TRANSFER OF ENGLISH COMPETENCE INTO THE WRITTEN GERMAN OF KENYAN FORM FOUR LEARNERS: THE CASE OF NEGATIVE TRANSFER

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOHY IN GERMAN LINGUISTICS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.

2015

DECLARATION

This is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree examination at any other university.
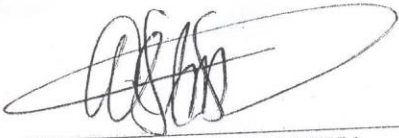
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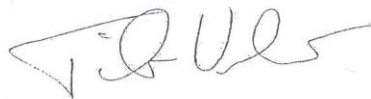This thesis has been submitted for examination with the approval of the following university supervisors.

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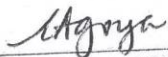
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to

My children

Kena

Raya & Rizi

And my parents

Joseph Hinga Gathii

&

Jane Njeri Hinga

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Under the title "Transfer of English Competence into the Written German of Kenyan Form Four Learners: The Case of Negative Transfer" the present study investigated the role that the English language plays in the written German produced by form four learners of German in Kenya, that is the last level of secondary school in the Kenyan education system. Specifically, the sample of learners fall into two categories: those from schools located in an urban setting where the dominant language is English and those from schools located in a rural setting, where the dominant language is an indigenous language (specifically Kiswahili or Gikuyu).The study focuses on the negative English competence transfer affecting the finite verb in different types of clauses on the one hand, and those affecting lexical choice and spelling on the other hand. The study tested the following hypotheses: 1) There will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses than in main clauses; 2) There will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone than in those preceded by subordinate clauses; 3) There will be more instances of the incorrect sentence-initial placement of the finite verb than of the incorrect sentence-final placement; 4) There will be more errors involving borrowings than any other type of word formation process; 5) The number of errors involving any one of the four linguistic features under study will be greater for learners for whom English is L2 than for those for whom English is L1. To test these hypotheses, data extracted from guided compositions from form four learners of German in seven public county secondary schools were used. By way of statistical measures, the study computed frequency counts and percentages of the errors made by the sample. The study foundthat there was a strong influence from the English language, especially in the main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses (15%) and in subordinate clauses themselves (20%); as well as in word formation (68%). The strong influence from the English language which is the language of instruction in Kenya has implications for the practical teaching of German in Kenyan secondary schools and higher education institutions. In relation to these implications, the study makes several recommendations, the most important of which being that the departments of German Studies at universities and middle level colleges should put more emphasis on courses that focus on grammar, especially in the first year of study so as to help the learner achieve a higher level of competence in the German language that will enable him to tackle the courses in German literature, linguistics and stylistics.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following is a list of abbreviations and definitions of terms as used in this study:

B.A.	Bachelor of Arts programme
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education programme
CA	Contrastive Analysis. The comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages, e.g. the sound system or the grammatical system
CAH	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
DAAD	Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (The German Academic Exchange Service)
EA	Error Analysis. The study of the errors made by second and foreign language learners
Error	A deviation from the standard language, in this study, the Written Standard German, that arises as a result of lack of knowledge. Learner errors result in unacceptable utterances and appear as breaches of the standard. Errors are competence phenomena. A learner would not be able to correct himself because the structures are lacking or were understood wrongly.
FLA	Foreign Language Acquisition. It takes place where the language to be learned is not the native language of the society. The learner starts from no prior linguistic knowledge of the foreign language
FV	Finite verb
IL	Interlanguage / Interim Language. This refers to the learner's language before they fully acquire the target language
KICD	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (The former KIE- Kenya Institute of Education)
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
L1	A language acquired by a person at a young age in informal settings (during the "critical period") usually in the family. A person may have several L1s. For the purpose of the present study, the L1 of the learners will be considered to be the language predominantly spoken in

	the region that is English for Nairobi Region, Gikuyu for Central region and Kiswahili for Mombasa region.
L2	A language acquired after having acquired an L1 usually beyond the age of 10 and in informal settings (without the use of books, rules and formal training). A person may have acquired more than one L2.
L3	A foreign language that is learnt by formal training, primarily in a school setting. A person may learn more than one L3. For the purpose of the present study, German is clearly a L3 for almost all Kenyan learners.
MC	Main clause
Mistake	The selection of the wrong style, dialect or variety. These performance phenomena are a regular feature of native-speakers speech. A learner can correct himself if the mistake is pointed out to him.
Morpheme	The smallest meaningful element in a word
Morphology	The rules and principles of how parts of a word are joined together to form words. The study of morphemes
Orthography	The rules and principles of how a language is written
SC	Subordinate clause
SLA	Second Language Acquisition. This takes place in a situation where the language is spoken. The learner starts from knowledge of a language(s) and constantly constructs a system of second language rules.
SVO	Subject-Verb-Object order of elements in a sentence, phrase or clause.
Syntax	The rules and principles of grammar which are used for ordering and connecting words to form phrases or sentences.
TL	Target language. Language to be learned. In the present study this is German.
UG	Universal Grammar theory advanced by Chomsky.
VSO	Verb-Subject-Object order of elements in a sentence, phrase or clause.
WSG	Written Standard German
WSE	Written Standard English

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the aim and objectives of the study, the justification of the study, scope and limitations, definition of terms, review of the literature, theoretical framework, research hypotheses and research methodology. It also gives a brief outline of the contents of the thesis.

1.1   THE BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Standard German is the most widely-spoken first language in the European Union (Hintereder 2010: 7). It is spoken as a first language by approximately 95 - 100 million speakers worldwide (Gordon 2005 cited in Fagan 2009:1; Hintereder 2010: 7). The larger percentage of its speakers lives in the Federal Republic of Germany. The German language is a European language mostly spoken in Germany, Austria, Switzerland and Denmark. It is an official language in these countries in Europe: Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Liechtenstein und Luxembourg. It is also spoken and understood in several countries that boarder Germany like Poland, Belgium and The Czech Republic. In Africa, closer home, the German language is spoken and understood as a first language and accepted as national language in Namibia which was a German territory until 1915.

German as an optional and examinable subject has been taught in selected public and private secondary schools in Kenya for several decades. There is however conflicting information regarding the year the language was introduced in the Kenyan secondary schools. According to Laurien (1987), it was already introduced in the Kenyan secondary school curriculum in 1980 (Laurien 1987: 89, cited in Böhm 2003:428). However, Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 109) notes that the German language had been introduced much earlier at a Nairobi school, notably The Kenya

High School in Nairobi that introduced German in 1968 and where the first *High School CertificateExamination* in German was done in Kenya in 1971. She adds that the second school which introduced German was The Starehe Boys' Centre in Nairobi in 1981(Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 107). Gradually more and more schools started offering German and by 1999 the schools offering German had increased and there were a total of twenty five schools with German as an examinable subject in Kenya (Böhm 2003: 427). The trend is an upward one and in the year 2015 German can be chosen as an elective subject in at least eighty secondary schools in Kenya[1].

According to the Ministry of Education Kenyan Secondary Education Syllabus, the German language course in Kenyan public secondary schools lasts four years. It is mostly from pupils of these schools that the B.Ed. and B.A. German programmes at Kenyan public universities draw their students (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology Secondary Education Syllabus for German, Kiswahili, Physical Education, Arabic, French VolumeI, 2002: 140). German at Kenyan public universities started in the early 1980s. The University of Nairobi started a B.A. course in German Studies in the year 1982 which was taught by a lecturer who had been sent in the year 1981 by the DAAD (German Academic Exchange Service)[2]. A Master programme in German Studies was to follow at this university ten years later (Augart and Ikobwa 2013: 2). Furthermore one can obtain a Ph.D. in German Studies from this university[3].

At another Kenyan University, The Kenyatta University, a B.Ed. degree programme in German language was also introduced in 1989 whose aim was to train teachers for the German language for the Kenyan public secondary schools that had introduced German as a subject. German in

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[1]   Information from the Goethe Institute Kenya 2015 (The German Cultural Centre)
[2]   Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst
[3]   Information from http://germanstudies.uonbi.ac.ke/departmental-degrees, last accessed on 24.05.2015.

these secondary schools was at that time being taught by native speakers of German. This programme, just like the one at the University of Nairobi, was also supported by the DAAD through the sending of lecturers and reading materials from Germany. The students of German have also benefitted from exchange trips to Germany. In addition, the DAAD regularly offers stipends for several Kenyan university students of German Studies who spend up to five months at a German University to enhance on their language skills and to pursue individual research projects. These stipends are awarded on the basis of language contests that are organized annually. This support from DAAD continues to date for German Studies sections at the University of Nairobi and the Kenyatta University. Gradually, there have also been Kenyans lecturing in these Universities, some with Ph.D. qualification and some with a Master degree in German Studies. Some new developments to the programme at Kenyatta University were the introduction of the B.A. programme in German in 2002 and the B.A. German Minor programme in the year 2011. The B.A. German Minor programme was introduced with an aim of helping to sustain the German language among the students who, though having learnt German in secondary school, choose to pursue their studies in other programmes other than German at the university. The introduction of the B.A. German Minor programme was at its initial stages free of charge but from the year 2013 charges were introduced. It is possible that the introduction of this fee payment could have had a negative effect on the number of students who register for this programme as the number of students doing a B.A. German Minor has since drastically dropped. In 2015 for example there are only two students enrolled in the B.A. German Minor programme compared to nine students in 2011.The Moi University in Eldoret launched a B.A. programme in German language in the year 2009. This degree programme though not supported by a DAAD

lecturer, receives support in form of book donations, research materials and scholarships to lecturers and students of German.

Just like in most countries on the African continent, the linguistic situation in Kenya is diverse and complex. The German language learners in Kenya thus find themselves in a multilingual environment. There are around seventy indigenous languages and two principal languages (specifically English and Kiswahili) in Kenya.[4] This multilingual context is such that apart from the indigenous languages, Kiswahili and English are also spoken (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 9). This setting makes transfer phenomena possible. The source(s) of linguistic transfers is not always clear and they cannot be classified as coming from a specific language. Riehl (2004: 28) remarks that multilinguals alternate among the languages they know where some languages remain active and others in the background. For the Kenyan linguistic situation, it can be said that the active languages are English and Kiswahili. Thus transfer from English and Kiswahili is very likely when they learn a foreign language. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 18) argues that transfer from English and Kiswahili is very possible because the linguistic competence of the learners is better developed in these two languages. Furthermore, Kenyans have partially acquired these languages through formal school training which is an experience they can transfer to learning another language like German. According to Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 9) English and Kiswahili are often chosen in communication concerning school themes while the various L1 languages are used in communication in family circles.Moreover, argues Agoya-Wotsuna, transfer differs according to the learners L1 and this transfer can be expected at all levels: that is on the phonetic,

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[4]   According to www.ethnologue.com the two principal languages in Kenya are English and Kiswahili. It also lists the number of individual languages for Kenya as 68. Of these 67 are living and 1 is extinct. Of the living languages, 12 are constitutional, 34 are developing, 15 are vigorous, 2 are in trouble and 4 are dying. Last accessed on 20.5.2015.

phonological, morpho-syntactical, lexical, semantic, and discourse levels (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 9).

The following is a close look at the status of Kiswahili, English and German languages in Kenya. Kiswahili or Swahili as it is commonly referred to, has been the national language in Kenya since independence in 1963 but gained official status in 2010 when the new constitution was promulgated.[5] There however seems to be some controversy regarding the status of these two official languages. This is for example echoed in an article published by Mwenda Mbatiah entitled "Meeting pushes for greater role of Kiswahili" in one of the Kenyan dailies "The Saturday Nation" on 8.11.2014. According to this article, the author incorrectly posits that the new Kenyan constitution that was promulgated on 27.8.2010 states "that Kiswahili is the national language as well as the *first* official language in Kenya while English is the *second* official language" (The Saturday Nation, 8.11.2014, pg. 33). This is incorrect. The Kenyan constitution does not state that Kiswahili is the first official language. It just states that Kiswahili and English are the official languages of Kenya. Though Kiswahili is mentioned first, there is no implication of firstness or priority going along with this.

Concerning the origin of the Kiswahili language, Lazaro (1988: 6) states that Kiswahili, an L1 at the East African Coast, developed mainly through trade and is composed of words and structures from Bantu languages, Arabic and English though some words are borrowed from languages like German and Portuguese. Lazaro further adds that Kiswahili is mainly spoken in the following

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[5]   The Kenyan Constitution 2010 Chapter II Article 1 states that the national language of the Republic is Kiswahili and Article II states that the official languages of the Republic are Kiswahili and English.

countries: Tanzania, Kenya, Rwanda, Burundi, Uganda and in Eastern Zaire[6]. In Kenya, Kiswahili is offered both in primary and secondary schools as a compulsory examinable subject. For the present study Kiswahili plays the role of L1 for the Kenyan learners of German at the Coastal region.

English is one of the two official languages in Kenya and the main medium of instruction from upper primary school onwards. It is also a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools. Other than that, English is also the language of communication used on all levels of government, business and industry. According to Richards et al. (1985: 93) English plays a special role in Kenya. These authors see English as a second language in Kenya since it is used as a language of instruction at school, as a language of business and government, and everyday communication by some people though it is not the first language of the population.

Ellis (2008: 6) distinguishes between 'second language' and 'foreign language' acquisition / learning. On the one hand, second language acquisition happens when the language plays an institutional and social role in the community because it functions as an established means of communication among members who speak some other language as their native language. This is for example English in countries like the United States, the United Kingdom, African countries like Nigeria and Zambia. In these countries, English is learnt as a second language. This however might not necessarily be true for all speakers of English in the UK and in the USA.The role of English in Kenya is largely similar to the role English plays in these countries. Foreign language learning on the other hand takes place in instances where the language plays no major role in the community and is formally learnt only in the classroom. A good example is German or French

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[6] Eastern Zaire is the present day Democratic Republic Congo.

learnt in Kenya. Ellis (2008) however sees this distinction as a sociolinguistic one and not a psycholinguistic one and notes that the term second language acquisition covers both types of learning.

The German language is learnt as a foreign language in selected public secondary schools in Kenya as an elective.[7] Thus German for Kenyan learners becomes an L3 after the various indigenous language(s), and the official languages Kiswahili and English. The scenario where a language is learnt as L3 is what Hufeisen and Neuner (2003: 5) refer to as 'tertiary languages' in their book "Mehrsprachigkeitskonzept – Tertiärsprachen- Deutsch nach English" when they state that "tertiary languages are those foreign languages that are learnt after the first foreign language".[8]

For the present study, the distinctive role played by German and English languages in Kenya is very important. German is clearly an L3 or foreign language for almost all Kenyan learners. A foreign language is a language learnt primarily in the classroom by formal training. The present study acknowledges that one person may learn more than one L3. The present investigation argues that English for Kenyans is not a foreign language. This is because English has a lot of features of a second language or L2 which for many Kenyans is acquired informally. An L2 language for the present research is a language acquired after having acquired an L1 usually beyond the age of 10 and in informal settings that is without the use of books, rules and formal training.English plays the role of L2 for learners of German in Kenya in the rural settings, that

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[7]   The German language is also taught in some private and international schools and universities in Kenya.
[8]Als Tertiärsprachen bezeichnet man diejenigen Fremdprachen, die in der zeitlichen Abfolge nach einer ersten Fremdsprache, d.h. als 2., 3., 4., etc. erlernt werden (Hufeisen und Neuner, 2003: 5). (Translated into English by A.N.H.)

are in Central and Coast regions for this present study. The present study concurs with Hufeisen (2000) who posits that for English language learners in Canada,

> learning and acquisition co-occur partly due to the fact that for them, English is another foreign language that they have learned, and at the same time it is the language of their daily life (Hufeisen 2000: 24).

This statement could hold true for the Kenyan learners of German in the rural regions. The present study acknowledges that one person may have acquired more than one L2. English, for the present research is thus viewed as an L1 for the learners of German in Nairobi region. This is because most of these learners in Nairobi have acquired English informally at a tender age in informal settings, usually in the family, from their friends, from the streets and from the media etc.The present study also acknowledges that a person may have more than one L1. The two categories of learners for the present investigation acquire English (L1or L2) informally while they formally learn German (L3) in a classroom setting.

The situation where German takes up the role of a L3, that is English being the first formally learned language and German being the second formally learned language, is a common one in the world. Neuner (1996: 211) in presenting results of an interview conducted by the Goethe Institute in the 1970s among learners of German reports that three out of four course participants learning German confirmed that they had learnt German as a second or third foreign language after English.[9] Dentler et al. (2000) in their book on multilingualism also observe that:

> German is seldom a first foreign language but in most cases German is learnt as a second foreign language. This situation is therefore coupled with specific characteristics compared to a situation when one is learning a first foreign language (Dentler et al. 2000: 3) [10]

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[9]   Information as per which Goethe Institute carried out the interview and where is not provided.

[10]   Dentler et al. beobachten, daβ (sic) Deutsch eben selten erste Fremdsprache, sondern meist mindestens zweite Fremdsprache ist und daher mit spezifischen Charakteristika im Sprachlernprozeβ (sic) verbunden ist, die beim Lernen einer ersten Fremsprache gar nicht auftauchen (Dentler 2003: 3). (Translated into English by A.N.H)

Hufeisen (2003: 9) notes however that learning German after English is not the ideal situation in the world since the motivation to learn another foreign language after English diminishes when one bears in mind that English as a lingua franca can serve almost all needs. When on the other hand the L2 is German, French, Spanish or another language, the interest and motivation to learn English as an L3 is strong.

Learners of German in Kenya start learning German in secondary school and the majority of them are mainly either bilingual in English and Kiswahili or in some cases trilingual in a regional L1, English and Kiswahili (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 17). This means that they bring with them this knowledge of other language(s) as well as language learning experiences and strategies as they start to learn German. Hessky (1994: 23) also remarks that learners of any foreign language are never *tabula rasa*. She argues that learners of German bring with them not just the language use of their L1 but a highly developed language awareness of their L1 that cannot and should not be neglected. According to Miβler (2000: 7) "all foreign language learning leads to the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and experience of this task, and this knowledge and experience are at the individual's disposal when learning a further foreign language". This argument is further echoed by Hufeisen (2000: 24) who posits that

> while beginning to learn a second foreign language the learner has already developed a set of experiences, mechanisms and strategies that incorporate his / her L2 –experiences and this seems to be the main determining difference between L2- and L3- learning.

The present study concurs with this argument and further argues that another major difference between L2 and L3 learning is if it is taught as a foreign language or not. English is clearly not taught as a foreign language in Kenya and furthermore it is a medium of instruction from upper

primary onwards in all subjects apart from Kiswahili subject and the foreign languages like German, French and Arabic.[11]

Learners in Kenya learn German as an L3 and the role that the various L1s, Kiswahili and English play cannot be ignored. This complex linguistic situation in Kenya however attaches to English a very important role. This is because English is the language of instruction in primary and secondary school. In some cases it is not easy to say which the L1 of the learner is. English is thus special for the learner of German in Kenya. Some learners have more than one L1. This became evident in the present study in the questionnaires that the learners filled during data collection. Some filled their L1 as one of the Kenyan indigenous languages, others as English, others as Kiswahili, while others indicated both English and Kiswahili. Some did not indicate their L1 at all.However the learners were also asked to indicate the language(s) they preferred to speak with their family members, father, mother, grandmother, grandfather etc., friends and schoolmates presently and before. It is from their answers that conclusions were drawn regarding the learners' L1 and L2.

The learners of this present research could broadly be classified into two groups: those in an urban setting where the dominant language is English where the English language plays the role of an L1 for them and those in a rural setting where the dominant language is a language other than English. This could be an indigenous language or Kiswahili and thus English plays the role of a L2 for these learners. The English language is viewed in the present study as an L1 for the learners of German in urban settings and an L2 for the learners of German in the rural settings,

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[11]   At the Kenyatta University for example English falls under the "English and Linguistics Department" while German falls under the "Foreign Languages Department".

and exerts a very strong influence while learning German in as far as Kenyan learners are concerned. This could be due to the fact that the English language is very dominant, strong and active in the minds of the learners of German in Kenya.

Hufeisen (2000: 31) discusses three reasons for the dominance of a language. According to her, the dominance may be due to the fact a) that the language has simply been learned for a longer period of time; b) that there is a high intrinsic motivation to learn the particular language; c) that there has been a lengthy stay in the respective country so that the learning process is enriched by an immersion-like acquisition. For the case of the English language in Kenya, it can be said that the first and second reason fully apply while the third reason cannot be fully accounted for. This is because most of the learners in the present study use English from a very tender age (at home, in preschool or in kindergarten) and all pupils have no choice but to use English in primary and secondary schools since it is the medium of instruction. The English language is not only learned in Kenyan primary and secondary schools but it is also the medium of instruction for all subjects apart from Kiswahili in these institutions. As for the case of motivation, this varies from learner to learner. There are learners who hope to study and work abroad later while there are those who will work in Kenya. For these two categories of students, the English language as lingua franca is of great importance. Furthermore, the question of status should not be neglected. One is seen as more privileged if one is able to express oneself well in the English language. The third reason cannot be fully accounted for in Kenya. This is because none of the learners in the present study has visited an English speaking country for example Britain let alone stayed there for a longer period. And the same could be said for most secondary school pupils throughout the country.

Other than those in international schools, most have not visited the respective countries of the foreign language(s) being offered.

The aim of teaching any language in school is to enable the learner to communicate in the language effectively. Kjär (2000: 41) argues that the overall objective of teaching German as a foreign language is the attainment of a more or less flawless oral and written communication with the help of this language. This means learning German language must go beyond teaching grammar, an argument advanced in the Schüler Duden Grammatik (1988: 436) that emphasizes this fact by stating that "language is more than grammar and one can achieve more with language other than just explaining grammatical concepts"[12]. Thus grammar should be learned not for the sake of knowing and listing the rules but with an aim of using the grammar to aid effective communication. It is in the process of communication, both oral and written, that one can confirm whether the grammar has been well learnt or not. The four communication skills of language are listening, speaking, reading and writing. To be able to utilize these four skills effectively, the learners need to use the grammar correctly and appropriately both receptively and productively. To use the grammar productively means the learners should be able to speak and write that particular language according to its standard norms and to the contextual requirements of its concrete use.

From the experience I have gathered as a teacher of German for several years, I have observed that most learners of German in Kenya have difficulty in expressing themselves in the target language. This is especially in their written German where most learners tend to express

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[12]   Sprache ist mehr als Grammatik, und mit Sprache kann man mehr leisten, als eine rein grammatische Betrachtungsweise erklären kann (Schülerduden Grammatik, 1988: 436). (Translated into English by A.N.H).

themselves against the background of their competence in the English language. This dominance of the English language over the other learners' prior linguistic knowledge tends to aid communication since English and German are both Western Germanic languagesand are similar to a great extent as far as basic vocabulary and grammar are concerned. In this case, English acts as a true friend. This is especially so for cognates.[13] German and English share many cognates, e.g. *Park / park*, *Winter / winter, Haus / house, trinken / drink*just to name a few. One should on the other hand beware of false friends. These are cognates that do not have same meanings, although they look and sound the same. For example the German word *Gift* is best translated as *poison* in the English language, the German word *Promotion* has nothing to do with a *job* but means *theprocess of doing a doctorate or the result thereof*while the German adjective *aktuell* translates to *current*in the English language and not *actual* as it deceivingly seems. In terms of German syntax, the subordinate conjunction *weil* is in most cases wrongly translated into *while* in the English language instead of *because*; the conjunction *wenn* is also erroneously translated as *when* in English and this leads the learners to write it as *wann* in German sentences, yet *wann* is an interrogative. Thus in some cases there occurs some negative transfer and this leads to errors. English for the students of German is in this regard more of a foe than a friend.

The present study investigates the extent of negative transfer of English competence of Kenyan form four learners of German into the German language when writing. These Kenyan multilingual learners start learning German in form one, i.e. around the age of 14. It should be borne in mind that most of these learners can comprehend Kiswahili and English before they start learning German. As for the indigenous languages some of these learners can only understand them when they are spoken to but cannot express themselves in them. Some learners

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[13] Cognates are words from two or three languages that are similar due to common origin.

can neither understand nor communicate in 'their' indigenous languages.Thus they cannot hear, write, read nor speak their indigenous languages.One can even question why these languages are called 'theirs' and why one would indicate them as so.The reason here could probably be linked to identity and / or lineage. Children in Kenya identify with the language of the father even when one cannot speak it since in Kenya one carries the name of the father as surname. Arowosegbe (2005: 23, cited in Oyedele 2015: 16) sheds more light in this regard while assessing the language situation in Nigeria. According to Arowosegbe, the term indigenous language / 'mother tongue' is also used synonymously with the term L1and referred earlier to the language of the father. This is because Nigeria is patriarchal. However in Nigeria today, the L1 can be the language of the parents, the immediate surrounding or the official language of the country. Arowosegbe posits that

> The mother tongue is the first language that a child acquires after being born. Although it may be 'related' to the parents'own language, it does not entirely depend on it. If a child is born by parents of Yoruba language origin but the parents are living in a linguistic community, which uses the English language, the child may first pick the English language and that would be his first language. If the parents make strong efforts to teach him the Yoruba language, he may be competent in Yoruba but his mother tongue would actually be English. However, the possibility of the child having his parents' language as his mother tongue is not ruled (Arowosegbe 2005: 23, cited in Oyedele 2015: 16 – 17).

This current language situation in Nigeria mirrors the current language situation in Kenya especially in the urban areas. The present study argues that English is the L1 for learners of German in Nairobi. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) however links this reality to the prestige accorded the various languages in Kenya. She summarizes the linguistic situation in Kenya with the following argument:

> Although the majority of the Kenyan population is multilingual, none of the local Kenyan languages has a comparable prestige, or is used as frequently as English, the language of the former colonial power; none guarantees economic mobility and none boasts a long literacy tradition as does English. Nevertheless, English has not managed to reduce the rate of multilingualism as it has done in Europe, Canada and the USA (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 13).

In the questionnaires that the learners filled to illicit their bio data, 38% did not indicate their LI. In Nairobi region 60% did not indicate their L1 while in Central region 15% failed to indicate their L1. In the Coastal region, this was not the case. The four learners indicated their L1. English and / or Kiswahili were also listed as other languages by all the learners across the seven schools in the three regions. Since Kiswahili and English are examinable subjects in primary and secondary level in Kenya and the fact that English is the medium of instruction in schools, most of the learners of German can speak as well as write in Kiswahili and English.

For the purpose of the present investigation, leaners of German in Nairobi County, an urban setting, will be considered to have English as an L1. On the other hand, the learners of German in the rural setting, in this study Kiambu, Murang'a, Nyeri and Mombasa Counties, are considered to have English as an L2. This is an important variable for the present research because the present research is interested in the negative transfer of the English competence in the written texts of Kenyan learners of German. The learners of German in the urban setting hear, read and use English more often compared to their counterparts in the rural areas. This is because English is the dominant language in the urban areas. These learners have acquired English informally from their parents, siblings and care givers at home, from their friends, from the streets, from the media etc. They also learn it in school and as Hufeisen (2000: 24) posits learning and acquisition co-occur partly because they learn it in class but use it in their daily life. However, in the rural areas, the dominant language happens to be the language of the region, which for the present research is Gikuyu in Kiambu, Murang'a and Nyeri Counties and Kiswahili in Mombasa County.

Gikuyu is a Bantu language spoken primarily in the Central region of Kenya by the Agikuyu community. According to Waweru (2011: 5) Bantu languages are part of the largest African language Family: Niger-Congo. He further notes that Gikuyu is part of Zone E and labelled E51 and that it belongs to the Niger-Kardofian language group and to the subgroup commonly referred to as Bantu.[14]

Another characteristic of the German language in Kenya is related to its teaching. Just like most foreign languages in Kenyan public secondary schools, the teaching / learning of the German language is specifically characterized by the fact that it is an elective / optional subject. It is thus allocated only three lessons of forty five minutes per week in form one and two. Beginning form three the weighting of these foreign languages changes. In form three and form four this is increased to four to five lessons of forty five minutes per week. This however varies from school to school.In the seven schools of this study the teachers indicated this information in the questionnaires. Out of the seven questionnaires that were distributed to the teachers, only five questionnaires were returned. From these five, it was observed that two schools allocate five lessons to the form four German language learners while three schools allocate four lessons. The five teachers also confirmed to using the English language while defining concepts that are difficult for the learners; explaining grammar; correcting assignments as well as revising tests. They also attested to the reality that learners used English especially among themselves during the German lesson.

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[14]   Out of the 6909 world languages, 1532 are in Niger-Congo family, 552 of which are classified as Narrow Bantu. Thus 22% of the world's languages are Niger-Congo languages and 75%of these are Bantu languages. In contrast there are 439 Indo-European languages with 48 Germanic languages (0.7%) and 41 Romance languages (0.6%) (Waweru 2011: 7).

The learners of the study started learning German in form one and it is expected that when they get to form four, the last year in secondary school, among other language skills like listening, speaking and reading they can write simple texts in German. These learners are thus in their twelfth year of schooling. They started learning German in form one, in their ninth year of schooling, and are between level A2 and B1 level according to the Common European Levels of Referencing.[15]However this is to be understood differently by lecturers of German in universities and other institutions of higher education. TheMinistry of Education,Secondary Education Syllabus,Volume I,Languages (2002) highlights the reality of German teaching in Kenyan secondary schools as follows:

> With regard to the allocated number of lessons for German (3 lessons per week in Forms 1 and 2, and 4 lessons in Form 3 and 4) and the lack of opportunities for language practice outside the classroom, full mastery of the language cannot be achieved. The four-year course cannot equip the learners with the high level of language proficiency needed for studies in Germany or necessary for the study of the German language in Kenyan institutions of higher learning that prioritize the academic and scientific approach to language study (Ministry of Education, Secondary Education Syllabus Volume 1, Languages 2002: 140).

Written texts are chosen as a data base for the present study for various reasons: First, foreign (not only German) language teaching in Kenya at present is mostly based on written tasks and realized as the teaching of writing in the respective languages. This is also reflected in the way the language competence of learners is tested, namely by way of written exams[16]. These exams, in turn, provide for a natural and readily available data base that can be explored by empirical analysis. Secondly, the present study shares the opinion of Diehl et al. (2000) who remark that students tend to write more than speak because the fear of talking in a foreign language is higher

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[15]   Europe has standardized the levels of language learning: There are six levels of language learning according to the Common European Levels of Referencing. These are A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2. While A1 is the beginner level, C2 is the advanced level.

[16]   The oral examination is also an integral part of the KCSE German examination. K.C.S.E German Paper 1 consists of Listening comprehension and Composition while German Paper 2 consists of Grammar and Reading Comprehension. German Paper 3 is the oral exam consisting of Reading aloud and Conversation. (Information from Kenya National Examination Council – KNEC)

than that of writing in it. The present research is also aware of weaknesses of using written texts in SLA. Among the disadvantages that Diehl et al. list, is the fact that written texts cannot be equated to spontaneous data since time is a major factor in planning the text as well as in self correction (Diehl et al. 2000:7).

1.2   STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The present study examined and analyzed the transfer of negative English competence into the written texts of Kenyan form four learners of German.The targeted learners included in the present study, having learnt German for four years in secondary school, still struggle with expressing themselves in the written target language. The difficulties they face seem much more related to their knowledge and competence of the English language than to that of their various Kenyan indigenous languages and Kiswahili.The word order of the subordinate clause for example is similar in Gikuyu, Kiswahili and English. However, it is the English language that influences the learners most. The present study is interested in finding out how the English language that is typologically related to the German language influences them more than the other languages they speak, that is the indigenous language(s) and the Kiswahili language. The present investigation thus compares the extent to which both sets of languages influenced their writing of German texts.

1.3   THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Several questions arise as starting points for the present study: What are the major types of errors for the Kenyan learners of German? What are the sources of the errors committed by the learners? Are the learners influenced by other languages that they have mastered? Given that English is typologically related to German, does it influence them more than Kiswahili or their L1 does? Thus, is there a systematic relationship between the learners acquiring German and their competence in English? If yes, would this have consequences for the practical teaching of German in Kenyan secondary schools? The literature reviewed and the pilot studies of the data collected will show that the following questions are relevant and interesting in that they represent specific versions of the rather general questions formulated above and, because of the specificity, can be answered on the basis of empirical data analyses:

1. Where do the learners place the finite verb in a main clause standing alone?

2. Where do the learners place the finite verb in a main clause that is preceded by a subordinate clause?

3. Where do the learners place the finite verb in a subordinate clause?

4. How do the learners form their words? Do they borrow them from another language they know or do they create other words by using phonological and/or morphological "material" from the target language?

5. To what extent does each one of the above linguistic features under study correlate with the psycholinguistic and socio-economic variable of English as L1 vs. English as L2 for these particular learners?

The present study intends to achieve the following **specific objectives**:

1. To identify, analyze and offer plausible explanations for instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone in the learner's written German, especially with a view to determining the level of variability involved and what may have caused this variability (e.g. Is it the linguistic context or English as L1 vs. English as L2 variable?).

2. To identify, analyze and offer plausible explanations for instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses in the learner's written German, especially with a view to determining the level of variability involved and what may have caused this variability (e.g. Is it the linguistic context or the English as L1 vs. the English as L2 variable?).

3. To identify, analyze and offer plausible explanations for instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses in the learner's written German, especially with a view to determining the level of variability involved and what may have caused this variability (e.g. Is it the linguistic context or the English as L1 vs. the English as L2 variable?).

4. To identify and analyze instances of lexical transfers and misspellings in written German, especially with a view to determining the extent to which the linguistic context (i.e. in terms of what strategy of word formation was involved may account for the variability that is likely to be observed in their use).

5. To determine the degree of correlation which there will be between the performance of those learners with regard to the four linguistic skills described above and the acquired

status of the English competence of which it is assumed, in the present study to be transferred into their learning of German.

1.4   JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

The present study is significant because it will provide important empirical evidence on the negative transfer of English competence into the written German of Kenyan learners. Previous studies of German acquisition in Kenya (Wachira 2008; Agoya-Wotsuna 2012) have been anchored in other models like translation theory and socio-linguistic theory respectively.

The researcher views the aspects that are important for German studies and language transfer theory as two fold. These are sensitization of the learners about positive transfer on the one hand while on the other hand cautioning learners against negative transfer. This sensitization of learners alongside caution where the transfer is negative would go a long way in improving the learning of German as a foreign language in Kenya.Furthermore, it is the researcher's hope that the present investigation will be a positive contribution not just to the research on foreign language acquisition with regard to German but also aid learners, teachers and teacher trainers of German in Kenya in their daily teaching in the classroom as they try to improve the language lesson. The present study would thus help in pointing out not only the didactic tools that teachers could use but also point out that, in a way, some of these didactic tools are provided for "in" the minds of their learners (Hinga 2010: 3). These didactic tools are the awareness of the various L1 and other languages of the learners as well as the language learning experiences and strategies.

The learners of the German language have a vast resource of knowledge of other languages as well as learning experiences and strategies that are embedded in other language learning experiences, for example how to use the dictionary, mind maps etc. These could and should be used in learning German.The present research may also guide syllabus designers and curriculum developers especially at the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) as they develop teaching and learning aids for German teaching as a foreign language in Kenya.[17] The learner languages could be consciously incorporated in the textbooks.Odlin (1989: xi) speaks of transfer as an extremely important factor in Second Language Acquisition and hopes that more teachers and teacher trainers will begin to think about ways of making use of transfer research in the classroom. Finally, the observations and conclusions made in the present study are intended as a basis for German scholars as well as non-German scholars who may wish to carry out research in the acquisition of German as a foreign language in Kenya.

1.5   SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

The present research is a study of transfer of English competence into the written German of Kenyan learners. It confines itself to negative transfer from the English language into the written German of Kenyan learners though acknowledges that transfer can also manifest itself in positive transfer, avoidance and over production. The present study will thus analyze English-based transfer errors only. Other written transfers from the other languages mastered by the learners like Kiswahili and the indigenous language(s) or other foreign languages are not a focus for this

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[17]   The Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) succeeded the former Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) on 14.01.2013.

study.The present investigation concentrated on syntactical and lexical transfer. Word order was investigated, specifically the position of the finite verb in the following clauses: In main clauses standing alone, in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses and in subordinate clauses. A second part of analysis for this study concentrated on lexical transfers and misspellings. Lexical errors revolving around misspellings and lexical transfers that affect non-clausal units were analyzed. However not all spelling errors were analyzed, but only those from which conclusions can be drawn with regard to the topic of this study, that is language transfer. Issues of style and register have also been left out of this study since the focus for this research was grammar.

The present investigation concentrated on seven public county secondary schools from three regions in Kenya. The schools that were included in this study are:

- The Precious Blood High School Riruta (Nairobi Region, Nairobi County)

- The State House Girls High School (Nairobi Region, Nairobi County)

- The Pangani Girls High School (Nairobi Region, Nairobi County)

- The St Francis Girls Mang'u High School (Central Region, Kiambu County)

- The Njiiri High School (Central Region, Murang'a County)

- The Nyeri High School (Central Region, Nyeri County)

- The Shimo la Tewa High School (Coastal Region, Mombasa County)

These seven schools were selected because they are the only public county schools in their respective counties that offer German up to form four. Five out of the forty seven counties in Kenya were selected because the predominant languages used in the regions Nairobi, Central and Coast, (English, Gikuyu and Kiswahili respectively), are well spoken and written by the

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researcher. The researcher is thus able to trace grammatical structures in the compositions in German that are similar to structures in these languages. Another reason for selecting county secondary schools that offer German in these regions is because they draw almost all of their pupils from their respective county and would thus have fairly more homogenous groups compared to the national schools that have heterogeneous groups owing to the fact that they draw most of their pupils from all over the country.

Out of the 107 compositions received only 65 were taken into consideration in the analysis. This is because only 10 from The Pangani Girls High School were analyzed. From the 52 compositions received from The Pangani Girls High School, every fifth script was randomly picked and this reduced the sample from this particular school from 52 to 10. This decision was met because this school had more than half of all the scripts collected. The researcher was well aware of this high number of learners in this school before the data was collected but chose to handle it as objective.as possible. This is because of the possibility of ending up with compositions from the teacher's ten 'good' students from this school. It is likely that had the school been asked to provide ten compositions only, then the teacher would have most probably only picked the 'good' ones. Therefore all learners were asked to write the compositions after which they were sampled. All the other compositions from the other schools were analyzed.

1.6   LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature reviewed in this section presents related literature on errors which second language learners make. The majority of the studies in Error Analysis (EA) have examined the acquisition of L2 English (cf. Corder 1967; 1973; 1974; 1981; Selinker 1972; Svartvik 1973; Richards 1974; Dulay and Butt 1974; Stenson 1974) but the review of the literature in the present study also includes several studies that have examined the acquisition of L3 German (Kjär 2000; Dentler 2000; Lindemann 2000;Wachira 2008;Baker 2009;Agoya-Wotsuna 2012; Ozuegbu 1997, 2003 and Oyedele 2011 and 2015).These scholars and their relevant work will be briefly summarized in the following section.

1.6.1   Work on Error Analysis and Transfer theory

Different scholars contribute towards knowledge on errors made by second language learners in an effort to understand the underlying principles of Second Language Acquisition (SLA).Corder (1967) is the first publication on errors which second language learners make. Corder's seminal paper pays attention to errors from a language processing and acquisition perspective. Corder views learners as active in the language learning process and views errors positively where he sees them as an important and unavoidable part of the learning process. In making errors, the learners could test hypotheses and correct them as they discover the L2 rules. Corder argues that errors do not only benefit the language learner, but also the language researcher who could infer from the errors how the language is acquired / learned. Corder (1967) is of paramount importance for the present study to the extent that the present study also investigates errors in

trying to establish how the learners of German in Kenya make use of transfer of English competence as they learn German.

Selinker (1972) is another relevant author for the present discussion because he views the language learner as being active in the language learning process, a view held by the present study. Selinker (1972) coins the term 'Interlanguage' (IL) to refer to the learner's language which he views as a sort of hybrid between the learner's indigenous language and the target language (TL). The Interlanguage is "latent in the brain, activated when one attempts to learn a second language" (Selinker 1972, cited in Richards 1974: 33). Selinker (1972) studies the process of language acquisition and the various strategies that learners may use. He lists five central processes that operate in the learner language. These processes are a) language transfer b) transfer of training c) strategies of second language learning d) strategies of second language communication and e) overgeneralization of target language linguistic material. Selinker (1972) is relevant to the present research because the study is undertaking to find out the sources of the errors in the data collected.

Corder (1973) differentiates between learner mistakes "the selection of the wrong style, dialect or variety", and learner errors, which "result in unacceptable utterances and appear as breaches of the code" and argues that EA should be restricted to errors (Corder 1973: 259). According to Corder (1973) errors occur when there is a lack of knowledge. Errors are thus competence phenomena. Mistakes on the other hand are performance phenomena and are a common feature of native-speakers speech. This distinction is further echoed in Kleppin (1998:41) when she argues that a learner can correct a mistake if it is pointed out to him but for the case of error this

correction cannot take place because the learner lacks a particular structure or has understood it wrongly. Corder (1973) also argues for the use of elicited data instead of spontaneous data when collecting samples of learner language. This is because language learners rarely produce spontaneous data. The present study makes use of elicited data when collecting learner samples where learners were asked to write guided compositions. However the present study realizes a compromise with regard to data collection. The data is elicited for the purpose of the study but within a fairly natural school environment. It is these compositions that form the object of analysis for the present study. The analysis focusses on learner errors and not mistakes. Corder (1973) also argues that what is very important in describing the learner's language is the correct interpretation of the faulty utterance. This could be done by reconstructing the learner's utterance and he suggests two ways. The first way which he calls 'authoritative interpretation' is done by consulting with the learner. This means that the learner is present during the analysis. The second option, which is realized in this present investigation, is where the researcher relies on his knowledge of the learner's L1. This he calls 'plausible reconstruction'. The contribution of Corder (1973) for the present study is that the present study examines errors and also uses plausible reconstruction. This is because the learners were not present during the analysis.

Corder (1974) suggests that the process of Error Analysis should be guided by five steps, namely a) collection of a sample of learner language, b) identification of errors c) description of errors, d) explanation of errors, and e) evaluation of errors. This is beneficial to the present study in that it touches on the heart of the methodology employed. Though five steps are suggested by Corder (1974: cited in Ellis 2008: 46), the present research only made use of the first four steps. The fifth step is not employed in the analysis of the errors in the present study because it involves

judging the comprehensibility and gravity of errors which is beyond the scope of the present research.

Richards (1974: 23) in his study of English errors produced by a number of adult students with different L1 lists a number of elicitation techniques, for example free composition, translation, storytelling etc. which can be used to collect samples of learner language. The present study made use of the technique of guided compositions and not free compositions because the study is interested in specific aspects of grammar, specifically where the learners place the finite verb in various clauses and how they form words. Richards (1974) also distinguishes three types of errors in his analysis, namely a) interference errors, b) intralingual errors, and c) developmental errors. Interference errors are as a result of the use of elements from one language while speaking another; intra-lingual errors are for example overgeneralization; ignorance of rule restrictions; incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply; and hypothesizing false concepts. Developmental errors occur when the learner has limited knowledge of the target language (Richards 1974: 57). Richards (1985:46-51) further adds that intralingual and developmental errors are errors that occur regardless of the languages that the learner possesses and gives various examples of these errors. An example of an overgeneralization error is *he can sings, and Richards (1985) remarks that such an error results from overlearning of a structure. An example of an error in the area of ignorance of rule restriction is *he explained me the book, formed as an analogy to 'he showed me the book' which is correct. Learners apply rules incompletely when the motivation to communicate is higher than the motivation to form sentences that are grammatically correct. An example in this area can be seen when learners respond to questions. The following example shows how a

learner responds to the teacher's question: Teacher's question: 'Will they soon be ready?' Learner's answer: 'Yes, they soon be ready'. The final category of intralingual errors according to Richards (1985) occurs when learners hypothesize false concepts in the target language. Thus learners could for example use the form 'was' as a marker for the past tense in the phrase *one day it was happened.

Dulay and Burt (1974) also classified errors into three categories though gave them different labels. They name them a) developmental errors; b) interference errors and c) unique errors. The third category of unique errors includes errors which have neither developmental nor interference character (Dulay and Burt 1974, cited in Ellis 2008: 53). The present study benefits from the categorization of errors by Richards (1974) and Dulay and Burt (1974) because the classification not only helps with the explanation of the errors found in the data collected but contributes knowledge on the differences between the error types. The difference between interference errors, intra-lingual errors and developmental errors offered by Richards (1985) is of utmost importance to the present study. This is because the present research investigates transfer /interference errors from the English language in the learning of German which will be differentiated from intralingual errors and developmental errors.

Stenson (1974, cited in Ellis 2008: 54) analyzed errors of Tunisian learners of English and provides in his conclusion several instructionally-induced errors. He argues that faulty explanation of the grammar could also lead to errors. A similar result was found in the study by Svartvik (1973, cited in Ellis 2008: 54) of Swedish learners of English that concluded that over-drilling could be attributed to the overuse of infinitival complements by Swedish learners of L2

English. Another explanation for instructionally-induced errors is offered by Ballweg et al. (2013: 32) who differentiate 'input' from 'intake'. Their argument is that when a teacher explains something to the learners in class (input) not all learners understand this input in the same way. This could be due to the fact that some learners do not pay attention or that some are even tired. The possibility that some learners do not understand the input in its totality arises. That means input becomes intake. This knowledge of instructionally-induced errors is vital for the present study since the three studies Stenson (1974), Svartvik (1973) and Ballweg et al. (2013) highlight a type of error that could help in explaining some errors that were only found in one particular school in the sample of the datacollected.

Corder (1981) observed that many errors bear a strong resemblance to the characteristics of the L1 and notes that many erroneous sentences read like word-for-word translation from L1 to L2. This observation has led to the widely accepted theory of 'Language Transfer' which states that a learner of a second language transfers into his performance in the L2 the structures of his L1. He notes that a learner's starting hypothesis in Second Language Acquisition is "L2 is like L1 until I have reason to think otherwise". Therefore the learner makes errors and awaits correction from others. The forms of the first language are thus of crucial importance because they form the basis for the learners' initial L2 grammar. In this regard it can also be argued that learners of an L3 would assume that L3 is like L2/L1 until otherwise. Thus when learning an L3 learners draw not only from their L1 but also from their L2 and the L2 here means any language that they know. Corder (1981) does not view the learner language as a hybrid of L1 and the TLlike Selinker (1972) did since he arguesit is developmental in nature. Corder refers to this learner language as 'idiosyncratic dialect' since it is regular, systematic and meaningful and since it also possesses

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rules from two social dialects of language (Corder1981: 17). The present study concurs with Corder (1981) whose view of the learner language is positive. Another positive view of learner language is held by McLaughlin (1987) who defines Interlanguage as "interim grammar constructed by second language learners on their way to the target language" (McLaughlin 1987: 60). This is similar to what Corder (1981: 66) calls *transitional competence*. The present research views errors as an integral part of the language learning process and argues that learners do not write the errors knowingly. If they did, they would not write them at all.

Kleppin (1998: 30) in her book "Fehler und Fehlerkorrektur" ("Error and Error correction")" distinguishes and discusses seven influences as sources of errors in language, both oral and written. These are a) influence from the L1 or other (foreign) languages; b) influence from the target language for example overgeneralization, regularization and simplification; c) influence from communication strategies; d) influence from learning strategies; e) influence from elements of the language class for example transfer from exercises; f) influence from personal factors for example fatigue, loss of motivation, fear in exam situations; and g) influence from sociocultural factors. Kleppin (1998) is relevant to the present study to the extent that the sources of the errors in the present study will be contrasted with the seven mentioned.This will benefit the present study in suggesting plausible explanations for sources of errors in the data collected. Another contribution of this study is the knowledge that errors have many sources.

1.6.2   Studies on German as a Foreign Language

The following is a consideration of some studies carried out in the field of German as a foreign language. In Europe, research on learner language of German learners has also been carried out. Born (1985) studies compositions of American students of German. Kjär (2000) analyzes interim language products of students of German in Sweden where German, is after English, the second foreign language. Dentler (2000) also studies oral and written productions of Swedish learners of German. Lindemann (2000) investigates how Norwegians translate Norwegian texts into German. Miβler (2000) investigates how previous experience of foreign language learning contributes to the development of learning strategies while learning another foreign language. Hufeisen (2000) studies the effect of the knowledge of more languages on foreign language learning. In Kenya, Wachira (2008) and Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) study the interim language of Kenyan learners of German against the background of the complex and diverse Kenyan multilingualism. Baker (2009) studies compositions of learners of German in South Africa. Uzuegbu (1997, 2003) and Oyedele (2011, 2015) analyze written and oral texts of learners of German in Nigeria. Each of these studies will now be discussed briefly in the following sections. Born (1985: 246) studies the error types and negative transfer in compositions of third, fourth and fifth semester American students of German. Her research design is cross-sectional and focuses on areas believed to be major sources of errors and negative transfer from English into German. Her study reveals that thirty to fifty percent of all errors could be attributed to negative transfer. The present study also investigates English-based transfer errors.

Lindemann (2000) studies the translation process of Norwegian students when translating Norwegian texts into German. This was in in 1995/1996 at the University of Tromsø. The focus of her study is university students who undertake a translation assignment at home with the help of dictionaries. They are then to record themselves where they comment on their process of translation. The results show that there is a strong influence of the English language in the translation process since most students comment that lexical items from English are disturbing (Lindemann 2000: 59). The translation strategy through and into the English language led sometimes to correct words and sometimes to errors (Lindemann 2000: 63). Most students also translate word-for-word and this leads to among other things the finite verb of the subordinate clause coming immediately after the subject. This is just like in Norwegian and English languages and thus cannot be classified as transfer from the first foreign language English Lindemann however argues that one should consider the fact that the students have had a longer experience with the first foreign language English. This could lead to its automatic use and the students viewing it as acceptable. Lindemann also finds several incorrect word creations that showed that the search for the proper word happens through the English language, for example *Historie* for History and *Zenturie* for century (Lindemann 2000: 62). Lindemann (1995: 93) lists three main causes of errors both for the first language learner as well as the foreign language learner: a) not knowing, b) stress and, c) not paying attention.She also adds that not knowing could also lead to correct sentences.Concluding her study, Lindemann (2000) argues that many difficulties are somehow associated with the first foreign language English and thus calls for a conscious working with the English language in the Norwegian German class during the translation process. This could include integrating the learner languages in the German lessons, sharing both positive and negative experiences and discussing the process of translation other

than just its product.Lindemann's (2000) conclusion is vital to the present study in that it points out a plausible reason for the finite verb coming immediately after the subject that is associated with the longer experience the learners have with the English language that leads them to view this aspect as acceptable. This longer experience with the English language inside and outside the classroom could be a factor that could also be true for the learners of German in Kenya. Lindemann (2000) also finds that the search for the proper word happens through the English language and argues for a conscious working with the English language in the Norwegian German class. This could also be relevant to the teaching of German in Kenya.

Kjär (2000) carries out research on the interim language of Swedish learners of German at the university. University examination papers are analyzed and a number of typical errors attributable to the influence of English during the study of German are found. Kjär (2000: 50) lists the false friend *become – bekommen*under lexicosemantic; *when – wenn, as – als*, *for – vor* under morph syntax which are caused by the phonological similarity with English forms; and the conjunction *weil* under syntax. Kjär argues that for the word order error involving the conjunction *weil,* one should bear in mind that the word order in English and Swedish is similar. Thus the transfer could either be from English or Swedish or that the two languages influence the student in this construction. There is also an *error* example of transferring a plural morpheme–*s* in the plural of the noun *Autor* written as Autors instead of *Autoren*. Kjär (2000: 52) notes that this transfer could either be from the English language or from the German language. According to Kjär (2000: 47) overgeneralization shows not only the creative character of the learner language but also the cognitive performance of the learner and thus such 'errors' are to be viewed positively as long as they do not fossilize. Kjär also emphasizes that errors are a

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constructive and necessary part of the learning process. Kjär (2000: 54) argues that errors should be seen as a by-product and not an end product in the learning process. This by- product should be seen as an active and creative mental process of language material in the learning process. Therefore the word 'error' should not be seen as a deficit but as a constructive phenomenon. This calls for attitude change not only among teachers but also among the learners. The present study shares this opinion. This study is of relevance to the present study because as much as German and Swedish have many similarities, it is transfer from English in these texts that is not only evident but prevalent. It also lists some typical errors attributable to the influence of English. The present study also sought to find out errors that could be attributed to the influence of the English language while learning German in Kenya. Moreover the present study views the learners as active participants in the language learning process and also advocates for an attitude change towards errors.

Similar results are also recorded by Dentler (2000). The researcher investigates 70 Swedish university students who comprises of beginners, intermediate and advanced learners of German having L1 Swedish, L2 English and L3 German. The focus of Dentler's study is the pertinent questions on transfer: where, when and why. Dentler's study shows that the influence of English can also be in the syntactical area of L3-German in Sweden. This is mainly seen in the progressive form. This transfer according to Dentler (2000: 82) shows that the learners have knowledge gaps. Earlier research (cf. Kjär 2000) has shown less transfer of syntax compared to lexical even when L2 and L3 are related. Dentler (2000: 81) however reports that the students in her corpus have limitedknowledge of German and it seems that syntactical interference needs specific stimulus. Regarding the subject - verb inversion, Dentler argues that this should not be

understood as transfer error but as developmental error. This is because Swedish learners who do not know English also made this inversion error. Her argument is that when one talks of transfer in the area of syntax, it is in the structures of the L3 that are unmarked in the L1 and L2 (Dentler 2000: 84). The influence of English in Dentler (2000) was found to be high in the lexical level, for example *when – wenn, so – so, become – bekommen, while – weil, get – geht.* Dentler classifies the lexical transfers into four groups. These are a) borrowings or code switching b) false friends c) semantic extensions and d) loan translations. The borrowings involve both grammatical function words as well as semantic words. The false friends are also categorized into two groups: those word pairs with some similar elements in meaning and those word pairs with no similar elements in meaning. Semantic transfers are witnessed when the learners have learnt only one of the many meanings. The loan translations consist of phrases where the native language construction or morpheme combination serve as a base that is adapted using the equivalent in the target language, for example *nord von* for 'north of' (Dentler 2000: 86). Dentler's study makes a case for transfer in the area of syntax. Though her study found syntactic transfer mainly in the progressive form, her contribution of the knowledge that transfer in syntax occurs in the structures of the L3 that are unmarked in the L2 and L1 is relevant for this study. This knowledge will benefit the present research in suggesting plausible explanations for transfer errors in the area of syntax and assist in differentiating transfer errors from developmental errors in syntax. The position of the finite verb especially in subordinate clauses is different in English and German.

Dentler (2000) also provides a classification of the lexical transfers that is useful and necessary for the present study. Dentler (2000) found the influence of English to be high in the lexical

level. This result will be contrasted with results of the present study to find out if there are similarities. Dentler (2000) also grouped transfer errors into four groups. This is a great contribution to the present study to the extent that the present study also identified categories that are similar to the classification offered by Dentler (2000). These are borrowings, false friends and coinages.

Miβler (2000) also carried out research in 1997 on 125 subjects, all German university students learning different foreign languages at three universities in Germany, i.e. Wuppertal, Düsseldorf and Essen. The foreign languages considered in her research are French, Italian, Spanish and Turkish. 32 subjects were learning French, 35 Italian, 30 Spanish and 28 Turkish. At the time of data collection, these subjects had in average four languages, one native language and three foreign languages, and had been learning the new foreign language for about 4 – 6 months. The subjects take part in an interview of about 30 – 40 minutes where they have to answer questions. Among her findings are that a person will employ more learning strategies when a person has already gained considerable experience of foreign language learning. Her study confirms that the amount and frequency of experience is dependent on the number of languages a person has and the time a person has spent learning these foreign languages (Miβler 2000: 17). Thus previous experience of foreign language learning contributes greatly to the development of learning strategies while learning another foreign language. The contribution of Miβler (2000) to the present study is the knowledge of learning strategies embedded in other language learning experiences. The learners of German in the present research understand Kiswahili and English before they start learning German. These languages and their learning strategies precede the learning of German, a reality that should not be neglected in the German language class.

Hufeisen (2000) also researched on how foreign language learners evaluate various aspects of their multilingualism and how they view the interaction of their different languages. She thus investigated the L3 language from the subjective perspective of the learners. The learners were at the beginner level of their respective languages; French, German, Spanish, English, Japanese, Chinese, Italian, Latin and Russian. This study in the academic year 1995/1996 at the University of Alberta asks 115 students to fill out a questionnaire about their linguistic repertoire. The questionnaire has two parts: in the first part which is objective, the students are asked to fill their personal details while in the second part subjective information is sought. The students are requested to list all the languages they have learnt, when they started learning them, how well they mastered them both in reception and production. Among her findings was that transfer, both positive and negative, error tolerance and language strategies play a role in the interaction of the various languages (Hufeisen 2000: 26 - 34). Hufeisen reports that although the questionnaire explicitly inquiresabout interferences as a negative result of transfer, some students give reasons why they think the knowledge of more languages has a positive effect on their foreign language learning by mentioning that a) they borrow systematically from other languages in order to understand or produce the respective target language, b) they avoid going back to the L1 if there was a deficiency of knowledge of the respective target language, c) they use language learning strategies (Hufeisen 2000: 33). Hufeisen (2000) is relevant to the present study to the extent that it provides knowledge on strategies like borrowing. Hufeisen (2000) also supports the view that learners borrow from other languages not only to produce the target language but also to understand it. This is according to the present study an aspect of positive transfer.

Wachira (2008) analyzes the influence of already learnt languages in the process of translation in Kenya. She looked at the role of the indigenous language (s), as well as the role of Kiswahili and and the role of English in the process of translation. Learners from different institutions are presented with a text in Kiswahili which they were to translate into German. This research targets learners of German in Kenya in two major cities: Nairobi the capital city and Mombasa, the second largest city. The learners are drawn from five institutions that teach German as a foreign language. That is The University of Nairobi, The Kenyatta University, The Goethe InstituteNairobi (these three institutions are located in Nairobi city); The German Embassy Language Courses and The German Institute (these two institutions are located in Mombasa). Five teachers from The Goethe Institute Nairobi and two from the Mombasa German Institute also form part of the corpus. The text presented to them is of an informative genre and of about two hundred words in length. The informants can easily identify with its topic ('Newspapers and Magazines') and the level of language (it was from a class seven Kiswahili text book) so that they can translate freely. It is to be translated in a formal situation, which is in class and with the help of aids like dictionaries, both German - English and English - German (Wachira 2008: 60 - 65). The translated text thus becomes the object of analysis upon which conclusions regarding the factors that affect the process of translation are based.

The translations are then analyzed and errors categorized as regards to the source of influence. Wachira (2008: 121) confirms that English is the dominant language of thought while the Kenyan learners of German translated the Kiswahili text into German. The fact that most learners prefer a German-English dictionary while translating shows that their knowledge of English plays a key role in this process. Transfer from the English language is identified in the

Nairobi group as well as the Mombasa group. It also found that most leaners first translated the Kiswahili text into English and then translate this English text into German (Wachira 2008: 207). The present study benefits a lot from this study because it contains plausible explanations for transfer from the English language among Kenyan learners that could help explain the source of transfer in the data collected. One of these errors is the overuse of the comma in German. Wachira (2008: 185) sees the source of the overuse of the comma in German sentences as not only being phonological but also syntactical and argues that placing a comma in the wrong place in these sentences (after the adverb) leads to syntactic errors because the intonation of the sentence changes from German to English. This change in intonation then leads the learners to formulate the sentences using structures of the English language. She further argues that the use of the comma has undergone a change from rhetorical to grammatical in the German language. While in German the comma has both rhetoric and grammatical uses, the use of the comma in the English language has remained mainly rhetorical. The fact that transfer is also identified in the Mombasa group that has Kiswahili as L1 also confirms the dominance of the English language, an argument advanced in the present study. Wachira (2008:189) distinguishes five groups of lexical errors. These five groups are false friends; untranslated English words; wrong choice of a word from a dictionary; word-for-word translation of English words into German; and the transfer of concepts. Some of these categories of lexical errors are adopted in the present study. These are false friends; untranslated English words; and word-for-word translation of English into German.

Wachira's (2008) results concur with the result of Lindemann (2000) in Norway and Baker (2009) in South Africa. Baker (2009: 160) analyzes compositions of eleventh grade learners of

German from four schools in KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa between 2008 and 2009. Baker's research focuses on learners with a Bantu language background and more specifically, speakers of the Zulu language. These learners also speak Afrikaans. The learners are asked to write a composition about 'My family' in German. Interestingly, several sentences from the learners' composition show that the learners first write the composition in the English language before translating them into German (Baker 2009: 163). This, argues Baker, could be due to the psycho-typology between German, Afrikaans and English. The three languages being Germanic languages share a lot of similarities not just in vocabulary but also in sentence structure. Even after the differences and similarities between German and Zulu are pointed out in class and the learners translate German sentences into their L1 Zulu, these particular learners have difficulties narrating a picture story in German. Baker (2009: 163) concludes that the main problem that led to the many errors was the absence of a linguistic and metalinguistic awareness. This led the learners to translate sentences and even longer texts first into English before writing them in German. De Angelis (2007:122, cited in Baker 2009: 162) argues that it is the metalinguistic awareness which contributes significantly to the success of foreign language acquisition especially in situations where the foreign language is hardly spoken or only by a few people. Metalinguistic knowledge refers to words used for talking about or describing language. Hufeisen (1994, cited in Baker 2009: 163) posits that the English language can go a long way in promoting the learning of the German language but only if the knowledge of the English language and its metalinguistic awareness is very good. Baker (2009: 164) argues for a rethinking of why and how the German language is taught in South Africa and suggests that one should improve the English knowledge of the learners before introducing them to German. Baker (2009) is relevant to the present investigation to the extent that it introduces another aspect other

than transfer from the English language that accounted for majority of the errors. This is the absence of a linguistic and metalinguistic awareness. This could possibly account too for the errors in our data and point towards an implication for the teaching of German in Kenya.

Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) investigates the linguistic situation in Kenya as a prerequisite for the learning of German as a foreign language and studies the errors in spoken German of the Kenyan learner. Her research analyzes all levels of language, that is the phonetic, phonological, morpho-syntactical, lexical, semantic and discourse levels. Her theoretical framework is based on a variety of theories inter alia, Transfer, Cross linguistic Transfer, Universal Grammar etc. depending on the area being analyzed while the analyses are founded on error and discourse analyses. Questionnaires, interviews and free conversations with learners of German in selected Kenyan secondary schools in form four are used. German learners from five secondaryschools from Kenya form the corpus of her research. These are The Allidina Visram High School Mombasa, The Kenya High School Nairobi, The St Francis Girls Mang'u School and The Maseno High School, Kakamega. Among her findings, Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) finds that transfer is manifested at several language levels and the major source of transfer is the English language, the dominant language of the learners. Agoya-Wotsuna argues that the source of some of the linguistic transfers is not always clear and that the influence cannot be seen as coming from a specific language (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 9). Transfer from the English language is evident in word order, tense aspects, lexical and semantic levels. Regarding word order, the researcher finds that SVO is the preferred sequence while the finite verb is often wrongly conjugated (Agoya- Wotsuna 2012: 212). Most of the word order problems are observed with the subordinate clauses. In lexical and semantical levels, the learners also confuse orthographic and

phonological forms in English with those in German: for example *bekommen* (for *become*) instead of *werden, also* (for also) instead of *folglich* (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 22). According to Agoya-Wotsuna, morpho-syntactic transfer is more difficult to account for than phonetic or phonologic transfer because various studies discuss the same phenomena in a different way. This was due to the fact that what is classified as transfer in one study is viewed in another study as developmental (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 20). Another result is that morpho-syntactic transfer in the interlanguage of foreign language learners manifests itself in different ways. She lists five different manifestations which are a) a mistake; b) avoidance of unknown rules and structures; c) an instantaneous borrowing from another known language; d) hesitation in speech; or e) overgeneralization (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 20).

Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) investigates the Interlanguage of Kenyan learners of German and suggests some plausible explanation for transfer errors which the present study will make use of. It will also be relevant in contrasting some of these results with the results of the present study especially the ones involving the SVO order, the finite verb and false friends. Agoya-Wotsuna's study also uses The Pienemannn's Teachability/Learnability Hypothesis to explain errors in the acquisition of word order in German. The Teachability/Learnability Hypothesis advanced by Pienemann et al. (Pienemann 1988, cited in Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 210) is a very important contribution to the present study because it will help to explain word order errors which are a focus of investigation in the present study. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) discusses six developmental stages of this hypothesis:

      Stage 1:   Chunks

      Stage 2:   Canonical Order (SVO)

Learners' initial hypothesis is that German is SVO, with adverbials
in sentence-final position.

Stage 3:   Adverb preposing
             Learners place the adverb in sentence initial position, but keep the
             SVO order. There is no verb-subject inversion yet.

Stage 4:   Verb separation
             Learners place the non-finite verbal element in clause-final position.

Stage 5:   Verb-second
             Learners place the verb in sentence-second positon, resulting
             in verb-subject inversion.

Stage 6:   Verb-final in subordinate clauses.
             Learners place the finite verb in clause-final position in
             subordinate clauses.

Pienemann's Hypothesis is as a result of research on migrant workers learning German in an untutored setting and it is based on the complexity of the items being learnt. Among its findings, Pienemann's Hypothesis suggests that there is a developmental route in the acquisition of the German word order. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) investigates spoken data of Kenyan learners of German while the present study collects written data. The present study will contrast the results of her study on spoken data with its results on written data with an aim of establishing whether there are similarities and differences especially with regard to the five manifestations of transfer she highlights. The present study in investigating written data will be complementary to Agoya-Wotsuna's study that studied spoken data.

In Nigeria several works are found to be relevant to the present study. These are Uzuegbu (1997, 2003) and Oyedele (2011, 2015).While works by Uzuegbu analyzes written production of

students at the University of Nsukka whose L1 is Igbo, research by Oyedele analyzes written and oral production of students of German at two universities, the Obafemi AwolowoUniversity and University of Ibadan, where the L1 is Yoruba.

Uzuegbu (1997, cited in Oyedele 2015: 19 - 20) analyzes written texts of 10 students of German with Igbo as L1. These students are in the seventh and eighth semester of study at the University of Nsukka. Twenty five essays that the students had written during the three hour examination in the courses "Advanced Composition in German" and "19th and 20th Century German Literature" are analyzed. The study concludes that errors in the area of morphosyntax especially declension of articles and nouns and verb conjugation has the highest frequency. The causes of these errors are poor mastery of the German grammar and interference from English and Igbo.

Uzuegbu (2003, cited in Oyedele2015: 20) analyzes not only students in their fourth year of study, but also includes students who are in their third year of study at the University of Nsukka. These students have Igbo as L1.The students are asked to write several essays that are analyzed and errors identified and categorized. The most frequent errors are in the levels of semantic and syntax especially choice of words and case (Uzuegbu 2003: 132 -134, cited in Oyedele 2015: 20). Uzuegbu observes several causes of these errors: interference from English and Igbo; wrong use of words and rules of theTL German; and sources from the classroom itself.

Oyedele (2011) analyzes written and oral data of Nigerian students at the Obafemi Awolowo and Ibadan universities. This study includes all the students of German in the year 2006 /2007. These are students from the first to fourth year of study who have Yoruba as L1. These are 45 students.

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Written texts are selected from various examinations already written by the students while oral data is collected during a debate between the two universities on the topic 'German studies in Nigeria and career opportunities'. Errors that are identified in the written data include errors in verbs, gender, articles, the subordinate clauses, the imperative and adjectives. The oral data contains errors like the use of English words and omission of umlauts (Oyedele 2011, cited in Oyedele 2015: 21).

The three works Uzuegbu 1997, 2003 and Oyedele 2011 analyze the errors of the Nigerian students of German against the background of Standard British English and not Nigerian English (Oyedele 2015: 22). This, so Oyedele, possess a challenge because errors that are included to have their source in Igbo or Yoruba language could in reality emanate from the influence of Nigerian English. Thus Oyedele 2015 attempts to bridge this gap.

Oyedele (2015) analyzes interferences of Yoruba speakers in the process of learning German. Her research focuses on 26 third and fourth year students from two universities in Nigeria: The Obafemi Awolowo University and the Ibadan University in Nigeria. The Obafemi Awolowo University is represented by seventeen students while The Ibadan University has nine students. These students of German areasked to write three guided letters of three hundred words in the three languages: Yoruba, English and German that are timed.The topic resembled the topic of questions in the international examination offered by the Goethe Institute Goethe 'Zertifikat B1'.and was seen as preparation for the examination. The students are to choose one topic from the three topics provided: a) Advice on examination preparation; b) The role of the small and big family size in Nigeria; c) My country. The students start by writing their chosen topic in German

(45 minutes), then they write the same text in Yoruba (35 minutes) and finally they write the text in English (25 minutes). The different times for writing the texts are necessitated by the different competencies that the students possess in the three languages. It is expected that the students need more time for German because the language is relatively new to them. For the case of Yoruba, the students do not use Yoruba often in written texts. English on the other hand is used daily both in oral and written communication (Oyedele 2015: 26). These written texts of the students are analyzed using the Error Analysis method. She identifies causes of the errors which are then compared and their relevance for the German classes at the two universities is outlined. At the heart of the results are the interferences from the three languages: Yoruba, Nigerian Pidgin and Nigerian English into German. The study finds that out of the 1874 errors identified, the most frequent errors are orthographical errors (36.82%) followed by morphological errors (28.51%) (Oyedele (2015: 78).Another conclusion is that there are no major differences between the errors of the third and fourth year students. Oyedele's (2015) study also concluded that of the 1874 errors identified, there is very little transfer from Yoruba (Oyedele 2015: 90). However, there is some considerable amount of transfer from Nigerian English observed in form of code mixing for example the use of the English word *petroleum* in the German text; word for word translations for example *Ich bin sehr nah zu meiner Schwester* (for 'I am very close to my sister' instead of 'Ich stehe meiner Schwester sehr nah'); false friends for example the German *wenn* for the English when; and coinages for example the English word *act* (given in German as achten) instead of *handeln* (Oyedele 2015: 89 – 90).

The conclusion regarding transfer from Nigerian English in Oyedele 2015 is relevant to the present study because it could help in arguing for transfer that was found in some examples to be

from Kenyan English. The present study can thus draw some parallels from this study carried out in Nigeria.

The above literature reviewed indicates that there are various sources of errors. These sources of errors are categorized differently by different authors. This categorization is outlined in Table 1 below.

Table 1:   Categorization of Sources of Errors by different authors

Author	Sources of Errors
Selinker (1972)	1) Language transfer 2) Transfer of Language training 3) Strategies of Second Language learning 4) Strategies of Second Language Communication 5) Overgeneralization of Target Language linguistic material
Richards (1974)	1) Interference 2) Intralingual: These could be a) Overgeneralization ; b) Ignorance of rule restrictions; c) Incomplete application of rules; d) Failure to learn conditions under which rules apply; c) Hypothesizing wrong concepts
Dulay and Burt (1974)	1) Developmental 2) Interference 3) Unique
Stenson (1974)	Instructionally-induced errors e.g. the faulty explanation of the grammar.
Svartvik (1973)	Overdrilling
Ballweg et. al. (2013)	Input is different from output because learner is tired, not paying attention
Kleppin (1998)	1) Influence from the first language or other foreign languages 2) Influence from the Target language e.g. Overgeneralization, Regularization and Simplification 3) Influence from Communication strategies 4) Influence from learning strategies 5) Influence from elements of the language class e.g. transfer from exercises 6) Influence from personal factors 7) Influence from socio-cultural factors
Lindemann (2000)	1) Not knowing 2) Stress 3) Not paying attention
Dentler (2000)	1) Borrowings / Code switching 2) False friends 3) Semantic extensions 4) Loan translations
Wachira (2008)	1) False friends 2) Untranslated English words 3) Wrong choice of the word from a dictionary 4) Word-for-word translation of English words into German 5) Transfer of concepts
Baker (2009)	1) Interference from the English language 2) Absence of a linguistic and metalinguistic awareness
Agoya-Wotsuna (2012)	1) Mistake 2) Avoidance of unknown rules and structures 3) An instantaneous borrowing from another known language 4) Hesitation in speech 5) Overgeneralization

Uzuegbu (2003)	1) Interference from English and Igbo 2) Wrong choice of words / rules 3) Classroom sources 4) Poor mastery of the German language
Oyedele (2015)	1) Interference from Nigerian English 2) Code mixing 3) Word for word translation 4) False friends 5) Coinages
Hinga (2015)	1) Transfer from Standard English,Kenyan English and Gikuyu 2) Developmental.g. Overgeneralization 3) Intralingual 4) Classroom-based errors from instruction and/or materials 5) Lexical borrowings 6) False friends 7) Coinages

The fact that errors have more than one source is also confirmed by one of the findings of Ellis (2008: 55) as he summarizes the main findings in error studies in learner languages in his book "The Study of Second Language Acquisition, Second Edition". Even as he does this Ellis (2008: 55) posits that it is "difficult and perhaps dangerous to attempt to synthesize the results of studies that have sought to explain errors in learner language". Ellis' (2008) list of the main findings of error studies in learner languages include the following findings a) intralingual errors outweigh transfer errors; b) learners at the beginning stage of language learning produce more transfer errors than learners who are at the intermediate or advanced stages of learning; c) the proportion of transfer and intralingual errors varies according to the research instrument used to collect data for learner language; d) transfer errors are more prevalent in phonology and lexical levels than in grammar; e) adults make more transfer errors than children; f) errors can have more than one source. The present study will benefit immensely from this summary of error studies because it is investigating transfer in the data collected from learners of German in Kenya. Of paramount importance will be a comparison of these main findings with the findings of the present study since five of the six findings touch on transfer errors.

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: LANGUAGE TRANSFER THEORY

The present study used the theoretical framework in the language transfer theory as proposed by Odlin (1989) in an attempt to gain a better understanding of the concept of transfer that would help in investigating the extent of transfer from the English language into the written German of Kenyan form four learners. This section is divided into four parts: It gives a historical overview of the concept between 1950 and 2008; then the methodology used in transfer studies is discussed; thereafter the constraints of transfer are outlined and lastly key features of a cognitive theory of transfer are critically analyzed.

1.7.1 The Concept of Transfer

Different scholars have dealt with the notion of transfer. Evidence of transfer effects has been documented mainly in production data compared to reception data even as researchers agree that "it is very difficult to quantify the extent of transfer in different language levels because there is no reliable way of measuring the relative contributions of the L1" (Ellis 2008: 367). This first part will discuss the change in the perception of transfer from a habit-based mechanical process to a cognitive process that recognizes the role played by the learner's L1 as well as the learner as an active participant in the learning process. The section summarizes some tentative findings of error studies in learner languages that touch mainly on transfer errors.

According to Odlin (1989: 6) discussions of language transfer begin with works of American linguists in the 1940s and 1950s. However, serious thinking about language transfer dates back

to a controversy in historical linguistics in the 19th Century. The main interest then was not even SLA or language teaching but rather language classification and language change.Ellis (1985: 19) on his part traces the origins of transfer in behaviorist learning theories whose key proponents are Watson (1924) and Skinner (1957). Behaviorism which saw SLA as a process of habit-formation believed that SLA was strongly influenced by the learner's L1. Language learning was thus viewed by behaviorists as a set of habit formation where the old habits interfered with the new habits when one tried to learn. In other words interference from the L1 occurred.

Earlier in the 1950s and 1960s the Contrastive Analysis (CA) approach was developed. It was founded on the belief that it was possible to predict leaner difficulties by establishing the linguistic differences and similarities between the L1 and L2 (Ellis 1985: 23). Proponents of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) according to Kleppin (1998: 31) are Lado (1967) and Fries ((1962). Richards et al. (1985: 63) notes that CAH is based on several assumptions. These are a) the main differences in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language; b) these difficulties can be predicted by CA; c) teaching materials can make use of CA to reduce the effects of interference. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis viewed transfers as an important factor to be considered in theories of second language learning. Learning was mainly viewed as the acquisition of a set of new language habits. CAH also claimed that difficulty in learning manifested itself in errors. Where rules and structures of L1 = L2 structures, there were no difficulties in acquisition and positive transfer was said to have taken place. Thus no errors occurred. However when rules and structures in L1differed from rules and structures in L2, there were many difficulties in the process of acquisition because of negative transfer. Errors were

predicted to be the result of the persistence of existing L1 habits in the target language (TL). CAH was more successful in the area of phonology than in other areas of language. However in the 1970s the importance of this approach reduced after it was proved to be unable to adequately predict areas of difficulty and most of the errors.

There were many criticisms towards CAH. Teachers did not always know what elements of language in the two languages were similar and even when they knew them this knowledge of different structures in different languages did not always lead to correct language use. Moreover errors occurred while learning a new language even when the L1 = L2, an example being false friends. Another criticism was that most of the errors observed in the data could not be seen as evidence of language transfer while many errors which were not predicted occurred (Ellis 1985: 40). According to Forster (1994) learning difficulties do not have to always lead to errors because the learner can avoid them. Forster further argues that CAH only analyzed inter-lingual errors and neglected intra-lingual errors, for example overgeneralization, simplification and avoidance (Forster 1994: 210). CAH overemphasized the influences of the outer environment of language study and totally neglected the learners themselves. Bausch and Raabe (1978) also criticized CAH for its lack of a total view of foreign language acquisition and argued that CAH did not consider the non-linguistic variables like attitude, motivation, age, etc. (Bausch and Raabe 1978: 119).

Gradually CAH was replaced by other explanations of learning difficulties like the Identity Hypothesis in the 1980s. The Identity Hypothesis stated that L1 and L2 acquisition are identical in many aspects and argued that there were universal steps of acquisition that are independent of

the influence of L1. Regardless of the L1, many learners would make similar errors. Since the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and the Identity Hypothesis did not adequately address Foreign Language Acquisition, other theories came up trying to offer an explanation of what happened during the process of learning a foreign language. Roche (2008) gives an account of five hypotheses that sought to explain foreign language acquisition. According to him the first hypothesis is cognitive in nature while the other four focus on the interactive nature of foreign language acquisition. These hypotheses are: a) The Monitor Hypothesis which differentiates between acquisition and learning. While acquisition takes place in natural and untutored settings, learning of the grammatical rules occurs in tutored setups b) The Interaction Hypothesis emphasizes the interaction between speakers of the target language and learners of the target language. c) The Pidginization Hypothesis focuses on the production of incorrect structures in the target language and how these are fossilized. According to the Pidginization Hypothesis, leaners have on the one hand less competence in the target language while native speakers of the target language try to simplify the target language on the other hand. The product of this interaction is thus a mixture of learner language and input. d) The Acculturation Hypothesis highlights the social and psychological motivation of learners in foreign language acquisition. This is strengthened through closeness to the target language and culture. If the distance is more, then the foreign language acquisition will be incomplete. e) The last hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis focusses on the use of the target language in the classroom. If the learner uses the target language, then the learner is forced to constantly analyze the target language. This eventually leads to the correct use of the target language (Roche 2008: 107).

Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG) also sought to offer help and offered an explanation to the process of learning languages. According to UG, human learning in general and language acquisition in particular can be explained in terms of an innate human capacity aiding the generation of a number of sentence patterns that is infinite. Hence, language acquisition is a product of rule formation where the learners form hypotheses about the target language and test them. The learner was thus viewed as an active participant in the learning process and also as a language creator. Language was also viewed as a set of structured rules to be learned not by imitation but by actively formulating them on the basis of innate principles as well as on the basis of exposure to the language being learned. Chomsky's nativist theory paved way for Error Analysis (EA).

EA was then seen as an alternative to CA and Corder points out that some of the strategies adopted by the learner of a second language are similar to those used to acquire a first language. According to Corder (1981) however, EA is target-language based and concentrates on ungrammatical or inappropriate utterances instead of a corpus of all the learners' output, some of which could be right. Corder, in an attempt at overcoming this problem, views the totality of the learners' output (appropriate and inappropriate utterances) as relevant data for the description of the learner's language systems at any point in his learning career (Corder 1981: 31).

Proponents of the Behaviorism Theory (Watson 1924; Skinner 1957), proponents of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Lado 1967; Fries 1962, cited in Kleppin 1998: 31) as well as the proponent of the Universal Grammar (Chomsky 1981) viewed transfer as a learning strategy. This was however not an opinion held by all researchers. Newmark and Reibel (1968: cited in

Ellis 2008: 363), Krashen (1983: cited in Ellis 2008: 363) and Dulay and Burt (1972: cited in Ellis 2008: 363) viewed transfer as a kind of communication strategy and not a learning strategy. Newmark and Reibel (1968) acknowledged interference from the L1, but downplayed it and argued that it reflected ignorance. They viewed ignorance as a strategy of transfer since the learner cannot fill in the gaps of knowledge in the L2. They argue that the adult learner does not substitute what he knows in the native language for the target language but instead the adult learner refers to what he already knows for help to fill in his gaps in training. They proposed more and better training (Newmark and Reibel 1968: 160, cited in Ellis 2008: 363). Krashen (1983) viewed transfer as 'padding' where learners fell back on old knowledge when new knowledge was lacking (Krashen 1983, cited in Ellis 2008: 363). Dulay and Burt (1972) viewed transfer as a general language processing strategy and dismissed negative transfer as a major factor in the process of second language acquisition (Dulay and Burt 1972, cited in Ellis 2008: 363). The three researchers Dulay, Burt and Krashen argued that transfer plays only a minor role in the acquisition of Grammar (Odlin 1989: 21).

McLaughlin (1978) went a step further other than just acknowledging the occurrence of transfer and was more interested in when transfer occurred. He claimed that transfer only occurred when the child was isolated from the peers of the target language. Thus there is no transfer in immersion. He further discussed two hypotheses: a) regression hypothesis where the child uses the language skills used in first language acquisition with L2 data but at a very primitive level and b) recapitulation hypothesis where a child uses the same processes available to children of the target language. He also noted that children occasionally use first language structures to solve difficult L2 structures in learning a language This is similar to the L1= L2 Hypothesis.

McLaughlin (1978: 117, cited in Gass and Selinker 2008: 124) argues that "both child and adult second language learners are influenced by language transfer where language transfer can involve grammatical lexical prototypical links".

Recent studies on language transfer have gone beyond the behaviorist view that transfer is a habit-based mechanical phenomenon and they acknowledge the learner's native language as well as the learner's creativity in the learning process. These studies on transfer are thus cognitive in nature. While behaviorist accounts of the role of the first language are no longer tenable, cognitive explanations of transfer show that the learner's first language is still an important factor in SLA. With regardto the role of the first language, Mitchell and Myles (1998) note that "it is clear that cross-linguistic influences from the first and other languages are operating in second language acquisition, but it is also clear that such language transfer is selective. Thus some L1 properties transfer and others do not" (Mitchell and Myles 1998: 40).

The recognition of the learner's L1 as an important factor of Second Language Acquisition among other factors was also supported by Ellis (1985) who argues that the "L1 is a resource of knowledge which learners will use both consciously and sub-consciously to help them sift the L2 data in the input and to perform as best as theycan in the L2" (Ellis 1985: 40). Ellis (2008: 345) summarizes this view by arguing that "no account of L2 acquisition is complete without an explanation of the role played by the L1". Ellis gives two reasons to support his argument on the role of the L1. His first reason is that the case for L2 acquisition as primarily a cognitive process was initially made through the study of transfer. His second argument was that the L1 features in all theories of SLA. This then attaches EA a useful explanatory role and in recent years a better perspective has emerged in which the role of transfer in second language acquisition is

acknowledged. Hufeisen (1991, quoted in Kjär 2000: 48) also emphasizes the point that the influence from previously learnt languages on German as a foreign language should not be underestimated.

Ellis (2008) notes that it is now widely accepted that the influence of the learners' native language(s) cannot be adequately accounted for in terms of habit formation. Transfer, he argues, is not simply a matter of interference or of falling back on the native language (Ellis 2008: 350).Even the concept of 'transfer' is redefined because it is misleading. This is because 'interference' and 'transfer' are closely linked to behaviorist theories of L2 learning. Corder for example (1983) titled his paper "A role for the mother tongue in language learning" because he had problems with the terms "transfer" and "interference" (Corder 1983: 86; 1992: 19, cited in Gass and Selinker 2008). It was precisely for these reasons that Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986) suggested the term 'cross-linguistic influence' which is broad enough to include transfer in the traditional sense, but also embraces other processes like 'avoidance', 'borrowing', 'language loss' (whether of the L1 or another L2) and 'rate of learning' that were not taken into account by the behaviorist theories. The term 'cross-linguistic' influence is also preferred by Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986) because it is theory neutral (Kellerman and Sharwood Smith 1986, cited in Gass and Selinker 2008: 138). This means that the term 'cross-linguistic' is not linked to the Behaviorism Theory as 'transfer' was earlier.

The above reappraisal of the concept of transfer to include processes like avoidance, borrowing, language loss etc. that started in early 1980s was necessitated by two factors: the theoretical challenges to CAH that saw differences in languages equated to difficulty in teaching and

learning. It was argued that learning difficulty was more than L1 TL differences as proposed by CAH. Further, researchers agreed that L1 transfer was just one of the many possible explanations of SLA. Thus they rejected the minimalist position of Dulay and Burt (1972) and Krashen (1983) and agreed that the similarity between L1 and TL coupled with some developmental process led learners to transfer an L1 feature into the TL.

Research on the similarities and differences between the L1 and TL was undertaken by several researchers. Andersen's (1983) 'Transfer to Somewhere Principle' underlines the importance of some similarity between the L1 and the TL. Thus the learners must detect some resemblance between the language they are learning and their native language before they are able to recognize that the native language might be useful to them. When this happens, a grammatical structure will occur consistently and to a significant extent in the learner's interlanguage as a result of transfer only if within the L2 input there is already potential for the (miss)-generalization from the input to produce the same structure (Andersen 1983: 178).

Kellerman (1983) however proposed the 'Transfer to Nowhere Principle' insisting that the similarity between the L1 and the TL was not significant. These two extreme positions then somehow show that CAH was partly correct, that is difference = difficulty (Kellerman 1983: 115). The two principles also show that the concept of transfer is cognitive in nature where the learner is active and makes decisions about which structures and the functions of the NL are appropriate for use in the second language learning. This view is also supported by Klein (1986: 53) who views the language learner as a 'language processor' and remarks that the language processor is most difficult to control. This is unlike the behaviorist theories that emphasized the

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learner's language. Kellerman argues that if the learner uses the L1 to make decisions / predictions about the TL, the learner's decision-making process will have similarities to the potential transferability of linguistic elements. In this regard, Kellerman differentiates between language-neutral items and language-specific items. On the one hand, language-neutral items are those items that a learner views as common between L1 and TL. These items include writing conventions, certain aspects of semantics, stylistics and / or certain grammatical structures. On the other hand, language-specific items are those items that a learner believes are unique to his language. These include parts of language such as most of the syntactic structure of a language, the phonology of a language, idioms, inflectional morphology, slang expressions and collocations. Gass and Selinker (2008: 148) add that the knowledge representing how learners view their NL in terms of language- specific versus language-neutral items is referred to as 'learner's psychotypology'. However this is not all that influences the learner's decision making process. Another important factor that influences the learner's decision-making process in terms of what is language-neutral and what is language-specific is the perceived language distance between the NL and the TL. This is what Odlin (1989: 85) refers to as "typology of language".

Gass and Selinker (2008: 150) list three factors that interact in determining language transfer: a) a learner's psychotypology; b) the perceived distance between L1 and TL and c) the actual knowledge of the TL. They summarize their argument by saying that "transfer is only predictable in a probabilistic sense. One can never predict in any given situation whether a learner will be influenced by the facts of the L1 or not".

According to Ellis (1985: 40) the reappraisal of the transfer concept took two forms: The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was modified to take into account the process of avoidance; the

need for a 'degree of similarity' between the first and the second language items for interference to take place; and the multi-factor nature of learner error. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was also incorporated into a cognitive framework by reinterpreting 'interference' as 'intercession'. While interference was a learning feature, intercession was viewed as a strategy for communication when there were insufficient L2 resources.

Richards et al. (1985) classify transfer into two broad types: Positive transfer and negative transfer. Positive transfer is transfer which makes learning easier and may occur when both the native language and the target language have the same form. According to Richards et al. negative transfer is also known as "interference" and it refers to the use of a native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language (Richards et al. 1985: 160).

Transfer is also bi-directional. However it should be noted that not all language contact will lead to transfer. Odlin (1989: 12) also notes that the effects of cross-linguistic influence vary according to the social context of the language contact situation. Researchers (Odlin 1989, Ellis 2008) are also in agreement that it is not always easy to tell whether anerror was caused by transfer or whether the error was developmental in nature.

Transfer is also viewed differently by different authors. Gass and Selinker (2008: 123) view transfer as a "strategy among others like simplification and overgeneralization of target language rules that affects the second language production". Odlin (1989) also gives an account of the problem with the definition of the term 'transfer'. The present study adopts a definition of

transfer from Odlin (1989: 27) who views transfer as "influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired." Some important aspects can be deduced from this definition: Transfer is the effect of one language on the learning of another or others and it could be a positive or negative product of language contact.

Odlin (1989: 27) argues that the view of transfer as a production strategy ignores the head start that speakers of some languages have when starting to learn a new language. This could be similarities in vocabulary, writing systems etc. that reduces the amount of new information for the learners.

Odlin (1989: 12) accounts of cross-linguistic influences in the acquisitionof basic word order distinguish two types of transfer. The first type of transfer according to Odlin is 'substratum transfer'. This refers to cross-linguistic influence involving the influence of a source language on the target language. This type of transfer is the type investigated in most studies of SLA. Odlin's second type of transfer is what he calls 'borrowing transfer'. This is the influence a second language has on a previously acquired language. This leads to attrition and amounts to change of the traditional norm. However, not all cases of cross-linguistic influence can be classified as either borrowing or substratum transfer. Occurrences of both types of transfer at the same time are also possible. These two kinds of transfer though similar in many ways often yield different results. While borrowing transfer is evident in lexicon, substratum transfer will be more evident in pronunciation and syntax.

Odlin (1985: 36) also discusses the various effects of cross-linguistic similarities and differences. These are a) positive transfer that saves the time needed for comprehension while reading and writing in the target language; b) negative transfer that is further divided into underproduction; overproduction; production errors; and misinterpretations; c) Differing lengths of acquisition. Odlin (1985) further groups production errors into three. These are a) substitutions that involve the use of L1 forms in the TL; b) calques that are forms that mirror the structure of a L1, for example literal translations of idiomatic expressions; c) alterations of structures, for example in hypercorrections. Substitutions and calques are more common than alterations.

Transfer effects have been found in aspects of language production notably pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and discourse. According to L2 phonology, learners will acquire sounds that are different (and hence difficult) much later than sounds that are similar. Phonological transfer was found to be governed in part by universal developmental patterns. When one looks at vocabulary, most of the lexical errors made by learners of a second language could be attributed to the transfer of 'partial translation equivalents' (Ellis 2008: 369). Variables that potentially interact with lexical transfer are age, type, amount of language exposure, target language proficiency as well as the task. Ellis (2008: 369) notes that "the L1 effects are notably stronger than the effects of any of the other variables". Weinreich (1953, cited in Ellis 2008: 370) notes that vocabulary is also a source of bi-directional transfer. That is transfer from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1. Whereas L1 to L2 transfer occurred in grammar and vocabulary, the influence of the L2 on the L1 was mainly lexical. Pavlenko and Jarvis (2002, cited in Ellis 2008: 370) summarize bi-directional lexical transfer in the oral narratives produced by advanced Russian learners of English living in America in Table 2.

Table 2: Bi-directional lexical transfer

Type	Definition	L1-L2 transfer	L2-L1 transfer
Semantic extension	Extension of a word in onelanguage to include the meaning of a perceived translation of the word in another language.	'Neighbour'- 'roommate' (by extensionfrom Russian *sosed* which refers toboth nextdoor neighbours and apartment mates).	'Sozhitel' nitsa' – 'mistress' for 'roommate'
Lexical borrowing	The use of a phonologically or orthographically adapted word from one language into another.	None	'boyfriend' (adapted phonologically).
Loan translation	The use of the literal translationof compound words, lexical collocations, or idioms from one language into another.	'deep inside herself' (from the Russian 'uiti v sevia' – to go inside oneself')	'On vtorhaetsiav ee odinochestvo (from the English'he invades her privacy')

(Source: Ellis 2008: 370)

Transfer in studies concerned with grammar has been most dealt with in research of cross-linguistic nature. In most of these researches, transfer was found to work alongside other universal and developmental factors. A key finding in these studies that investigated the effects of L1 on learners' use of English phrasal verbs is avoidance. Another important finding is that transfer in grammar can involve another non-native language as well as the L1. That means multilingual leaners may draw on all their linguistic resources at their disposal, not just their L1, "but that the extent to which they do is determined by their perceptions of the typological similarities between the source and the target languages" (Ellis 2008: 373).

1.7.2   The methodology of transfer studies

Transfer like any other area of enquiry of SLA faces criticism regarding its methodology. Odlin (1989) and Ellis (2008) cast doubt about the case against transfer and each elaborates four methodological problems of transfer.

Odlin (1989: 23) begins by mentioning the problem with the focus on errors. He argues that errors are not the only evidence of transfer. He further argues that informed by the universal developmental sequences governing acquisition, transfer works in conjunction with other psychological factors in accounting for the process of language acquisition. Another problem that Odlin notes is the link between transfer and behaviorism theories. Finally, Odlin criticizes the focus of most transfer studies on morphology and syntax.

The first methodological problem according to Ellis (2008: 351) is viewing transfer as a communication and learning process. This problem dates back to behaviorist theorists who viewed transfer primarily as a communication strategy. Prominent researchers of transfer (Odlin 1989, 2003) and Kellermann (1983, 1995) consider L1 transfer as a phenomenon of acquisition as well as use and "have made no attempt to distinguish transfer as a communication or learning strategy" (Ellis 2008: 353). The second methodological problem listed by Ellis is choice of data for the study of transfer. Though most transfer studies investigate production data, Odlin argues for the use of multiple sources, both spoken and written as well as responses to measures of perception, comprehension or intuition to solve this second problem in transfer studies (Ellis 2008: 352).

Identifying instances of transfer is the third issue in transfer studies. This third problem concerns the data collected. Ellis (2008: 353) provides a guideline with five different types and limitations of each (cf. Table 3). The present study can be said to resemble Type 4 according to this classification. This is because the present study investigates transfer of English competence into the written German of Kenyan learners who are bilingual in English and Kiswahili before they start to learn German. The learners in the present study have English as L1 (learners of German in an urban setting, specifically Nairobi region) and those who have English as L2 (learners of German in a rural setting, specifically Central and the Coastal regions).The fourth methodological problem is measuring of transfer or cross-linguistic effects. As regards the choice of data, most studies investigate production data. However, the use of multiple sources, that is both written and spoken data, is strongly advocated for. Identification of an error entails questioning whether an error is transfer or developmental.

Ellis (2008: 354) lists four possible ways of measuring cross-linguistic effects and somehow provides an answer to Odlin's first doubt. These are a) negative transfer (also called errors); b) positive transfer (also called facilitation);c) avoidance and d) over-use. Production errors are thus not all there is to transfer but there are other ways in which transfer manifests itself.

Table 3: Methods for investigating L1 transfer

Method	Description	Example	Limitations
Type 1 Comparison of the use of a particular feature of the IL and L1	IL errors are identified; the learner's IL is then inspected to determine if the error type corresponds to an L1 feature.	The 'after' perfect found in Irish and Scottish dialects of English (e.g. 'I'm after forgetting that')	1. Overestimation of transfer effects (i.e. the IL error might also reflect natural principles of acquisition. 2. Only serves to identify incidences of negative transfer.
Type 2 Comparison of the use of a particular feature in the IL, the L1 and theTL.	IL features (deviant and otherwise) are identified. These are then compared with the learner's L1 and the TL. Transfer (negative or positive) is held to occur if the IL feature is evident in the L1 but not in the TL.	Japanese learners' of English failure to use articles (i.e. English has both a definite and indefinite article but Japanese has neither).	Overestimation of negative transfer effects (i.e. the IL error might also reflect natural principles of acquisition)
Type 3 Comparison of the use of a particular feature in the IL of learners from two or more different L1 backgrounds.	Differences are identified in the IL features of learners with different L1s. Transfer (negative or positive) is held to exist if the differences in the IL features can be shown to correspond to differences in the L1s.	Mesthrie and Dunne (1990, cited in Odlin 2003) compared learners with a Dravidian and an Indic L1 and found that structurally different patterns in relativization in their L1 English corresponded closely to the L1 patterns.	Differences other than the differences in the learners' L1 (e.g. cultural differences) may account for the differences in their IL features.
Type 4 Comparisons of the use of a particular feature in the IL of learners who have two L1s (i.e. are bilingual)	As above except that only a single group of learners (who are bilingual) are investigated.	Ringbom (1978) investigated learners who were bilingual in Swedish and Finnish and showed that they were more likely to transfer word morphology from Swedish than from Finnish when learning English	No obvious limitation: provides clear evidence of L1 transfer.
Type 5 Two-way comparisons involving learners with different L1s each learning the other's language as an L2	Differences in the transfer of specific forms are investigated in two groups of learners: one group has language A as an L1 and is learning language B as the L2 while the other group has B as an L1 and is learning A as the L2	Eckman (1971) investigated transfer in English learners of L2 German and in German learners of L2 English, focusing on voice contrasts in pairs of phonemes such as /t/ and /d/.	Unless this design incorporates a Type 3 comparison, it will face the same limitations as Type 1 and 2 comparisons. However, incorporating a Type 3 comparison will necessitate a very complicated design.

(Source: Ellis 2008: 353)

1.7.3 Constraints on transfer

Ellis (2008) in his account of the transfer theory also discusses some constraints of transfer. According to Odlin (2003: 454, cited in Ellis 2008: 379) "a constraint could be anything that prevents a learner from either noticing a similarity in the first place or from deciding that the similarity is a real and helpful one". Constraints are thus conditions that promote and inhibit transfer. The following structural factors are listed by Ellis (2008: 379) as constraints of transfer: social factors, markedness, prototypicality, language distance and psychotypology, and developmental factors.

Social factors such as social context and the relationship between the speaker and the listener influence when (transferability) and to what extent (transfer load) transfer takes place. Odlin (1989) suggested that negative transfer is not common in focused contexts. This would mean that negative transfer would be less common in a tutored classroom situation than in natural untutored settings.

The transferability of different features depends on their degree of markedness. The Universal Grammar theories came up in this regard with two positions: the zero transfer position where the learners have complete access to universal grammar and thus do not need to rely on their L1. The other extreme position is the full access/full transfer position where the students have their L1 at their disposal and can draw from it. Ellis (2008: 384) argues that for a L1 rule to be transferred, it must be productive and frequently used.

Regarding prototypicality, Kellerman's (1979:44, cited in Ellis 2008: 388) study suggested that "learners perceptions of what is transferable are not influenced by their L2 proficiency" but rather by "making use of native speakers' judgements of similarity".

The language distance between the L1 and the TL is also viewed by Ellis as a constraint. This distance can be viewed as linguistic (actual distance between the languages) or psycholinguistic phenomenon (the perceived distance between the languages).

The developmental factors that are a constraint on transfer highlight the fact that not all errors in early interlanguage have their source in transfer. Some errors are intra-lingual and resemble those found in first language acquisition. This view however suggests that transfer errors are more common in the early stages of language acquisition. Other constraints of transfer outlined by Ellis (2008: 279) are the nature of the task, individual differences like age, motivation, literacy and social class.

1.7.4 Key features of a cognitive theory of transfer

Ellis (2008: 397) in concluding his account of the theory of transfer lists and elaborates six key features that a cognitive theory of transfer has to incorporate. These six features are a) Transfer occurs in both communication and in learning. Whereas some instances of transfer can be put down to the use of a communication strategy, it is also necessary to recognize a more direct role of the L1 in L2 acquisition. These two roles are related and some researchers suggest that

transfer in communication will lead to transfer in learning; b) Transfer arises as a result of both differences and similarities between the target language and L1. What is however not clear is when these differences and similarities will lead to transfer and also on what aspect of acquisition the transfer will impact; c) Transfer works in conjunction with other factors. Ellis argues that transfer cannot be discussed in isolation because transfer is influenced by other factors of both an external and internal nature; d) Transfer is both a conscious and subconscious process. In communication transfer for example, learners are aware that they are drawing on their L1; e) Transfer is both conceptual and linguistic. However, valid and reliable ways of distinguishing conceptual and linguistic transfer must be identified; f) Transfer is a subjective phenomenon. This is because individual variables like age, motivation, literacy and social class influence transfer.

Even though the language transfer theory has its share of critics, research in transfer is growing. Odlin (1989:150) reconsiders the nature of language transfer and its role in SLA. He argues that there is no connection between the theory of transfer and theories of habit formation. Moreover, while studying transfer the focus should not only be on errors since errors are not the only evidence of native language influences. Another positive argument is that cross-linguistic influences interact with the psychological factors governing developmental sequences. Odlin's (1989) argument attests to this.

> It is true that much uncertainty remains about many issues related to cross-linguistic influences, and it is undeniably true that researchers are far from able to predict with full accuracy when transfer will occur. However, it is also true that skeptics are far from able to predict when transfer will never occur (Odlin: 1989: 157)

Recent work on language transfer has also added new dimensions such as the aspect of conceptual transfer. This refers to transfer of concepts and meanings which vary according to the learner's L1. These studies show that the language-specific semantic and conceptual character of the L1 has important implications for the concept of language transfer that are only beginning to be understood (Gass and Selinker 2008: 150).

1.8   RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

From the specific research questions and objectives mentioned above, the study will seek to test the following research hypotheses:

1. There will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses than in main clauses.

2. There will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone than in those preceded by subordinate clauses.

3. There will be more instances of the incorrect sentence-initial placement of the finite verb than of the incorrect sentence-final placement.

4. There will be more errors involving borrowings than any other type of word formation process.

5. The number of errors involving any one of the four linguistic features under study will be greater for learners for whom English is L2 than for those for whom English is L1.

1.9　　　　　RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.9.1　　　　The sample of the study

The data for the present study was collected from seven county public secondary schools in Kenya in the first and second terms between March and July 2011. Only county public secondary schools offering German as an examinable subject in five counties in Kenya that is Nairobi County, Kiambu County, Murang'a County, Nyeri County and Mombasa County were considered for this study.[18] Kenya has forty seven counties but only these five counties were selected because the predominant languages used in these regions, Gikuyu, Kiswahili and English, are well spoken and written by the researcher. The researcher is thus in a better position to detect grammatical structures in the compositions in German that are similar to structures in these languages. Another reason for selecting countysecondary schools that offer German in these regions is because it is assumed that they admit most of their pupils from the respective county and would thus have fairly homogenous groups compared to the national schools that have heterogeneous groups since they draw their pupils from all over the country.

Nairobi County was chosen because most learners in this county are conversant with the English language and that, other things being equal, the competence of learners in English is better than that of students in the rural areas of Kenya. English for the learners of German in Nairobi region can also be viewed as L1. This is because most of these learners in Nairobi have acquired English at a tender age in informal settings, usually in the family, from their friends, from the

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[18]　　　In the new constitution of Kenya promulgated on 27.08.2010, the 8 provinces have been replaced by 47 counties. This change affects not only the politics and governance of the country but also the school's set up. Thus provincial schools are now referred to as 'County Schools'. County schools admit pupils from their respective counties.

streets and from the media. There are three county schools that offer German in Nairobi County and all were selected for this study. These are The Pangani Girls High School[19], The Precious Blood High School, Riruta[20] and The State House Girls High School. These schools admit pupils who come mainly from Nairobi County and they generally use English as a means of communication. Moreover, these pupils had their pre-school and lower primary classes conducted predominantly in English. Nairobi County is also the capital city of Kenya and English is the main medium of communication. The Nairobi County schools' learners will serve for this study as the learners of German in Kenya who have English as L1.

While the learners of German in Nairobi County were considered to have English as L1, their counterparts at the Kiambu, Murang'a, Nyeri and Mombasa counties were considered to have English as L2. In Mombasa County, for example, Kiswahili is the L1 being the main language in the region. Most of these learners of German had their pre-school and lower primaryclasses taught in Kiswahili. Thus English for these learners of German in Mombasa County is a L2. In Mombasa County, only one school was selected for this study since it is the only county secondary school that offers German. This is The Shimo la Tewa High School.

In the Kiambu, Murang'a and Nyeri counties in Kenya, the Gikuyu language plays a predominant role since this is used for most aspects of life and schooling in this region. Most of

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[19]   The Pangani Girls High School has since 2012 been elevated to a National School. This means it now admits pupils from all over the country. At the time of data collection for the present study, it was a county school admitting pupils mainly from Nairobi County.

[20]   The Precious Blood High School is a PASCH school. The term PASCH stands for "Schulen: Partner der Zukunft" and refers to an initiative of the Federal Foreign Ministry of Germany in association with other partners among them the DAAD and the Goethe Institute in 2008. There are between 1500 – 1700 PASCH schools in the world and their major aim is to propagate the German language. These schools get support in the form of learning materials, computers and scholarships for students to visit Germany as well as volunteers from Germany to assist in the teaching/learning of the language.

the learners of German in these counties were taught in Gikuyu in the pre-school and lower primary levels. Gikuyu is a Bantu language mainly spoken in the Central region in Kenya by the Agikuyu community. Thus, for these learners of German, Gikuyu is the L1 whereas English is the L2. One county school offers German in Kiambu County; one county school offers German in Murang'a County while one county school offers German in Nyeri County. They were all selected for this study. They are The St Francis Girls High School Mang'u in Kiambu County, The Njiiri High School in Murang'a County and The Nyeri High School in Nyeri County.

The criteria for selecting the schools was checking whether they offered German as an examinable subject and also ascertaining that they had learners in form four. The pioneer schools offering German in Kenya as an examinable subject are National Schools while the other none national schools offering German in Kenya currently have no learners of German yet in the final examination class of form four.

Norrish (1983:63) labels writing as a secondary skill and the researcher concurs with him. The process of producing texts (writing and speaking) is more complex compared to the process of receiving texts (listening and reading). Whereas writing and speakingare considered active skills, listening and reading are considered to be passive skills. Bearing this in mind, only learners of German in form four were considered in the present study since these learners are able to write compositions in German after having learnt German for four years.According to the Kenyan 8-4-4 system of education, eight years are spent in primary school, four years in secondary school and four years at university. These learners are thus in their twelfth year of schooling. They started learning German in form one, in their ninth year of schooling, and are between level A2

and B1 level according to the Common European Levels of Referencing.[21] On average the learners in this study are between ages 17–19 years, and they learn German under more or less similar conditions: they use the same course book, they are all in public county secondary schools, they are taught by teachers trained at the same institutions, they use similar learning materials etc. This was confirmed by teachers of these schools in the questionnaires they filled.

1.9.2   Data collection procedure

While not denying the disadvantages of using written texts to elicit second language acquisition data from learners, the researcher embarked on cross-sectional written data collection in the first and second terms of 2011 between March and July 2011. This period was chosen because the third term would otherwise have been too stressful for the schools, teachers and learners alike, since the form four learners normally sit their national examinations (Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education- K.C.S.E.) in October and November. Since the choice of instrument depends on the research purpose, the researcher chose to use two research instruments to elicit data. The experimentally elicited samples were in the form of guided compositions and self-administered questionnaires. This is because our aim was to elicit specific features in the learner production as outlined in the objectives.

In the first step of data collection the learners of German at the seven county secondary schools were requested to write guided compositions that were timed and the learners did not have access

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[21]   Europe has standardized the levels of language learning. There are six levels of language learning according to the Common European Levels of Referencing. That is A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2.
        A1 is the beginner level while C2 is the advanced level.

to reference materials such as dictionaries and grammars as they wrote. The topic was chosen after perusing some KCSE German examination papers. The aim was to allow free writing though guided since some points were to direct the learners to elicit grammatical structures the researcher was looking for. The exercise was imaginary. The learners were asked to write a letter in German to an imagined German friend in Germany. They were given one hour to write about tourism in Kenya touching on its role in the Kenyan economy, the period when most tourists visit Kenya and the problems associated with tourism and how these can be solved[22]. This exercise is what Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 63) call prompts. Prompts according to Ellis and Barkhuizen are a type of experimentally elicited samples where learners are provided with some form of stimulus and use it to produce sentences and structures that would help to meet the objectives of the study. The task given to the students resembles an exercise in the KCSE German Paper 1 examination that is written at the end of the four secondary years[23] and the assumption was that the learners were somewhat familiar with the format. The compositions were written during the regular double lesson for German so that the researcher did not interfere with the normal running of the lessons in schools as stipulated in the timetable for each school. The researcher hoped this composition writing exercise would serve as preparation for the main KCSE examination and thus be written with the seriousness it deserved. Writing this composition required the learners to write sentences and thus use finite verbs in main clauses, in subordinate clauses; link sentences with conjunctions and hence produce main as well as subordinate clauses. The learners would also have to use nouns and thus form words whether simple nouns or compound nouns. For an explanation why tourists visit Kenya the learners were

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[22]   The composition question given to the learners is found in appendix I.
[23]   K.C.S.E German Paper 1 consists of Listening comprehension and Composition while German Paper 2 consists of Grammar and Reading Comprehension. German Paper 3 is the oral exam consisting of Reading aloud and Conversation. (Information from Kenya National Examination Council – KNEC)

bound to use subordinate clauses using the conjunctions *weil* and *denn.* The subordinate clause with the conjunction *weil* is one of the features of German grammar which the learners are assumed to have difficulty with. Schmitt (1988: 87) also posits that subordinate sentences with '*weil'* and *'denn'* are among typical errors of beginners as well as advanced learners of German.

The reason for choosing the form four learners was that these learners are able to write texts in the German language since they have been learning German for about four years. Their competence in the German language is thus better analyzed in text form compared to isolated sentences. Just like most researches in second language acquisition, the present investigation was guided by the need for data that reflects natural language as closely as possible. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 40) point out that"given that natural language use typically relies on L2 knowledge that has been proceduralized, it can be argued that samples obtained from speeded experimental elicitation are more likely to match those obtained naturally."

The learners were also informed that the compositions were being collected for research purpose and they were also assured that they would not be graded and that their bio data would remain anonymous. Furthermore, their names would be treated with utmost confidence and remain anonymous since their names would be deleted after the data had gone through the first stage of processing. This was adhered to in the data analysis procedure. As a researcher one can only hope that by telling the learners that their compositions will not be graded and that their personal details will remain anonymous, will give them confidence and encourage them to write more.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) list three types of samples of learner language: a) Naturally-occurring samples; b) Clinically-elicited samples; and c) Experimentally-elicited samples.

Naturally-occurring samples correspond to written or oral samples in real life situations. The difference between clinical and experimental elicitation lies in the hypotheses.When a researcher has not yet developed clear set hypotheses, clinical samples are used while theopposite is true for experimental samples: A researcher controls the sample through some well spelt out hypotheses (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 24). The data for the present research was collected by means of written experimental elicited samples because hypotheses to be tested had already been identified. The main aim of the present study was the product and not the process of writing because the aim was to analyze the forms and structures that the learners produced.

Other than the ease in collection of written samples as attested by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), the researcher concurs with Diehl et al. (2000) who argue that students tend to write more than speak because the fear to talk a foreign language is higher than writing it. The researcher is also aware of weaknesses of using written texts in second language acquisition. Among the disadvantages that Diehl et al. (2000) list are the fact that written texts cannot be equated to spontaneous data since time is a major factor in planning the text as well as in self correction (Diehl et al. 2000:7). This aspect of self-correction was evident in the compositions collected as in the cancellation of some words or whole sentences. Furthermore one learner had a rough draft before writing the clean draft. Diehl et al. (2000: 9) note that self-correction doesn't necessarily lead to correct forms but mirrors the existence of the interlanguage and transfer processes. A negative argument advanced by Diehl et al. (2000) for using written texts is the topic of the composition. They argue that it is not always easy to capture all the grammatical aspects in the task given (Diehl et al 2000:8). It was thus only hoped that the subjects would combine main and subordinate clauses, give reasons etc. as the researcher expected them to. Some however avoided

this. The avoidance strategy speaks against the use of written texts in second language acquisition.

In the second step of data collection two open questionnaires were filled. The first questionnaire was given to the learners to elicit their linguistic and situational background while growing up and at the time of data collection[24]. The questionnaire further sought to know from the learners what language(s) they preferred at home and in school because transfer is expected from the language(s) one has mastered well. It focused also on the learners' experiences while learning German. This questionnaire was in English and it contained ten items, nine of which were open-ended. Since the regular double lesson was not enough for the composition as well as the questionnaire, the learners were asked to fill in this questionnaire later during their free time, for example during prep time in the evening. This of course led to some questionnaires not being filled. These questionnaires also had their names to aid in the first step of analysis. The learners were again assured that their personal data would remain anonymous.The linguistic and situational background was necessary to assist the present research confirm its assumptions about the learners having English as L1 or L2 and also get information about their experience of learning German.

The second questionnaire was given to the teachers of German in these schools to solicit information about their linguistic background as well as the teaching of German in their respective schools[25]. The questionnaire was also in English. The teachers were also assured that any information provided would be treated anonymously and that their names would be deleted

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[24]   A copy of the questionnaire for the learners of German can be found in appendix III.
[25]   A copy of the questionnaire for the teachers of German can be found in appendix IV.

after the data had gone through the first stage of processing. This self-administered questionnaire was longer that the learners' questionnaire. It contained sixteen items, fifteen of which were open-ended. From the seven schools of the study, only five teachers returned their filled-in-questionnaires. The assumption of this study is that the other two teachers who did not return their questionnaires might have thought that they were being graded and thus did not return the questionnaires. All the teachers of German in the seven county public secondary schools helped in the administration of the research instruments, guided compositions and questionnaires.

1.9.3 Data analysis procedure

A total of 107 compositions were collected from seven public county secondary schools in Kenya. However, only 65 compositions were analyzed. This is because after the data collection, it was discovered that 52 compositions, more than half of the total compositions collected, were from one school, that is The Pangani Girls High School. Therefore the scripts from The Pangani Girls High School were sampled randomly and every fifth script was picked for analysis. At the end of this process only 10 scripts from The Pangani Girls High School were analyzed. All the scripts from the other six schools were analyzed, as follows: The Precious Blood Girls Secondary School Riruta (9 scripts); The State House Girls High School (16 scripts); The Shimo la Tewa High School Mombasa (4 scripts); The Nyeri High School (8 scripts); The St. Francis Girls High School Mang'u (11 scripts) and The Njiiri Boys High School (7 scripts). The names and identity of learners and teachers have been omitted.

The data analysis was guided by the errors and entails the four steps of error analysis as suggested by Corder (1974). These are error identification, error classification and error description and explanation. Corder (1974) also advocated a fifth step, error evaluation, a process that is beyond the scope of the present study since it involves judging the comprehensibility and gravity of errors. Errors in this present study are understood as the deviations from the Written Standard German (WSG) that arises as a result of lack of knowledge. Errors are competence phenomena and a learner would not be able to correct himself because the structures are lacking or were understood wrongly. Errors are to be differentiated from mistakes. Mistakes are a selection of the wrong style, dialect or variety. Mistakes as performance phenomena are a regular feature of native-speakers speech and in most situations a learner can correct himself if the mistake is pointed out to him.

The identification of errors in this study was guided by the objectives of the study. The objectives focused on two grammatical aspects of language, these are Syntax and Lexicology. The present study sought to find out errors in Syntax, specifically the errors revolving around the misplacement of the finite verb in various clauses and errors in Lexicology / Morphology, specifically lexical transfers that revolve around misspellings and lexical transfers that affect non-clausal units. These aspects are suggested by the data collected as interesting from the point of view of the concept of transfer. Word formation, a part of lexicology, showed clear cases of transfer patterns especially from the English language into the German language both on the morphological and the lexical level.

The present investigation was also interested in these areas because German, English and the L1 languages of the learners are different in these aspects in regard to the position of the finite verb in various clauses. Furthermore German and English languages belong to the Indo-European languages and are similar in wide portions of basic vocabulary. On the other hand, the L1 of the learners as well as the English and Kiswahili languages do not possess gender classification, capitalization of nouns and mutated vowels that are present in the German language. Thus an analysis in these areas in the compositions of Kenyan learners of German would not bear interesting results for a study of transfer like this one. Moreover among the literature reviewed, most confirmed that this study is in line with others in the field of second language acquisition. Mitchell and Myles (1998: 5) posit that most theories of second language acquisition try to account for the development in the area of syntax because analysis in this area is generally seen as being central to language learning. Other researchers Diel et al. (2000) in an analysis of German grammatical structures in Geneva in western Switzerland argue that their analysis was not only similar to current analyses in second language acquisition but that such research accounts for most of the current research in second language acquisition (Diel et al. 2000: 5).

Corder (1973: 26) suggests two kinds of reconstruction in correctly interpreting a learner's utterance: a) authoritative construction where the learner is consulted in the interpretation and b) the plausible construction where the learner is not consulted. The present study used the second type of reconstruction because the learners were not available for consultation.

Analysis of errors in the present research was guided by the five steps suggested by Corder (1974: cited in Ellis 2008: 46). These are a) collection of a sample of learner language, b)

identification of errors c) description of errors, d) explanation of errors, and e) evaluation of errors. Though five steps are suggested by Corder, the present study only made use of the first four. The fifth step was not employed in the analysis of the errors because it involves judging the comprehensibility and gravity of errors which is beyond the scope of the present study.

According to Neuner (1996: 216) the English language offers the least parallels for learners of German and this could explain the misspellings and lexical errors. Dentler (2000: 84) in the analysis of Swedish learners grouped transfer of lexical items into four groups: borrowings; false friends; semantic extensions and loan translations. Wachira (2008: 189) in her study on translation strategies employed by Kenyan learners of the German language at various institutions grouped these lexical errors into five categories. These are false friends; untranslated English words; wrong choice of a word from a dictionary; word-for-word translation of English words into German; and the transfer of concepts. The present investigation found errors of some of this categorization. However, the data revealed only false friends, untranslated words and word-for-word translation of English words into German. The third category in Wachira 2008 (wrong choice of dictionary entry) is absent in the present study because the learners in the present study did not use any dictionaries, as is the fifth category, transfer of concepts. These are what Dentler (2000) calls semantic extensions. These are beyond the scope of the present research.

The number of compositions received vis-à-vis compositions expected is summarized in Table 4 as follows:

Table 4: Number of compositions expected vis–a-vis compositions received from the seven schools

County	School	Compositions expected	Compositions received
Nairobi County	The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	09	09
	The State House Girls High School	16	16
	The Pangani Girls High School	56	52
Kiambu County	The St. Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	28	11
Murang'a County	The Njiiri High School	08	07
Nyeri County	The Nyeri High School	09	08
Mombasa County	The Shimo la Tewa High School, Mombasa	05	04
Total		**131**	**107**

Table 4 illustrates that not all the form four learners in the selected county schools responded. Some opted not to write the composition and their decision was respected. The huge difference in the expected and received compositions from The St. Francis Girls High School Mang'u arose because on the day the research was carried out, one of the parallel form four classes was away on a school trip and thus these learners could not write the compositions. The Pangani Girls High School had the highest number of respondents (52) while The Shimo la Tewa High School Mombasa had the lowest (04). Of the schools in the research three are boy schools (The

Shimo la Tewa High School in Mombasa County, The Nyeri High Schoolin Nyeri County and The Njiiri High School in Murang'a County) while four are girl schools (The Pangani Girls High School, The Precious Blood High School Riruta, The State House Girls High Schoolin Nairobi County and The St Francis Girls High School Mang'u in Kiambu County).

The compositions collected were then analyzed. The first part of analysis was fourfold and involved the following steps:

1. Error identification. All errors in the learners' compositions that are ungrammatical and deviate from the Written Standard German (WSG) were marked.

2. Linguistic classification. After the identification of errors, the linguistic subsystem covered was noted, for example, syntax.

3. Error categorization, for example, spelling.

4. Error Explanation. Finally, a plausible explanation for the error occurrence was given, for example, transfer from English, overgeneralization etc.

During the analysis, the present research grouped the errors into two parts. The present study investigated syntactical and lexical transfer. Word order, specifically the position of the finite verb, in main clauses standing alone, in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses as well as in subordinate clauses were studied. Another part of analysis concentrated on lexical transfers. Lexical errors revolving around misspellings and lexical transfers that affect non-clausal units were analyzed.However not all spelling errors were analyzed, but only those from which conclusions can be drawn with regard to transfer. Problems of style and register have also been left out of this study since the focus was grammar.

In a further step of analysis the researcher got various examples from the corpus as per the objectives of the study. That is:

a) Instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses

b) Instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses

c) Instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses

d) Instances of the misspellings and lexical transfers.

For these examples, word-by-word glosses of the original data and another one with idiomatic glosses in English was undertaken. This procedure helped the researcher determine how many errors in the corpus are attributable to the English language, which aspects are transferable and which are not. The results observed were categorized into two major groups: a) Word order errors revolving around the misplacement of the finite verb. These results are discussed in chapter two. b) Lexical errors revolving around misspellings and lexical transfers that affect non-clausal units. The presentation and analysis of results on lexical errors is found in chapter three.

Regarding the position of the finite verb the results identified various positions: sentence-initial position, sentence-medial position (that is after the subject or after a conjunction) and sentence-final position. In the second category the results revealed three processes of word formation: false friends, borrowings and coinages.

The original names and identity data of the learners and teachers have been changed throughout this study. The examples that are given have thus been coded as per the school, the learner

number and the line of the composition to give the exact place they can be traced to the compositions collected. For instance, in example 'PB06_16', the letters 'PB' will show that the particular sentence is from the compositions from The Precious Blood High School, Riruta, the numbers '06' show that this student's composition was the sixth to be analyzed from that school and the number '16' show that that particular example was found in line 16 in that student's composition. Likewise example 'PG15_39' shows that the example is from a composition from The Pangani Girls High School, student number 15 and in line 39 of that student's composition; example 'SH02_36' show that the example is from a composition from The State House Girls High School, learner 2 and in line 36 of that student's composition; example 'NY05_09' shows that the example is from a composition from The Nyeri High School, learner 5 and in line 9 of that student's composition; example 'NJ03_43' show that the example is from a learner's composition from The Njiiri High School, learner 3 and in line 43 of the composition; example 'SF07_07' shows that the example is from a composition from The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u, learner 7 and in line 7 of the leaner's composition; example 'ST04_05' shows that the composition is from a composition from a learner from The Shimo la Tewa High School, learner 4 and from line 5 of the learner's composition.

The incorrect learners' sentences from the data collected are marked with an asterisk (*). This is in line with the tradition in the field of linguistics. The finite verb in the learner's sentence is underlined while the finite verb in the MWSG is marked in **bold**. In some examples, the sentence is also translated into the various languages of the learners in a bid to establish the source of the error. In this case, the finite verb is marked in *italics*. Frequencies of the various errors are illustrated using tables.

1.10   CHAPTER OUTLINE

This study is divided into four chapters. Chapter one is the introduction to the study. The reader is introduced to the general background area of the research where the statement of the research problem is specified, the aim and objectives of the study, a justification of the study as well as the scope and limitations of the study are given. Terms used in the present study are also defined followed by the literature review.Studies reviewed are those that studied errors which second language learners make and similar research to the present one have been critically reviewed highlighting their strengths and weaknesses. The review of literature in the present study also includes several studies that have examined the acquisition of L3 German. The literature review is chronologically organized. The present study is anchored in the language transfer theory and key aspects of this theory are highlighted. The section is divided into four parts: It starts by tracing a historical overview of the concept of transfer; then the methodology of transfer studies is discussed; thereafter the constraints of transfer are discussed and lastly key features of a cognitive theory of transfer are listed. Chapter one also outlines the methods of data collection and data analysis. The sample of the study is described followed by the data collection procedure. This chapter ends with the data analysis procedure.

Data presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings of the research have been presented in Chapter two and Chapter three. Chapter two presents results of word order errors revolving around the misplacement of the finite verb. The position of the finite verb was investigated in three different types of clauses: in main clauses standing alone, in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses and in subordinate clauses. Chapter three presents results of lexical errors

revolving around misspellings and lexical transfers that affect non-clausal units. This chapter discusses how the learners formed words and categorized the errors into three groups: false friends, borrowings and coinages. The data analyses are followed by a discussion guided by the hypotheses. A summary of the findings on the basis of the two variables of the study, English as L1 and English as L2, is presented as well as possible sources of the errors in the acquisition of written German among Kenyan form four learners.

The last chapter in this study is chapter four and it presents the summary and conclusion to the study. Thereafter implications for the German language teaching in Kenya are discussed. The results are not only useful to the German secondary school teacher for but will also guide lecturers of German in the local universities and other institutions of higher education since they draw students for the undergraduate degree programmes from these public secondary schools. This section also emphasizes that the teacher for German can and should tap into the resource(s) already present in the minds of the learners (in our case the awareness of the English language and other Kenyan indigenous languages) in their acquisition of the German language as suggested. This chapter ends with recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2:   **WORD ORDER ERRORS OF THE FINITE VERB:**
                                      ANALYSIS AND RESULTS PRESENTATION

In this chapter, data collected on word order errors in the finite verb are presented and analyzed. Word order was analyzed in terms of where the learners placed the finite verb in different clauses. The following three categories were distinguished: the position of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone; the position of the finite verb in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses; and the position of the finite verb in subordinate clauses. The results identified various positions of the incorrect placement of the finite verb. These are sentence-initial position; sentence-medial position (that is after the subject or after a conjunction) and sentence-final position. Let us start with the errors in main clauses standing alone.

2.1   ERRORS IN MAIN CLAUSES STANDING ALONE

Main clauses are independent clauses that can stand alone. The main clause in German requires that the finite verb is placed in the second position, thus mainly after the subject. This finite verb should also always agree in number with the subject. If the finite verb in a main clause is not placed in position two, the sentence is not grammatically correct. Table 5 shows the frequency of errors in main clauses standing alone per school.

Table 5:   Misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	2	6.25
The Pangani Girls High School	5	15.625
The State House Girls High School	5	15.625
The Nyeri High School	10	31.25
The Njiiri High School	4	12.5
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	3	9.375
The Shimo La Tewa High School	3	9.375
TOTAL	**32**	**100%**

Table 5 gives a summary of all the errors found in the data collected revolving around the misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone per school under the present study. From the table it is evident that most errors involving the position of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone were found in compositions from The Nyeri High School (31.25%) followed by compositions from The Pangani Girls HighSchool and The State House Girls School (15.625%). It is also interesting to note that all the seven schools under study had a share of these errors. This could be an indication that these errors are probably developmental. A developmental error is an error that occurs in the interlanguage of all learners irrespective of their L1 and is also caused by limited knowledge of the target language (Richards 1985: 46). Looking closely at the errors in the main clauses standing alone, some trends can be distinguished. There were clauses where the learners placed the finite verb in the initial position and those clauses where the learners placed the finite verb in the final position. There were also instances where the finite verb was placed after the subject.

The analysis begins with the clauses with the finite verb in the initial position. The incorrect learners' sentences from the data collected are marked with an asterisk (*).The finite verb in the learner's sentence is underlined while the finite verb in the MWSG is marked in **bold**. In some examples, the sentence is also translated into the various languages of the learners in a bid to establish the source of the error. In this case, the finite verb is marked in *italics*.

2.1.1   The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-initial position

Table 6:   Misplacement of the finite verb in a sentence-initial position in main clauses standing alone

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	0	0
The Nyeri High School	5	83.33
The Njiiri High School	0	0
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	1	16.66
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**6**	**100%**

Table 6 illustrates the distribution of the errors of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in a sentence-initial position in main clauses standing alone for each of the seven schools under the present study.The table shows that out of the six errors, five were from one school (The Nyeri High School). This school is in the Central region of Kenya specifically in Nyeri County where the dominant language is Gikuyu. In this region, the English language would thus assume the role of L2. Consider the following examples:

(1)   NY05_09: *<u>Erzähle </u>ich ein bisschen über Touristen.

              Ich **erzähle** ein bisschen über Touristen.

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(2)   NY07_13:**Gibt** es viele Hotel, Nationalparks, Diskos und so weiter.

           Es **gibt** viele Hotels, Nationalparks, Diskos und so weiter.

(3)   SF07_07:**Haben** wir Tourismus aus Europa, Amerika, Spain, Japan und

           auch aus deines landes Deutschland.

           Wir **haben** Touristen aus Europa, Amerika, Spanien, Japan und auch aus

           deinem Land Deutschland.

These three sentences start with the finite verb and ideally resemble questions in the German language, only that the question mark is lacking at the end. The finite verb has been correctly conjugated to agree with the subject. One way of forming questions in the German language as well as in the English language is by starting with the verb.[26] Since these examples are from two schools in the Central region of Kenya (The Nyeri High School and The St. Francis Girls High School Mang'u), one could argue that their L2 which is the English language is playing a minor role here while the Gikuyu language, their L1 is playing the major role. However, sentences in the Gikuyu language would also start with the subject and the verb is also placed position two. A word-by-word gloss of example (3) in Gikuyu and English would be

         Gikuyu   Ni*turi* na ageni kuuma Ruraya, Amerika ...

         English   We *have* visitors from Europe, America ...

The morpheme analysis shows that the morpheme *'ni'* (wir) is placed at the beginning of the sentence while the finite verb rendered by the morpheme *'-turi'* (to have) is in second position. The source of the wrong positioning of the finite verb in the German sentences is thus difficult to trace. This is because the three languages German, English and Gikuyu have resembling structures for main clauses. This is in tandem with what Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) remarks in her

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[26]   The other way is by starting with the interrogative wh-.

study. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 213) argues that since the word order in main clauses in the three languages resembles each other, the learner chooses from one or more languages at his disposal. Therefore the source of linguistic transfer in this case is not always clear and the influences cannot be determined as coming from one specific language. However, it is possible in Gikuyu language to drop the subject without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence. This is also referred to as *pro drop* (Bergvall 1985: 57, cited in Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 224). Thus example 3 could also be written in Gikuyu as

Turi na ageni kuuma Ruraya, Amerika ....

In this sentence the subject morpheme '*ni*'has been dropped. The sentence in Gikuyu is still grammatically acceptable. The pro drop could thus be a plausible explanation for examples 1, 2 and 3 signaling that transfer in these sentences could have its source in the Gikuyu language. The three sentences (example 1, 2 and 3) also happen to be from learners of German from Central Kenya where the predominant language is Gikuyu. It is however to be noted that in these German sentences, the learners have not totally dropped the subject. They place the subject immediately after the verb.

The other sentences in this category exemplify another trend. In addition to the finite verb being in the initial position the pronoun *'ich'*has been written starting with a capital letter as '*Ich'*.The writing of the pronoun *'ich'* as *'Ich'* could have its source in the English language since the pronoun 'I' is always capitalized irrespective of its position in a sentence. This is not the case in German and Gikuyu languages. The pronoun *'ich'* in the German language is only capitalized

when it starts a sentence. This then could possibly be orthographic transfer from English since *'I'* is always capitalized in English.

(4)   NY04_05: ***Ich bin in Masai Mara fur meinen ferien und <u>finde </u>Ich diese

platz sehr wunderbar.

Ich war in Masai Mara für meine Ferien und ich **finde** diesen Ort sehr

wunderbar.

(5)   NY04_16: ***Sie lieben der Sonne aber <u>finde</u> Ich dieses fremd.

Sie lieben die Sonne aber ich **finde** dies fremd.

In example (4) and (5) the finite verb in the first main clause is correctly placed in position two (*bin* and *lieben*) but in the second main clause it is placed in the first place instead of position two (*finde* and *finde).* The error occurs in the second main clause after the conjunctions *und* and *aber*. These are coordinating conjunctions and one would expect in the German language the normal word order of Subject-Verb-Object (SVO). However, the learner seems to use the subject-verb inversion here. The student could be assuming that the conjunctions *und* and *aber* behave like adverbs and thus the student engages the subject-verb inversion. Again the sentences are from a school in Central region in Nyeri County (The Nyeri High School) where the dominant language is Gikuyu. The structure of these sentences in the Gikuyu language resembles the structure in the German as well as the structure in the English languages. Therefore the L1, in this case Gikuyu, cannot be argued as a single source for this error. Consider the translations of examples (4) and (5) into Gikuyu and English languages:

Gikuyu: ..., na ninde*rona* handu hau ni hega/ ha magegania.

English: ..., and I *find* this place wonderful.

Gikuyu: ..., no ninde*rona* undu uyu ni mugeni.

English: ..., but I *find* this strange.

Kleppin (1998: 37) in her categorization of sources of errors mentions influences from personal factors as one of them. These personal factors according to Kleppin (1998) are for example fatigue, loss of motivation, and fear during exams etc. These personal factors could possibly be a contributing factor for the production of this error. Ballweg et al. (2013: 32) argument of 'input' verses 'intake' could also help to explain the source of this error. Their argument is that when a teacher explains something to the learners in class (input) not all learners understand this input in the same way. This could be due to the fact that some learners do not pay attention or that some are even tired. The possibility that some learners do not understand the input in its totality arises. Thus input becomes intake. The idea that this could also be caused by wrong input presented in class cannot also be ruled out and this could also be a plausible explanation for examples (4) and (5).

2.1.2   The finite verb is incorrectly placed after the subject

Table 7:   Misplacement of the finite verb after the subject in main clauses standing alone

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	2	11.11
The Pangani Girls High School	2	11.11
The State House Girls High School	3	16.66
The Nyeri High School	4	22.22
The Njiiri High School	3	16.66
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	2	11.11
The Shimo La Tewa High School	2	11.11
TOTAL	**18**	**100%**

Table 7 illustrates the frequency of the incorrect placement of the finite verb after the subject in main clauses standing alone in the seven schools. This error was evident in all schools of the study. This could be a sign that this error could most likely be a developmental error rather than a transfer error. This is because it is found in all schools irrespective of the various L1. All the clauses in this category started with an adverb and the finite verb should thus have been placed before the subject and not after the subject as was observed. In WSG the finite verb in sentences with initial complements should be placed before the subject. The learners however disregarded the subject-verb inversion. The finite verb was in most sentences correctly conjugated. Let us consider examples (6), (7) and (8).

(6)   PB06_16:*Es ist warm aber manchmal es <u>regnet.</u>

          Es ist warm aber manchmal **regnet** es.

English: It is warm but sometimes it *rains*.

(7)   NJ03_43:*Im August wir <u>haben</u> viele Tiere in Tsavo.

          Im August **haben** wir viele Tiere in Tsavo.

Gikuyu: Mweri wenana nit*uri* na nyamu nyingi Tsavo.

(8)   ST04_05:*Hier in Mombasa das Wetter <u>ist</u> gut.

          Hier in Mombasa **ist** das Wetter gut.

Kiswahili: Hapa Mombasa hali ya anga *ni* nzuri.

In examples (6), (7) and (8) the structures of the erroneous learners' sentences in German and in English, Kiswahili and Gikuyu are similar. This could show that the error is probably

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developmental and not transfer from any of the languages known to the learners.The Teachability/Learnability Hypothesis advanced by Pienemann et al. (Pienemann 1988, cited in Mitchell and Myles 1998:78 and in Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 210) could help in explaining this error. While Mitchel and Myles (1998) list five stages, Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) discusses six stages of the same hypothesis. What Mitchel and Miles leave out is 'chunks' that is listed as Stage 1 by Agoya-Wotsuna. Pienemann's Hypothesis was as a result of research on migrant workers learning German in an untutored setting and the hypothesis is based on the complexity of the items being learnt. The two authors agree that Pienemann's Hypothesis suggests that there is a developmental route in the acquisition of the German word order. The following are the developmental stages that Pienemann and his colleagues describe:

Stage 1:   Chunks

Stage 2:   Canonical Order (SVO)
              Learners' initial hypothesis is that German is SVO, with adverbials
              in sentence-final position.

Stage 3:   Adverb preposing
              Learners place the adverb in sentence initial position, but keep the
              SVO order. There is no verb-subject inversion yet.

Stage 4:   Verb separation
              Learners place the non-finite verbal element in clause-final position.

Stage 5:   Verb-second
              Learners place the verb in sentence-second positon, resulting
              in verb-subject inversion.

Stage 6:   Verb-final in subordinate clauses.
              Learners place the finite verb in clause-final position in
              subordinate clauses.

This hierarchy of difficulty may help to explain partly some of the learners' errors in German. That means that the basic word order of SVO is easiest to learn.In Pienemann's hierarchy of difficulty, adverb preposing is given as stage three. Thus the learners place the adverb in sentence initial position, but keep the SVO order. There is no verb-subject inversion yet.

In the following example (9) the learner also placed the finite verb after the subject. Another observation made is that there is use of a word from the English language. This is *'role'*. This could point to the fact that the English language is quite dominant in the thought process of this learner. Example (9) is from The Nyeri High school in Central region where Gikuyu language is supposed to be the dominant language. However the L2 of the learners which is the English language still shows dominance. The learner could also be confused by the orthographical similarity. The two words look and almost sound alike: *'role'* in English and '*Rolle'* in German.

> (9)   NY03_08:*In meinen Landes Tourismus <u>spielt</u> ein grosse role in der
>
>   Wirtschaft.
>
>   In meinem Land **spielt** Tourismus eine groβe Rolle in der Wirtschaft.

Example (10) shows another scenario. The learner made use of the English competence positively. The disease HIV (Aids) in English is also rendered as HIV (Aids) in German. It is very likely that the learner at this point doesn't know this but uses it and gets it right. One can wonder why the learner did not use Kiswahili. The learner could have used the Kiswahili acronym for this disease (*ukimwi)* but chose the English word. Wachira (2008:192) gives two possible explanations for this phenomenon. Firstly, the learner could be more conversant with the English language and secondly, the learner is very much aware of the reader of the text and

thus writes the English word to ensure communication takes place. There is also more similarity of German and English words compared to German and Kiswahili words for the examples (9) and (10).

(10)   SH02_36:*Manchmal diese Touristen <u>haben</u> HIV.

Manchmal **haben** diese Touristen HIV.

This phenomenon of borrowing words from another language, in this present study English, is also widely discussed in Chapter 3.2 under the heading lexical borrowings.

Another trend observed was that some students inserted a comma after the initial adverb. The occurrence of a comma after the adverb could probably be transfer from English, Kiswahili or the learner's L1s. This is because the comma rules in German are grammatical. In the learners' sentences, the learners placed the comma where one would normally pause while talking. Ritter (2005: 201) shares this view when he remarks that a source of this error could be due to the fact that many writers assume that the comma use in German is based on the sounds and thus place it at the points for pause[27]. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 19) posits that the incorrect use of pauses by Kenyan learners of German is often a result of the imposition of the L1 speech habits on one hand or insufficient competence in the foreign language. While Ritter (2005) and Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) see the source of the comma as phonological, Wachira (2008: 185) views the source of the comma in these sentences as not only being phonological but also syntactical. Wachira argues that placing a comma in the wrong place in these sentences (after the adverb)

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[27]   Die Probleme kommen zunächst dadurch zu Stande, dass viele Schreiber annehmen, die Kommasetzung sei lautsprachlich basiert und spiegele demzufolge Sprechpausen wider.
(Ritter 2005: 201) (Translated by A. N. H.).

leads to syntactic errors because the intonation of the sentence changes from German to English. This change in intonation then leads the learners to formulate the sentences using structures of the English language. She further argues that the use of the comma has undergone a change from rhetorical to grammatical in the German language. While in German the comma has both rhetoric and grammatical uses, the use of the comma in the English language has remained mainly rhetorical.The following examples are worth considering in connection with the overuse of the comma:

(11)   ST02_47:*Jetzt, ich <u>möchte</u> in die Klasse gehen.
               Jetzt **möchte** ich in die Klasse gehen.
(12)   PB07_27:*Deshalb, das Unterkunftsgeld <u>ist</u> zu hoch.
               Deshalb **ist** das Unterkunftsgeld zu hoch.
(13)   PG50_22:*In Deutschland oder Amerika, das Wetter <u>ist</u> kalt.
               In Deutschland oder Amerika **ist** das Wetter kalt.
(14)   SH08_13:*Hier in Kenia, wir <u>haben</u> viele Tourismus atraktion.
               Hier in Kenia **haben** wir viele Sehenswürdigkeiten.

2.1.3   The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-final position

Table 8:   Misplacement of the finite verb in a sentence-final position in main clauses standing alone

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	3	37.5
The State House Girls High School	2	25
The Nyeri High School	0	0
The Njiiri High School	1	12.5
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	1	12.5
The Shimo La Tewa High School	1	12.5
TOTAL	**8**	**100%**

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Table 8 summarizes the incorrect placement of the finite verb in a sentence-final position in main clauses standing alone per school under study. From the table it can be observed that this error was found in five of the seven schools of the study. Consider the following examples:

(15)   PG20_21:*Deshalb viele Jugendliche die Drogen <u>nehmen.</u>

          Deshalb **nehmen** viele Jugendliche die Drogen.

(16)   SH07_56:*Daher die Afrikanische die Touristen schlecht <u>finden</u>.

          Daher **finden** die Afrikaner die Touristen schlecht.

(17)   ST04_11: *****Meist Touristen wahrend in winter in Kenia <u>kommen.</u>

          Die meisten Touristen **kommen** während des Winters nach Kenia**.**

These three sentences 15, 16 and 17 have something in common. The finite verb appears at the end of the sentence instead of in position two before the subject. The verb-subject inversion has been disregarded and the error is possibly an overgeneralization from the German language. A possible source of this error could be the sentence structure in the German language. In the German language the finite verb in a subordinate clause is placed at the end of a clause or sentence. The learners in this case, and this cuts across most schools, have probably internalized this rule but apply it even to main clauses. It is also possible that the learners have not mastered this rule well and erroneously apply it even in main clauses. This leads to main clauses that are ungrammatical and unacceptable. This could be what Richards (1985: 50) refers to as incomplete application of rules. Another possible explanation for the source of this error is Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought model (1980). This model is a cognitive model that explains L2 acquisition in terms of a general theory of skill learning. According to Anderson's ACT model, a learner possesses a working memory and two kinds of long term memory, declarative and

procedural. Learning is then said to have taken place when declarative knowledge becomes procedural knowledge. This does not happen automatically but occurs in stages. There are three stages: 1) the cognitive stage, 2) the associative stage and 3) the autonomous stage. The learner in this situation has declarative knowledge but it has not been proceduralized where it can be accessed quickly and efficiently (Anderson 1980, cited in Mitchell and Myles 1998: 87). Thus knowing a rule on the one hand and being able to apply it on the other hand are two different things. In this case it could be said that the learners have learnt the rule governing the position of the finite verb in subordinate clauses (cognitive and associative stages) but still have problems with the application of this rule (autonomous stage). McLaughlin (1987: 145) also argues that many errors in the learners' production can be attributed to the lack of procedural and not declarative knowledge.

In sentence (17) the learner does not also use the definite article '*die*' = '*the*'. It could be argued that the learners' thoughts are most likely in the English language because the definite article is not necessary in the English construction. The same structure in the Kiswahili language does not require an article. However this is to be explained by the fact that Kiswahili language does not have definite articles like the English language knows them.

English: Most tourists *come* during winter to Kenya.

Kiswahili: Watalii wengi hu*ja* Kenya wakati / msimu wa baridi.

The analysis of errors in main clauses examined the position of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone as well as in the main clause where the subordinate clause was placed before the main clause. Table 9 gives a summary of the frequency of errors revolving around the

misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone and in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses per school.

Table 9:   Frequency of errors per sub-type of the main clause per school

School	Main Clause		When MC is preceded by SC and verb in MC is wrong		Total	
	Raw	%	Raw	%	Raw	%
Precious Blood	2	6	-	-	2	**4**
Pangani School	8	23	-	-	8	**15**
State House Girls	3	8,5	8	47	11	**21**
Shimo La Tewa	3	8,5	-	-	3	**6**
Nyeri High	9	25	3	18	12	**23**
Njiiri High	2	6	1	6	3	**6**
St Francis Girls Mang'u	8	23	5	29	13	**25**
Total	**35**	**100%**	**17**	**100%**	**52**	**100%**

Table 9 illustrates that there were more errors when the main clause occurred on its own (35 instances) than when it was placed after a subordinate clause (17 instances). This confirms the second hypothesis of the study that stated that there will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone than in those preceded by subordinate clauses. From Table 9 it is also clear that most errors involving the misplacement of finite verbs in main clauses were found in compositions from The Nyeri High School (25%) followed closely by compositions from The Pangani Secondary High School and compositions from The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u (23%). Compositions from The State House Girls High School topped the list of errors when the subordinate clause was placed before the main clause

(47%). In total, it was compositions from St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u that had the highest frequency of errors (25%). This partly confirmed the fifth hypothesis which stated that the number of errors will be greater for learners for whom English is L2 than for those for whom English is L1. This is because the school is in the Central region Kenya where the dominant language is Gikuyu.

However, the other school with English L2, that is The Shimo la Tewa High School at the Coast region, has lesser percentages of errors and does not confirm this hypothesis. This is however to be interpreted differently. It can be noted at this point that the compositions from The Shimo la Tewa High School were very short in length compared to compositions from the other six schools yet all the learners in this school had one hour to write the compositions just like the learners in the other schools in Nairobi and Central regions. This could be what Odlin (1989: 36) refers to as underproduction while (Ellis 2008: 354) calls avoidance. Furthermore, of the four learners in The Shimo la Tewa High School, only three learners wrote the composition on the topic they were asked to write about (tourism). One learner (ST03) wrote about another totally different topic (Christmas). This composition on the topic'Christmas' was well written in terms of vocabulary and structures and contained relatively fewer errors. It could be argued that the learner had earlier written this composition and got corrections from the teacher. Thus the learner wanted to give a good presentation of his German language. The learner could also have misunderstood the instructions and thought that these compositions would be marked and awarded marks. In this light, the learner could have wanted to score good grades.

On the other hand a school in Nairobi County, The State House GirlsHigh School also had the most errors when the subordinate clause preceded the main clause. A possible explanation could be that the school had the most learners in this survey (16 learners) or that the error has its source in the teaching of the German language in the school. This is what Stenson (1974) referred to as instructionally-induced errors. These are caused by faulty explanation of grammar rules. Kleppin (1998: 36) discusses such errors as being influences from elements of the language class. That is errors associated with exercises and tasks performed in the classroom.

The following analysis is of errors revolving around the misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses

2.2   ERRORS IN MAIN CLAUSES PRECEDED BY SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

Table 10:   Misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	8	47.05
The Nyeri High School	3	17.65
The Njiiri High School	1	5.88
The St Francis Girls High School, Mango	5	29.42
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**17**	**100%**

Table 10 summarizes the errors involving the misplacement of the finite verb when the main clause is preceded by a subordinate clause.The above table shows that there were seventeen

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errors of the finite verb when the main clause was preceded by a subordinate clause. In six of these instances, the finite verb was incorrectly placed after the subject while in one sentence the finite verb was placed at the end of the sentence.

2.2.1   The finite verb is incorrectly placed after the subject

Table 11:   Misplacement of the finite verb after the subject in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood Secondary School Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls Secondary School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	8	50
The Nyeri High School	3	18.75
The Njiiri High School	1	6.25
The St Francis Girls High School Mang'u	4	25
The Shimo La Tewa Secondary School	0	0
TOTAL	**16**	**100%**

Table 11 illustrates the errors involving the misplacement of the finite verb after the subject when the main clause is preceded by a subordinate clause.Out of the 16 errors, half of them (50%) were found in compositions from The State House Girls High School in Nairobi, while a quarter of them were found in compositions from The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u. This could be due to the fact that these two schools had the most learners who wrote the compositions: State House Girls had 16 learners while St Francis Mang'u had 11 learners. Another plausible explanation could be the classroom-based factors ranging from the teacher, the teaching method or the learner internal factors like motivation and fatigue.

In the German language, when the subordinate clause comes before the main clause, the finite verb is placed in position two. This is because the subordinate clause takes up the first position so that the finite verb of the main clause must occupy the second position, thus immediately after the comma. The difference here is that the subject must be placed after the finite verb. The following sentence exemplifies this:

<u>Wenn man krank ist</u>, geht   man zum Arzt.

         1   2   3

(When one sick is,   goes   one   to the doctor)

When one is sick, one goes to the doctor.

The subordinate clause in the above sentence is '*wenn man krank ist*' and occupies position 1. The finite verb of the main clause is 'geht' and is then in position 2. Position 3 is occupied by the subject of the main clause 'man'. This is what is referred to as verb-subject inversion. In the following examples from the data, the subject-verb inversion was totally neglected and thus a grammatical error occurred.

(18)   SH06_37: **Wenn die Touristen kein Wasster trinken, es <u>sterb</u>.

                Wenn die Touristen kein Wasser trinken, **sterben** sie.

In example (18) the finite verb is placed after the subject instead of before the subject. The subject, in pronoun form, is also in singular instead of plural, like in the subordinate clause. The following example (19) also shows that the subject-verb inversion was ignored. This seems to be transfer from the English language because in English language the verb-subject inversion is absent for this particular structure.

(19)   SH16_46:**Wenn sie arbeiten, sie <u>bekommen</u> keine Zeit Drogen

miszubrauchen.

Wenn sie arbeiten, **haben**sie keine Zeit Drogen zu missbrauchen.

English: When they work, they *have* no time to misuse drugs.

It is worth noting that the learner in example 19 chooses the verb '*bekommen'* (to receive)

instead of *'haben'* (to have).

In the following three sentences (20, 21, and 22) there seems to be another interesting transfer

from the English language. The learners make use of the question word *'wann'* instead of the

conjunction *'wenn'*. This could be due to the fact that the interrogative *'wann'* can be translated

to *'when'* in English. This *'when'* is then confused with the German conjunction*'wenn'* which

also translates to the conditional '*if'*. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 21) views this confusion as coming

from the orthographical similarity in English and German and notes that "conjunctions with a

phonological or orthographical similarity in German and English such as *when/wenn* are often

used according to English word order rules". Kjär (2000: 50) also shares this opinion by

remarking that the confusion arises from the phonological similarity with English forms.

Wachira (2008:179) on the other hand sees this confusion as arising from the complexity of the

meaning and use of this conjunction in the three languages, Kiswahili, English and German.

According to Wachira (2008) this conjunction *'wenn'* in English is an interrogative which in

German is rendered as *'wann'* as well as a temporal conjunction rendered as*'wenn', 'als'* and

'immer wenn'.

Further learner examples that used *'wann'* instead of *'wenn'*.

    (20)   NY01_32:**Wann alle Leute diese Schritt nehmen, wir <u>können </u>diese

                Probleme lösen.

                Wenn alle Leute diese Schritte machen, **können** wir diese Probleme lösen.

    (21)   NJ01_29:**Wann die Touristinnen bei der Kultur beeindruckt sind, die

                Kenialeute <u>sind </u>stolz auf ihre Kultur.

                Wenn die Touristen von der Kultur beeindruckt sind, **sind** die Kenianer

                stolz auf ihre Kultur.

    (22)   SF06_37:**Wann sie zur unsere lander kommen, sie<u> haben </u>drögen und

                andere schlecht kultur mitgebracht.

                Wenn sie in unser Land kommen, **bringen** sie Drogen und andere

                schlechte Gewohnheiten **mit**.

The next sentence that follows (example 23) is introduced by another conjunction *'obwohl'* and the learner gets the positioning of the finite verb in the subordinate clause right. However the learner forgets to conjugate it so that it can agree with the subject of the subordinate clause 'Tourismus'. It is likely that the learner is thinking of the '*tourists'* since in the main clause that follows, the plural pronoun '*sie'* is used instead of *'er'*. The subject-verb inversion is still lacking in the main clause and the finite verb is placed incorrectly after the subject.

    (23)   SF08_28**:***Obwohl tourismus viele vorteile haben, sie <u>haben </u>auch viel

                nachteile.

                Obwohl Tourismus viele Vorteile hat, **hat** er auch viele Nachteile.

Though conjugation of the finite verb does not seem to be such a problem generally in this study, in example 23 it occurs twice.

2.2.2   The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-final position

Table 12:   Misplacement of the finite verb in a sentence-final position in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	0	0
The Nyeri High School	0	0
The Njiiri High School	0	0
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	1	100
The Shimo La Tewa School	0	0
TOTAL	**1**	**100%**

Only one error of this kind was found. It is in a school in the Central region where the dominant language is Gikuyu (St. Francis Girls High School, Mang'u).

(24)   SF07_21:***Obwohl die Touristen viele Vorteil haben, sie auch Nachteil

<u>haben.</u>

Obwohl die Touristen viele Vorteile haben, **haben** sie auch Nachteile.

This particular placement of the FV in sentence-final position does not seem to be a problem for the Kenyan learner of German. The learners' languages, Gikuyu, English and Kiswahili bear similar structures that place the FV after the subject.

Gikuyu: Ona tondo atalii me mawega maingi, nima*re* ona maoru.

English: Although the tourists have many advantages, they also *have*

disadvantages.

Kiswahili: Ingawa watalii wana manufaa mengi, wa*na* pia madhara.

Interestingly in example (24) the learner gets the position of the finite verb in the subordinate clause right but in the main clause wrong. This is a clear case of overgeneralization from the target language, in this study, German. The learner places the finite verb in the subordinate clause in the final position and does the same for the main clause.

2.3   ERRORS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

Subordinate clauses are incomplete sentences that cannot stand on their own. They thus complete a main clause. Grammatically, they are however complete sentences because they always have a subject and a conjugated verb (the finite verb). A subordinate clause starts with a conjunction that introduces it and gives the direction of meaning. In a German subordinate clause the subject is placed after the conjunction while the finite verb is placed at the end. Subordinate clauses can be placed before or after the main clause.When the subordinate clause comes before the main clause, its position is taken as position one. The subordinate clause occupies the first position so that the finite verb of the main clause must occupy the second position, thus immediately after the comma. This is referred to as the verb-subject inversion. Another rule is that the finite verb in the subordinate clause is placed in the final position.

Dreyer and Schmitt (2000: 165) differentiate eleven types of subordinate clauses. These are:

a) Temporal subordinate clause. This is the subordinate clause of time. These clauses start with the conjunctions *wenn, als, während, solange, bevor, nachdem, sobald, bis, seit* and *seitdem.*

b) Causal subordinate clause. This is the subordinate clause of reason. This is normally introduced by the conjunctions *weil, da* and *zumal*.

c) Conditional clause. This is the subordinate clause of condition. It is introduced by the conjunctions *wenn* and *falls.*

d) Consecutive subordinate clause. The consecutive subordinate clause is introduced by the conjunctions *sodass* and *so…dass*

e) Concessive subordinate clause. This clause is introduced by the conjunctions *obwohl, obgleich, obschon, wenn…auch, noch so…* and *so…durch*

f) Modal subordinate clause. This clause starts with conjunctions like *wie, als, je…desto* and *indem*

g) Final subordinate clause. The introductory conjunctions here are *damit* and *um…zu*

h) Infinitive constructions with *um…zu, ohne…zu, anstatt…zu*

i) Relative clauses introduced by relative pronouns such as *der, den, dem, dessen*

j) Complement clauses introduced by the complement*dass*

k) Subordinate clauses introduced by question words or interrogatives.

According to the Kenyan Curriculum for German, subordinate clauses are introduced in form two. In form two the subordinate conjunctions *weil, ob, dass* and *um… zu* are handled. In form three quite a number of subordinate conjunctions are taught. These are *um … zu, damit*, *ohne…*

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zu, ohne… dass, als, wenn, *während*, *sobald, nachdem, bevor, seit, bis* and *solange*. In the last year, in form four two subordinate conjunctions *denn* and *obwohl* conjunctions are covered. Relative clauses are taught in form four.[28]

The data collected exhibited the following subordinate clauses: causal, temporal, conditional, concessive and complement clauses. Conditional subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunction *'wenn'* were the most frequent followed by complement subordinate clauses that were introduced by the complementizer '*dass*'. They are presented in a table format per type and per school in table 13.

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[28]   Information from the text book for German in Secondary schools in Kenya 'Willkommen' which has four volumes each covering four chapters: Willlkommen 1 is used in form one and covers chapter 1 – 5; Willkommen 2 is for form two and covers chapter 6 – 10; Willkommen 3 is for form three and covers chapter 11 – 15; Willkommen 4 is for use in form four and covers chapter 16 – 20. The Kenyan-German-Exchange Programme for students was started in 1981. It is the background story in the text book 'Willkommen'.

TABLE 13: Frequency of errors in subordinate clauses per type of clause per school

	Causal Raw	%	TemporalRaw	%	ComplementRaw	%	Condi-tionalRaw	%	ConcessiveRaw	%	TotalRaw	%
Precious Blood	3	21	-	-	1	5	-	-	-	-	4	**6**
Pangani Girls	3	21	1	100	2	10	-	-	-	-	6	**9**
State House Girls	2	14	-	-	2	10	13	50	-	-	17	**28**
Shimo La Tewa	1	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	**2**
Nyeri High	-	-	-		7	35	7	27	1	33	15	**23**
Njiiri High	1	7	-	-	4	16	1	4	-	-	6	**9**
St Francis Mang'u	4	28	-	-	4	16	5	19	2	67	15	**23**
Total	**14**	**100%**	**1**	**100%**	**20**	**100%**	**26**	**100%**	**3**	**100%**	**64**	**100%**

From the summary depicted in Table 13, it is clearthat most errors occurred in conditional subordinate clauses (26 instances) followed by complement subordinate clauses (20 instances). The causal subordinate clauses had a representation of 14 instances. The other deduction from Table 13 above is that most errors involving the subordinate clauses were in compositions from The State House Girls School in Nairobi region(28%) followed closely by two schools in Central region, The Nyeri High (23%) and The St. FrancisGirls High School,Mang'u (23%).

Computing all tokens in Table 13 and Table 9, there were 64 instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses while there were 52 instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses. This means that the first hypothesis that stated that there will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses than in main clauses is confirmed.

Table 14: Misplacement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	4	6.25
The Pangani Girls High School	6	9.38
The State House Girls High School	17	26.56
The Nyeri High School	15	23.44
The Njiiri High School	6	9.375
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	15	23.44
The Shimo La Tewa High School	1	1.56
TOTAL	**64**	**100%**

Table 14 gives a summary of the errors involving the finite verb in subordinate clauses in the seven schools under study. These errors cut across the seven schools of the present research. The other deduction from the table above is that most errors involving the subordinate clauses were in compositions from The State House Girls School in Nairobi County (26.56%) while The Nyeri High School from Nyeri County and The St. Francis Girls High School Mang'u from Kiambu County had an equal share (23.44%). This could be an indication that the L1 of the various regions, that is English language in Nairobi region, Gikuyu language in Central region and Kiswahili language in the Coastal region played little or no role in this error type. One could ask why the learners make this error. A plausible explanation is that the error is developmental and is common to all learners irrespective of the L1. Follwing is a close look at the various incorrect positions of the finite verb:

2.3.1   The finite verb is incorrectly placed after the subject

Table 15:   Misplacement of the finite verb after the subject in subordinate clauses

School	Frequency of occurrence	Frequency of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	4	11.11
The Pangani Girls High School	5	13.88
The State House Girls High School	5	13.88
The Nyeri High School	8	22.22
The Njiiri High School	5	13.88
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	9	25
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**36**	**100%**

Table 15 illustrates the incorrect placement of the finite verb after the subject in subordinate clauses in the seven schools under study. The observation is that this error type was found in six of the seven schools. The highest occurrence was in compositions of learners from St. Francis Girls High School Mang'u (25%) followed closely by Nyeri High School (22.22%). Both schools are located in the Central region where the L1 is Gikuyu.

In this category, there were causal, conditional and complement clauses. Most of the causal subordinate clauses were introduced by the conjunction *'weil'* as was expected. This is because one of the questions in the composition the learners were to write contained the interrogative *'warum'* that is normally answered using the conjunction *'weil'.*There were also three sentences with the conjunction *'denn'*.[29] The difference in the two conjunctions is shown in the word order they command. The conjunction *'denn'* necessitates an SVO word order while the conjunction *'weil'* requires that the finite verb is placed at the end of the sentence, thus SOV. In the clauses that had the conjunction *'weil'*, the finite verb appeared after the subject instead of at the end. In most instances, the finite verb was conjugated correctly. The following examples (25), (26) and (27) illustrate this phenomenon:

     (25)   PG15_18:*Die Tourismus in diese Monate kommen, weil es <u>ist</u> sehr heiβ

             hier.

             Die Touristen kommen in diesen Monaten, weil es hier sehr heiβ **ist**.

A word-by-word gloss of the erroneous subordinate clause above in English reveals a resemblance with the subordinate clause structure in the English language, thereby suggesting a transfer of word-order from English.

       …, weil es <u>ist</u> sehr heiβ hier.

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[29]   The examples with 'denn' are discussed in Chapter 2.2.3.2.

..., because it *is* very hot here.

(26)   SF09_20*Viele Touristen kommt nach Masai Mara weil dort <u>gibt</u> es die

Migration.

Viele Touristen kommen nach Masai Mara, weil es dort die Wanderung

gibt.

However, a word-by-word gloss of the erroneous subordinate clause above in the Gikuyu L1 and

English L2 also reveals a resemblance with the subordinate clause structure in the Gikuyu

language in as far as the position of the finite verb is concerned.

Gikuyu: ..., tondu kuo *ni*kure ithamero.

English: ..., because there *is* the migration.

Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 21) notes that although all the languages the Kenyan learners speak have

an SVO-word order, it seems very likely that the transfer phenomena observed in their German

are from English rather than from the L1 or Kiswahili.This sentence also exhibits the English

word *'migration'* which is written with an initial capital letter just like all German nouns are

written as 'Migration' instead of using the German word 'Wanderung'. This could probably be

borrowing from the English language. Borrowing from English is extensively discussed in

Chapter 3.2.

(27)   SH14_11: ***Die Tieren sehr viel sind, weil das Wetter <u>ist</u> gut.

Die Tieresind sehr viel, weil das Wetter gut **ist.**

In example (27) the main clause seems to have the word order of a subordinate clause (the finite

verb *'sind'* is at the end of the clause) while the subordinate clause seems to have the word order

of a main clause (the finite verb '*ist*' is in second position after the subject). The learner could have confused the two clauses. A word-by-word gloss of this erroneous subordinate clause in the English language reveals a clear resemblance with the subordinate clause structure in the English language.

> German　　　…, weil das Wetter <u>ist</u> gut.
>
> English　　　…, because the weather *is* good.

The subordinate clause in Gikuyu also reveals a similar structure.

> Gikuyu　　　…, tondo riera *ni* riega.

It is thus not clear whether the transfer in the sentences (26) and (27) is from the L1 Gikuyu or the L2 English. It could also be as a result of a combination of the languages English and Gikuyu. In these sentences, the Gikuyu as L1 cannot be ruled out. According to Schmitt (1988: 87) subordinate sentences with '*weil*' and '*denn*' are among typical errors of beginners as well as advanced learners of German. The word order in German subordinate clauses is reported by Neuner (1996: 216) as being very different from the word order in the English language. Pienemann et al. Teachability/Learnability Hypothesis of hierarchy of difficulty may help to explain this error too. Learners place the finite verb in clause-final position in subordinate clauses in stage six, the last stage according to this hypothesis (cf. pg. 56).

The following set of examples has subordinate clauses with the complement '*dass*'. The complement '*dass*' introduces a subordinate clause and necessitates that the finite verb is placed at the end of the clause. This was not always the case in the data collected. The finite verb in the

subordinate clause was placed in position two after the subject instead of at its end. The following sentences exemplify this:

(28)   SH05_03: *Ich bin sehr froh, dass du <u>hast</u> mir geschrieben.

Ich bin sehr froh, dass du mir geschrieben **hast**.

(29)   SF01_21:*Touristen glauben, dass Tiere sterben <u>ist</u> ein Hobby.

Touristen glauben, dass Tiere töten ein Hobby **ist.**

In sentence (29) the learner also uses the verb '*sterben*' (to die) instead of *'töten'* (to kill). The plausible explanation for this could be due to the fact that the learner may not know the word *'töten'.* When the learners learn the perfect tense at the end of form two and beginning form three, the word '*sterben*' is introduced and learned as one of the verbs that forms the perfect tense in German using the auxiliary verb *'sein'.*

Sentence (30) shows an instance that could possibly be transfer from the English language. The learner uses *'will'* instead of *'werde'.*The German verb *'wollen'* is a modal verb and after conjugation, the inflection form *'ich will'*translates to *'I want'* in English and not to *'I will'*as was used in the sentence (30). The future tense in German is formed by using the auxiliary verb *'werden'*. Thus the future *'I will'* in English would translate to *'ich werde'* in German and not *'ich will'*.

(30)   NJ04_31:*Ich höffe, dass ich <u>will</u> eure Brief bald bekommen.

Ich hoffe, dass ich euren Brief bald bekommen **werde**.

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Lindemann's (2000: 61) discussion of word order problems of learners translating from Norwegian to German offers the following explanation: the learner translates word-for-word- and this leads to the finite verb in the subordinate clause appearing after the subject just like it is in Norwegian and in English. Therefore it cannot be clearly diagnosed as a product of transfer from the first foreign language (English). On the other hand, Lindemann (2000: 63) argues that the English word order which is identical to the Norwegian word order in subordinate clauses has accompanied the learner longer and is almost automatically seen by the learner as acceptable. The learner knows the contrast between the TL and the L1 but when it comes to spontaneous writing / talking, it becomes difficult. This argument from Lindemann (2000) could also help to explain this particular word order error in the present study where the learner places the finite verb after the subject. The word order in Kiswahili, Gikuyu and English are similar but the English word order takes precedence here because it could have accompanied the learner longer and is automatically seen as acceptable.English is not a foreign language for Kenyans, it is a second language and most learners have had a longer experience with English than Kiswahili or their L1. The kind of experience with the English language is to be understood in terms of exposure and usage. This is especially so for learners in this study from Nairobi region for whom English is L1. These learners have acquired English informally at a tender age in informal settings, usually in the family, from their parents and siblings, from their friends, from the streets and from the media etc. It can also be argued that for the learners in this study who have English as L2, the medium of instruction from upper primary onwards is English and as such they have had a longer experience with English compared to Kiswahili and Gikuyu.

In the following subordinate clauses the learners used the word *'das'* instead of *'dass'*. *'Das'* in German serves many functions: It could be an article showing neutrality of nouns, an indefinite pronoun or even a relative pronoun.

(31) PB01_27:*Sie mussen wissen das ihre Kultur <u>ist</u> so schön, wie andren

    Ländeskultur.

    Sie müssen wissen, dass ihre Kultur so schön wie die von anderen

    Ländern **ist**.

This could also be rendered as

    Sie müssen wissen, dass ihre Kultur so schön **ist**, wie die von anderen

    Ländern**.**

Example (31) also shows that the learner used *'das'* instead of the conjunction *'dass'*. While *'das'* could be an article, an indefinite pronoun or a relative pronoun in German, '*dass'* is a conjunction. The learner did not also insert a comma before the subordinate clause. In the following sentences (32) and (33) the learner also uses '*das'* instead of '*dass'* but the comma is placed after it instead of before it.

(32) NJ03_04:*Meiner Meinung nach ich denke das, Geld <u>ist</u> mehr wichtig.

    Meiner Meinung nach denke ich, dass Geld wichtiger **ist.**

(33) NJ06_32:*Ich bin sicher, das Schule in Kenia <u>ist</u> besser als Schule in

    Deutsch.

    Ich bin sicher, dass die Schule in Kenia besserals die Schule in

    Deutschland **ist.**

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The back-to-back translation of the subordinate clauses (32) and (33) in English reflects a structure from the English language and highly suggests that the learner was transferring his knowledge of the English language. In sentence (33) the lack of the definite article '*die*' = '*the*' points towards English language.

…, that money *is* more important.

…, that school in Kenya *is* better than school in Germany.

This wrong placement of the comma is most probably phonological. The learner places the comma where one would normally pause while talking. However, this is a common feature in the learners' L1 especially the Bantu languages and also in Kiswahili. In German however, the comma is grammatical. Ritter (2005: 201) notes that this error could be due to the fact that many writers assume that the comma use in German is based on the sounds and thus place it at the points for pause. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012: 19) posits that the incorrect use of pauses by Kenyan learners of German is often a result of the imposition of the L1 speech habits on one hand or insufficient competence in the foreign language. While Ritter (2005) and Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) see the source of the comma as phonological, Wachira (2008: 185) views the source of the comma in these sentences as not only being phonological but also syntactical. Wachira argues that placing a comma in the wrong place in these sentences (after the adverb) leads to syntactic errors because the intonation of the sentence changes from German to English. This change in intonation then leads the learners to formulate the sentences using structures of the English language. She further argues that the use of the comma has undergone a change from rhetorical to grammatical in the German language. While in German the comma has both rhetoric and grammatical uses, the use of the comma in the English language has remained mainly rhetorical.

Another observation in this category of subordinate clauses was in the use of '*daβ*' instead of '*dass*'. This error was however only observed in compositions from two schools in Central province, The Nyeri High School and The Njiiri High School, and it could probably have its source in the learning material(s)[30]. The fact that some schools are still using text books which were written earlier using the old writing system, could explain this error. All the teachers and learners in the seven county schools admitted in the questionnaires that the text book '*Willkommen*'[31] was still being used to learn/teach German. This particular text book was written between 1988 and 1992 when the old writing system in German was being used. Even in schools where this text book has been phased out, one should not forget that the teachers for German in these schools were taught using the same textbook. The possibility that some teachers could still be teaching 'daβ' instead of 'dass' cannot be ruled out. Some learners are thus not aware of the orthographic reform.Thus this error could to some extent be attributed to the German teaching materials. Consider the following examples:

(34)   NY04_21:*Sie denken, daβ in Europa, alles <u>sind</u> reich.

        Sie denken, dass alle in Europa reich **sind**.

(35)   NY04_35:*Sowieso, Ich hoffe daβ wir <u>konnen</u> bald treffen und daβ du

        <u>willst</u> mehr über deine länder erklaren.

        Ebenfalls hoffe ich, dass wir uns bald treffen **können** und dass du mehr

        über dein Land erklären **wirst**.

---

[30]   The German language revised its writing system and from the year 2006 there is some new system in the use of the letters '*β*' and '*ss*'. The new rule stipulates that the '*β*' is now written after long vowels and diphthongs while the '*ss*' is written after short vowels. This means that '*daβ*' is now written as '*dass*'

[31]   'Willkommen' has four volumes and was written between 1988 and 1992. The new textbook for learning German in Kenya since 2009 is called 'Safari Deutsch'. However only three volumes have been published and they are not yet available in all schools.

(36)   NY06_23:*Sie sagen daβ, ihr Landes <u>sind</u> sehr kalt während Winter.

Sie sagen, dass ihre Länder sehr kalt während des Winters **sind**.

Example (35) also shows that the learner uses 'konnen' instead of 'können' where the umlaut is forgotten or ignored. The learner also uses '*willst*' instead of '*wirst*', an instance that could possibly be transfer from the English language. The German verb '*wollen*' is a modal verb and after conjugation the inflection form '*du willst*'translates to 'you want' in English and not to '*you will*'as was used here. The future tense in German is formed by using the auxiliary verb '*werden*'. Thus the future '*you will*' in English would translate to '*du wirst*' in German and not '*du willst*'. This is further discussed in Chapter 3.1.

The following temporal subordinate clause (example 37) was the only one found to be erroneous in the compositions analyzed. The finite verb in this temporal clause '*kommst*' should be placed at the end but is incorrectly placed in position two. The learner also uses the conjunction '*wann*' instead of '*wenn*'. '*Wann*' is an interrogative and translates to '*when*' in English and the orthographic similarity could be the source of the confusion which leads to this error. The learner has also used '*Ich will*' wrongly instead of '*ich werde*'. Again the verb '*wollen*' is used for the future tense instead of the verb '*werden*'. It is also worth noting that '*Ich*' is capitalized in this sentence (example 37) whereas it should not in the two instances. The first word in the sentence is the personal pronoun '*Ich*'. This is correctly so because it is at the beginning of a sentence. In the middle of the sentence, the same pronoun occurs twice as '*Ich*' instead of '*ich*'. This could possibly be transfer from the English language where '*I*' is always capitalized irrespective of its position in a sentence. The use of '*nexte Zeit*' in this sentence for '*next time*' also shows that the

learner is translating word-for word from the English language. This should be given as '*nächstes Mal*' in the German language.

(37)   PG15_39:*Ich hoffe dass Ich antworte deine Fragen und Ich will sehe

dich nexte Zeit wann du <u>kommst</u> ins meinem Heimatland.

Ich hoffe, dass ich deine Fragen beantwortet habe und ich werde dich

nächstes Mal sehen, wenn du nach meinem Heimatland **kommst**.

In the next sentence (37), the student has chosen the correct conditional conjunction '*wenn*'and the correct finite verb '*werde*'. However, the learner has placed this finite verb of the subordinate clause after the subject instead of at the end of the subordinate clause. The finite verb of the main clause is also incorrectly placed after the subject instead of before it. Thus the subject-verb inversion was disregarded. The use of the preposition '*zu*' in example (38) could also point to the use of the learner's knowledge in English. The learner uses the preposition '*zu*' in this sentence for the English preposition '*to*' yet the German construction requires the preposition '*nach*' before geographical locations.

(38)   SH10_44:*Wenn du <u>kommst</u> zu Kenia, ich werde sehr glücklich sein.

Wenn du nach Kenia **kommst**, werde ich sehr glücklich sein.

2.3.2   The finite verb is incorrectly placed after a conjunction

Table 16:   Misplacement of the finite verb after a conjunction in subordinate clauses

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	1	3.70
The State House Girls High School	12	44.44
The Nyeri High School	7	25.92
The Njiiri High School	2	7.40
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	5	18.52
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**27**	**100%**

Table 16 illustrates the incorrect placement of the finite verb after a conjunction in subordinate clauses per school under study. The table shows that this error was found in compositions in five out of the seven schools. The frequency of this error is highest in compositions of The State House Girls High School (44.44%). It could probably have its source in the teaching of German in the classroom, either they have not been taught the subordinate clauses or they have been taught but not mastered the rule governing the subordinate clauses in German. This is what Stenson (1974, cited in Ellis 2008: 54) refers to as instructionally-induced errors. He argues that faulty explanation of grammatical concepts could lead to errors. Kleppin (1998: 36) sees the source of this error as influence of elements of the language class.

From Table 16, compositions from two schools, The Precious Blood Secondary School Riruta in Nairobi and The Shimo la Tewa Secondary School in Mombasa, did not exhibit this type of error.While the compositions from The Shimo la Tewa High School were short in length, those from the Precious Blood High School Riruta were quite long. The L1 in Nairobi is English while the L1 in Mombasa is Kiswahili. The fact that the Precious Blood High School Riruta is a

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"PASCH" school could explain why the compositions from this particular school were quite long and contained relatively fewer errors compared to the compositions from other schools. Being a PASCH school the Precious blood High School Riruta gets extra support from Germany.

The following two learner sentences had the conjunction *'denn'*. The causal subordinate clause in German can be introduced by the conjunction *'weil'* or *'denn'*. The difference between these two causal clauses is shown by the word order they command. The conjunction *'weil'* forces the finite verb to the end while of the clause *'denn'* necessitates a SVO word order.

(39)   NY05_04:*Hier in Kengejeni ist es ein bisschen langsam, denn <u>ist</u> es die

regnerischte Jahreszeit.

Hier in Kengejeni ist es ein bisschen langsam, denn es **ist** die

regenreichste   Jahreszeit.

(40)   NY05_43:*Ich freue mich auf deine nachste Brief, denn <u>interessiere</u> ich

mich für den Tourismus und Touristenaktivitäten in Deutschland.

Ich freue mich auf deinen nächsten Brief, denn ich **interessiere** mich für

den Tourismus und die Touristenaktivitäten in Deutschland.

The learner uses in these sentences the conjunction *'denn'* but places the finite verb immediately after the conjunction instead of position two.

Consider the following instances where the error occurred in the conditional subordinate clause. The following examples exemplify this:

(41)   SH02_14:*Wenn <u>fahren</u> die Touristen in die Zeiten, die Fahrer und

Schaffner bekommen mehr Geld.

Wenn die Touristenzu diesen Zeiten **fahren**, bekommen die Fahrer und

die Schaffner mehr Geld.

(42)   SH02_30:*Wenn <u>besuchen</u> die Touristen Mombasa, nehmen sie die

Kinder weg.

Wenn die Touristen Mombasa **besuchen**, nehmen sie die Kinder weg.

In these two sentences, the student has made a good choice of the conditional conjunction *'wenn'* and conjugates the verb correctly. However the student places the finite verb in the subordinate clause immediately after the conjunction *'wenn'* instead of at the end of the clause. This makes the sentence ungrammatical and unacceptable. This could probably be an overgeneralization from the German language. The student has internalized the rule that the finite verb is always in the second position. This is however only for the main clause. The student applies this rule even to the subordinate clause, erroneously assuming that the conditional conjunction '*wenn'* occupies position one and thus the finite verb should occupy position two.

In the data analyzed most conditional subordinate clauses were placed before the main clause and in most cases the errors were not in the subordinate clause but in the main clause. This is because the learners disregarded the subject-verb inversion. There were however five instances where the finite verb in the main clause and the subordinate clause was incorrectly placed. Two of these are examples (38) and (41). The other three are as follows:

(43)   SH01_39*Wenn viele Leute <u>kommen</u> aus Kenia, viele Verkehrsunfall

   <u>haben.</u>

   Wenn viele Leute nach Kenia **kommen**, **haben** viele Verkehrsunfälle.

(44)   NY06_15*Wenn die Touristen <u>kommen</u> nach Kenia und Sie gehen zu die

   National Parks, Sie <u>muβen</u> bezahlen.

   Wenn die Touristen nach Kenia **kommen** und zu den Nationalparks

   gehen, **müssen** sie bezahlen.

(45)   SH02_45:*Wann die Tourist <u>wissen</u> die Probleme, sie <u>wollen</u> halten.

   Wenn die Touristen die Probleme **kennen**, **wollen** sie nicht mehr

   kommen.

In examples (43) and (44), the students have chosen the correct conditional conjunction *'wenn'* but have placed the finite verb of the subordinate clause after the subject instead of at the end of the clause. Example (45) depicts a similar structure only that the student used the interrogative *'wann'* instead of *'wenn'*. This error could probably be transfers from the English language, which reflects a similar structure as what the learners have written,

   If many people *come* to Kenya…

   If the tourists *come* to Kenya,…,

   If the tourists *know* the problem,…

In example (46) the finite verb is wrongly placed. It should be placed at the end of the subordinate clause but is placed right after the conjunction. The student also uses of the verb *'bringen'* instead of *'mitbringen'*. While *'bringen'* translates into *'take'* in German the student

here must have assumed that it carries the same meaning as the verb '*to bring*' in English. This is a false friend. The verb '*mitbringen*' is a separable verb, a two part verb in German. This feature is absent in the English language. This student also writes nouns '*dinge*' and '*typ*' in small letters, a transfer that could be from English or from the learner's L1.

(46)   NY04_17:*Obwohl <u>bringen</u> sie viele neue dinge wie neue typ Handy,

haben sie auch nachteile.

Obwohl sie viele neue Dinge wie neue Typen von Handys **mitbringen**,

haben sie auch Nachteile.

2.3.3   The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-final position

Table 17:   Misplacement of the finite verb in a sentence-final position in subordinate clauses

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	0	0
The Nyeri High School	0	0
The Njiiri High School	0	0
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	0	0
The Shimo La Tewa High School	1	100
TOTAL	**1**	**100%**

Table 17 illustrates the incorrect placement of the finite verb in a sentence-final position in subordinate clauses in the seven schools of the study.As the table shows there was only one error in this category. This was from the school from the Coastalregion, The Shimo la Tewa High School where the dominant language is Kiswahili. It was a causal subordinate clause that was not

introduced by the expected conjunction *'weil'* but by the conjunction *'denn'*. The conjunction *'denn'* necessitates an SVO word order while the conjunction *'weil'* requires that the finite verb is placed at the end of the clause, thus SOV. Let us consider the example:

(47)   ST02_16:*Anderen Touristen kommen manchmal im April, denn sie mit

Schüler treffen <u>können</u>.

Andere Touristen kommen manchmal im April, denn sie **können** Schüler

treffen.

Kiswahili: Watalii wengine huja wakati mwingine Aprili kwa sababu wana*weza*

kukutana na wanafunzi.

In this sentence the student uses the conjunction *'denn'* although the structure employed is that for *'weil'* which necessitates that the finite verb 'können' be placed at the end. The learner's L1 Kiswahili could be playing a less significant role here. This is because the structure in Kiswahili shows that the finite verb *–weza* comes after the subject and is immediately followed by the infinitive *'kukutana'*. The source of the error regarding the position of the finite verb could thus most likely be overgeneralization from the German language. The learner treats this clause as though it was introduced by the causal conjunction '*weil'* which forces the finite verb to the end. According to Wachira (2008: 185) the learner in this sentence is confused and she lists three factors that play a role: a) the learner is aware that the subordinate clause ends with a verb and places *'können'* at the end. However, the presence of this modalverb could be confusing and misleading.b) The modal verb is in position two while the next verb in the infinitive is at the end of the sentence. c) Furthermore, the fact that there is a comma in the sentence could lead the learner to think that *'denn'* is a subordinating conjunction and this leads the learner to place the

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finite verb in the final position instead of in position two as necessitated by the coordinating conjunction *'denn'*.

Wachira (2008: 182) interprets the syntactic transfer she found in her translation data of English and Kiswahili texts into German by Kenyan learners of German using the 'look ahead' phenomenon advanced by Levelt (1989: 24). Levelt argues that some sentences, in this case the subordinate clause and the adverb-initial clause in German, necessitate more than the conscious attention of the learner to be mastered. They need a cognitive process that focusses on the parts of a total conception (Levelt 1989: 24, cited in Wachira 2008: 182). However, the grammar of the structures in the various clauses is already well anchored in the L1/dominant language that it manifests itself in the target language. Thus subordinate clauses and adverb-initial clauses take up the structures of main clauses. This leads to the finite verb in the subordinate clauses being misplaced while the subject-verb inversion in the adverb-initial clauses is not realized (Wachira 2008: 180).

2.4   SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 2

During the analysis of the data collected from guided compositions written by the Kenyan learners of German in the seven public county secondary schools, correct sentences as well as others that were incorrect were observed. It was not always possible to establish the L1 identity of the learners of the present study because some (38%) did not indicate it. However, the learners of German from schools in Nairobi region were categorized as having English as L1 while

learners of German from schools in Central and Coastal regions were students with English as L2.

The following is a summary of the errors grouped as per the role English played for these learners. These results are analyzed on the background of the fifth hypothesis which stipulated that the number of errors involving any of the four linguistic features investigated in the present study will be greater for learners for whom English is L2 than for those for whom English is L1.

Three categories / clauses for the word order errors revolving around the misplacement of the finite verb were identified. The present study investigated where the learners placed the finite verb in a) Main clauses standing alone, in b) Main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses and in c) Subordinate clauses.

Table 18:   Misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone: English as L1 vs English as L2

	ENGL L1	ENGL L%	ENGL L2	ENGL L2 %
The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-initial Position	0	0	6	30
The finite verb is incorrectly placed after the subject	7	58.33	11	55
The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-final position	5	41.66	3	15
TOTAL	**12 (37.5%)**	**100%**	**20 (62.5%)**	**100%**

This result partly confirms the fifth hypothesis. The learners of German for whom English is L2 had more errors (62.5%) than the learners of German for whom English is L1 (37.5%). However for the misplacement of the finite verb in a sentence-final position, the learners for whom English is L1 have more errors (41.66%) than the learners with English as L2 (15%).

Table 19: **Misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses: English as L1 vs English L2**

	ENGL L1	ENGL L1%	ENGL L2	ENGL L2 %
The finite verb is incorrectly placed after the subject	8	100%	8	88.88
The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-final position	0	0	1	11.11
TOTAL	**8 (47.05%)**	**100%**	**9 (52.94%)**	**100%**

This result also confirms the fifth hypothesis. The learners of German for whom English is L2 had more errors (52.94%) than the learners of German for whom English is L1 (47.05%). The difference is however not significant. An interesting outcome unfolded here in that the learners of English as L1 and English as L2 had the same share of errors in the misplacement of the finite verb after the subject. Overall it was observed that there was hardly a distinct difference between the English L1 learners and the English L2 learners.

Table 20:   **Misplacement of the finite verb in subordinate clauses: English as L1 vs English as L2**

	ENGL L1	ENGL L1 %	ENGL L2	ENGL L2 %
The finite verb is incorrectly placed after the subject	14	51.85	22	59.46
The finite verb is incorrectly placed after a conjunction	13	48.15	14	37.84
The finite verb is incorrectly placed in a sentence-final position	0	0	1	2.70
TOTAL	**27 (42.19%)**	**100%**	**37 (57.81%)**	**100%**

This result also confirms the fifth hypothesis too. The learners of German for whom English is L2 had more errors (57.81%) than the learners of German for whom English is L1 (42.19%).Computing all tokens from Tables 18, 19 and 20 reveals that there 6 instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in sentence-initial position; 10 instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in sentence-final position; 27 instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb after a conjunction; and 70 instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb after the subject. This does not confirm the third hypothesis of thestudy which states that there will be more instances of the incorrect sentence-initial placement of the finite verb than of the incorrect sentence-final placement.

Overall it can be said that regarding the position of the finite verb in the various clauses, the learners of German for who English is L2 had more errors (66 instances) than the learners of German for whom English is L1 (47 instances). That is more learners of German in Central and Coastal regions misplaced the finite verb more often than learners of German in Nairobi region.

This was expected as per the fifth hypothesis of the study. From the data collected from the written compositions of Kenyan form four learners of German, the learners did not seem tohave problems with the conjugation of the finite verb but had difficulty with its positioning. Some erroneously placed the finite verb at the beginning of the clause, some placed it after the subject, some placed it after a conjunction and others placed the finite verb at the end of the clause. Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) however found out that the Kenyan learners of German had more problems conjugating the finite verb. This could be due to the fact that she analyzed oral data which is produced spontaneously and learners do not have time to make corrections while the present study investigated written data. While writing, a writer has more time to plan and pre-plan the sentences / text unlike oral speech that is spontaneous, and learners have no time to make corrections.

There are also more errors of the misplacement of the finite verb in main clauses standing alone than in the main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses. This confirms the second hypothesis of the study. The results concerning the subject-verb inversion are in tandem with the results of Dentler (2000), Lindemann (2000), Kjär (2000), Wachira (2008) and Agoya-Wotsuna (2012). The learners of the present study also disregarded the subject-verb inversion in adverb-initial sentences leading to ungrammatical sentences.

After the analysis and guided by the literature review carried out on language transfer, the present study was found to exhibit substratum transfer mostly from the English language, both positive and negative. However, not all the errors observed were transfer errors from English. There was also transfer errors from Gikuyu; errors from the interlanguage of the learners

(developmental errors); errors emanating from the target language German (intralingual errors); as well as classroom-based errors. The present study also notes that the categorization of the errors is not conclusive in line with the knowledge from the literature review that errors can have more than one source.

Negative transfer in the present study had many manifestations: The learners used English word order structures while writing German; learners borrowed words from the English language; learners were using the writing system of English while writing German etc.Negative transfer errors in the present study exhibited resemblance to structures mainly in the English language. This strong preference for the English language was not only exhibited by learners of German from the Nairobi region for whom English is L1 but also by learners of German from the Coastal and Central regions for whom English is L2. For the learners in Nairobi region, this was expected since English is their active language and they are highly proficient in English and they are more exposed to the English language at home, among friends, in the streets, via the media etc. These learners also had their pre-primary school conducted in English language. The present study concurs with Hufeisen (2000: 24) who posits that for foreign (English) language learners in Canada, "learning and acquisition [of English] co-occur partly due to the fact that for them, English is another foreign language that they have learned, and at the same time it is the language of their daily life". This statement could hold true for the Kenyan learners of German.

One might ask why the learners from the Central region did not show much transfer from Gikuyu language or why the learners of German from the Coastal region did not exhibit transfer from their L1 Kiswahili. The urge to be understood as well as to communicate seemed to drive the

learners and they leaned back on the language they are active and most comfortable in, that is English, regardless of the proficiency. Research by Agoya-Wotsuna (2002) is insightful in this regard. She investigated the language situation in Kenya as a prerequisite for the learning / teaching of German and concluded that English and Kiswahili, the two official languages, enjoy different socio-economic and political status. Bearing this socio-linguistic context in mind, it is not surprising that transfer from English was more prevalent than transfer from Kiswahili and/or Gikuyu. Baker's (2009: 163) argument of linguistic and metalinguistic awareness could also help to understand this scenario. The learners with English L1 thus have more linguistic and metalinguistic awareness leading to fewer errors. The absence of a linguistic and metalinguistic awareness for learners with English as L2 led to the many errors. The present study confirms that for learners of German in Kenya the English language is more dominant than the Kiswahili language. Ellis' (2008: 373) argument that transfer takes place when typological similarities between the source and the target language are identified by the learner could also help explain this situation. The English language is typologically related to the German language. This cannot be said for Kiswahili and Gikuyu languages. Gass and Selinker (2008:150) list three factors that determine language transfer: learner's psychotypology; perceived distance between the NL; and the TL and the actual knowledge of the TL.

The word *'ich'* was in most cases written as *'Ich'* starting with a capital letter. This observation cuts across the seven schools of the study (cf. example 4, 5 and 37). The writing of *'ich'* as *'Ich'* could have its source in the English language since *'I'* is always capitalized in the English language irrespective of its position in a sentence. This is not the case in German language where

the pronoun *'ich'* is only capitalized when it starts a sentence. The learners in this case could be transferring knowledge from the English language into the German language.

The use of the interrogative *'wann'* in place of the conjunction *'wenn'* was possibly due to the orthographic and phonological similarity with the English conjunction *'when'*. Examples 20, 21, 22 and 45 depict this phenomenon. This similarity could be the source of the confusion. In some examples the learners seemed to transfer their knowledge of the English language into the German language. The back-to-back translation of the subordinate clause in example 32 reflects a structure in the English language. The wrong placement of the comma in examples 11, 12, 13, 14 and 32 is most probably phonological transfer from English, Kiswahili or the Learners' L1.The learners place the comma where one would normally pause while talking. This is a common feature in the learners' L1 especially the Bantu languages and also in Kiswahili. In German however, the comma is grammatical. Learners also borrowed words from the English language, for example '*role'* for *'Rolle'*(cf. example 9)*, 'migration'*for*'Migration'* (cf. example 26). This could show that the thought process while writing composition in the German was in the English language. The writing of nouns starting with a small letter (cf. example 46) also could point to the dominance of the English language. In some cases the definite article (cf. example 17 and 33) was omitted and this could point to transfer from English since Kiswahili and Gikuyu do not possess definite articles like the English or German language knows them. The use of *'ich will'* for *'ich werde'*in these clauses (cf. example 30 and 35) could probably be an indication of transfer from English.

The data also exhibited developmental errors. The finite verb was placed after the subject when the sentence started with an adverb. The learners thus disregarded the subject-verb-inversion in example 6 and 7. For the subordinate clauses with *'weil'* (cf. examples 25, 26 and 27) and *'dass'* (cf. examples 28 and 29) a structure similar to the English subordinate could be observed. A word-by-word gloss of the erroneous subordinate clauses in Kiswahili and Gikuyu reveals a clear resemblance with the subordinate clause structure in the English language. This is thus not transfer but can be understood differently as a developmental error.Examples 19, 20, 21, 22 and 23 also show sentences where the learners placed the finite verb after the subject. This structure resembles similar a structure in the English subordinate clause but cannot be claimed to be transfer from the English language. It is to be understood differently. Lindemann's (2000: 63) study on Norwegian learners also revealed that most students translated through and into the English language leading sometimes to correct words and sometimes to errors. According to Lindemann (2000) most students also translated word-for-word and this led to among other things the finite verb of the subordinate clause coming immediately after the subject. Lindemann (2000) argues that this is just like in Norwegian and English and thus cannot be classified as transfer from the first foreign language English. Lindemann (2000) however argues that one should consider the fact that the students had had a longer experience with the first foreign language English. This could lead to its automatic use and the students viewing it as acceptable. This explanation could to some extent also hold true for the Kenyan learners of German in Nairobi region. English is not a foreign language for Kenyans, it is a second language and most learners have had a longer experience with English than Kiswahili.The kind of experience with the English language is to be understood in terms of exposure and usage. This is especially so for learners in the present study from Nairobi region for who English is L1. These learners have

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acquired English informally at a tender age in informal settings, usually in the family, from their parents and siblings, from their friends, from the streets and from the media etc.

Pienemann's hierarchy of difficulty places the subordinate clauses as the sixth and last stage of difficulty in the acquisition of word order in the German language. Though Pienemann's Teachability/Learnability Hypothesis was used in an untutored setting, its findings have been used to analyze data collected in a tutored setting (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 211). Agoya-Wotsuna tested the validity of this hypothesis on her oral data gathered among Kenyan learners of German and her results for morpho-syntax transfer revealed the following: There were more errors when the subordinate clause was placed before the main clause; there was no subject-verb inversion; the word order in the German sentences resembled the word order in English, Kiswahili and Gikuyu languages and thus it was difficult to pin point the source of this transfer. Generally her results showed that the issue was with the conjugation of the finite verb (agreement) and not with the position (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 213). The present study however found out that the positioning of the finite verb was a greater challenge than its conjugation.

In some of the learner examples, intralingual errors in form of overgeneralization from the target language, i.e. German was observed. A good example is when the finite verb appeared in a sentence-final position in main clauses standing alone (cf. example 15, 16 and 17). The main clause was in these examples treated like a subordinate clause thus the finite verb appearing at the end.In some examples, where the subordinate clause preceded the main clause, the learner got the position of the finite in the subordinate clause right but got it wrong in the main clause. This kind of error could be attributed to the concept of overgeneralization. The learner places the

finite verb in the subordinate clause in the final position and does the same for the main clause (cf. example 24). It should be noted at this point that the finite verb was correctly conjugated in most sentences.

There were also errors that could be traced to the teaching of the German language. These are what the present study refers to as classroom-based errors. Stenson (1974) calls them instructionally-induced errors, while Kleppin (1998) sees their source as being from the influence from elements of the language class and attributes them to personal factors like fatigue, loss of motivation and fear during exams, while Ballweg et al. (2013) argue that not all learners understand the input from the teacher in its totality. This error was visible in examples 34, 35 and 36 where learners spelt the conjunction '*dass'* as *'daβ'*; and also with the use of coordinating conjunctions *'und'* and *'aber'* where the learner places the finite verb in the first position instead of position two (cf. example 4 and 5). This kind of errors related to the classroom and the teaching of German could also help to explain the higher frequency of certain errors found only in a particular school. Half the errors involving the misplacement of the FV after the subject when the main clause is preceded by a subordinate clause, the misplacement of the FV after the subject in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses and the misplacement of the FV verb after a conjunction in subordinate clauses are from one school in Nairobi region.

While analyzing word order errors, there were some errors that the present study thought could be transfer from the Gikuyu language. In examples 1, 2 and 3 the sentences start with the finite verb though they are not questions. This in Gikuyu language is refered to as *pro drop* (Bergvall 1985: 57, cited in Agoya- Wotsuna 2012: 224) and refers to the possibility of the subject being

dropped without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence. It is however to be noted that in these German sentences, the learners have not totally dropped the subject. They place the subject immediately after the verb.

CHAPTER 3:   **LEXICAL AND MISSPELLING ERRORS:**
                   ANALYSIS AND RESULTS PRESENTATION

Chapter three presents and analyzes lexical errors revolving around lexical transfers and misspellings that affect non-clausal units. Word formation, a part of lexicology, showed clear cases of transfer patterns especially from the English language into the German language both on the morphological and the orthographic level.

While Wachira (2008: 189) in her study on translation strategies employed by Kenyan learners of the German language at various institutions grouped these lexical errors into five categories, Dentler (2000:86) identified four groups. Wachira (2008) distinguished false friends; untranslated English words; wrong choice of a word from a dictionary; word-for-word translation of English words into German; and the transfer of concepts. The present investigation found errors of some of this categorization. However, the present data revealed only false friends, untranslated words and word-for-word translation of English words into German. The third category in Wachira (2008) (wrong choice of dictionary entry) is absent in the present study, as is the fifth category, transfer of concepts. These are what Dentler (2000) calls semantic extensions. Dentler (2000: 86) classified lexical transfers into four groups. These are a) borrowings or code switching; b) false friends; c) semantic extensions; and d) loan translations. The borrowings involved both grammatical function words as well as semantic words. The false friends were also categorized into two groups: those word pairs with some similar elements in meaning and those word pairs with no similar elements in meaning. Semantic transfers were witnessed when the learners had learnt only one of the many meanings. The loan translations consisted of phrases where the native language construction or morpheme combination served as a base that is adapted using the equivalent in the target language.

The present study shall adopt and use some of these categories namely false friends; lexical borrowings and coinages.

3.1   FALSE FRIENDS

These are words with similarities in orthography in two or more languages, for this study German and English, but bearing different meanings. The results for all false friends found in the compositions analyzed are summarized in the Table 21:

Table 21:   False friends

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	2	10
The State House Girls High School	13	65
The Nyeri High School	1	5
The Njiiri High School	1	5
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	3	15
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**20**	**100%**

Table 21 above illustrates that most false friends were found in compositions from The State House Girls High School in Nairobi region. In this region, English is the dominant language and as such plays the L1 role. The plausible explanation for this high frequency of false friends could be classroom-based. The source of the error could thus be found in the teacher or the teaching / instruction method. In the study the false friends are divided into the following word categories: verbs and nouns. Each category is discussed in detail in the following sections.

3.1.1 Verbs

Table 22: False friends: Verbs

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	2	16.66
The State House Girls High School	5	41.66
The Nyeri High School	1	8.33
The Njiiri High School	1	8.33
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	3	25
The Shimo La Tewa School	0	0
TOTAL	**12**	**100%**

The analysis of the compositions revealed twelve instances depicting false friends of verbs. These involved the verbs *'bekommen'* which had the highest occurrences (5); *'will/willst'* an inflection of the verb *'wollen' (*4); the next three verbs had an equal share of one occurrence each: *'spendieren'; 'reservieren';* and *'lösen'*.

bekommen

There were five instances of the false friend*'bekommen'*in the data collected. Of these, two were found in schools in Nairobi region while three were in schools in Central region. In these five instances the verb *'bekommen'* was used with the meaning '*to become'* instead of its rightful meaning '*to get /to receive'*. This confusion could have resulted from the association with the German verb *'kommen'* which has the meaning '*to come'* in English. The addition of the prefix *'be-'* was thus translated literally. This German verb *'bekommen'* also resembles the English verb *'to become'* and is thus a false friend because it bears a totally different meaning in German, that is *'to get / to receive'*. The meaning '*to become'* is given by the German verb *'werden'*. It can thus be concluded that the product of the learner language in these sentences was first possible through the L1/L2 English. Consider examples (48) and (49):

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(48)   PG25_29:*Man muss sehr arm <u>bekommen</u>.

Man muss sehr arm **werden**.

One has to *become* very poor.

(49)   NJ03_11:*Die Stadte <u>bekommt</u> groβ.

Die Städte **werden** groβ.

The cities *become* big.

Kjär (2000: 43) examined the interim language products of students of German in Sweden where German is the second foreign language after English. In the analysis carried out on the influence of Swedish on German, both positive and negative transfers were found. Positive transfer was witnessed, for example in lexemes *hand – Hand*, plural forms *man – Männer* etc. While positive transfer aided learning, negative transfer hindered learning. According to Kjär (2000: 45) negative transfer is common in the orthography of beginners. The learners for the present study are however not beginners. They are in their fourth year of learning German. Kjär argues that with more knowledge of the foreign language, negative transfer is also witnessed in other sub-levels of language like lexical, semantics, morphology and syntax. This is because some language systems of the target language have been internalized. Kjär (2000) concluded in her study that in the L1-L2-L3 interaction, where L1 is Swedish, L2 is English and L3 German, the L2-L3 transfer was very clear.

It is worth noting at this point that one of the examples of negative transfer given by Kjär (2000) is that of the verb *'bekommen'*. This is consistent with the studies of Agoya-Wotsuna 2012,

Wachira 2008, Dentler 2000 and the present study. Neuner (1996: 216) also gives the verb '*bekommen*' as an example of the '*false cognates*' for the constellation German – English[32].

'will' as an inflection of 'wollen' instead of 'werden'

The false friends in these examples are observed when one considers the inflected forms and not at the infinitives. The German verb '*wollen*' is a modal verb and thus after conjugation the inflection form '*ich will*'translates to '*I want*' in English and not to '*I will*' as was mistaken in the following sentences. The future tense in German is formed by using the auxiliary verb '*werden*'. Thus the future '*I will*' in English would translate to '*ich werde*' in German. Examples of these false friends are as follows:

    (50)   SF08_06:*Aber in Dezember, das Wetter <u>will</u> heiβ werden.

            Aber im Dezember **wird** das Wetter warm.

            But in December the weather *will* become hot (warm).

    (51)   SF11_32:*Ich <u>will</u> rufen dir.

            I **will** call you.

            Ich *werde* dich anrufen / Ich *rufe* dich an.

In example (50) the learner also uses the adjective '*heiß*' instead of '*warm*'. This could also point towards transfer from English in German. In example (51) the learner chooses the dative case '*dir*' instead of the accusative '*dich*'. In the English language the nominative, accusative and

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[32]   Hufeisen (1993, cited in Neuner 1996: 215-216) reports that there are many parallels in German and English vocabulary, specifically for months, seasons, figures, forms, names of animals and plants, means of transport, foods, clothes, parts of the body, diseases, school subjects, sports, theater and arts, mass communication and politics and lists as an example the shapes and forms of objects.

dative forms of the personal pronoun *'you'* are identical. In the German language the pronoun is clearly marked, that is nominative *'du'*, accusative *'dich'* and dative *'dir'*. In example (51) the separable prefix *'an'* has also been omitted. The verb *'rufen'* means '*to call'* while the verb *'anrufen'* means '*to make a phone call'*. The latter meaning was referred to here and the verb should thus have the prefix *'an'*.

Though most of the examples in the present research show that '*Ich will'* occurs most frequently (cf. examples 30 and 37) there was also an instance of '*du willst'*instead of '*du wirst'*(cf. example 35).

spendieren

The German verb *'spendieren'* translates into English as '*to donate'* and not '*to spend'*. The correct verb to use in this case should have been '*ausgeben'*. This one instance was found in a school in Nairobi region where the dominant language is English.

> (52) SH01_10:*Wenn jemand kommt er/sie muss geld <u>spendiert</u> aus den Haus,
>
> das Essen usw.
>
> Wenn jemand kommt, muss er Geld für die Wohnung und das Essen usw.
>
> **ausgeben**.
>
> When somebody comes, he/she has to *spend* money for the house, food
>
> etc.

The position of the modal verb *'muss'* and the verb in the infinitive form '*spendieren'*reflects a structure in the English language. In the German language however, the modal verb and the infinitive are split such that the modal verb occurs in position two while the infinitive is placed at

the very end of the clause or sentence. What is also interesting is the inflection *–ieren*. This is further discussed in chapter 3.3.2.2.

reservieren

The verb *'reservieren'* means in English exactly that, *'to reserve'* for example a table in a restaurant. One cannot reserve culture. The student could possibly be confusing two verbs in English: *'to reserve'* and *'to preserve'*. 'To preserve' in German is given by the verbs '*bewahren'* or '*konservieren'*. The student could be thinking of the verb *'konservieren'* but writes instead *'reservieren'*.

> (53)   SH15_35:*Wir mussen unsere Kultur <u>reservieren.</u>
>
>   Wir müssen unsere Kultur **bewahren**.
>
>   We have to *preserve* our culture.

lösen

The verb lösen, is translated as *'to loosen'* in English and not '*to lose'* as is the case here. This would be given by the verb *'verlieren'*.

> (54)   PG05_30:*Wenn wir Tourismus <u>lösen</u>, werden wir arm.
>
>   Wenn wir Tourismus **verlieren**, werden wir arm.
>
>   When we *lose* tourism, we will be poor.

It can be concluded that the phonological similarity with English forms was the cause of the use of the false friends. This was also confirmed by the studies by Agoya-Wotsuna (2012), Kjär (2000) and Dentler (2000).

3.1.2 Nouns

Table 23:   False friends: Nouns

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	8	100
The Nyeri High School	0	0
The Njiiri High School	0	0
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	0	0
The Shimo La Tewa School	0	0
TOTAL	**8**	**100%**

Table 23 illustrates that there were eight instances of this error. Though there were eight instances of false friends as nouns it was the same word more or less. This word appeared as *'Zeiten'* or *'Zeite'* or with the definite article as *'die Zeiten'*. The present study also observed that the learners understood and used this word differently. Some used it with the meaning *'sites'* while others gave it the meaning *'sides'*. More interesting was the fact that all the eight instances were found in compositions from one school in Nairobi region. This could be an indication that the dominant language of the region, English and/or the teaching methodology was / were playing a major role in as far as this word was concerned. This is what Stenson (1974) calls instructionally-induced errors.

Zeiten

The word 'Zeiten' with the erroneous meaning 'sites'

In these four instances, the three students from one school mistakenly translated *'Zeiten'* to mean *'sites'*. This could probably be coming from the pronunciation of the <z> at the beginning of the word which has the sound [ts]. This sound is quite a challenge for most learners of German in

Kenya. They seem to pronounce the <z> as [s] and not as the affricate [ts]. This is not easy to explain. It is probable that this mispronunciation could be related to the classroom since they are all from one school.

Interestingly, this sound exists in several indigenous languages here in Kenya. For example the National Park *'Tsavo'* in the Coastal region in Kenya, the names *'Shilwatso'*, *'Tsuma'* and, *'Oyatsi'* from the Western region, and the name *'Tseikuru'* from the Eastern region. In primary science classroom the learners have also learnt of the '*tsetse fly'*. However the students translate this word as it sounds and use the phonetically corresponding word in German that is *'Zeit.'* Consider the following two examples:

(55)   SH02_18:*In Kenia, wir haben viele <u>Zeiten</u>, die die Touristen besuchen

konnen. Zum Beispiel; Tsavo, Amboseli, Masai Mara usw.

In Kenia haben wir viele **Sehenswürdigkeiten**, die die Touristen besuchen

können. Zum Beispiel: Tsavo, Amboseli, Maasai Mara usw.

In Kenya we have many *sites* that the tourists can visit. For example….

(56)   SH13_19:*Kenia hat <u>viele Touristen Zeiten</u> z.B. Maasai Mara,Aberdares,

Malindi,Kakamega, Kisumu, Amboseli, Thika und Nyeri usw.

 Kenia hat viele **Sehenswürdigkeiten**, z.B. …

Kenya has many tourists' *sites* e.g. …..

The word 'Zeiten' with the erroneous meaning 'sides'

There were three instances from three students in the same school as mentioned above. These ones seemed to pronounce '*Zeiten*' as *'Seiten'* which then translates to*'sides'* in English. Thus the letter <z> is pronounced as [s] instead of [ts]. A few examples follow:

    (57)   SH05_25:*Meisten Touristen kommen von die Norden <u>Zeite</u> der Welt.

                Die meisten Touristen kommen von der Nordhalbkugel.

                Most tourists come from the northern *side* of the world.

    (58)   SH08_26:*Meisten Touristen kommen auf der Westan <u>Zeiten</u> z.B.auf

                Deutschland,auf Europe, auf Britain und auf France.

                Die meisten Touristen kommen aus dem West**en** z.B. aus Deutschland,

                aus Europa, aus Britanien und aus Frankreich.

                Most tourists come from the western *side* e.g. from Germany, from

                Europe, from Britain and from France.

In these two examples (57) and (58) the definite article*'die' = 'the'* has been omitted. This could point to the thought process being in the English language since the construction in the English language does not require a definite article. In example (58) the learner uses the preposition *'auf'* instead of *'aus'*.

    (59)   SH12_24:*Die meisten Touristen kommen zu das zentrale <u>Zeiten</u> meines

                Landes und das sudden <u>Zeiten.</u>

> Die meisten Touristen besuchen Orte in der Mitte oder im Süden meines
>
> Landes.
>
> Most tourists visit the central *sides* of my country and the southern *sides*.

These examples also show instances of Kenyan English: *auf – aus; suddern – southern, Westan- Westliche.*

Chef

The word *'Chef'* in German is best translated as *'boss'* and not '*chef'* as it deceivingly looks. This is again coming from a school in Nairobi region. The resemblance in the German and the English word could be the misleading factor. The student also adds an *–s* as the plural morpheme just like in English or in German.

> (60)   SH10_24:*Das Restaurant nimmt <u>chefs.</u>
>
>   Das Restaurant nimmt **Köche**.
>
>   The restaurant takes *chefs.*

The vast majority of the false friend errors in the present study are from one school, The State House Girls' High School in Nairobi province. This could be strongly linked to the classroom teaching. Stenson (1974) argues for instructionally-induced errors while Svartvik (1973) was of the opinion that over drilling could lead to errors. The fact that the false friends are with English words, points strongly to transfer patterns from the English language into the German language. The similarity of these words in the two languages leads to the confusion. This resonates with Hessky's arguments. (1994: 22) who observes that most learning difficulties will occur when

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there are similarities as opposed to when there are differences between languages. It is also evident that less competent learners are influenced by phonological and orthographic similarities, while more competent learners use all available resources in a manner similar to that used by native speakers (Haastrup 1991: 55, cited in Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 22). This competency is what Nord (1993) calls '*mangelnde Sprachkompetenz*'(missing language competence) when he gave the reason as to why false friends appear in the learner language (Nord 1993: 264, cited in Wachira 2008: 191).

3.2   LEXICAL BORROWINGS

According to Gatto (2000:119) "the concept of interlanguage borrowing refers to the bilingual's opportunity to borrow a specific linguistic element (of lexical, syntactic, morphological or phonological origin) from another language than the one in which the speaker is communicating at the time. An element of another language replaces an element of the target language." Lexical borrowings in the present study are the words, in particular nouns, which the learners literally lifted into the German language from the English language as they were writing the compositions. These are what Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) and Wachira (2008) call 'untranslated words'.Dentler (2000) calls them 'borrowings' while Odlin (1989) refers to them as 'substitutions'. The errors might have occurred in a situation when the word in the TL is unknown to the learner or due to the fact that the learner has not learnt the word or has learnt the word but forgotten it. The source is once again from the learners' dominant and active language, in the present study English. According to Wachira (2008: 191) as much as learners do not know

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a word or a concept in the TL, most of them do not want to leave gaps in their texts. Borrowed words thus act as a communication strategy. This argument is also echoed by Kasper (1982) who further classifies inter-lingual transfer as a problem solving strategy (Kasper 1982: 586, cited in Spiropoulou 2003: 7).

The following Table 24 summarizes the lexical borrowings from the seven schools of the present study.

Table 24:   Lexical borrowings

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	1	3.22
The Pangani Girls High School	1	3.22
The State House Girls High School	11	35.48
The Nyeri High School	2	6.45
The Njiiri High School	4	12.90
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	12	48.70
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**31**	**100%**

Table 24 clearly illustrates that lexical borrowings were more in compositions from The State House Girls School in Nairobi region and The St. Francis Girls High School, Mang'u in Kiambu County. The L1 in Nairobi region is English while the L1 in Kiambu County is Gikuyu. Some learners placed these words in quotes showing that they were aware that they did not possess the knowledge of that vocabulary in the TL, in this case German, while others incorporated them in the compositions as they would normally appear in the English language. The consciousness of the learners was also shown in the orthography of these words. Nouns in German are written

starting with a capital letter and most learners borrowed this aspect of noun writing from the German language. This shows that the learners have internalized that particular norm of writing nouns in the German where all nouns are written starting with a capital letter irrespective of their position in a sentence. Words that the learners placed in quotation marks will be considered in the following section.

3.2.1   Lexical borrowings placed in quotation marks

Table 25:   Lexical borrowings placed in quotation marks

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	1	11.11
The Pangani Girls High School	1	11.11
The State House Girls High School	4	44.44
The Nyeri High School	1	11.11
The Njiiri High School	1	11.11
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	1	11.11
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**9**	**100%**

These borrowed lexical items were found in most schools of the study. The State House Girls High School in Nairobi region where the dominant language is English had the most frequent occurrences. Compositions from The Shimo la Tewa High School in Mombasa did not exhibit errors of this nature. Consider some examples of the words that the learners placed in quotation marks.

(61)   PB05_07:*In den Ferien, bin ich nach 'Amboseli National Park'

gefahren.

In den Ferien bin ich zum**Amboseli Nationalpark** gefahren.

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In the holidays, I travelled to the *Amboseli National Park.*

The German word in this case is written as '*Nationalpark*'. The student knows the German word here but chooses to place it in quotes because it is a proper noun showing the specific name of a place. Most probably the student did not see the need to translate this word because it starts with a proper noun 'Amboseli' which has no equivalent if translated into German.

    (62)   PG10_19:*Hotels sind gemacht, sehr Essen und guten 'Security'.

               Hotels sind gemacht, das Essen und **die Sicherheit** sind gut.

               Hotels are ready, food and*security* are good.

There is a possibility that the student does not know the German word for *'security'* or has forgotten it.The appropriate word in German is '*Sicherheit'*.

    (63)   SH13_22:*Vielen Touristen geht zu Malindi, Mombasa, Maasai Mara für

               die migration an die 'Wilderbeast' und Amboseli in Zentral Kenia.

               Viele Touristen fahren nach Malindi....für die **Wanderung der Gnu**....

               Many tourists go to Malindi… for the *wildebeest migration…*

This student does not however place the word *migration* in quotes but *Wildebeest* is placed in quotes. This could be because there are words in German with the ending-*ion*, for example '*Position', 'Nation'* etc. The word *'Migration'* also exists in German. It is worth noting that the student uses at the beginning of the noun the small letter 'm'.

    (64)   NJ05_51:*Die Prostituten sollen auch 'No' zu Prostitution sagen.

Die Prostituierten sollen auch '**Nein'**zu Prostitution sagen.

The prostitutes should also say *'No'* to prostitution.

The student definitely knows the German word for *'no'* which is *'nein'* but still uses *'No'* in the sentence. This could be strong evidence of the thought process in the learner's mind that is taking place in the English language even though the student is writing in German. This word has also been used in phrases like '*Say no to drugs'*and '*Say no to racism'*which the learner has heard of or uses. These words are learned and used as slogans or chunks (Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 265). It could also show that the learner is more conversant with English than with Kiswahili or German.

3.2.2   Lexical borrowings not placed in quotation marks

Table 26:   **Lexical borrowings not placed in quotation marks**

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	0	0
The Pangani Girls High School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	7	31.81
The Nyeri High School	1	4.54
The Njiiri High School	3	13.63
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	11	50
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**22**	**100%**

The words not placed in quotes were more than the words in quotation marks. The highest number was in compositions from The St. Francis Girls High School Mang'u in Central Kenya (50%). This represents half of all the words. In this region the dominant language is Gikuyu. However, these borrowings still reflected a clear pattern of transfer from the English language

into the German language. It is also worth noting that the words are all from the English language.

The present research expected that Central and Coast regions would exhibit a different scenario in lexical borrowings. That is lexical borrowing from Gikuyu and Kiswahili languages respectively. This expectation was based on the fact that Gikuyu and Kiswahili languages are L1 in these regions respectively. Gikuyu plays a dominant role in the Central region while Kiswahili is the dominant language at the Kenyan coast. This was however not the case. For example, compositions from The Shimo la Tewa Secondary School did not contain any borrowings at all, neither from English nor Kiswahili languages. The Schools in Central region, The St Francis Mang'u, The Nyeri High School and The Njiiri High School had borrowings from the English language too, even though the dominant language of the region is Gikuyu. Lexical borrowings that were placed in quotes did not outnumber borrowings that the learners simply incorporated into German. A few examples of these lexical borrowings will be considered next.

In sentences (65) – (69) the learners borrowed words from the English language and wrote them starting with a capital letter. This shows they have internalized the norm of writing nouns in the German language.

(65)   SH01_23:*Die meisten Touristen kommen hier in Kenia wenn in

Deutschland ist Winter oder <u>Spring</u>.

Die meisten Touristen kommen nach Kenia, wenn in Deutschland

Winter oder **Frühling** ist**.**

Most tourists come here to Kenya when in Germany it is Winter or *Spring*.

The word *'winter'* is translated and written as *'Winter'* in German but *'spring'* is translated and written as *'Frühling'* in German. The student could have forgotten this name in German or assumed that since *'winter'* is written in German just with a capital *'W'* in German then it also follows that the word 'spring' could also be written with a capital *'S'* in German.

(66)   SH11_43:*Ich hoffe das dieser Information ist alles und du willst gute

Noten haben für deiner <u>Project</u>.

Ich hoffe, dass diese Information alles ist und du wirst gute Noten

für dein**Projekt** bekommen.

I hope that this is all the information and that you will get good grades

for your *project*.

The word *'project'* is written *'Projekt'* in German. The student starts with a capital letter 'P' but instead of writing 'k, the student writes 'c' just as in English. Both <c> and <k> in German yield the same sound [k]. This could be the source of the confusion.

(67)   SF07_28:*Auch wir haben <u>die Coast</u> und es ist ein groβ touristen   attraktion.

Wir haben auch **die Küste** und sie ist eine groβe Sehenswürdigkeit.

We also have *the coast* and it is a big tourist attraction.

It is likely that the student does not know the word *'Küste'* or has forgotten it. The student also uses the definite article 'die' in writing 'die Coast'.

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(68)   NJ05_22:*Viele Leute in Kenia arbeiten in den Tourismus Industry.

        Viele Leute in Kenia arbeiten in der Tourismus**industrie.**

        Many people in Kenya work in the tourism *industry.*

The student writes *'Industry'* with a capital 'I'. The word for 'industry' in German is *"Industrie'*.

(69)   SF07_29:*Es gibt Indian Ocean und viele Touristen in Mombasa gehen.

        Es gibt **den Indischen Ozean** und viele Touristen fahren nach Mombasa.

        There is *the Indian Ocean* and many tourists go to Mombasa.

The German word for 'the Indian Ocean' is '*der Indische Ozean'*.

In the next sentences (70) – (73) the students borrowed the words from English and wrote them

as they would appear in English.

(70)   SH08_19:*Wann sie hier gekommen sie bringen geld welcher ist gut für

        uns kaufen vielen und machen Tourismus atraktion z.B. guter house und

        guter Schlafenzimern.

        Wenn sie hierher kommen, bringen sie Geld, was gut für uns ist beim

        Kaufenund Bauen von Sehenswürdigkeiten z.B. ein gutes **Haus** und gute

        Schlafzimmer.

        When they come here they bring money that is good for us to buy and

        make tourists' attraction e.g. a good *house* and good bedrooms.

The word '*house*' is translated as '*Haus*' in German. The pronunciation is however the same and this could have misled the student. The fact that it is written with a small 'h' points to the students' thoughts being in English. There is also misspelling, that is '*Schlafenzimern*' instead of '*Schlafzimmer*'.

(71)   SF06_21:*Sie haben viele Dinge im Heimatland verkaufen zum Beispiel:

Kleidung, essen, unsere traditional ornaments.

Sie haben viele Dinge im Heimatland gekauft, zum Beispiel

Kleidung, Essen und unser traditionelle **Schmuck.**

They sell many things in our country, for example

clothes, food,our traditional *ornaments*.

The word for ornaments in German '*Schmuck*'could be unknown to the student. This could also be the explanation in the next two examples. The student does not know the words for '*behavior*' and 'laws' in German or has forgotten them.

(72)   SF06_37:*Auch sie haben schlecht behavior zum beispiel: Prostitutieren.

Sie haben auch ein schlechtes **Benehmen**, zum Beispiel: Prostitution.

And they have bad *behavior*, for example prostitution.

(73)   SF06_41:*Sie müssen bei unsere länder laws bleiben.

Sie müssen unseren **Gesetzen** folgen.

They have to abide by our country's *laws*.

3.3　　　　COINAGES

This category of lexical errors was the most frequent in the seven schools of the research in the three regions. The learner translated word-for-word mainly from English into German. The translations are direct and thus are most of the times ungrammatical. This negative side of the coinages is however overshadowed by the creativity of the learners. Clark (1982: 391) argues that lexical creativity is widespread in children who do this to fill gaps in their lexicon. They are driven by the urge to communicate and they are constantly creating new words. These lexical innovations are drawn from their active languages. All in all the process of coining new words is a sign that they are active and (all) their languages are active too. According to Clark (1982: 392) adult innovations are guided by conventions that they have already acquired.

Lindemann (2000: 60) refers to these innovations as "Lexeme aus eigener Herstellung", that is 'own creations'. According to her these kinds of errors interfere to some extent with communication. This is because the learner uses a lexeme that is non-existent in the target language. This was also confirmed in the present study. The new creations by the learners did interfere with communication to some extent. The following table gives a summary of the coinages found in the compositions of the present study.

Table 26:   Coinages

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	18	20.69
The Pangani Girls High School	19	21.83
The State House Girls High School	21	24.14
The Nyeri High School	5	5.74
The Njiiri High School	11	12.64
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	6	6.89
The Shimo La Tewa High School	3	3.45
TOTAL	**87**	**100%**

From Table 26 it is evident that most coinages occurred in schools in Nairobi region. Again compositions from The State House Girls' High School had the highest frequency (24.14%). The present study divided these coinages in two broad groups: German-like words with English morphemes and English-like words with German morphemes.

3.3.1   German-like words with English morphemes

These words are what Lindemann (2000: 62) refers to as "weitere analoge Wortbildungen". According to her, these are incorrect word creations that are analog to English lexemes. The choice of words does not lead to major misunderstanding but could interfere with communication. The interesting thing that Lindemann notes is that the search process for these unknown words is through the English language. Results in the present study are in tandem with Lindemann's (2000) findings.

These words are divided into the following three categories: compound nouns, simple nouns and verbs. The study will start by looking at the distribution and examples of the compound nouns.

3.3.1.1   Compound nouns

Table 28:   Coinages: German-like words with English morphemes: Compound nouns

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	8	30.77
The Pangani Girls High School	1	3.84
The State House Girls High School	5	19.23
The Nyeri High School	2	7.69
The Njiiri High School	6	23.07
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	2	7.69
The Shimo La Tewa High School	2	
TOTAL	**26**	**100%**

Table 28 illustrates that this kind of error cut across the seven schools of the study. Most errors were witnessed in compositions from The Precious Blood High School, Riruta followed by compositions from The State House Girls High School. Both schools are in Nairobi region where the dominant language is English. It is worth noting that these words are German but the structure is that of English. Consider some examples:

(74)   PB09_16:*Die meisten Touristen kommen im Dezember weil, zuerst es

Weihnachts-Zeit ist.

Die meisten Touristen kommen imDezember, weil es vor allem

Weihnachtszeit ist.

Most tourists come in December because it is mainly *Christmas time*.

(75)   PB09_14:*Es gibt auch mehr <u>Stellen Möglichkeit.</u>

Es gibt auch mehr **Stellenangebote**.

There are also many *job opportunities.*

In these two instances the learner translates an English word directly into German. The learner splits the compound word as it is in English whereas the German word would be one word that is '*Weihnachten'* and '*Stellenangebote'*. Other examples here were '*nationale parks'* directly translated from '*national parks'* and '*wilde tiere'* directly translated from 'wild animals'. The corresponding German equivalents for these two words are '*Nationalparks'* and *Wildtiere'* respectively. In example (75) the learner gets the separate words right as both words exist as individual words but the combination does not exist. In German the word "*Stellenangebote'*cannot be split into its constituents. Moreover, the learner seems to forget the plural morpheme '*-en'* though the adjective '*mehr'* has been used pointing to the plural form of the noun to be used. It seems the learner has not quite learnt the way compound nouns are formed and written in German.

In the following example (76) however the learner coins a new word by putting the translated English words '*foreign exchange'* into German as one word.

(76)   SH16_11:*Wann die Touristen hier in Kenia kommen, wir

<u>Fremdeaustauschgeld</u> bekommen.

Wenn die Touristen hier in Kenia kommen, bekommen wir **Devisen**.

When the tourists come here in Kenya we get *foreign exchange.*

The correct German word in this case would have been '*Devisen'.*Other examples used by learners for this word were '*Fremdgeld'* and '*fremdes Geld'* (foreign money). In the first word the learner puts the two words together while in the second word the learner splits them. However in both, it results in a different connotation – '*someone else's money'.*

(77)   PB01_04:*Wir haben viele <u>Tourist-Attraktionen Orte</u> in Kenia.

Wir haben viele **Sehenswürdigkeiten** in Kenia.

We have many *tourist attraction sites* in Kenya.

'*Tourist-Attraktionen Orte'* is a direct translation from the English language *'tourist attraction sites'.* There is a word in German for that, which is '*Sehenswürdigkeiten*'. The learner either does not know this word or has forgotten it. This could be due to the fact that it could be a long and complex word for learners of the German language at this stage of learning. So the learner translates word-for-word. This word seemed to be problematic for most learners. Other learners used the words *'Touristen Plätze'* or '*Tourist attraktionen'.* The learner's creativity was clearly shown in the compositions. These errors could be referred to as '*creative errors'.* This is because the learners are thinking and trying their best to communicate and when they lack a word, they either substitute it with its English original and place it in quotes or translate it literally. Examples 74, 75, 76 and 77 are clear cases of transfer of a word formation pattern from English into German both on the morphological and the orthographical level.

The next two examples are literal translations from the Kenyan English language.

(78)   SH01_31:*Beispiel, <u>die Hague sechs.</u>

Zum Beispiel **die sechs Leute vor Den Haag.**

For example the *Hague Six.*

(79)   NY07_30:*Auch kommen viele Touristen im August, denn sie möchten

die <u>Größe fünf</u> sehen.

Auch kommen viele Touristen im August, denn sie möchten

die **Big Five** sehen.

Many tourists also come in August because they want to see the *Big Five*.

Moreover the examples (78) and (79) can only be understood in the Kenyan context: The term '*The Hague Six*' was used for the six Kenyan suspects that were presented before the International Criminal Court at The Hague in 2012. The term '*The Big Five*' is used in Kenya and Africa in general to refer to the big five species of wild animals that are a major tourist attraction, namely the elephant, the lion, the buffalo, the rhino and the leopard. The German language uses the same term 'The Big Five' as in English.

3.3.1.2 Simple nouns

Table 29: **Coinages: German-like words with English morphemes: Simple nouns**

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	3	25
The Pangani Girls High School	4	33.33
The State House Girls High School	1	8.33
The Nyeri High School	0	0
The Njiiri High School	2	16.66
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	1	8.33
The Shimo La Tewa High School	1	8.33
TOTAL	**12**	**100%**

Table 29 illustrates that this type of error cut across most schools of the research in the present study.

(80)   NJ06_09:*Die Touristen brauchen <u>Fahrers</u> und <u>Reiseleiters.</u>

Die Touristen brauchen **Fahrer** und **Reiseleiter.**

The tourists need *drivers and tour guides.*

(81)   PB03_17:*Viele Touristen besuchen die <u>Museums</u> dort.

Viele Touristen besuchen die **Museen** dort.

Many tourists visit the *museums* there.

(82)   ST04_16:*Der Park gibt es grosses <u>Schlanges</u> und viel wild Tiere.

In dem Park gibt es groβe **Schlangen** und viele wilde Tiere.

In the park there are big *snakes* and many wild animals.

Examples (80), (81) and (82) exhibit German nouns with English plural inflections (-s at the end of the word). This is similar to the plural formation in English. However the German words'*Fahrer'* and *'Reiseleiter'* remain unchanged in the plural while the plural of *'Museum'* is

'Museen'. The formation of the plural forms in German is somewhat regarded as a complex system with several classes that need different plural morphemes.These are

a) Umlaut   Apfel / Äpfel

b) -(e)n   Name / Namen, Frau / Frauen

c) e   Brot / Brote

d) Umlaut + e   Stadt / Städte

e) -er   Kind / Kinder

f) Umlaut + er   Mann / Männer

g) -s   Radio / Radios

g) Ø   Computer / Computer

Sometimes the vowels a, o, and u get an umlaut in the plural to be ä, ö and ö. Some words also remain unchanged in the plural. It can be argued that for Kenyan learners of German, the formation of the plural forms in German poses a big challenge because though there are clear cut rules that are systematic, it is not always easy to predict what plural morpheme a noun will take up to form the plural. Apart from a few suffixes like *–ung, -keit, -schaft* etc. which show that the noun is feminine and the plural form is *-en*, the best rule is to learn each new word with its gender and plural form. Other words noted in this category were: **Flughafens, *Mädchens* and**Schlanges.* These forms are incorrect. The correct plural forms are *Flughäfen, Mädchen* and *Schlangen* respectively. The source(s) of the error in these examples could probably be English. The learner carried over the plural forms from English into German. The following is a look at the words in their singular and plural forms in the English language: *driver – drivers, tour guide*

– *tour guides, museum – museums, airport – airports, girl – girls, snake – snakes*. However, it is

also not very clear whether the influence is coming from the English language, which is the

dominant language in this case. This is because the error could also have its source in the

German language and this could then be a case of overgeneralization. Some nouns in German

require the plural morpheme –*s*. The majority of these words that require the plural morpheme –*s*

to form the plural are foreign words, for instance *das Auto – die Autos, das Radio – die Radios*

etc. This could explain the source of the error for the word '*Museums',* but for the other words

the transfer could probably have its source in the English language. Forster (1994: 211) argues

that the most challenging plural formation is when there is the null morpheme. Learners will thus

often try to append the –*s* to the noun, e.g. der Fahrer / *Fahrers, Rechner / *Rechners etc.

3.3.1.3 Verbs

Table 30: Coinages: German-like words with English morphemes: Verbs

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	1	20
The Pangani Girls High School	0	0
The State House Girls High School	4	80
The Nyeri High School	0	0
The Njiiri High School	0	0
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	0	0
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**5**	**100%**

Table 30 illustrates that this type of error was present in schools in Nairobi region only. The error

revolved about inflection of the modal verb '*können'* in the first person plural. In German this

should be written as *'wir können'* or *'können wir'* in situations when the subject-verb inversion is

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necessary. But the learners wrote *'wir kann'* or *'kann wir'*. This resembles the English version *'we can'* and points towards transfer from the English language.

(83) PB01_09:*Mit dieses Geld, <u>kann</u> wir Landwirtschaft machen.

Mit diesem Geld **können** wir Landwirtschaft machen.

With this money we*can* do agriculture.

3.3.2 English-like words with German morphemes

3.3.2.1 Nouns

Table 31: English-like words with German morphemes: Nouns

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	2	9.09
The Pangani Girls High School	8	36.36
The State House Girls High School	6	27.27
The Nyeri High School	2	9.09
The Njiiri High School	4	18.18
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	0	0
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**22**	**100%**

Table 31 illustrates that these errors were in five out of seven schools of the research. The nouns involved were English words with German-like morphemes. These German-like structures are the umlaut, the plural morphemes *–e, –en and –s*. Consider examples (84) and (85).

(84) SH02_23:*Diese <u>Animalen</u> sind Elefant, Leöpard, Giraffe, Büffalos, Liön usw.

Diese **Tiere** sind Elefanten, Leoparden, Giraffen, Büffel, Löwen usw.

These *animals* are elephants, leopards, giraffes, buffalos, lionsetc.

In example (84) the learner has used the umlaut very interestingly. The learner must have learnt that the umlaut in German in placed on the vowels a, o and u and does exactly that in this sentence.The learner also uses the German plural morpheme *–en* on an English noun *animal.*

     (85)   PG15_08:*Meiner Heimatland viele <u>thinge</u> für der Tourismus haben.

                Mein Heimatland hat viele **Dinge** für den Tourismus.

                My home country has many *things* for the tourists.

In example (85) the learner also uses the German plural morpheme *–e* on an English noun *thing* respectively. Other nouns of this nature that were found in the learners' compositions included **'Ekonomy', *'Ekonomie', *'Mannerismus', *'Reputation', *'Protektion'* and**'edukation'.* These words could probably point to the mental processing of the learners being in English language or in the German language since *–k, -tion, -ie, -ismus* are forms found in the German language too.

3.3.2.2 Verbs

Table 32:   English-like words with German morphemes: Verbs

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	2	12.5
The Pangani Girls High School	4	25
The State House Girls High School	5	31.25
The Nyeri High School	1	6.25
The Njiiri High School	3	18.75
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	1	6.25
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**16**	**100%**

Table 32 shows that this error type was in all schools apart from the Coastal region. Examples (86) and (87) exhibit a trend involving mainly verbs in German that end in –*ieren.*

(86)   PG45_09:*Es <u>improvisiert</u> unsere Ekonomy.

Es **verbessert** unsere Ökonomie.

It *improves* our economy.

(87)   SH10_38:*Die Regierung mussen die Touristen <u>protektieren</u>.

Die Regierung muss die Touristen **schützen.**

The government has to *protect* the tourists.

Other words erroneously used include*'reportiert', *'konstruktiert', *'konsaviert',*'erodieren', *'imminieren', *'mannieren'*. A possible explanation for this error can be found when one looks closely at some words in theGerman language. There are verbs in the German language that end in –*ieren* that the learners could have already learnt, for example *diskutieren* (to discuss); *funktionieren* (to function); *reparieren* (to repair); *telefonieren* (to make a phone call); *sortieren*

(to sort); *präsentieren* (to present); *konzentrieren (*to concentrate); *informieren* (to inform); *studieren* (to study); *reklamieren* (to complain); *produzieren* (to produce); *formulieren (*to formulate); *markieren* (to mark); *verlieren* (to lose); *korrigieren (*to correct) etc. The knowledge of these verbs could have led learners to coin other verbs with the ending –*ieren* which however do not exist in the German language. Another trend was in the erroneous use of verbs ending in –*en* similar to German verbs. Consider examples (88) and (89).

(88)   NY02_04:*Ich kann es nicht <u>stoppen</u> es anzustarren.

Ich kann nicht **aufhören,** es anzustarren.

I cannot *stop* to stare at it.

(89)   SH10_33:*Die Regierung müssen Transport <u>besseren.</u>

Die Regierung muss den Transport **verbessern**.

The government has to *improve* the transport system.

(90)   PG30_21*Kenia willt der Wirtschaft<u>besseren.</u>

Kenia möchte die Wirtschaft **verbessern.**

Kenya wants to *improve* the economy.

Examples (89) and (90) also mirror a variety of English, the Kenyan English: *better* instead of *improve* is Kenyan English.

(89)   The government has *to better* transport.

(90)   Kenya wants *to better* the economy.

3.3.2.3   Adjectives

Table 33:   English-like words with German morphemes: Adjectives

School	Frequency of occurrence	Percentage of occurrence
The Precious Blood High School, Riruta	2	33.33
The Pangani Girls High School	2	33.33
The State House Girls High School	0	0
The Nyeri High School	0	0
The Njiiri High School	0	0
The St Francis Girls High School, Mang'u	2	33.33
The Shimo La Tewa High School	0	0
TOTAL	**6**	**100%**

Table 33 illustrates that these errors were found in three schools of the study, two in Nairobi region, The Precious Blood High School, Riruta and The Pangani Girls High School and one in Central region, The St. Francis Girls High School, Mang'u.

(91)   PG15_41:*Ich will sehe dich <u>nexte </u>Zeit.

Ich will dich **nächstes** Mal sehen.

I will see you *next*time.

(92)   PB05_23:*Manchmal töten sie <u>illegallich</u> die Elefante.

Manchmal töten sie **illegal** die Elefanten.

Sometimes they*illegally* kill the elephants.

(93)   PB03_19:*Die <u>Kenianischen</u> sind sehr glücklich.

Die **Kenianer** sind sehr glücklich.

The *Kenyans* are very happy.

Agoya-Wotsuna (2012:22) in her summary argues that most of the mistakes the Kenyan learners of German make result from confusing phonological and orthographic forms in English with those in German. Most of the false friends above are in tandem with this argument: *'bekommen'* for *'become';* *'ich will'* for *'I will'; 'spendieren'* for *'to spend'; 'reservieren'* for *'to reserve'; 'lösen'* for *'to lose'; 'Zeiten'* for *'sites' or 'sides'; 'chef'* for *'chef'*. It is also evident that less competent learners are influenced by phonological and orthographic similarities, while more competent learners use all available resources in a manner similar to that used by native speakers (Haastrup 1991: 55, cited in Agoya-Wotsuna 2012: 22).

Börner and Vogel (1994: 9) also posit that the vocabulary of a foreign language learner always has gaps and can never be complete at whatever learning level. This according to the two authors is due to the following three reasons: 1) The word could be unknown in the target language; 2) The word could be absent in the target language; 3) The word could be known by the learner but not with meaning (Börner and Vogel 1994: 9, cited in Wachira 2008: 189). It is thus clear that the Kenyan learners of German under study do not have a good command of the German language and therefore use their competence in the English language as a way of substituting for their incompetence in German. In this way they communicate even though their mastery of German is incomplete. This then acts as a communication strategy. Mitchell and Myles (1998: 94) distinguish between learning strategies and communication strategies. According to Mitchel and Myles "while learning strategies are the means adopted by the learner to maximize the effectiveness of the overall learning process, communication strategies are tactics used by the non-fluent learner during L2 interaction, in order to overcome specific communicative problems".

According to Kasper and Kellermann (1997) the following are the different types of communication strategies: 1) Message abandonment 2) Approximation 3) Word coinage 4) Circumlocution 5) Literal translation 6) Language switch 7) Appeal for assistance (Kasper and Kellermann 1997: 20, cited in Mitchell and Myles 1998: 95). The data in the present study can be said to show the following communication strategies: word coinage, literal translation and language switch. O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 126) studied strategies used by Spanish and Russian students and classified the foreign language learning strategies into three main groups: 1) Metacognitive strategies. These include Organizational planning and Delayed production. 2) Cognitive strategies. These are for example Rehearsal; Translation; Note taking; Substitution; and Contextualization. 3) Social / Affective Strategies. The one example here is Self-talk. The learners of German in our study showed the strategy of translation. That is they used a language(s) they have better competence in (English) as a base for producing the target language (German).

3.4   SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 3

For the lexical errors revolving around misspellings and lexical transfers that affect non-clausal units, various categories were identified. These errors were grouped into three groups: a) False friends b) Lexical borrowings c) Coinages. The third group, Coinages, was further split into two: German-like words with English morphemes and English-like words with German morphemes.

The following is a summary of the errors grouped as per the role English played for these learners. These results are analyzed on the background of the fifth hypothesis which states that the number of errors involving any of the four linguistic features investigated in the present study will be greater for learners for whom English is L2 than for those for whom English is L1. Learners from schools in Nairobi region were viewed as learners of German with English as L1while the learners in the rural settings, Central and Coastal regions, are viewed as learners with English as L2.

Table 34:   **Results: False friends: English as L1vs English as L2**

	ENGL L1	ENGL L2	ENGL L2	ENGL L2
Verbs	7	46.66	5	100
Nouns	8	53.33	0	0
TOTAL	**15 (75%)**	**100%**	**5 (25%)**	**100%**

This result did not confirm the fifth hypothesis of the present study since it can be observed that learners for whom English was L1 had more errors (75%) than learners of German for whom English was L2 (25%). This could be explained by the fact that all the false friends were from the English language. It could be the similarity between German and English words that influenced the learners more compared to the other languages at the learner's disposal like Kiswahili and Gikuyu.

Table 35:   **Results: Lexical borrowings: English as L1vs English as L2**

	ENGL L1	ENGL L1	ENGL L2	ENGL L2
Words in quotation marks	6	46.15	3	16.66
Words not in quotation marks	7	53.85	15	83.33
TOTAL	**13 (41.93%)**	**100%**	**18 (58.06%)**	**100%**

The overall result confirms our fifth hypothesis. The learners of German for whom English is L2 have more errors (58.06%) than the learners of German for whom English is L1 (41.93). But for the words in quotation marks, the errors for learners with English as L1 are more than the errors for learners with English as L2. More learners from Nairobi region placed these words in quotes than the learners from Central and Coastal regions. This could show that they were more aware that they did not possess the knowledge of that vocabulary in the TL. This result is in tandem with Baker (2009: 163) who concluded in her research in South Africa that the main problem that leads to the many errors was the absence of linguistic and metalinguistic awareness.

Table 36: **Results: Coinages: German-like words with English morphemes: English as L1 vs. English as L2**

	ENGL L1	ENGL L1	ENGL L2	ENGL L2
Compound nouns	14	51.85	12	75
Simple nouns	8	29.63	4	25
Verbs	5	18.51	0	
TOTAL	**27 (62.79%)**	**100**	**16 (37.21%)**	**100%**

This result does not confirm the fifth hypothesis of the study since it can be observed that learners for whom English is L1 had more errors (62.79%) than learners of German for whom English was L2 (37.21%).

Table 37: **Results: Coinages: English-like words with German morphemes: English as L1 vs. English as L2**

	ENGL L1	ENGL L1	ENGL L2	ENGL L2
Nouns	16	51.62	6	46.16
Verbs	11	35.48	5	38.46
Adjectives	4	12.90	2	15.38
TOTAL	**31 (70.45%)**	**100%**	**13 (29.55%)**	**100%**

This result did not confirm the fifth hypothesis of the study since it can be observed that learners for whom English was L1 had more errors (70.45%) than learners of German for whom English was L2 (29.55%).

For the lexical transfers, the learners of German for whom English is L1 had more errors compared to the learners of German for whom English is L2 apart from the category lexical borrowings (specifically, words not in quotation marks). The fourth hypothesis of the present study was thus not confirmed. It was expected that most errors regarding word formation would be lexical borrowings but this was not the case. There were more errors involving coinages than any other word formation process.This does confirm that the learners are active and creative participants in the learning process.

All the lexical transfers in the present study showed a strong influence from the English language though there were other factors like the activities in the German language classroom which could account for these errors. The English language is active and very dominant in the thought process of the learners as they write the compositions in German. Transfer for the lexical items had many manifestations: The learners used false friends, borrowed words from the English language and used them as they are or coined new words with the help of English morphemes as well as German morphemes.

In most cases it was observed that the learners used the writing system of the German language for example writing nouns starting with a capital letter. This also showed that the learners had internalized the rule of writing nouns in German. This strong preference for the English language

was not only exhibited by learners of German from schools in the Nairobi region but also by learners of German from schools in the Coastal and Central regions. For the learners in Nairobi region this was expected since they are more proficient in English and they are more exposed to this language at home with family members, with friends, on the streets and even via the media. The learners from the Central region did not show much transfer from Gikuyu language while the learners of German from the Coastal region did not exhibit transfer from their L1 Kiswahili when they formed words. The explanation for this could lie in the role played by the English language as well as the need to communicate. The urge to be understood as well as to communicate seems to drive the learners and they leaned back on the language they are most active in and most comfortable in, that is English, regardless of the proficiency. Research by Agoya-Wotsuna (2002) is insightful in this regard. She investigated the language situation in Kenya as a prerequisite for the learning / teaching of German and concluded that English and Kiswahili, the two official languages, enjoy different socio-economic and political status. Bearing this socio-linguistic context in mind, it is not surprising that transfer from English was more prevalent than transfer from Kiswahili and/or Gikuyu. Moreover there are typological similarities between German and English as compared to German and Kiswahili or German and Gikuyu.

The false friends were words with similarity in orthography (cf. chapter 3.2). There were more verbs (5) than nouns (2). The verbs were '*bekommen*' for '*become*' instead of '*werden*' (cf. example 48 and 49); '*ich will*' for *'I will'* instead of '*ich werde*' (cf. examples 50 and 51); '*spendieren*' for '*to spend*' instead of '*ausgeben*'(cf. example 52); '*reservieren*' for *'to reserve'* instead of '*bewahren*'(cf. example 53); '*lösen*' for *'to lose'* instead of *'verlieren'* (cf. example

54). The nouns were '*Zeiten*' for *'sites'* or *'sides'* instead of '*Sehenswürdigkeiten*' (cf. examples 55,56, 57, 58 and 59) and '*Chefs*' for *'chefs'* instead of *'Köche'*(cf. example 60). All these false friends show similarity in orthography between German and English.For the false friend '*Zeiten*' for '*sites'or 'sides'* instead of '*Sehenwürdigkeiten*' one could also say that it was instructionally-induced since it only appeared in compositions from one school (cf. examples 55 – 58).

Learners also incorporated English words into their German composition (cf. Chapter3.3). Some were placed in quotation marks and other words were not placed in quotation marks but they were incorporated in the compositions as they would appear in the English language. The use of quotation marks could be a sign that the learners were aware of their limitations in the vocabulary in the Target Language. Since the learners aim was to communicate, leaving gaps in their compositions would defeat this effort. Thus they used words from a language they already know and were comfortable in, that is English. The words not placed in quotation marks were more than the words placed in quotation marks. Why there are no words from Kiswahili or other languages is somehow clear. The learners are better in the English language than in the other language(s) they possess. And this cuts across the seven schools of the study, even at the Coastal region where Kiswahili is L1 and in Central region whose L1 is Gikuyu. The way some of these nouns were written did not only show that the learners were transferring their knowledge from the English language but it was an exhibition of the writing system in the German language. Nouns in German are written starting with a capital letter and most learners borrowed this aspect of writing nouns from the German language. This shows that the learners have internalized that particular norm of writing nouns in the German where all nouns are written starting with a capital letter irrespective of the position in a sentence. According to Kjär (2000: 47)

overgeneralization does not only show the creative character of the learner language but also the cognitive performance of the learner and thus such 'errors' are to be viewed positively as long as they do not fossilize. Kjär also emphasizes that errors are a constructive and necessary part of the learning process. The present study shares this opinion too.

The last word formation process in the present study is given as coinages (cf. chapter 3.4). This was the most frequent word formation process and it also cuts across the seven schools of the study. The learners coined new words with the help of English morphemes as well as German morphemes.The morphemes observed were German plural morphemes –*s, -en*, as well as word formation morphemes in German –*ieren*. These 'own creations' (Lindemann 2000) showed the creativity of the learner though they partly interfered with communication. This can be seen for example in the writing of compound words, specifically in example 76. They also showed that the search process for the required word was through the English language. Of interest was also the role played by Kenyan English. Four examples (78 and 79; 89 and 90) can only be understood in the Kenyan context. In examples (78) and (79) the learners coined the words *'die Hague sechs'* and '*die Größe fünf'* while in examples (89) and (90) the learner coins the verb '*besseren'* with the meaning '*to better'* when infact the verb implied was '*to improve'.* Other instances of transfer from Kenyan English were: *auf – aus; suddern – southern, Westan-Westliche.*

The findings observed in the present study are consistent with the findings of other studies based on performance data of learners of German language at different educational levels (cf. Dentler 2000, Kjär 2000, Wachira 2008, and Agoya-Wotsuna 2012.) The findings of the present study

and the findings of other researchers in this area point to the fact that some aspects of grammar are common to all learners of German language in Kenya irrespective of the L1 and educational background. It can also be noted at this point that form four learners of German are at the second beginner level of the language, what is now commonly referred to as A2 and are yet to master some basic grammatical concepts in the German language. This was expected because the learners of the German language have not fully developed their grammar as well as their vocabulary in the German language. They used simple sentences typical of learners in the intermediate phase. This resonates with the argument of Roche (2008: 97) who opines that learners are not expected to produce what he refers to as 'Duden-Deutsch' because even the native speakers of the German language do not produce it. Roche (2008) further argues that it shows that the learners are on the way to the right grammar or on the next level/stage of acquisition. The learners have an idea of the meaning and are trying out different hypotheses. All in all, one could understand in most cases the learners' texts even with the less developed grammar and vocabulary. This reduced language is characteristic of the earlier stages of learning a new language and is what Roche (2008: 100) calls 'ökonomisches Prinzip' ('economical principle'). It should also be noted, that in most places the learners used correct forms.

In conclusion, it is also worth noting that errors are unavoidable in the language learning process and that they give valuable feedback both to the teacher and the learner. Thus teachers are to exercise great patience with the learners and be willing to help so as to aid the learning process. This positive attitude towards errors could go a long way in improving the learning process.

CHAPTER 4:   CONCLUSION

4.1   SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The aim of this study was to establish the extent to which the English competence of Kenyan form four learners was transferred into their written German. The procedure Error Analysis was used to analyze the errors produced by learners of German in selected schools in Kenya. The corpus was formed by data from guided compositions from a sample of learners of German in seven county secondary schools in three regions in Kenya. These are Nairobi region which had Nairobi County; Central region which had three counties namely Kiambu County, Murang'a County and Nyeri County; and Coastal region which had one county, Mombasa County. Nairobi County was represented by three schools: The Precious Blood Girls Secondary School, The Pangani Girls High School and The State House Girls High School. The St Francis Girls High School Mang'u represented Kiambu County; The Njiiri High School represented Murang'a County while the Nyeri High School represented Nyeri County. Only one school was eligible for the present study in Mombasa County and that is The Shimo la Tewa High School. For this study, the learners of German in secondary schools from Nairobi region, an urban setting, formed the category of learners with English as L1 while the learners of German from Central and Coast regions, rural settings, were in the category of learners with English as L2.

The L1 of the learners of the present research is viewed as the dominant language in the respective region, that is English for learners in Nairobi region; Gikuyu for Central region and Kiswahili for the Coastal region. The English language is viewed in the present study as an L1 for the learners of German in urban settings and as an L2 for the learners of German in the rural

settings. This is because most of these learners in Nairobi have acquired English informally at a tender age in informal settings, usually in the family, from their friends, from the streets and from the media etc.The present study also acknowledges that a person may have more than one L1. For the learners of German in Central and Coastal regions, English plays the role of L2. The present study also acknowledges that a person may have more than one L2. The two categories of learners for the present investigation acquire English (L1 or L2) informally while they formally learn German (L3) in a classroom setting. The present study found that the English language exerts a very strong influence while learning German in as far as Kenyan learners are concerned, which could be due to the fact that the English language is very dominant, strong and active in the minds of the learners of German in Kenya.

English is not a foreign language for Kenyans, it is a second language and most learners have had a longer experience with English than Kiswahili.The kind of experience with the English language is to be understood in terms of exposure and usage. This is especially so for learners in the present study from Nairobi region for whom English is L1. These learners have acquired English informally at a tender age in informal settings, usually in the family, from their parents and siblings, from their friends, from the streets and from the media etc

An L2 language for the present research is a language acquired after having acquired an L1 usually beyond the age of 10 and in informal settings that is without the use of books, rules and formal training. English plays the role of L2 for learners of German in Kenya in the rural settings that are in Central and Coast regions for this present study.

The study has been carried out with reference to the theoretical framework developed by Odlin (1989) in the reappraised concept of language transfer. Odlin acknowledges among other things, that the learner's L1 is an important determinant of second language acquisition among other factors and that L1 transfer is a phenomenon of acquisition as well as use. He hopes that more teachers and teacher trainers will begin to think about ways of making use of transfer research in the classroom.

The study analyzed a number of recurrent errors attributable to the influence of the English language during the learning of German in Kenya. It focused on the one hand on syntactical transfer and on the other hand on lexical transfer. In syntax focus was on the position of the finite verb, specifically in main clauses standing alone, in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses and in subordinate clauses. It found that there was a strong influence from the English language, especially in main clauses preceded by subordinate clauses and in subordinate clauses. Not all errors in syntax could be attributed to transfer from the L1. There were some errors which were developmental, while others were intralingual and some were classroom-based. Others were interferences from the Written Standard English as well as the Kenyan English while a few errors could be traced to transfer from Gikuyu. The analysis of word order errors in the present study confirmed the first, second and fifth hypotheses. The first hypothesis stated that there will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite verb in main clauses than in subordinate clauses. The second hypothesis stated that there will be more instances of the incorrect placement of the finite in main clauses standing alone than in those preceded by subordinate clauses. The fifth hypothesis stated that the number of errors will be greater for learners with English L2 than for learners with English L1.

The analysis of lexical errors revolving around misspellings and lexical transfers that affect non-clausal units found strong influence from the English language, especially in word formation. The lexical transfers in the present research were grouped into three groups: a) False friends; b) Lexical borrowings; c) Coinages. The third group, Coinages, was further split into two: German-like words with English morphemes and English-like words with German morphemes. However not all errors were attributable to transfer. Errors emanating from the instruction and the materials in the classroom teaching (classroom-based errors) were also found to be a plausible explanation for a type of errors that was only found in one school. For the lexical transfers, the learners of German for whom English is L1 had more errors compared to the learners of German for whom English is L2 apart from the category lexical borrowings (specifically words not in quotation marks). The fourth hypothesis of the present study was thus not confirmed by the data collected. The fourth hypotheses stated that there will be more errors involving borrowings than any other word formation process. The data confirmed that there was a strong influence from the English language and that majority of lexical transfers were coinages. These coinages can be viewed as a sign of creativity from the learners.

The objectives of the study were well achieved and the research findings confirmed that there was a systematic relationship between the learners' acquisition of German and their competence in the English language which has consequences for the practical teaching of German in Kenyan secondary schools as well as in the institutions of higher education.

4.2   IMPLICATIONS FOR GERMAN TEACHING IN KENYA

Bearing in mind the findings of the present study, specifically the frequency of syntactic and lexical transfers observed (cf. chapters two and three) it is clear that overall the learners who have English as L1 had comparatively fewer syntactic errors than the learners who had English L2. For the two groups of students most of their lexical transfers had their source in the English language and many errors are somehow associated with English (The Written Standard English as well as Kenyan English). The findings of this study are thus significant and have implications for the teachers of German in secondary schools as well as for lecturers of German at the Kenyan universities. The aspects that are important for German studies and the language transfer theory are sensitization of the learners about positive transfer on the one hand while on the other hand cautioning learners against negative transfer. The study has tried to point out the didactic tools that teachers of German could use in the classroom and also the location of these didactic tools. These didactic tools are the various L1 of the learners as well as the language learning experiences and strategies. The learners of the German language have a vast knowledge of other languages as well as learning experiences and strategies that are embedded in other language learning experiences that could and should be used in learning German. These languages as well as the learning experiences and strategies are "in" the minds of the learners and are readily available for use. The teachers of German could help pinpoint these resources to the learners so that they can be aware of them and draw from them. They could consciously work with the learner languages in class, for example integrate these learner languages in their lessons sharing both positive and negative aspects of them and discussing the processes of writing / translation other than just the product that is the final written texts. This linguistic awareness coupled with

metalinguistic awareness can contribute greatly towards the learning of German in the classroom as Odlin (1989) envisaged it.

The research findings also confirmed that the learners had not mastered basic aspects of German grammar by the time they finish secondary education and join university and other institutions of higher education. This is a reality that the various institutions of higher education in Kenya, universities and diploma colleges alike, should bear in mind and face when they receive these learners of German from secondary schools who choose to study German Studies. Lecturers of German in universities and middle level colleges sometimes assume that the learners have achieved proficiency in the German language and thus concentrate on theoretical issues for example literature, linguistics and stylistics. Considering the errors observed in the present study, the departments of German Studies need to put more emphasis on courses that focus on grammar especially in the first year of study so as to help the learner achieve a higher level of competence in the German language that will enable him / herto tackle the courses in German literature, linguistics and stylistics. Alternatively they could introduce language assessments at the beginning of studies to get a true picture of the language competence level of the students they receive.

The present study could also guide syllabus designers and curriculum developers especially in the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) as they develop teaching and learning aids for German teaching as a foreign language in Kenya. The curriculum developers could include exercises in the textbooks for German where the learners note grammar rules in other languages including their own L1. Tables that would help in the acquisition of vocabulary could

also be inserted in the text books. Learners would then write in the tables comparing various languages and noting the similarities and differences between their own L1 and German. A comparative analysis of the grammar rules in the various L1 would also help to sensitize the learners on the similarities and differences between German and their L1.

Finally the observations and conclusions made in the present study are intended as a basis for German scholars as well as non-German scholars who may wish to carry out research in the acquisition of German as a foreign language in Kenya.

4.3   AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Ellis (2008) lists four possible ways of measuring cross-linguistic effects. These are negative transfer (errors); positive transfer (also called facilitation); avoidance and overuse. Production errors are thus not all there is to transfer but there are other ways in which transfer manifests itself. Research in these other areas of transfer for example positive transfer could complement the present study. Positive transfer in terms of similarites between German and English in the vocabulary and writing systems can be argued to reduce the amount of new information for the learners. This saves time needed for comprehension while reading and writing the Target Language, in this case, German.

Corder advanced five steps for the procedure of Error Analysis. The present study only made use of four steps. The fifth step, the evaluation of errors, which involves judging the comprehensibility and gravity of errors, could also be valuable to undertake in subsequent research. In line with this, the present investigation made plausible reconstruction of the errors

observed in the data. Authoritative interpretation of the learner errors would also be eye-opening in gaining the learners' insight into their own errors.

Issues of style and register were also been left out of this study since the focus of the present investigation was grammar. It is worth establishing in subsequent research how this affects the learners learning process of German. This is in line with conceptual transfer which is a new dimension in transfer studies.

The present research as well as research by Wachira (2008) and Agoya-Wotsuna (2012) on Kenyan learners of German focused on learner errors but were cross-sectional studies. One could carry out a longitudinal study to check whether these errors would fluctuate and find out in what areas of language the errors would persist over time.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: **Composition question**

APPENDIX II: **Samples of the learners' compositions**

APPENDIX III: **Questionnaire for the learners**

APPENDIX IV: **Questionnaire for the teachers**