the learner's intended meaning within the context. The identified errors were used as data for this study.

3) Description of errors

Description of errors is a comparative process as it entails comparing the erroneous forms made by learners with the correct structures from the target language. It therefore helps show the extent of learner's deviation from the TL expectation. The identified errors were described and then categorised according to the linguistic categories: writing-mechanics errors, morphological errors, syntactic errors and lexical-choice ones as well as error type under each categories. This categorization was done to give more systematic analysis.

4) Explanation of errors

Errors were explained based on factor that included: a) Transfer errors factors—this factor includes all errors where the L2 learner have used L1 to create a sentence which has led to the error. b) Overgeneralization error factors—when a learner overuses the same type of grammatical rule or structure, thus creating wrong grammatical structures. c) Ignorance of rule restriction: the device of extending the rules to areas in which they do not apply. d) Incomplete application of rules: the failure to learn a complete type of structures because there are simple ones, the learner finds communicative. e) False concept hypothesized: this refers to deviations that result from faulty comprehension of the L2 distinction. The study went further to analyses errors in terms of intralingual and interlingual. Interlingual errors are errors that results from the interference of learner's L1 during the process of TL production whereas Intralingual errors are the errors which reflects the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules and even failure to learn complete conditions under which rules are applied.

1.9 Methodology

1.9.1 The sampling procedure

A Simple random sample was used to select three out of six Sub-Counties that are predominantly of *dholuo* speaking origin. This was done by giving a number one to six to every Sub-County of the six sub-counties that are predominantly of *dholuo* speaking origin, wrote the numbers on papers then placed the papers in a container and then finally picked the three at random. This was done to avoid biasness.

Stratified Random Sampling was used to identify urban and rural schools as well as boys and girls used in the study. The population was divided into two subgroups: boys-girls and another one for rural-urban. After the subgroup division, numbers were assigned to the population then a given number was randomly selected from each population subgroup. This was used to achieve desired representation from various subgroups in the population. Which was two rural- urban school in each Sub County and three boys and girls in each school. The two subgroups were to help establish gender variability as well as rural and urban variability.

The selected six Primary schools were from the rural areas in Migori County. The pupils from these schools hardly have any other exposure to English except in the classroom. Another group of six schools was from the urban side of Migori County because pupils in these schools have exposure to English away from the classroom learning situation. Most of the pupils from such schools are bilingual or multilingual, since they speak Kuria and Kisii, among other languages.

In total, seventy-two students were sampled into this study, with each writing one composition, thus making it a total of seventy-two compositions. Thirty-six respondents were boys and the rest were girls. The students were equally distributed between rural and urban schools, with each school giving six pupils with equal gender distribution.

1.9.2 Data collection procedure

A guided composition was used to collect data for the research. Learners were given a topic "our school.' Which they wrote within forty minutes under the supervision of the researcher.

1.9.3 Data analysis procedure

All the collected errors were classified according to linguistic categories: writing-mechanics errors, morphological errors, syntactic errors and finally, lexical. Frequency counts and their respective percentages were used to test the research hypotheses.

CHAPTER TWO: MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS

The frequency of error occurrence was also analysed using Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS). As a program, it requires the coding of all variables in numerical format. Therefore, the twelve schools sampled from the three Sub-Counties were coded as 1 to 12. Simple random sampling was used to code the schools. When handling gender, the coding was done as 0 for male and 1 for female. In the case of the type of school, coding was done as 0 for rural and 1 for Urban. Respondents were coded as 1 to 72. Errors were graded using a grading criterion as shown in **Table 1**below.

Table 1: Grading criteria

Grouping	Level of errors	Remark	Code
0	No error	Excellent	0
1-2	Very few errors	Very good	1
3-4	Few errors	Good	2
5-6	Moderate errors	Fair	3
7-8	Moderate to high	Fairly poor	4
9-10	High number of errors	Poor	5
Above 10	Very high number of errors	Very Poor	6

2.1 Tense related errors

2.1.1 Data presentation

Tense is a vital aspect in language learning and usage. In this section, the learners' ability to form and use tenses accordingly when expressing themselves through language was tested. The errors were looked at in general, considering the stage at which the research was taken. Some of the tense errors made by learners included the following:

- 1: *...We have finish doing our examination. (We have finished doing our examination.) S54/F/U
- 2: *Our bell ringer had a watch which he is... (Our bell ringer has a watch which...) S64/F/R
- 3: *...is started in 1993. (...was started in 1993) S9/M/R
- 4: *I started to followed them (I started to follow them.) S30/M/U
- 5: *I was surprised to saw the cook. (I was surprised to see the cook.) S62/F/R
- 6: *...pupils going for playing. (... where pupils go to play.) \$39/F/U

Table 2: Tense Grading

	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent script	29	40.3	40.3	40.3
Very Few Errors- Very Good	31	43.1	43.1	83.3
Few Errors – Good	8	11.1	11.1	94.4
Moderate to High Errors- Fairly	2	2.8	2.8	97.2
Poor				
High Number of errors– Poor	1	1.4	1.4	98.6
Very High number of error -	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
Very Poor				
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 3: Tense Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency				
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %	
Male	42	17	59	57.3	
Female	24	20	44	42.7	
Total	66	37	103	100.0	
Total Percentage %	64.1	35.9	100.0		

2.1.2 Analysis

In English, the aspect tense is used to indicate the time that an action took place. Time and aspect are components of many English tenses where time is expressed as past present or future while aspect is progressive or perfective. Patekar (2016, p.73) explains that simple form of tenses should be taught in primary school. The form of verbs in simple past tenses are always same with all subjects while the simple tense rule states that:

- a) Verbs ending in -e simply takes -d to get the -ed form, if the -e, for example, *live* will be *lived* if the -e comes before a consonant. In the *-ing* form, you drop the -e then add -ing as in the case of $hope \longrightarrow hoping$
- b) Verbs ending with consonant -y get their -ed form by changing -y into i then adding -ed, for example, cry will become cried. For -ing form of such verbs, keep the -y then add -ing and lastly, if the -y is preceded by a vowel, keep the -y as in the case of enjoy will be enjoying.
- c) Verbs ending with one vowel one consonant, but not w or y double consonant then add -ing, for example, dig will become digging.
- d) If a word ends in two consonants, just add the ending, for example, fold→
 folding, and demand → demanding.

There are exceptions like: if a verb ends in-ee, the final -e is not dropped: seeing; agreeing among others and -w, -x are not doubled $glow \longrightarrow glowed$ and $fix \longrightarrow fixed$ (Azar, 1999, p. 10)

The words *finish*, *had*, and *started* in sentences 1, 2 and 3 subsequently, present errors on past tense. There is an omission of the -ed morpheme in the formation of the past tense. Wrong

usage of the verb –to have makes the word had incorrect while wrong usage of the verb –to be makes the word started incorrect. The word followed in example 4, shows the wrong usage of the to-infinitive. This is the same case in example 5 on the use of the word saw. In sentence 6, going is in present continuous form yet it should be in simple present form. Here, the participants could not apply the past tense rule of the –ed suffix among others. This could be because of inter-lingual interference since in dholuo language suffixes are not used to mark past tense form of verbs as the verb forms are marked using prefix or intonation as shown in the example below:

• *Awer* (I'm singing.)

Prefix -a is used to mark persons whereas tense is marked by a zero morph and the tone. Neawer (I sang.)

Prefix –ne is used to mark tense and in this case, it marks past tense.

• *Abirower* (I will sing.)

biro is used to indicate future time in this case. The learners with their limited competence in the English language might find it a challenge to apply this English rule and rather use the L1 rule.

There were also errors that showed intra-lingual interference because the participants wrongly applied the rule of the target language as shown in example 5.

From **Table 2** above 40.3% of the respondents did not make tense related errors. 43.1% had very few errors, while 11.1% had few errors. The remaining percentage was distributed among the moderate to high number of errors, high level of errors and very high number of errors. It can be noted that none of the respondents were within code 3 which represents moderate errors in the rector scale.

From **Table 2** and the frequency distribution **Table 3** above, male students made more errors than their female counterparts. Similarly, urban schools made more tense related errors than rural schools. This could be because learners in urban schools use many languages in their day to day life whereas those in rural schools have their L1 which is *dholuo* and English which they are learning in class thus reducing chances of making tense related errors as they jungle with only two languages in the mind.

2.2 Word compounding errors

2.2.1 Data presentation

- 7: *Nine hundredpupils. (Nine hundred pupils.)S5/M/R
- 8: * ... where people get knowledge. (... where people get knowledge.) S55/F/U
- 9: *A fence that a thief can not pass over. (A fence that a thief cannot pass over.) S12/M/R
- 10: *...some ripefruits. (... some ripe fruits.) S55/F/U
- 11: *There is avery big tank in our school. (There is a very big tank in our school.) S70/M/R
- 12: *all ourteachersareclean. (All our teachers are clean.) S64/F/R

Table 4: Word- Compounding related errors

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	24	33.3	33.3	33.3
Very Few Errors - Very	30	41.7	41.7	75.0
Good				
Few Errors- Good	12	16.7	16.7	91.7
Moderate Errors - Fair	6	8.3	8.3	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 5: Word Compounding Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency				
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %	
Male	23	43	66	56.9	
Female	22	28	50	43.1	
Total	45	71	116	100.0	
Total Percentage %	38.8	61.2	100.0		

2.2.2 Analysis

A compound is a word that consists of two or more words. Compounding therefore is a word formation process whereby two or more words are combined to form a single word. Such words also form their plural in different ways. According to (Bauer, 1983, pp. 202-

212)Compound nouns can be formed by putting: a) noun + noun example fishing rod, b) verb + noun such as in the case of pickpocket, c) noun + verb for example sunshine, d) verb + verb for example make-believe, e) adjective + nouns in situations like fast-food, f) participle + noun for example after heat, g) Adverb + noun and lastly verb + participle for example drop-out. He further explains that the largest subgrouping of compounds are within the noun + noun compounds.

Learners find it difficult to identify words that can be combined to form a new word. They therefore combine words without obeying any rule hence end up with strange forms of words that are not considered right in the L2 structure

Based on the data collected, errors made on compound form of nouns are frequently committed. Here, participants form words by joining two words that should not be joined. The word *hundredpupils* in Example 7 shows poor mastery of the noun + noun compounding. Wrong usage of adverbs to form compound words makes the word ...wherepeople to be erroneous. Sentence 10 has the word *ripefruits* which indicates failure to master fixed compound, for example adjective +noun cannot be the word. In sentence 11, avery shows an article that has been combined to a word, yet an article cannot be combined to a word areclean. in sentence 12 shows failure to separate noun, auxiliary and main verb.

Cases of participants joining auxiliary verbs with main verbs were observed as shown in example 12. In example 11, the article was combined with the adverb while example 7 there was compounding of two nouns (nine and hundred). These problems can be inter-lingual since a *dholuo* word has morphemes that plays different role for example those that mark tense, gender, number among others put together to form a word. This can be illustrated as follows:

- Neatugo 'I played.' Ne is used to mark tense and in this case it indicates past tense
 whereas –a marks number which is singular and lastly -tugo which is the verb.
- Abirochiemo 'I will eat.' A marks number which is singular, -biro marks tense, -chiemo marks verb

Example 8, 9, 10 and 11 could be because of wrong application of the rule of the target language. They do not know that when two different nouns are joined together we get a new noun. Intra-lingual interference could be the cause of such errors.

Table 4 above, clearly indicate that word compounding errors were evident in three groups of the rector scale. That is group one leading with 41.7%, followed by group two with 16.7%. Moderate errors group three were at 8.3%. It is worth noting that 33.3% of the respondents did not commit errors in this type of error. Code 4 which has moderate to high number of errors, code 5 high number of errors and code six which contains very high number of errors were not observed.

The frequency distributed **Table 5** indicates that, male students made more errors than the female learners, thus proving the third hypothesis which stated that the female learners will make fewer errors than their male counter parts right. Rural school had more errors than urban schools hence proving the second hypothesis which was, learners from rural schools will make more errors than learners from urban school.

2.3 Affixation errors

2.3.1 Data presentation

- 13: *There are many tree in my school. (There are many trees in my school.) S37/M/U
- 14: * We have many teacher in my school. (We have many teachers in my school.) S20/F/U
- 15: *They teach us many subject. (They teach us many subjects.) S48/F/R
- 16: *There are many desk in Nyamware school. (There are many desks in Nyamware School.) S11/F/R
- 17: *At Nyamwere villagers. (At Nyamwere village.) S7/M/R
- 18: *We are afraid of those two teacher. (We are afraid of those two teachers.) S50/F/U

Table 6: Affixation Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	39	54.2	54.2	54.2
Very Few Errors - Very Good	23	31.9	31.9	86.1
Few Errors- Good	6	8.3	8.3	94.4
Moderate Errors - Fair	2	2.8	2.8	97.2
High number of errors - Poor	1	1.4	1.4	98.6
Very high number of errors -	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
Very Poor				
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 7: Affixation Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency				
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %	
Male	24	17	41	48.2	
Female	25	19	44	51.8	
Total	49	36	85	100.0	
Total Percentage %	57.6	42.4	100.0		

2.3.2 Analysis

"An affix is a morpheme which only occurs when added on some other morpheme or morphemes such as a root or stem or base. Affixes are bound morphemes. No word may contain only an affix standing on its own, like -s or -ed, or -al or even a number of affixes strung together like -al-s" (Katamba, 1993, p. 44)

The three types of affixation include: prefixes, suffixes and infixes. These can be illustrated as: *re*-mind, teach-*er* and kanga- *bloody*- roo respectively. Suffixes were commonly used by the learners in this study to form nouns which were erroneous. The English number system comprises of SINGULAR which denotes 'one' and PLURAL, which denotes 'more than one' (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 92). The participants could not tell when to put a plural

marker (suffix es or s) thus assuming that all forms of nouns are the same in singular or even plural.

The word *tree* in sentence 13 has been wrongly written as its correct form should be 'trees'. The word 'many' and *are* in the sentence denotes plural verbs and quantifying adjectives and must be followed by a plural noun. In sentence 14, the word *teacher* must be in plural because of the presence of many a quantifying adjective that goes with plural form of countable nouns. This is the same case with the word *subject in* example 15 and *desk* in example 16. Suffix *-rs* has been added on the word 'village' in sentence 17 to create its plural form, yet in the context, the word *villagers* should be in its singular form. The word *teacher* in example 18 indicates failure to identify plural quantifiers.

54.2% of the respondents fall in the zero group, meaning, they did not commit affixation related errors. 31.9% had very few errors, 8.3% had few errors. None of the observed errors appeared in group four (moderately high errors). The remaining 5.2% are distributed among code three, five and six. All these can be observed in **Table 6**

Here, the frequency **Table 7** shows that female students made more affixation errors than male students. This is the same case in the type of schools as, urban schools had more errors than their rural counterparts.

CHAPTER THREE: SYNTACTIC ERRORS

Syntax is a Greek word meaning "ordering together". Syntax deals with arrangement of words into complex forms. Syntactic errors are errors found in incorrect sentences due to wrong usage of words.

3.1 Subject Verb Agreement

3.1.1 Data presentation

Subject-verb agreement is a common error that was revealed in the learners' writing. This error is rampant and is frequently made by L2 learners. Below is an illustration of the learners' confusion of subject-verb agreement rule.

- 19: *Head teacher own a car. (Head teacher owns a car.) S68/F/R
- 20: *That school take number one. (That school takes number one.) S34/F/R
- 21: *The classes is clean. (The classes are clean.) S36/M/R
- 22: *She don't like pupils. (She doesn't like pupils.) \$23/M/U
- 23: *Our school have five thousand pupils. (Our school has five thousand pupils.) S1/F/R
- 24: *In my school, all teachers is clean. (In my school, all teachers are clean.) S38/M/U

Table 8: Subject Verb Agreement Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	17	23.6	23.6	23.6
Very Few Errors - Very	21	29.2	29.2	52.8
Good				
Few Errors- Good	17	23.6	23.6	76.4
Moderate Errors - Fair	6	8.3	8.3	84.7
Moderate to High Errors-	6	8.3	8.3	93.1
Poor				
High number of errors - Poor	5	6.9	6.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 9: SVA Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency				
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %	
Male	53	50	103	49.5	
Female	61	44	105	50.5	
Total	114	94	208	100.0	
Total Percentage %	54.8	45.2	100.0		

3.1.2 Analysis

In (Buregeya, 2001, pp. 6-7) gives person number agreement in two cases as: a) subject-verb agreement in person and number for example *she sleeps* for singular subjects and *we sleep* for plural. b) Agreement in number between a noun and its determiner for example *this pen* and *those pens* for singular and plural nouns respectively.

In sentence 19, the word own is not in the correct form because, singular noun formed out of compounding requires present participle singular form of verb 'owns'. On the other hand, *take* in example 20, is wrong. This is because, 'the School', is a singular noun it therefore needs a singular verb 'takes'. Sentence 21 has the word *is* which is incorrect because, classes are plural nouns hence plural verb 'are' is needed. In sentence 22, 'she' is singular form of pronoun hence require singular verb 'doesn't' and not *don't*. School is in singular form, hence needs a singular verb 'has' and not *have*. Finally, the word 'teachers' in sentence 24 is in plural form thus need plural form of verb 'are' and not *is*.

The errors in Example 19, 20 and 21 can be possibly explained as errors due to the influence of the first language (L1). In *dholuo*, the verb form remains constant with any subjects. The learners might have not changed the verb forms due to this factor. On the other hand, the possible explanation for errors in example 22, 23, and 24, could be the wrong use of L2 rules.

As per **Table 8** and above, very high number of errors did not appear in the rector scale. In this sub-category, very few errors were the most frequent at 29.2%. It can be noted that the percentage of no errors and few errors are equal at 23.6%. More than three quarters of the errors committed in this error type were in code three and above.

Table 9 indicates that whereas Female learners had higher frequency than the male learners, urban school lead with frequency of 54%.

3.2 Articles

3.2.1 Data Presentation

Article related errors were made by the participants as shown in the below article related error table 10. The learners could not differentiate the use of zero article, a, an or even the. The errors are grouped into two: omission and addition. Below are examples of errors of omission:

25: *We have watchman. (We have a watchman.) S20/F/U

26: *We have office. (We have an office.) S72/M/R

27: * A Punishment. (Punishment.) S35/F/R

Table 10: Article- related Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	43	59.7	59.7	59.7
Very Few Errors - Very	21	29.2	29.2	88.9
Good				
Few Errors- Good	5	6.9	6.9	95.8
Moderate Errors - Fair	3	4.2	4.2	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 11: Article Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency				
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %	
Male	13	6	19	32.2	
Female	13	27	40	67.8	
Total	26	33	59	100.0	
Total Percentage %	44.1	55.9	100.0		

3.2.2 Analysis

Two different systems of article use can be set up depending on the type of reference. Article is used for all noun class with definite specific reference for example: where is the book/books/ink. Indefinite specific reference, singular count nouns take the indefinite article a (n), whereas non-count and plural count nouns take zero articles as in the case of: I want a book; I want books and I want ink. In the case of generic reference, both concrete and abstract non-count nouns, and also plural count nouns, are used with the zero articles: as, she loves wine/ music lakes. (Quirk, 1972, pp. 81-83)

The three examples, 25, 26 and 27 show the omission of the articles from sentences. Omission of an article 'a' to identify the noun with a consonant sound makes sentence 25 wrong. Sentence 26 is wrong due to omission of the most appropriate article 'an' to identify noun with a vowel. Sentence 26 is incorrect because the word punishment is uncountable noun. Article 'a' only identifies with countable nouns. The above problem may be due to *dholuo* language interference because *dholuo* has no articles. Examples 24 to 27 indicate the addition of articles where they are not needed.

The above sentences could be due to wrong application of the rule of the target language. Therefore, they can be errors occurring because of intra-lingual interference.

The above **Table 10** shows that 59.7% of the participants did not commit article related errors. Code one was the leading with 29.2% errors while few and moderate errors had 6.9% and 4.2% respectively. There were no participants grouped in code two, four, five and six. The above frequency **Table 11** indicates that, female learners committed more errors that their male counterparts, while rural schools had high error frequency than urban schools.

3.3 Sentence Fragments

3.3.1 Data Presentation

Fragment-related errors can be grouped into two: one with no subject and one with no verb. The following samples clearly illustrate the problem.

28: * My teacher is very clean. Make everyone like her. (My teacher is very clean. She makes everyone like her.)S48/F/R

29: * Our school big. (Our school is big) S57/M/U

Table 12: Fragment Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	65	90.3	90.3	90.3
Very Few Errors - Very Good	6	8.3	8.3	98.6
Few Errors- Good	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 13: Fragment Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency				
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %	
Male	0	2	2	22.2	
Female	6	1	7	77.8	
Total	6	3	9	100.0	
Total Percentage %	66.7	33.3	100.0		

3.3.2 Analysis

The phrase *Make everyone like her* shows an omission of the personal pronoun to refer to the noun in the first part of the sentence thus making second clause of sentence 28 to lack a subject. The fragment should continue from the first sentence as an omission of a subject results in an incomplete sentence and may fail to give the complete meaning of a sentence.

The example illustrated in sentence 29 shows the omission of a verb in a sentence, thus creating a fragment with no verb. This could be due to a literal translation of *dholuo* into English. Our school big (L2) *skundwaduong*. (L1) *Duong* is a Luo adjective for 'big.' It makes sense without a verb in a sentence, a case which is different when it comes to English verb usage. The verb 'is' is needed in sentence 29 to make it complete.

The above **Table 12** indicates that 90.3% of the participants did not commit this error. Very few (code1) and few (code2) errors were observed with 8.3% and 1.4% respectively.

Table 13 shows Female learners committed more errors than male learners and rural schools had fewer errors than urban schools.

3.4 Word order

3.4.1 Data Presentation

Some of the observed errors were related to word order. Here, the pupils did not arrange the words in an order that would make the sentences grammatically correct. Below are examples showing such errors.

30: *My teacher never is absent. (My teacher is never absent.) S40/F/U

31: *I like a lot my school. (I like my school a lot.) S33/F/U

32: *My school is Nyarach near. (My school is near Nyarach.) S56/M/U

33: *They give books us in our school. (They give us books in our school.) S12/M/R

Table 14: Word-related Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	69	95.8	95.8	95.8
Very Few Errors - Very	3	4.2	4.2	100.0
Good				
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 15: Word Order Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency					
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %		
Male	1	1	2	66.7		
Female	1	0	1	33.3		
Total	2	1	3	100		
Total Percentage%	66.7	33.3	100.0			

3.4.2 Analysis

In English, owing to the fewness of the inflexion, the arrangements of the words in a sentence is of the first importance. Some of the orders include: the subject coming before the verb; as, the horse bit the dog, Object coming after the verb for example the horse bit the dog, adverb is generally placed close to the word which it modifies for example he 'never' tells lie. When there is an indirect object and also direct object used, the indirect precedes the direct; as, lend me your ear (Wren, P. C. & Martin H., 2011, p. 228).

In sentence 30, the word *never* which is an adverb of time, has been put at a wrong place. It should come after the verb 'is'. Wrong positioning of the adverb of degree *alot* makes sentence 31 in correct. The adverb near in Sentence 32, should come after the verb 'is'. Lastly, sentence 33 shows wrong position of pronoun *us* as it should come immediately after the verb give.

Such errors could be due to Intra-lingual interference. This is because the children could be knowing the L2 words but are not sure of how the words are arranged to get grammatically correct sentences.

95.8% of the participants did not commit errors related to this type of error. The only observed errors were at 4.2% and appeared in code one hence showing that very few errors were observed in this type of error. These are shown in **Table 14**. The frequency **Table 15** above shows that, female learners committed few errors compared to the male learners. In this type of error, urban schools had more error frequency than rural schools.

3.5 Prepositions

3.5.1 Data Presentation

Here are examples of the observed errors of this nature.

34: *Other schools came in our school in sport. (Other schools came to our school for sports) S24/M/U

35: * ... assembly at monday and friday. (... assembly on Mondays and Fridays.) S39/F/R

36: *We speak with English and Kiswahili. (We speak in English and Kiswahili.) S40/F/U

37: * ... the rubbish on the compound. (... the rubbish in the compound.) S5/M/R

Table 16: Preposition Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	34	47.2	47.2	47.2
Very Few Errors - Very Good	35	48.6	48.6	95.8
Few Errors- Good	1	1.4	1.4	97.2
Moderate Errors - Fair	1	1.4	1.4	98.6
Moderate to High Errors- Fairly	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
poor				
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 17: Preposition Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency					
Gender	Urban Schools	an Schools Rural Schools T		Total Percentage %		
Male	15	20	35	51.5		
Female	15	18	33	48.5		
Total	30	38	68	100.0		
Total Percentage%	44.1	55.9	100.0			

3.5.2 Analysis

Preposition is a "closed-system' items, this is because they cannot normally be extended by the creation of additional members, (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 31) thus requires learners of L2 to have no option apart from knowing them and knowing when or where to use them.

One of the preposition rules states that, if a preposition (in/for/about among others) is followed by a verb, the verb ends in -ing.

The preposition *in* in sentence 34 shows wrong use of preposition of place and purpose. *At* in Sentence 35 shows inappropriate preposition of time. Sentence 36 has the word *with* which personifies English and Kiswahili. Example 37 shows wrong use of preposition *on*. Errors of this nature could be due to lack of enough exposure to the L2 rule or not knowing how the rule works or even carelessness of the participants when writing. Such errors can be grouped as errors due to intra-lingual interference.

This group of errors were committed as shown in **Table 16** above. Respondents with very few (1) errors were 47% whereas few (code2), moderate (code3), moderate to high errors (code4) had equal percentage of 1.4%, 47% of the marked data did not have this group of error. No frequencies observed in code five and six. The frequency **Table 17** shows that male students committed more errors than the female students while rural school had the highest frequency level.

3.6 Pronouns

3.6.1 Data Presentation

These sentences illustrate how pupils wrongly used pronouns.

- 38: *pupils which want to read story books. (Pupils who want to read story books.) S62/F/R
- 39: *Our school is painted by colour blue. (Our school is painted blue/ colour blue.) S7/M/R
- 40: *My parents learnt from their. (My parents learnt there.) S14/M/U
- 41: *A tank that was having his tap. (A tank that has its tap.) S8/F/R

Table 18: Pronouns Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	47	65.3	65.3	65.3
Very Few Errors - Very	21	29.2	29.2	94.4
Good				
Few Errors- Good	3	4.2	4.2	98.6
Moderate Errors – Fair	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 19: Pronouns Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency						
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %			
Male	12	10	22	48.9			
Female	16	7	23	51.1			
Total	28	17	45	100.0			
Total Percentage%	62.2	37.8	100.0				

3.6.2 Analysis

English pronouns mostly have two cases: somebody (common) and somebody's (genitive). Though, six pronouns take objective case. Example

Subjective:	I	we	he	she	they	who
Objective:	Me	us	him	her	them	who(m)
Genitive:	My	our	his	her	their	whose.

Pronouns that have distinctions of persons include: Personal, possessive, and reflective pronouns. Pronouns identifies gender between masculine, feminine, and non-personal. Relative and interrogative pronouns and determiners are used to distinguish personal and non-personal gender. Reflexive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns, possessive pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, universal pronouns and determiners and all members of this special family. The concept of pronouns will be looked at in general. This is because of the level of exposure that the learners under this study have gotten.

Which in sentence 38 shows wrong usage of relative pronoun which denotes non-living things. Illogical use of by in sentence 39 to denote the agent which is not makes the pronoun by erroneous in the sentence. The word their in sentence 40 is wrong as it should be 'there'. The learner confuses homophone 'there and their'. Finally, the word his in sentence 41, shows the wrong use of possessive pronoun. Like preposition, pronouns are also in the family of 'closed- system items.' These errors can be due to intra-lingual interference.

As can be seen from the above **Table 18**, 65.53% of the respondents did not commit such errors. Very few errors (code 1) were seen on 29.2% of the observed scripts, few errors (code

2) at 4.2 percent and finally, moderate errors (code3) at 1.4% of the scripts. In **Table 19**, it can be noted that, the female students committed more errors than their male counterpart. Urban school also recorded the highest frequency.

3.7 Conjunctions

3.7.1 Data Presentation

Omission and addition of conjunctions was observed from the collected data. For example:

- 42: *Where we can play football other games. (Where can we play football and other games?) S48/F/R
- 43: * My school is called Sare. And it is big. (My school is called Sare. It is big. /My school which is called Sare is big.) S24/ M/R

Table 20: Conjunction Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	49	68.1	68.1	68.1
Very Few Errors - Very Good	18	25.0	25.0	93.1
Few Errors- Good	4	5.6	5.6	98.6
Moderate to High Errors- Fairly	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
poor.				
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 21: Conjunction Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency					
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage%		
Male	11	15	26	63.4		
Female	6	9	15	36.6		
Total	17	24	41	100.0		
Total Percentage%	41.5	58.5	100.0			

3.7.2 Analysis

Conjunction can be defined as a connective or connecting particles with the special function of joining together sentences, clauses, phrases or words. We have coordinating conjunctions for example *for*, *and*, *but*, *yet* and the subordinating conjunctions which includes *although*, *because*, *after* among others. Correlatives like coordinating correlatives and subordinating correlatives can be formed using the coordinates and subordinates.

Sentence 42 illustrates omission of conjunction 'and' to join two sentences referring to the same subject as seen in sentence *Where we can play football* sentence 1 and *other games* sentence 2. This could be due to carelessness of the learner or maybe ignorance on conjunction related issues.

The addition of conjunctions where they are not needed was also observed as shown in example 43. Here, the learner failed to comprehend compound sentence formation rule thus making the presence of the word *and* wrong as it is unnecessary in the sentence. It was noted that, the most commonly misused conjunction was 'and'. The Majority of the participant did not know when or even how to use the conjunctions. Errors on conjunctions could be due to intra-lingual interference.

The above **Table 20**, indicate that, 68.1% of the observed data had no errors. The errors that appeared were in code one, two and four. None of the errors were grouped in code three four and five. The above frequency **Table 21** shows that, male student committed the highest amount of errors than female students. Learners in rural schools had more errors than learners in urban schools.

3.8 Nouns

3.8.1 Data Presentation

44: * mouse are many in our school. (There are many mice in our school.) S11/F/R

45: * we must wear shoes in our foot. (We must wear shoes in our feet. / We must wear shoes) S38/M/U

46: * our headteacher and deputy are man. (Our head teacher and deputy head teacher are men.) S63/F/R

Table 22: Noun Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	59	81.9	81.9	81.9
Very Few Errors - Very	10	13.9	13.9	95.8
Good				
Few Errors- Good	2	2.8	2.8	98.6
Moderate Errors - Fair	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 23: Nouns Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency					
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage%		
Male	1	7	8	32		
Female	12	5	17	68		
Total	13	12	25	100.0		
Total Percentage%	52	48	100.0			

3.8.2 Analysis

Irregular nouns are nouns that form their plurals by completely changing its spelling in other ways, then adding the suffixes. In sentence 44, the word *mouse* as it is a wrong pluralisation of the irregular noun. The predicate of sentence 44 shows that the subject noun should be in plural form 'mice'. An assumption that shoes must have phrasal quantifier as in a pair of shoes to pluralise hence 'feet' which is plural indicates why *foot* is an error in example 45.

The word *man* in example 46 shows that the learner failed to see that the noun 'head teacher and deputy form plural hence 'men'.

These group of errors could have arisen because the learner's knowledge of the target language is incomplete, they fail to know what should be done, in this case; the rule of handling irregular nouns.

Table 22 that there were no major errors observed in this type of error as 81.9 % of the respondents did not commit any error. In this type of error, male learners made fewer errors that their female counterparts and learners in urban school had high error frequency than learners in rural schools as shown in **Table 23**.

3.9 Adjectives

3.9.1 Data Presentation

Adjective related errors were observed from the marked compositions. This is illustrated in the following examples.

47: *My school is the goodest in Migori County. (My school is the best in Migori County.) S26/F/U

48: *My school is very bright school. (My school is...) S72/M/R

49: *My school teachers are kind and love. (My teachers are kind and loving.) S27/M/U

Table 24: Adjective Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	62	86.1	86.1	86.1
Very Few Errors - Very	9	12.5	12.5	98.6
Good				
Few Errors- Good	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 25: Adjective Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency			
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %
Male	5	1	6	37.5
Female	6	4	10	62.5
Total	11	5	16	100.0
Total %	68.75	31.25	100.0	

3.9.2 Analysis

Adjectives describe nouns and can be expressed in degree such as: positive degree (when no comparison is done), comparative degree (when two items are being compared) and superlative degree (when more than two items are being compared. Some adjectives are irregular, for example, *good – better –best, bad –worse –worst*. It is these that cause most trouble in writing English (Haydin, 1960, pp. 46-52)

The word *goodest* in example 47 shows the wrong use of the formation of the adjective in the superlative form. This word must take an irregular form *best*. Sentence 48 on the other hand has the word *bright* which indicates use of inappropriate adjective, as the word 'bright' can only be used to describe nouns that have life in them. Lastly, wrong use to formation on predicative adjective is shown by use of the word *love* in sentence 49.

Such errors could be due to the participants limited knowledge of English grammar hence can be identified as errors due to Intra-lingual interference. Just like adjective related errors, there were no major errors observed in this type of error as 86.1 % of the respondents did not commit any error as shown in **Table 24**. Learners in urban schools recoded made more errors than learners in rural schools as shown in **Table 25**.

CHAPTER FOUR: LEXICAL ERRORS

4.1 Word Choice Errors

4.1.1 Data Presentation

- 50: * In our school we have 900 pupils in our school. (In our school we have 900 pupils.) S14/M/U
- 51: * The number of pupils in our school is six hundred pupils. (The number of pupils in our school is six hundred.) S29/F/U
- 52: * In my class there are forty two pupils in my class. (In my class, there are fortytwo pupils.) S52/M/U
- 53: *The name of our school is called Sare Primary School. (Our school is called Sare Primary.) S38/M/U
- 54: *You look the timetable. (You check the timetable/ You look at the timetable) S48/F/R

Table 26: Word Choice Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	51	70.8	70.8	70.8
Very Few Errors - Very	16	22.2	22.2	93.1
Good				
Few Errors- Good	5	6.9	6.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 27: Word Choice Related Errors – Frequency Distribution Table

	Frequency			
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %
Male	13	7	20	55.6
Female	12	4	16	44.4
Total	25	11	36	100.0
Total Percentage%	69.4	30.6	100.0	

4.1.2 Analysis

Some of the participants' choices of words, lead them into constructing erroneous sentences as shown in the examples above. The phrase *in our school* in example 50 shows repetition of a prepositional phrase. Without it, the sentence would have been correct. Sentence 51 indicates a case where a noun has been repeated. The repeated noun is *pupils*. Example 52 is another repletion of a prepositional phrase, in this case *in my class*. The noun *school* has been repeated in sentence 53. Finally, example 54. The choice to repeat these words or phrases made the sentences to be rendered incorrect. Redundancy was a very common form of lexical error. It might have been caused by incompetence in the L2 language rules.

Table 26 above, clearly indicates that 71% of the observed scripts had no errors related to this type of error. Only few and very few errors were observed with 7% and 22% respectively. In the frequency **Table 27** above, we can deduce that, male learners made more errors than their female counterparts whereas urban learners in school had higher error frequency than learners in rural schools.

CHAPTER FIVE: WRITING-MECHANICS ERRORS

This chapter presents two error types: spelling and punctuation. Data observed from the marked compositions, analysis of their frequencies as well as rural-urban and gender variability is presented.

5.1 Spelling

5.1.1 Data Presentation

Most of the spelling errors committed by the learners occurred due to use of an incorrect letter, omitting a letter or adding an unnecessary letter and capitalization. This is shown in the examples below:

Omission of a letter:

55: * Man. (Many) S5/M/R

56: *were. (where/wear) S13/M..., S7/M/R

57: *save their hair. (shave their hair.) S50/F/U

Incorrect letter:

58: *Four handred. (Four hundred.) S35/F/R

59: *surcksacefull. (Successful.) S72/M/R

60: *beatifull. (Beautiful.) S72/M/R

Addition of a letter or letters:

61: **Hevery* (Every) S47/M/R

62: *Visitours (Visitors) S3/F/R

63: *Covaredd (Covered) S50/F/U

Capitalization: Capitalization is an aspect of spelling. Errors of such form were observed, and their frequency was quite high, thus making spelling errors to have higher frequencies than all the observed error types. The observed errors were:

64: * my school is very beautiful. (My school is very beautiful.)

65: *thank you for bringing. (Thank you for bringing...) S37M/U

66: *it is found in Suna East constituency. (It is found in Suna East constituency) S7/M/R

67: *its (It's.) S64/F/R

68: *On fridays. (On Friday.) S69/F/R

69: *mr.Oranga. (Mr.Oranga.) S69/F/R

70: *... Deputy. (... deputy.) S55/F/U

Table 28: Spelling Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	4	5.6	5.6	5.6
Very Few Errors - Very Good	4	5.6	5.6	11.1
Few Errors- Good	4	5.6	5.6	16.7
Moderate Errors - Fair	7	9.7	9.7	26.4
Moderate to High Errors- Fairly	7	9.7	9.7	36.1
Poor.				
High number of errors - Poor	7	9.7	9.7	45.8
Very high number of errors -	39	54.2	54.2	100.0
Very Poor				
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 29: Spelling Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency			
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %
Male	236	355	591	53.6
Female	231	281	512	46.4
Total	467	636	1103	100.0
Total Percentage%	42.3	57.7	100.0	

5.1.2 Analysis

Some of the spelling rules have already been discussed in 2.1.2. Capital letters make reading easier, thus failure to use them portrays an ignorance of correct English. A word that does not obey the capital letter rule can never be right. Several rules which show when capital letters are to be used include: to write pronouns I and the interjection O, to begin a sentence, to begin a proper noun, to begin geographical names: towns, countries, rivers, lakes, mountains

among others; for names of the days of the week, months of the year, and for special holidays (Haydin, 1960, pp. 71-72).

The omission of [e] in the word man in example 55 has given the word another form which is not correct in the context where it is used. The word were is wrongly spelt in sample 56 as it missed out letter[h] to make it 'where'. This is a sign of poor mastery of word form especially homophone related word. In example 57, the word save is wrongly spelt as it shows that the learner is confusing sound [s] and [\int]. The content sends a sign that the word ought to have been 'shave'.

Incorrect letters were observed in the word *handred* as shown in example 58. It is an error because it has sound [a] for sound [u]thus missing 'hundred'. The learners have poor mastery of spelling thus being unable to get the correct spellings. This is the same case with words like *surcksacefull* in example 59 and *beautifull* in example 60.

Addition of a letter or letters in example 61 to 63 is also observed. In 61, the word *Hevery* was wrongly spelt as it had additional letter [h] thus missing its correct form 'every'. *Visitours* in example 62 has additional letter [u] thus *giving* the word a wrong spelling. Letter [d] is added in example 63 which has the word *Coveredd*. This shows wrong mastery of spelling in the formation of past participle.

Spelling errors related with capitalization are illustrated on: the word *my* in sentence 64, *thank* in sentence 65 and the word *it* in sentence 66 that start the sentences illustrate no mastery of capitalization rule which states that a sentence must begin with a capital letter. Sentence 67 indicates no mastery of capitalization rule and confusion of the subject plus verb (It is) with possessive (its). In sentence 68, the word *Fridays* has been wrongly written as capital letter rule states that, days of the week start with capital letter. A rule that was not obeyed in this sentence. Sentence 69 shows errors on abbreviated word. *mr*. is an abbreviation that is referring to title of a person thus must start with a capital letter. The same rule of capitalization dictates that there should be no capitalization within the sentence unless one is referring to a proper noun, the word *Deputy* in sentence 70 shows that this rule was not followed.

All these spelling problems could be because of ignorance of the TL spelling rule or just wrong application of the English spelling rules. Therefore, they are errors made due to intralingual interference. These errors may have other causes, one of them could be dyslexia which is a slight disorder of the brain that causes difficulty in reading and spelling though this does not affect intelligence. The child tends to make simple mistakes with spellings like jumbling of letters, for example *braek* instead of 'break'.

The occurrences in the case of example 64, 65, 67, 68 and 69 could be explained as errors due to inadequate knowledge of the English language rules as already discussed. These errors can therefore be due to intra-lingual interference. *Dholuo* language may have also interfered since the capital letter rule can only be realized in written language, but not spoken language. Most of the participants do not write in *dholuo* thus not noticing the errors, since they are only visible when writing. In this case, the errors will be due to inter-lingual interference.

This type of error had errors distributed in all codes as shown in **Table 28**, code six which is regarded as very high number of errors had the highest score (54%). On the other hand, only 5.6% of the respondents did not commit this type of error. The frequency **Table 29** shows that female learners made fewer errors than their male counterparts while the learners in rural schools made more errors than learners from urban school.

5.2 Punctuation errors

5.2.1 Data Presentation

The errors revealed that punctuation marks were frequently misused. The errors can be divided into two categories: omission and addition, according to their features. Full stop (.) and comma (,) were found to be the most problematic errors. Examples of errors due to omission and addition of punctuation marks include:

71: *...*Nyakwere Primary School its located in Rongo*. (...Nyakwere Primary School. It's located in Rongo/ Nyakwere Primary School is found in Rongo.) S64/F/R

72: *In our class we have four windows. (In our class, we have four windows/our class has four windows.) S37/M/U

73: * My favorite subject is math (My favorite subject is math.) S61/M/R

74: *There are five thousand. Pupils. : (There are five thousand pupils.) S47/M/R

75: *Football and. Netball. (Football and netball.) S28/F/U

76: * I like my clean school? : (I like my clean school.) S12/M/U

77: *its. (It's.) S64/F/R

Table 30: Punctuation Grading

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
No Errors- Excellent	14	19.4	19.4	19.4
Very Few Errors - Very Good	11	15.3	15.3	34.7
Few Errors- Good	16	22.2	22.2	56.9
Moderate Errors - Fair	6	8.3	8.3	65.3
Moderate to High Errors- Fairly	16	22.2	22.2	87.5
Poor				
High number of errors– Poor	4	5.6	5.6	93.1
Very high number of errors -	5	6.9	6.9	100.0
Very Poor				
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 31: Punctuation Related Errors – Frequency Distribution

	Frequency			
Gender	Urban Schools	Rural Schools	Total	Total Percentage %
Male	65	87	152	45
Female	79	107	186	55
Total	144	194	338	100.0
Total Percentage%	42.6	57.4	100.0	

5.2.2 Analysis

Punctuation can be defined as 'the right use of putting in point or stops in writing' (Wren, P. C. & Martin H., 2011, pp. 243-246) He further identifies six principal stops used in writing as: full stop or period (.), comma (,), semicolon (;), colon (:), question mark (?) and exclamation mark (!). Other marks that are commonly used include: dash (-); parentheses (); inverted comma ("").

One of the rules of full stop usage is to mark the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence. Again, full stop can be used in abbreviations. On the other hand, a comma can be used to: a) separate a series of words in the same construction as in the case of 'he wrote his exercise neatly, quickly and correctly. b) to separate words connected by and; as, high and low, rich and poor, wise and foolish, must all die. There are other usage of commas that will not be discussed as they are introduced to learners at class four. It is good to note that a comma is generally not placed before the word preceded by and.

A question mark is used, instead of full stop, after a direct question, but cannot be used after an indirect question, while exclamation marks should be used after interjections and after phrases and sentences expressing sudden emotions or wish. Apostrophe is used to: to show omission of a letter or letters, form the plural of letters and fingers and lastly in the genitive case of nouns.

The above examples 71 and 72 present the omission of punctuation marks (, and.). In sentence 71, there are two independent simple sentences that are missing the correct punctuation, which is a full stop and the next sentence *its located in Rongo* should start with a capital letter and finally have an apostrophe on *its* to show contraction. Sentence 72 indicates a prepositional phrase that is not separated from the main clause.

Sentence 73 has no final punctuation mark (.) to make it complete and indicate its purpose which is to pass information as the sentence is a statement. These errors could be because punctuation marks are not spoken therefore, not getting their connections when writing the target language. It can also be explained by the fact that commas are not used after a subordinate clause in a *dholuo* sentences thus making learners construct erroneous sentences such as shown in sample 72.

Examples 74 and 79 present errors on punctuation marks that indicate addition. Here, participants added different punctuation marks where they are not needed. In sentence 74, the final punctuation mark (.) is put at a wrong place *thousand*. *Pupils* while the second one is at the right place. The same error is shown in example 75. In sentence 76, the question mark? Is put at a wrong place *school?* A period is the appropriate punctuation mark in this sentence. Lastly, sentence 76 clearly indicate addition of an apostrophe on the word *its*. 'its' is the

possessive form of 'it' while 'it's' is the contraction form of 'it is' The learners wrongly used the rule of English when writing the sentences. This may be due to lack of exposure or laziness as they could be knowing the rule, but not putting effort to ensure that they adhere to the rule.

Punctuation as a type of error had errors appearing in all rector scale codes with few errors and moderate to high errors leading by 22.2% as shown in **Table 30** above. Here, the female learners committed more errors than their male counterparts and learners in rural school made more errors than those from urban schools as shown in **Table 31**.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

This study aimed at analysing errors in the written English of class four learners in Migori County. The study set out three hypotheses. One of the hypotheses was that morphological errors are more frequent than syntactical, lexical and writing mechanics errors. Another hypothesis was that the learners from rural schools make more errors than learners from urban schools. Finally, the third hypothesis was that the female learners make fewer errors than their male counterparts.

Data for the study was a guided composition of seventy-two learners from three sub-counties in Migori County, four schools in each sub-county, two from rural and the remaining two from urban areas. Each school gave six respondents: three boys and three girls. The compositions were marked by the researcher and the errors categorised and analysed. Frequencies and percentage were used as tool for analysis.

A total of 2,255 errors were observed from the data used in the study. More than half of the observed errors were on the writing mechanics, thus making writing mechanics the most frequent error category with 1441 errors equivalent to 63.9%. It had two types: spelling and punctuations. Spelling related errors were the most frequent type with 1103 of the errors observed, which translates to 48.9%.

Morphological errors were observed with the three types: tense related errors, word-compounding errors and affixation errors recoded under it. The total errors in this category were 304 equivalents of 13.5% of the errors. Lexical errors had only one type referred to as word choice, with 36 errors which translates to 1.6%.

Finally, syntactic category was also identified, with nine sub- categories: subject-verb agreement errors, article-related errors, sentence-fragment errors, word order errors, preposition-related errors, pronoun-related errors, conjunction-related errors, noun-related errors and adjective-related errors. This category had a total of 458 errors, equivalent to 20.3%.

Rural schools committed more errors cumulatively than urban schools, urban schools were specifically high in all error categories except writing mechanics whose frequency was equally high. Urban schools performed poorly on lexical related errors at 69% of the total errors committed in this category. Rural schools committed 16% more errors than urban schools in the written mechanics.

Male respondents made 2% more errors cumulatively in the linguistic error categories compared to their female counter parts. The female respondents had 10% more errors only in syntactic category. It was also noted that the male respondents in rural schools committed 6% more errors than their female counterparts although there was no significant difference in error scored between the genders in urban schools.

From this study, it emerged that there are other areas that need future research. There are several aspects of error analyses that still require to be studied. They include paragraphing related errors, errors of irrelevance, comparing the results of this study and that of higher classes and finally, error evaluation.

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OUR SCHOOL

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534/F/A

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S46/MIR

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About & S51/Mlu 100550A school, fifth school is called Rongo Primary
School, FEPTH of jour vertical school. Pepth of jour vertical school. a market. Ourschool have many classes each chasses have dishso table, teachers chair, chelliboard, windows and charits. the class rooms are built of bricks and pointed in yellow colours It has a big compound where children play their games. Our school also has a cow and also trees. We use took to assembly during Monday and triday. When it reaches four aim the hell ringer rings the bell and everybody goesfor breaks We have toilets for both girls and hous, pur school uniform is brown the short, and the shirt is white and contain the chit! term when exam comes. Our school has many teachers. it has even watchmen him Jamids the school at night and day time. Bien their aire cookers towho aire cooking for the treashers. Our school have flowers Oriound the classes and abround sated the flowers are really smart

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536/F/R

is called and Many Pupils

OUR SCHOOL

Cap 402 puncab

549/M/U

ts called Rorgo Primary School. It is a traving SD teachers and Boo and 55 Pupils In thereschool. In my school we have pre-school up to plasseigh o have big compound and Small Sweing put re loop big Us with the milk we seed them and sheller them wealso typed by a verse actor doesn't treat them by a rurse
or a doctor. My school have very many classes there
pupils the also have a office for tradiers. Our school is not
mixed with borders. Our school is farierd at around. school Hiere is a watchman and a watch lady. The watch lady look prophe tong breaks 18 Strong and stronger than the In our school. There is electricity which communate is to read think. In our school we don't like to pay school fees we also like to pay examinating money and-In my school there is are classes and also latrinus herent ches has Bords and desk to sit and read in Muschaol liebratia made from wood so High pupils must race Examination and be a pilot or a nurse or a jude we toade people in coof in my school we have the head teacher who head the school and the deputy teacher we have very mary teachers in our school of sind blue day of boilty. Hank too for pringing for us this kind of controlition. Par thanking all people In our school so, that they can lake good care. Our school is field of Bos Trees around our school.

5 25/F/U 29-6-2018 STON My school Classis 24

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