ACQUISITION OF WH-QUESTIONS IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE: A STUDY OF LUBUKUSU L1 SPEAKERS

BY

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DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This Thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this Thesis first to God for the strength he gave me to keep keeping On and to my dear wife Metrine and our children: Shirley, Hillary, Ian and Mike.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First, I wish to express my deep appreciation to my two supervisors, Dr. Onditi Tom and Mr. Victor Omasaja. I benefited greatly from their constant corrections and advice throughout the entire period of the research and thesis write up.

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

**Competence**

In this study, competence is used to refer to the second language learners' ability to create and understand sentences. It (as used by Chomsky 1965) includes the knowledge of what are and what are not possible sentences in English.

**Contrastive Analysis**

This term is used to refer to the comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages. It is linked to the Behaviorists’ Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

**Error Analysis**

This is the study and analysis of errors made by second and foreign language learners. (In the sense of Corder 1981)

**Fossilization**

This term is used to refer to a process in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a L1 speaker writes and speaks English as L2.

**Interlanguage**

This term is used to refer to the type of language produced by learners of a second language (English) in the process of learning. It is an approximative language—neither TL (English) nor NL (Lubukusu). This term is used in the sense of Selinker 1972.

**Wh-Questions**

This term is used to refer to questions that, in English, begin with wh-. These are: what, where, which, who(m), when, why, and how. In Lubukusu, however, questions do not begin with letters mentioned above, instead, they begin with Question-words like ‘Sina, ‘Nanu’, ‘Lina’ (what, who, when) -henceforth Q-words.
So, we used the term 'Q-word questions' in the sense of Ultan (1978) to refer to corresponding questions in Lubukusu

**Overgeneralization**

This term refers to a language learning strategy in which a learner (Lubukusu L1 speaker) extends the use of a grammatical rule or linguistic item beyond its accepted use.

**Syntax**

The term is used to refer to the study of rules governing the internal structure of sentences. It is a component of grammar together with Semantics, Phonetics/Phonology and Morphology.

**Target Language**

This is a term used to refer to the language that a person is learning (In this study English).

**Native Language**

Refers to the learner's first language. (In this case Lubukusu).

**Second Language Acquisition**

In this study, the term is used to refer to the learning of a second language (English) from the learners' cognitive processes as opposed to teaching processes (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991). A second language is one that is learnt after acquiring the first language.
ABSTRACT

In this study I examine the English Interlanguage of Lubukusu L1 speakers. The sample is drawn from secondary school students in Bungoma District. All the 36 students are subjected to a written Questionnaire and an Oral interview. Using the frequency count approach, the IL features are identified and placed into the following categories:

- Wh- Preposing transformation
- Subject-Auxiliary transposing transformation
- Do support transformation
- Affix-hopping transformation

The identified features are then described using Chomsky’s Standard Theory and their presence in the learners’ productive data explained using Selinker’s (1972, 1992) Principle cognitive processes under the Interlanguage Theory.

Then, on the basis of available literature on language acquisition, the study compares the regularities in the acquisition of English as a first language and the observed order in the acquisition of English as a second language. This study also discusses the various causes of the Interlingual features observed in the data.

The study has shown that the Affix hopping is the least performed transformation and Wh-fronting is the most performed transformation. After considering various strategies of second language learning according to Selinker’s (1972, 1992) Interlanguage Theory, this study establishes the main cause of the morpho-syntactic features in the learners’ IL to be the ‘Overgeneralization of L2 rules’.

This study also establishes a marked difference in the performance of transformations between the Oral tasks and written tasks. At the linguistic level, the learners seem to perform better in Oral tasks than in written tasks. It also has shown that the length of exposure to formal instruction affects the rate and success of the learning of English as a second language.

The learners seem to acquire the Wh-question syntactic structure systematically in the following order:

A) Wh-fronting
B) Subject-auxiliary inversion
C) Do support
D) Affix-hopping.

This thesis is divided into six chapters. Chapter one is a general introduction to the study. Chapter two contains the Literature Review. Chapter three deals with the Methodology. Then chapter four deals with Data Presentation and Analysis. Discussions of the findings are in chapter five. Finally, the Implications, areas for further research and conclusion are contained in chapter six.
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<td>CA</td>
<td>Contrastive analysis</td>
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<td>CAH</td>
<td>Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis</td>
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<td>CCH</td>
<td>Creative Construction Hypothesis</td>
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<td>CLI</td>
<td>Cross Linguistic Influences</td>
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<td>TL</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Many studies have been carried out in the domain of second language acquisition, (Taylor (1975), Klein and Dittmar (1979), Corder (1981), Kellerman and Sharwood(1986), Maina (1991), Onditi (1994), and Njoroge (1996)). However, most of these studies (apart from Onditi, 1994) have used the Error Analysis models to describe the second language learners' interim grammars. To our knowledge, little has been done on the second language learners' Interlanguage from the principal processes operating in interlanguage -first identified by Selinker (1972) and later developed by Taylor (1975), Odlin (1989), Schachter (1992), Ringbom (1992), Selinker (1992) among others -without infusing explanations from the Error Analysis model. This study endeavors to shed light on the process of instructed language learning with great relevance to language teaching. English, the language investigated in this study, is the language of instruction in Kenyan schools and its interaction with the first languages of Kenyan learners although a matter of serious concern has only attracted minimum attention from among Kenyan linguists.

Therefore, the present study seeks to begin filling this gap by studying the English Interlanguage of Lubukusu first language speakers. It seeks to identify and describe the distinctive features of the IL, compare them to those of learners of
English as a first language, and explain the possible causes of the similarities and (or) differences.

The Luhya language, of which Lubukusu is a dialect, is made up of about seventeen dialects. (Were, 1967; Itetete, 1974; Kanyoro, 1983.) Kanyoro (1983) sub-categorizes these seventeen dialects into the following three sub-groups: Northern, Central, and Southern dialects basing on intelligibility tests, availability of linguistic data and attitudes of speakers of the dialects as follows:

a) Northern
   - Bukusu
   - Various other dialects of the dialects and two
     Samia, Nyala, K2, Nyala B3, Xayo, Marachi,
     Sub-

b) Central
   - Wanga, Marama, Tsotso, Kisa, Kabras
   - Nyore and Tachoni.

c) Southern
   - Idax, Isuxa, Tiriki.

Babukusu who occupy most of Bungoma District in Western Kenya and who now live in various urban centres all over Kenya and Eastern Africa speak the Lubukusu dialect.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

This study seeks to identify features of the Lubukusu L1 speakers' English interlanguage and describe the order in which they occur. It also seeks to compare and contrast the Lubukusu L1 speakers' IL features to those of English first language learners' features. To accomplish this, the study focuses on the four
elements of wh-question formation exhibited by English L1 learners as outlined by Ingram (1989). These elements are:

a) Wh-fronting
b) Subject-auxiliary inversion
c) Do support
d) Affix-hopping

The comparison helps us to identify syntactic features which could be attributed to 'Transfer' from L1, and those which could be as a result of other influences.

Lastly, it seeks to explain the possible causes of the similarities and (or) differences between the two groups of learners in terms of ‘Transfer’, ‘Overgeneralization of L2 rules’ and ‘Strategies of L2 communication’. (Selinker’s, 1972, 1992 cognitive learning strategies in SLA).

1.3 Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are the distinct syntactic features of English IL exhibited by Lubukusu L1 speakers in the acquisition of Wh-questions?

2. In what acquisitional order do the English IL features occur?

3. What are the differences/similarities between the English IL of Lubukusu L1 speakers and the grammars of learners of English as a first language in the acquisition of Wh-questions as outlined by Ingram (1989)?

4. What are the possible causes/explanations of the similarities and/differences between English IL of Lubukusu L1 speakers and grammars of learners of English as a first language?
1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate the interlanguage of Lubukusu L1 speakers learning the Wh-question structure in English as a second language. This study seeks to achieve the following specific objectives:

1. Identify the syntactic features of English Interlanguage exhibited by Lubukusu L1 speakers in the acquisition of Wh-questions.

2. Describe the order of acquisition of the syntactic features of English IL exhibited by Lubukusu L1 speakers in the acquisition of Wh-questions.

3. Compare and contrast the Lubukusu L1 speakers' IL features with English as a First Language learners' grammar in the acquisition of Wh-question.

4. Explain the possible causes of similarities and/or differences between the syntactic features of the two groups of learners' grammars.

1.5 Research Assumptions

The following assumptions are made in this study:

1. Lubukusu L1 speakers will exhibit distinct syntactic features in the acquisition of Wh-questions in ESL.

2. Lubukusu L1 speakers' IL will reveal an acquisitional order in which the Wh-preposing, Subject-Verb inversion, Do support and Affix-Hopping transformations in wh-question formation occur in this order.
3. There is a relationship between syntactic features of learners of English L1 and those of learners of ESL from Lubukusu L1 background.

4. Lubukusu L1 speakers will transfer syntactic features from their L1 to their IL.

1.6 Rationale of the Study

This study is interested in Lubukusu L1 speakers because, to the best of my knowledge, studies on this dialect are rare. The few studies on this dialect focus on classification of the dialect among the larger Luhya language. Studies such as Austen (1974), Itebete (1974), Kanyoro (1983) and Sumba (1992) only afford comparative dialectal descriptions of Lubukusu in relation to other dialects of the Luhya language. Mutonyi (1986) looks at the morphophonological processes involving consonants in Lubukusu as a first language. Apart from this, very little has been done in the domain of second language acquisition and specifically on question structures.

The researcher, being a secondary school teacher in Bungoma District and a Lubukusu L1 speaker, is aware that students from Lubukusu L1 background produce distinctly different structures from a native speaker of English in the formation of Wh-questions.

Wh-questions are important because they involve a lot of syntactic transformations (Radford 1981, 1988) in their formation, the mastery of which
reflects competence of a learner in English (Horrocks, 1987; Ingram, 1989; Taylor 1975; Yuan 2007).

Freeman and Murcia (1983:147) show the importance of Wh-question by claiming that:

“\[\text{\textquoteleft It is hard to imagine making progress in learning and using English without a good grasp of Wh-questions formation.\textquoteright}\]

Other question types such as Intonational, Tag, and Particle questions (Yes/No questions) do not involve the syntactic transformations, which I focus on in this study. In this study, I choose question type from a typological study of questions as studied by Ullman (1978) (see literature review section).

Since English is an official language in Kenya (Whiteley, 1974; Zuengler, 1982), mastery of it is of paramount importance to all Kenyans and competence in the use of Wh-Questions is just a build up to the overall mastery of the language.

Researchers on learners' IL (e.g. Taylor, 1975; Klein and Dittmar, 1979 and Maina 1991) used the Error Analysis model to describe this phenomenon. However, the present study seeks to identify, describe and explain the learners' interlingual grammar using the Interlanguage Theory first identified by Selinker (1972) and developed by other researchers like Taylor (1975), Schachter (1992), Ringbom (1992), Selinker (1992), among others.

The findings of this study will also contribute to the body of knowledge in the domain of second language acquisition and possibly inspire other studies seeking to describe the English IL of Lubukusu L1 speakers or other African languages.
Behaviorists such as Skinner (1957) in their view of language learning as a behavior proposed that language learning consisted of the establishment of...
associations between particular aspects of linguistic behavior and consequences of that behavior, that is, children imitate the utterances which are repeated around them and are reinforced, for example, by the parents' approval. Other behaviorists such as Lado (1964) carried out comparative studies of language system in what came to be called "Contrastive Analysis" (C.A.). The comparativists argued that the differences and similarities between two or more languages had important implications in pedagogy, that is, attributed L2 learning difficulties to differences between L1 and L2. The process that was held responsible for this was called "language transfer".

However this approach is dismissed as vacuous by such researchers as Chomsky (1959) who argues that human language learning can not be equated to animal behavior in laboratory conditions because every individual human learner has a creative use of language. The Comparative Analysis Hypothesis lacked empirical validation because errors that were not predicted by CAH were observed and some of those errors predicted failed to be observed (Duskova 1969, Dulay and Burt 1974).

CA has been heavily discredited by the Creative Construction Hypothesis (Dulay and Burt 1975). The Creative Construction Hypothesis rests on the premise that a learner constructs a series of internal representations of the L2 system. This view came up strongly in SLA researches by Dulay and Burt (1973; '74,'75) who challenged the role of interference and habit formation as developed by the behaviorists. The said studies show that creative construction is a more powerful process in SLA than habit formation because it takes into account the active
the contribution of the learner by attributing to him strategies both for sorting L2 data and making use of knowledge already in store. Selinker and Lakshman (2001) argue that the comparative fallacy in interlanguage studies, regardless of the nature of the bias (target language or native language) can lead to the underestimation and/or overestimation of the learners’ linguistic competence.

Klima and Bellugi (1966) and Brown (1973) developed another hypothesis challenging the CAH. The point of contention this time was the prediction by CAH that learners with different L1’s will learn L2 in different ways as a result of negative transfer imposing different kinds of difficulty. They developed the L2=L1 hypothesis that states that the processes of SLA and L1 acquisition are similar as a result of the strategies learners employ. Both cross sectional studies and longitudinal studies of L2 learners tested this hypothesis with the results showing striking similarities in the ways in which different L1 learners learn L2. Cazden, (1972) studied six Spanish speakers learning WH-question structure in ESL using a longitudinal design and Ervin-Tripp (1974) studied thirty one English L1 speakers learning question structure in French as a second language. Both studies found similarities in the strategies L1 and L2 learners applied in SLA. The behaviorists’ view of Error in SLA as resulting from L1 interference motivated researchers in SLA to carry out further studies leading to Error Analysis.

Corder (1967) expounded Error Analysis. In this model of analysis, errors made by the second language learners were used to reveal the language learning process.
Corder (1992) said that Errors are something normal and important for learning to occur... a “Window” on learners' internal grammars. However, Error Analysis has the following weaknesses that made it unsuitable for our study:

1) It fails to provide a complete picture of learner language i.e. we need to know what learners do correctly and what they do wrongly for us to describe their grammars.

2) Most of the studies conducted with this model are cross-sectional in nature, affording only a static view of second language acquisition. (Ellis, 1994).

(This study uses a pseudo- longitudinal method of data collection See section 3.1)

As stated at the beginning of this section, this study uses Interlanguage Theory advanced by Selinker (1972, 1992, 2001) on second language acquisition and developed by Odlin (1989), Ringbom (1992) among others. The main tenets of this theory are that second language learners construct an interim grammar (Selinker's (1972) 'Interlanguage' (IL), Nemser's (1974) 'Approximative Systems' and McLaughlin's (1987) 'Interim Grammars'). The grammar is distinct from that of the Native Language and Target Language.

This interim grammar evolves over time as learners employ various internal strategies to make sense of the input and to control their own output that is, the learner is assumed to have a mental device called 'Latent Psychological Structure' (LPS) which is activated when one tries to learn a second language. Selinker (1972) notes that many L2 learners (Perhaps as many as 95 percent) fail to reach TL competence. That is, they do not reach the end of the IL continuum. They stop
learning when their interlanguage contains at least some rules different from those of the target language system. He referred to this as **Fossilization**. Fossilization occurs in most language learners and cannot be remedied by further instruction. Fossilized structures can be realized as errors. If, by the time fossilization occurs, the learner has reached a stage of development in which the linguistic feature has not reached the same form as of the TL, then the fossilization will manifest itself as an ill-formed structure. Selinker (1992) however argues that there is a mental device which can be re-activated among the adult second language learners to enable them learn L2, age not withstanding (The LPS discussed above). However since our study is Pseudo-Longitudinal (not purely longitudinal) and the time interval between IL groups is short, we did not expect fossilization in our data.

Selinker (1972) sees interlanguage as a product of five central cognitive processes:

1) Language Transfer
2) Transfer of Training
3) Strategies of second language learning
4) Strategies of second language communication
5) Overgeneralization of rules of second language

However our study focuses on the following three processes as proposed by Selinker (1972) and further developed by Ellis (1985), Odlin (1989) among others:

1) Language transfer
2) Strategies of second language communication
3) Overgeneralization of rules of the second language.
We explore below the development of the three cognitive processes that we propose to use in this study.

A) **Transfer of language**

Selinker (1972) uses the term transfer to refer to the influence of the first language on the learning of L2 i.e. it refers to the cognitive process employed by an L2 learner which involves falling back on linguistic knowledge which the adult L2 learner has acquired in L1 to acquire rules in the target language.

The behaviorists under the notion of ‘interference’ first identified transfer. This notion rested on the assumption that L1 habits intrude into the L2 system hence inhibiting L2 learning. However, the mentalists like Chomsky (1959), Dulay and Burt (1974) developed this notion into a facilitative learning strategy. We examine these developments below.

By mid seventies the Transfer process, that is, the influence of L1 on the learning of L2, was already facing criticism from researchers like Taylor (1975), Dulay and Burt (1974). These researchers claimed that **transfer** involved the use of the learners’ L1 as a basis for forming hypotheses about the L2, while **overgeneralization** involved the use of existing L2 knowledge by extending it to the new interlanguage forms. Both strategies can be seen as manifestations of the same basic strategy of relying on prior knowledge to facilitate new learning.

These researchers argued that Selinker’s five interlanguage processes were tactical variations of the underlying simplification strategy. With time, researchers
collapsed the initial cognitive processes first identified by Selinker (1972) into two strategies:

1) Simplification - learner relies on prior knowledge to facilitate new learning.

2) Inferencing - learner relies on input to facilitate learning, that is, where TL rules cannot be successfully derived by means of transfer or overgeneralization (Ellis 1985).

By the mid eighties, Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986) and Faerch and Kasper (1983) claimed that the term ‘transfer’ was outdated as what was attributed to transfer could be explained by other terms like ‘avoidance’ and that very little material was transferable from L1 to IL. These researchers preferred the term ‘Cross Linguistic Influences’ (CLI) to the term ‘transfer’. They defined CLI as the interplay between the earlier and later acquired languages. They argued that CLI was rich because it was theory neutral allowing one to subsume under one heading such phenomena as ‘transfer’, ‘interference’, and ‘avoidance’.

However, by the nineties, the notion of language transfer was given a new lease of life with Odlin’s (1989) evidence of syntactic transfer in a study of Hawaiian, Fijian and Bamboo Pidgin English. This study revealed the occurrence of negative word order transfer i.e. occurrence of SOV alongside SVO word orders in the IL of the above groups. The SOV word order was attributable to NL (Japanese, Korean and Hindustani respectively). Schachter (1992), Ringbom (1992) and Selinker (1992) lent credence to Odlin’s assertion that language
transfer was an important characteristic of SLA and revived ‘transfer’ to the center of SLA research again.

Schachter (1992), adopting the H-model of language learning, claimed that L2 learners approach learning with hypotheses drawn from two sources:

a) Knowledge from previous learning

b) The new learning situation itself

She looked at transfer as the set of constraints that one’s previous knowledge imposes on the domains from which to select hypotheses about the new data one is attending to. Ringbom (1992) advanced a concept of cognateness basing on a similar premise by claiming that L2 learners are assisted by cognates because learning to understand cognates doesn’t involve much learning effort. Underlying this concept of cognates is a transfer process.

Selinker and Lakshmanan (1992) shed more light on the transfer process in their explanation of a principle called Multiple Effect Principle (MEP) in which they claim that the language transfer process works in tandem with other language acquisition factors, leading to stabilization of IL forms and hence fossilization. They claim that MEP in adults result in stabilization and fossilization whereas in children, it results in stabilization and development. The reason for this lies in the fact that adults have more linguistic knowledge (learned earlier) which they use in learning L2 as compared to children who have little or no earlier learned linguistic knowledge. This put into focus the process of transfer again.
Marsden (2008) studying questions with a Wh-object and a universally quantified subject (e.g. What did everyone buy?) which allow both an individual answer (Everyone bought apples.) and a pair-list (Sam bought apples, John bought bananas, Sally bought....) in the Interlanguages of English and Chinese L1 speakers learning Japanese as a second language finds out that English-Japanese and Chinese-Japanese learners exhibit effects of transfer in learning the L2 (Japanese). Learners from these two L1 backgrounds transfer pair-listings from their L1 into the L2 (Japanese) thus leading to an obstruction of acquisition of the more restrictive Japanese grammar.

However in this study, we look at transfer as a facilitative learning strategy i.e. where the learners rely on prior knowledge to facilitate new learning.

B) Strategy of L2 communication

This is a strategy employed by an L2 learner in a specific context, that is, when he wants to convey meanings that are beyond his acquired competence in the TL. Littlewood (1984) claims that L2 learners often have communicative intentions which they find difficult to express because of gaps in their linguistic repertoire, that is, a communication strategy occurs when a learner becomes aware of a problem with which his current knowledge has difficulty in coping. Selinker (1972) identified this strategy as a process in SLA but later, Ellis (1985) found out that it exists even among native speakers.

Corder (1981), studying Selinker's (1972) typology of communication strategies, characterized reduction strategies as 'risk avoiding' (These are attempts to do away with a problem involving the learner giving up part of his original
communicative goal due to gaps in his linguistic repertoire) and **achievement strategies** as ‘risk taking’ (The learner decides to keep to the original communicative goal but compensates for insufficiency or makes the effort to retrieve the required items). Further research by Faerch and Kasper (1983) claimed that only achievement strategies help in SLA. But Tarone (1983) challenged this view by claiming that communication strategies are meant to enable the native speaker to help L2 learners use the right form to say what they want to say. Thus all strategies can help to expand resources. In this study, we adopted the view that achievement strategies help in SLA (Faerch 1983) because our analysis is based on the learners’ production data.

Ellis (1985) said that communication strategies consist of substitute plans and are potentially conscious. He went further to justify the apparent bias on learners production rather than reception, evident in most studies on learner strategies, by claiming that it was difficult to identify these strategies so the researcher needed the support of the learners’ actual utterances to guide his enquiry. This justification is important because we used production data in this study.

C) **Overgeneralization of L2 rules**

Selinker (1972) identifies Overgeneralization of L2 rules as a separate cognitive process employed by L2 learners in the acquisition of L2. This is the application of a rule learned in L2 to categories where it does not apply. However, later studies on SLA done within the IL theory have collapsed this process with language transfer into one strategy called simplification (Taylor, 1975; and

However, recent empirical studies done in Kenya have shown that overgeneralization of L2 rules is still a productive process in SLA (see Maina 1991 and Onditi 1994).

We find Interlanguage theory appropriate for our study due to its fundamental notions of ‘transfer of language’, ‘strategies of L2 communication’ and ‘overgeneralization of L2 rules’, which were important to our study. As pointed out in the objectives of this study, we hope to determine the influence of Lubukusu L1 on L2 learners’ IL by comparing ESL learners’ IL to the English L1 learners’ syntactic features in the acquisition of Wh-questions. Features found in IL and not characteristic of English L1 data could unambiguously be attributed to language transfer but those found in both groups could not (see Faerch and Kasper 1983). Where similar features were found in both groups we used other cognitive processes in explaining their occurrences like overgeneralization of L2 rules and strategies of L2 communication.

However, to identify and describe the interlingual features even before an explanation is given, a syntactic model of analysis was required. A syntactic theory was important because it could be used in describing the Morpho-Syntactic features of the interlingual grammar of the L2 learners. Because of this, we adopted "Standard Theory" advanced by Chomsky (1965). This model is preferred to Chomsky's later models because as a syntactic tool it fully captures
the syntactic characterization of structures focused on in this study. The choice of the very foundational syntactic theory for this study is justified in its usability not the age and to this effect it has elegantly served the purpose.

The main tenets of Standard Theory model are that an ideal (competent) speaker of a language has a syntactic component, which has a sub-component called Base that comprises Phrase structure rules and Lexicon. This sub-component generates abstract structures called Deep structures, which are related to the Surface Structures by a set of optional and obligatory transformations by the transformational sub- component. The phonological component assigns phonetic interpretation to the surface structures whereas the semantic component assigns semantic interpretation to the Deep structure. Transformational rules consist of a structural description (S.D.) describing the type of structure they apply to, and a structural change (S.C.) describing the resulting structure.

According to Standard Theory, a Wh-question comprises of an abstract interrogative morpheme (Q) followed by the subject noun phrase (NP) and the verb phrase (VP).

Each of these major constituents dominates a hierarchy of minor constituents; i.e. the VP contains an AUX that contains tense (T) and a verbal auxiliary constituent. It further includes to the right of the AUX a main verb (V) and NP when the sentence requires a direct object. If the sentence requires an adverbial Phrase (ADVP), this is generated to the right of the VP. The constituent to be questioned, either the subject NP, the object NP or the ADVP, has associated with it an abstract dummy element "WH"
Example:

When will you sit the examination?

The question above will have an underlying string:

Q+NP + AUX + V + NP + WH-ADV

Which could read:

You will sit the examination WHEN.

This will be represented by Phrase Markers as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S \\
\text{Nucleus} \\
\text{ADVP} \\
\text{NP} \\
\text{AUX} \\
\text{Tense} \\
\text{Modal} \\
\text{V} \\
\text{NP} \\
\text{D} \\
\text{N} \\
\text{S.D.}
\end{array}
\]

From the Deep structure, the Surface structure will be derived through two transformations:

a) Preposing transformation, which moves the constituent with the Wh-feature to the front position (applies vacuously if subject NP is the one questioned).

b) Transposing transformation which moves (the first element of) the auxiliary in front of the subject NP, otherwise known as Subject-Auxiliary inversion:

You will sit the examination WHEN_____S.D.
WHEN you will sit the examinations?

WHEN will you sit the examination? _______ S.C.

However, there are two other transformations that are used in cases where the tense is inflected on the main verb:

c) Do support

d) Affix-hopping

**Example:**

1a. Joan went home.

1b. Joan + past + go WHERE? _______ S.D.

2a. WHERE Joan + past + go?

2b. WHERE Joan + do + past + go?

2c. WHERE did Joan go? _______ S.C.

In 1a. 'home' is questioned so it is replaced by the Wh-element and is moved to the front of the sentence through a preposing rule then 'do' support is performed through an insertion transformation, tense is attached to the 'do' element through 'affix hopping' and inverted with the subject in a transposing transformation. So, a typical question will have a maximal representation as shown below:

\[
S \quad Q + NP + VP + (ADV)
\]
We need the Standard Theory in this study for the devices it allows us to use to characterize the syntactic processes that learner structures undergo in the production of Wh-questions. This theory, though old compared to the more recent theories, captured all the transformations that we were interested in as explained above. It is therefore justifiably used because as a syntactic tool of analysis, it elegantly captures the syntactic structures of interest as shown in the next chapter where we review literature relevant to this study.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0  LITERATURE REVIEW

As mentioned in chapter two, in this chapter, we start by examining studies done on Luhya language then narrow down to studies carried out on Lubukusu, which is a dialect of the Luhya language. We then look at some of the studies carried out within the second language acquisition domain focusing more on the acquisition of interrogatives in general and the Wh-questions in particular.

2.1  Studies on Luhya/Lubukusu

Austen (1974), Kanyoro (1983), Mutonyi (1986) and Sumba (1992), among other studies, have established that Luhya language has SVO syntactic structure, that is, a sentence in the language takes a subject in sentence initial position followed by the verb and then the object in that order. This is true of Lubukusu, which is a dialect of Luhya. Mutonyi (1986) further observes that the interrogative pronoun in Lubukusu appears in the sentence final position (Q-word in situ).

Example:

Omwana kapile kumupira.

Child kicked (a) ball.

Litoka lino lya nanu? (Whose car is this?)

Car this is  whose?

These studies are important because they provide a possible basis of comparison between Native language and Interlanguage for us to establish features attributable to 'Transfer'. We shall revisit this phenomenon in chapter four.
2.2.0 **General Studies on L2 Acquisition**

Many studies, both theoretical and empirical, have been carried out in the domain of second language acquisition with a view to identifying and explaining the second language learners' interim grammars, as they progress towards the target language.

Some of the theoretical studies were carried out by Selinker (1972) on what he calls 'Interlanguage', Nemser (1974) on what he calls 'Approximative Systems', and Corder (1972) 'Idiosyncratic Systems'. McLaughlin (1987) calls them 'Interim Grammars'.

Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986) look at the possible causes of the grammatical features in the second language learners' interim grammars and call them 'Cross Linguistics Influences' (CLI) which range from 'Transfer' (Selinker 1972) to 'Avoidance' (Duskova 1969). They claim that the term **cross linguistic influences** is rich because it is theory-neutral allowing one to subsume under one heading many L2 related aspects of language loss.

Corder (1967) proposes "Error Analysis" as a model in describing and explaining the intellanguage grammars. Recent empirical studies have followed after Corder's approach in the study of second language acquisition e.g. Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996). Selinker (1992) tries to re-discover his 'interlanguage' phenomenon even within Corder’s E.A. model by claiming that errors are
important for learning to occur. He claims that errors are a 'window' through which we can examine the learner's internal grammar.

James (1980) makes an attempt to appraise C.A. and show its importance as opposed to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. He emphasizes the pedagogical exploitations of Contrastive Analysis by quoting studies by Brumfit (1979) and Littlewood (1979). These studies show that C.A. is important in designing functional syllabuses for schools.

However, the C.A. approach excludes the cognitive processes employed by learners in producing the features observed. Similarly, Klein and Dittmar (1979) introduce the notions of 'context-free grammar' and 'variety grammar' which, when used to explain interim grammars, do not examine the possible causes of the interlingual features observed, instead, they describe the possible development patterns as what is most important.

Our study, however, seeks to explain the second language learners' interim grammar from the learners' cognitive processes perspective hence used Selinker's (1972; 1992) Interlanguage approach.

2.2.1 Studies on Interrogatives

Ultan (1978) and Hudson (1975) look at questions from two different perspectives: whereas Hudson looks at the meaning of questions in terms of pragmatics (Illocutionary Forces) and Semantics (Linguistic analysis of their
meaning), Ultan provides general Characteristics of interrogatives and draws the following typological categories on this basis:

1) Intonational questions – questions marked by a rising pitch (intonation).
   For example: You are sitting an examination today?

2) Particle questions – are marked by certain interrogative morphemes.
   For example: Ko in Finnish – Tuliko han kotiin? (Did he come home?).
   Han tuli kotiin (He came home).

3) Question words – questions which use interrogative words like What, When.... For example: When are you coming home? (We elected to use this for the present study).

4) Tag questions – questions formed by appending tags to the end of a declarative sentence. For example: You will come home, won’t you?

5) Word order – questions formed by interchanging words in the corresponding declarative. For example: You are sick

   Are you sick?

Duskova (1981) studies negative questions in English and develops further Hudson's (1975) meaning of questions in terms of pragmatics and draws a line between the interrogative forms of a sentence and a question. Duskova claims that in English, the interrogative form largely involves inversion of the subject and the finite verb with concomitant use of the dummy 'do' in the case of lexical verbs in simple present, certain intonation patterns and the use of Wh-words. The question on the other hand refers to its interrogative function (requesting for
information). In this study, we look at positive Wh-questions from the syntactic point of view hence this study was important to us.

Erreich (1984) carries out an empirical study on patterns of inversion in Yes-No and Wh-questions. She claims that subject-auxiliary inversion is the rule in adult syntax, which reverses the usual declarative word order of subject noun phrase and the following auxiliary to form a question. She also finds out that auxiliaries appear in Yes-No questions prior to Wh-questions. However of pertinent importance to our study is her assertion that from a syntactic point of view, a sentence is a question if it contains a Q-marker in its structure. There are two external signals of a Q-marker: rising intonation in Yes-No questions and inversion in Wh-questions. This is important because we are interested in the syntactic features of the Wh-question in English.

Ellis (1984) foceses on the effect of formal instruction on the success/rate of second language learning. He studies the form and meaning of Wh-questions. His target group is thirteen elementary L2 learners aged between ten and fifteen years. He claims that at this age, wh- interrogatives have begun to appear in their communicative speech. He finds out that instruction aids the rate /success of SLA. Our study focuses on instructed SLA in acquisition of wh- question syntactic structure among secondary school students hence Ellis (1984) is important.

2.2.2 Studies on Wh-Questions

Onditi (1994) studies the acquisition of English wh-questions by Dholuo L1 speakers. His study focuses on the influences of Transfer and nature of Learning
Task on learners’ Interlanguage. The study uses a Pseudo-Longitudinal research design, which we adopt for the present study.

In Onditi’s Dholuo L1 study, it is established that learners make many errors in the Auxiliary category (double Tense marking and double Auxiliary marking). However, the learners transfer minimal structures from L1 in wh-question acquisition like Wh-word in situ, and translated questions.

Onditi (1994) uses the overgeneralization notion to explain these occurrences (within Selinker's 1972, 1992 Interlanguage theory). Our study uses the Interlanguage theory in explaining IL syntactic features. Although our study is similar to Onditi’s (1994) in methodology and the use of IL theory in explaining occurrence of certain phenomena within the learner’s productive data, it goes further to focus on a possible acquisitional order hence a step towards describing developmental sequences- an area which Onditi suggests for further research. It also focuses on L2 learners from a Bantu background as opposed to the Nilotic background of Onditi (1994).

Ravem (1974) studies the speech of two Norwegian children learning English as a second language in a naturalistic setting (i.e. in an English speaking environment) by recording interviews over a period of five months. He claims that learners acquire Wh-questions through learning ‘Transformational Rules’. He categorizes the stages in the acquisition of Wh-questions as follows:

a) Learners use wh-words in situ (his Hypothetical Intermediate 1)

E.g. John will read what?
b) Learners propose the Wh-word (his Hypothetical Intermediate 2) e.g. what John will read?

c) Learners invert subject and auxiliary (inversion stage) E.g. what will John read?

He claims that HI1 are base structures upon which Transformations apply (in this case the preposing and the Subject- auxiliary inversion).

Ingram (1989) studies acquisition of Wh-questions in English by learners of English as a first language and came up with syntactic features of English as a first language acquisition grammar. His features are drawn from English L1 learners between ages 9 to 15 years. He gives four rules of acquisition (similar to Ravem’s above) in the order of acquisition:

a) Wh-fronting

b) Subject-Auxiliary inversion

c) Do support

d) Affix hopping

We use Ingram (1989) to draw features of first language acquisition grammars then compare these features with Lubukusu L1 speakers’ IL data to establish which features were language specific (attributable to transfer from L1) and which ones could be taken to be universal.

Our comparison is based on the L2=L1 Hypothesis developed by Dulay and Burt (1974) and expounded by McLaughlin (1987) and Ellis (1985, 1994). This hypothesis rests on the premise that L1 and L2 learners pass through a remarkably
similar sequence of acquisition of especially interrogative syntactic structures. (Ellis 1994). On the disparities in ages of the subjects of our study and those studied by Ingram (1989), the reasons are that SLA learners in rural schools in Kenya acquire L2 at a later age compared to learners of English L1 due to the English Syllabus and the Language Policy in the country-Kenya, which stipulates that English is used as a language of instruction from standard four onwards (Mbaabu, 1996) and formal instruction on interrogatives is given from form one onwards (Kenya Secondary School English Syllabus 1998).

This means that whereas English L1 learners acquire Wh-questions as from the age of 9 (Ingram 1989, Ellis 1985,Ellis 94), ESL learners in Kenya will start acquiring the same at approximately 15. With this understanding then, it is quite tenable to compare these two groups.

Radford (1990) studies acquisition of English Syntax (by learners of English as a first language) from Chomsky’s Government and Binding model (within the Transformational Generative Grammar paradigm). He calls the learners’ interlanguage ‘early grammars’ and claims that ‘early grammars’ lack complementiser system (C), Determinative system (D), and Inflectional system (I). These grammars, therefore, do not apply the ‘preposing’ and the ‘transposing’ rules in the formation of Wh-questions. This was important to our study because we were interested in finding out whether learners of English as a second language exhibit syntactic features consistent with those shown by learners of English as a first language.
In the next chapter, we look at the research methods used for sampling the target population, data elicitation, presentation and analysis.

3.4 Area of Study and the Target Group

A combination of research design is used in this phase of the study. This is a mixed research approach between case study and longitudinal design (Yin, 1994). This design helps to reduce the time and cost involved when obtaining the information and in determining sample selection. This design has been used previously to study similar cases like the ones used in this study (Yin, 1994).

The study also includes the use of a qualitative research method. The interviews are conducted in a semi-structured setting to elicit data from the participants in a guided manner. The interviews are then transcribed and analyzed using qualitative research techniques. "Participation" (1965) defines this aspect as the "act of" and "method of" expressing the inclusion of data in the study.

I would like to cite several studies that have used similar methods in their research. Some of these studies include: (Year, Author).
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY.

As mentioned previously, this chapter focuses on the research methods used for sampling the target population and for data elicitation, presentation and analysis. The techniques used in the research are explained here.

3.1 Area of Study and the Target Group

A Pseudo-longitudinal research design is used in carrying out this study. This is a middle ground compromise between Cross-sectional and Longitudinal designs (Adams, 1978). This design helps reduce the time and cost it could take carrying out longitudinal and cross-sectional studies separately. The design has been proved effective in studies like Van Els (1984) and Onditi (1994).

This study was carried out in Bungoma District, Western Province. This is important because the district is settled by Bukusu people whose first language is Lubukusu making it a viable District for the easy availability of Lubukusu L1 speakers who made up our study population. We focused on Sirisia, Bumula and Kanduyi Divisions because as Wanjala (1985) claims, these areas are the least affected by the neighbouring ethnic dialects of Luhya language. (See section 1.7 and map -Appendix III).

By sampling rural born and bred students, we focused on students who are Lubukusu L1 speakers and have arguably few social links with speakers of other languages. This helped control for the possible influence of other languages as a variable.
3.1.1 Sampling Procedure for Schools

Although gender looked a possible intervening variable in terms of performance of the Wh- questions by the students, earlier studies have shown that it is not (Onditi, 1994). To control for the nature of school and the disparities in the students’ entering behavior as possible variables, I conducted a stratified random sample of the schools in the District on the basis of the following three categories:

a) Provincial School
b) District School
c) Day School

The names of schools in each category were written on a piece of paper and given numbers at random. Then we used a table of random numbers to choose the particular schools in which our study would be carried out.

3.1.2 Sampling Procedure for Students

I sampled out students whose both parents were Lubukusu L1 speakers and resided in rural areas of Bungoma District from the school admission registers using purposive sampling procedure, then used a questionnaire detailing the student’s background to further sample out the target group of Lubukusu L1 speakers by administering it to the whole group. The responses of the students were used to pick out our target group (Appendix 1). From this larger group, more random sampling was done to come up with four representatives per class per school. This was done by writing their names on a list at random then using a table of random numbers to pick the four students who qualified for the administration of the Oral and Written Tasks.
Four informants were needed per class per school as explained earlier. So, where there were more than one stream per class a random sample was conducted to get the form from which informants were drawn, for example, if the school was four streamed, names of the streams were written on small pieces of paper, rolled them up and put them in a container from which one piece of paper was picked out.

In total, our target group of study consisted of 36 students from whom data was collected. This is important because the numbers were needed to make generalizations from the data collected. Such numbers of informants have been used in studies like: Duskova (1969) and Onditi (1994) and proved viable for drawing generalizations in SLA studies.

The informants are between the ages 14 – 18 years, that is, secondary school form 1-3 students who had undergone 8 - 12 years of instruction and all are second language learners within the same Educational system (8-4-4). This is important because it is the group which has, as far as we know, received the least attention in terms of the Pseudo-Longitudinal study in SLA i.e. most of the earlier studies in this field have been cross-sectional and dealt mostly with Primary school level informants (like Maina, 1991) or University level informants (like Njoroge, 1996). Furthermore, this is the approximate time in learning when L2 learners are exposed to interrogatives (as explained in the literature review). So I logically believe that it is the stage of acquisition of wh-questions (Onditi, 1994).
3.2 Data Elicitation

A Pseudo-Longitudinal research design is used in carrying out this study as explained in 3.1, that is, the target group was sampled out from form 1, form 2 and form 3 in the schools and studied both at class level and compared the different classes to find the IL continuum. This is important because I am looking at IL as a developmental grammar (Selinker, 1972). This research design (Pseudo-longitudinal) is very important because it involves many informants and at different stages of instruction hence generalizations on their interlanguage can be drawn and their interlingual continuum can be established from the findings. I studied instructed language learning because studies have shown that most L2 learners acquired second language in formal settings (Ellis, 1985, 94 and Onditi, 1994).

I used a questionnaire requiring informants to construct Wh-questions- from declarative statements given by filling in spaces provided after every statement. This is important because these tasks are similar to test items in the Examinations generally given to these students. This formed the Written Task (Appendix II).

From studies carried out earlier, it has been found that learners perform better in Written Tasks than Oral Tasks (Onditi, 1994). To control for possible nature of task as a variable, I therefore gave the target group cards with Wh-pronouns written on them and asked them to construct Wh-questions orally using the pronouns. Their responses were tape recorded. This method has been used in earlier researches and proved to be effective in studies like Njoroge (1987) and Onditi (1994). The responses on the two tasks were compared to eliminate the possible nature of task as a variable.
3.3 Data Presentation and Analysis

The Questionnaires (filled in by informants) were collected and marked. The Oral Task recordings were played back and analyzed in terms of the frequency in the use of the elements of Wh-question construction. The IL features frequencies were entered into columns against the IL groups (chosen on the basis of the length of time the informants have been exposed to instruction) in a table.

This data is then subjected to a statistical analysis to come up with generalizations about the linguistic features of the Interlanguage at different levels of exposure to formal instruction in the acquisition of Wh-questions in ESL. The grammatical features identified are described using Chomsky’s Standard Theory and the possible causes of these features are explained using Selinker’s (1972) principal processes of Interlanguage. The findings are then compared with English as L1 learners’ features (Ingram, 1989) to establish similarities and/differences in the acquisition of the wh-questions structure.

After examining the methodology used in elicitation of data next we look at data presentation and analysis in the chapter that follows.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, both the statistical and linguistic data is presented then an analysis of the data is done. Focus is on the linguistic and statistical phenomena that were observed in the data and which I believe are responsible for the ill-formed structures in the learners’ data. This data presentation is done in phases basing on the linguistic phenomena observed. The phenomena under our linguistic data analysis are:

a). Double Tense Marking.
b). Wrong choice of Wh-word.
c). Double auxiliary.

It is observe however that there are other phenomena that had not been anticipated at all, like:

a). Yes-No questions.
b). Substituted Auxiliaries.
c). Missed Auxiliaries.
d). Echo questions.

Under statistical analysis the phenomena observed and which are the basis of data presentation and analysis are:

a). Wh-preposing transformation
b). Subject-Auxiliary inversion
c). Do support
e). Affix hopping transformation.
4.2 STATISTICAL DATA PRESENTATION.

Composite table showing overall performance in both Oral and Written Tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURE</th>
<th>FORM I</th>
<th></th>
<th>FORM II</th>
<th></th>
<th>FORM III</th>
<th></th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th></th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th></th>
<th>%</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FREQ</td>
<td>OUT</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>FREQ</td>
<td>OUT</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>FREQ</td>
<td>OUT</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>TOTA L</td>
<td>OUT</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INV</td>
<td>602</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>648</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>1858</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>93.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>88.6</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>96.2</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>1260</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AH</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>614</td>
<td>1260</td>
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<tr>
<td>AV</td>
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<td>660</td>
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<td>94</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOT AL</td>
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<td>2160</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>1807</td>
<td>2160</td>
<td>83.7</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2160</td>
<td>92.7</td>
<td>5573</td>
<td>6480</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1

From the data given in table 4.1 above, the Form Three students performed a higher percentage of all the transformations (that is 92.7%) compared to the Form Two students’ 83.7% and the Form Ones’ 81.6%. This shows that the Form Threes had the highest percentage use of the transformations in their IL compared to the lower classes. This shows that performance rises from Form One to Form Three as we expected given the exposure to formal learning.

In terms of the performance in each particular transformation, the Wh- preposing transformation (WH) seems to have been the most performed with a percentage of 99.5% compared to the Subject-Auxiliary inversion (INV) (93.8%), Do support (DO) (89.8%) and the Affix- Hopping (AH) transformations (48.7%).

Avoidance also shows a similar pattern whereby students in the higher classes tended to avoid fewer sentences in their IL compared to the lower classes. This is shown in the percentages of 17.4% for Form Ones, 14.2% for Form Twos and
11.5% for Form Threes. This shows that the overall performance of the transformations was well over 86%. We will return to the theoretical implications of these observations later in section 4.6.4

4.3 COMPARISON BETWEEN ORAL AND WRITTEN TASKS

The table below shows the learners’ performance on the two tasks.

Table showing comparison in performance between the Written and Oral Tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURE</th>
<th>FORM I FRE Q</th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>FORM II FRE Q</th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>FORM III FRE Q</th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TOTALS TOTA L</th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WH</td>
<td>WR 592</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>WR 599</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>WR 599</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>1790</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>99.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INV</td>
<td>WR 547</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>91.2</td>
<td>WR 557</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>WR 589</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>1692</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>88.3</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>WR 529</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>WR 341</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>WR 371</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>1041</td>
<td>1152</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>26</td>
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<td>72.2</td>
<td>31</td>
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<td>91.6</td>
<td>90</td>
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<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
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<td>531</td>
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<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>86.1</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV</td>
<td>WR 93</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>WR 77</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>WR 62</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOT</td>
<td>WR 1599</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>WR 1636</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>WR 1820</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>5054</td>
<td>5904</td>
<td>85.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>OR 162</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>OR 177</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>92.2</td>
<td>OR 183</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>95.3</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>90.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2

KEY:
WH- Wh-preposing transformation
INV Subject - Auxiliary inversion transformation.
DO Do support transformation.
AH Affix- hopping transformation.
AV Avoidance phenomenon.
OR Oral task. (OR)
WR Written task. (WR)

Table 4.2 above shows a trend in the learners’ performance of the transformations similar to the one observed in table 4.1. Wh-preposing transformation has the highest frequency of occurrence in both the tasks that is, 100% in oral task and
99.4% in written task, followed by Subject-Auxiliary inversion which has 93.9% in oral and 94% in written, then Do support with 83.3% in oral and 90.4% in written and lastly the Affix-Hopping transformation with 76.9% in oral and 46.0% in written task. Overall, the learners seemed to perform a higher percentage in oral tasks with 90.6% compared to the written task’s 85.6%.

**Composite table showing T-test values for all transformations in both oral and written tasks.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>2 tail significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FORM I &amp; FORM II</td>
<td>-1.68</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORM II &amp; FORM III</td>
<td>-1.45</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORM I &amp; FORM III</td>
<td>-1.38</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.241</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.3**

However, the statistical differences discussed above do not seem to have a bearing on the Statistical Test of significance as shown in the T-Test values (Table 4.3). The differences in the learners’ performance of all the outlined transformations seem not to be significant statistically. It is evident that although the learners seem to show differences in their performance of the transformations, the differences are not significant. The reason for this could be that the study group does not have a far spread disparity in terms of the period of exposure to formal instruction.
Table showing the t-test values per class per task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Calculated</td>
<td>0.364</td>
<td>0.527</td>
<td>0.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical</td>
<td>2.447</td>
<td>2.365</td>
<td>2.365</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4

From table 4.4, it is evident that the differences between the performance in the oral and the written tasks are not significant at all. The calculated t-values are lower than the critical t-values in all the three IL groups. We shall return to this discussion later (in section 5.3).

At the task level, the learners seem to have performed better in Oral compared to the Written task. Form Ones had 81.3% in written and 84.4% in oral, Form Twos 83.1% in written and 92.2% in oral, whereas Form threes had 92.5% in written compared to 95.3% in the oral task. A trend seems to emerge here— that the higher classes had better performance of the transformations compared to the lower classes in either task. This emerging trend shall be discussed later in section 5.4.
4.4 LINGUISTIC DATA PRESENTATION

Table Showing Composite Picture of frequency of Linguistic Phenomena

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHENOMENA</th>
<th>FORM I</th>
<th>FORM II</th>
<th>FORM III</th>
<th>TOT AL</th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ww</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Da</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dt</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yn</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOT AL</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5

KEY:
- Ww - Wrong Wh-Word.
- Da - Double Auxiliary
- Dt - Double Tense
- Yn - Yes – No question

Table showing frequency of Linguistic Phenomena in Written Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHENOMENA</th>
<th>FORM I</th>
<th>FORM II</th>
<th>FORM III</th>
<th>TOT AL</th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ww</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Da</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dt</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yn</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOT AL</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>1368</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>1368</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6

Table showing frequency of Linguistic Phenomena in Oral Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHENOMENA</th>
<th>FORM I</th>
<th>FORM II</th>
<th>FORM III</th>
<th>TOT AL</th>
<th>OUT OF</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ww</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Da</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dt</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yn</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOT AL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7

The tables (4.5, 4.6 and 4.7) show the frequency of the ill-formed constructions performed by learners in the construction of Wh – question in both the Oral and
Written task. Form Ones had the highest percentage of these constructions (17.6%) compared to form Twos (13.8%) and form Threes (7.2%). On the overall, ‘double tense marking’ (Dt) had the highest percentage (30.7%) followed by ‘double auxiliary’ (7.0%) and wrong wh- words (5.3%). We shall discuss these observations later under section 4.6.0.

4.5 STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, an analysis of the phenomena observed in the Data presented in the section 4.2. is presented. We compare the performances of the transformations among the different IL groups and draw conclusions from them. From the statistical data presented in table 4.2, it is observed that the learners seem to have performed a higher percentage of the Wh- preposing transformation compared to the other transformations. There seems to be a progressive performance of the transformations as one moves from FI to FIII. Affix- hopping is a transformation that is most poorly performed in all the IL groups and ‘Avoidance’ is a phenomenon that is observed more in lower classes compared to the higher ones. At the particular task level, the learners seem to perform more transformations in Oral compared to Written Tasks. This observation seems to tally with earlier studies done in SLA like Ringbom, (1992) and Onditi (1994). However, this is a controversial area in SLA, as we shall see in section 5.3
4.5.1 Wh- in situ.

According to Chomsky's (1965) Standard Theory, a Wh- question in its (abstract) deep structure takes the form of a statement.

Example:

S1. What are you eating?

The question above will have an underlying string:

NP+AUX+V+WH-DO

Which could read:

You are eating WHAT?

The Wh- word, in this case WHAT, is said to be 'in situ'. The Wh- word can take this position because the main verb used (eating) is transitive and so it takes a Direct Object (D.O) when used in a sentence. This is said to be the first step in learning the construction of Wh- question (Ingram 1989). From this step the learner will acquire the transformation that moves the Wh- word to the sentence initial position.

too. This would imply that the Form Three's and Two's have learned beyond the first step in Wh- question From the composite table 4.1 above, Form Ones have more such sentences with wh-word in situ (1.2%) compared to Form Two's who have (0.2%) and Form Three's have (0.2%) formation as shown above but would
also suggest no difference between FII and FIII. This stage is followed by the Wh-preposing transformation.

From this data analysis, it could be concluded that the learners in Form One exhibit a possible relatively earlier stage in the learning of these questions compared to the form Twos and form Threes. However, in the oral task, the three groups of learners did not exhibit constructions with Wh- ‘in situ’. This also shows that the learners performed more Wh- ‘in situ’ sentences in written task compared to oral task. (See table 4.2). We revisit this in our discussion of the differences in performance between the Oral task and the Written task.

4.5.2 **Wh-preposing Transformation.**

This is a transformation, which moves the Wh- word to the sentence initial position in the formation of the Wh-question. This is taken as a further step from the Wh- ‘in situ’ in the learning of the Wh-questions, as explained earlier in the theoretical framework. From table 4.1 above, Form Ones perform 98.8% of this transformation, Form Two’s 99.8% and Form Three’s 99.8%. This would mean that Form Threes and Form Twos have an equal percentage of this transformation but higher compared to Form Ones. As explained earlier in the introduction, the performance of the transformations would be expected to be progressive from FI to FIII. However, the FII and FIII seem to have tied in their performance. This could have resulted from the fact that the difference between them in terms of length of exposure to formal instruction is minimal. However, in the Oral task, this transformation was 100% performed. This again would imply a better grasp of this transformation in oral tasks compared to written tasks. However, the tests
of significance show that this difference in performance of these tasks is not significant. (See table 4.3)

4.5.3 **Subject-Auxiliary Inversion Transformation**

This is a transformation that moves the first element of the auxiliary in front of the subject noun phrase (INV). It is also called the Transposing transformation. In the example below, the sentences a–e show the successive steps in the performance of the Subject- Auxiliary inversion transformation.

**Example:**

S2. *When will you complete the course?*

S-NP+ AUX+ V+ NP+ ADVP

```
  S  
 /   
 NP  VP  
 /     
 AUX  V  
 |  |  |  |  
 You will complete the course WHEN.
```

a. You will complete the course **WHEN** (*Wh- 'in situ '*)

b. **WHEN** you will complete the course (After Wh- preposing transformation)

c. **WHEN will** you complete the course? (After Subject-Auxiliary inversion)

From the composite table 4.1, Form Ones perform 89.7% of this transformation, Form Twos 93.9% and Form Threes had 98.2%. This would indicate that Form Threes have a better command of this transformation (98.2%) compared to Form
Two's (93.9%) who in turn are better than Form one's (89.7%). In terms of the specific tasks, the learners perform this transformation better in oral tasks compared to the written tasks as shown on table 4.2.

The percentage performance shows that Form Threes do better than Form Twos who in turn are better than Form Ones. However, in terms of tasks, the learners perform better on oral tasks compared to written tasks. This transformation seems to be a better discriminant between the groups compared to the Wh- preposing transformation.

4.5.4 Do support.

This is a transformation that according to Chomsky (1965) inserts an auxiliary verb 'do' in the empty 'Auxiliary' node in a sentence. The 'do' helping verb is used to help carry tense where the main verb in the D-Structure is without tense during the Wh-question formation as explained in example sentence S3 below taken from the students' responses. Ingram (1989) underscores this claim by asserting that 'in a question where only tense exists inside the inverted Auxiliary, a 'do' is inserted to carry tense'.

Example:

S3. How did the goalkeeper save the last penalty?

S-NP+VP+ADVP

The goalkeeper saved the last penalty HOW
a. The goalkeeper saved the last penalty HOW. (Deep Structure)

b. HOW the goalkeeper saved the last penalty. (After Wh-preposing transformation)

c. HOW the goalkeeper do saved the last penalty. (After do insertion)

d. HOW do the goalkeeper saved the last penalty. (After Subject-Auxiliary inversion).

e. HOW did the goalkeeper save the last penalty? (After Affix-Hopping transformation).

The Deep structure form of the sentence (given in a. above) contains a main verb that is already tensed. However, the ‘Auxiliary’ node does not have an element onto which the tense can be attached because the lexical verb carrying tense is, according to this transformation, not carried into the Auxiliary node. It therefore requires an insertion of the auxiliary do in order for the tense to be attached to it and so form a correct wh-question from this underlying structure. This is performed through a do support transformation as shown above. The composite table 4.1 shows that this transformation is performed by 89.8% of the students. In terms of the performance in each particular IL group, the Form Threes seem to have the highest percentage performance (96.2) followed by Form Twos (88.6) and Form Ones (84.5). From this statistical evidence, it seems that the higher classes performed a higher percentage of this transformation compared to the lower classes. In terms of the tasks, the learners record lower percentage performances in the Oral Task compared to the Written Task as shown in table 4.2.
4.5.5 Affix-Hopping Transformation

In simple active declarative sentences, the tense occurs on the verb as in:

S.5  John likes cookies.

S-NP+VP

Transformational Grammar proposes a rule called Affix-Hopping, which in this case moves the tense from inside the ‘Auxiliary’ node onto the verb. This happens when there is no other element within the ‘Auxiliary’ node for the tense to attach to. Affix hopping is therefore a transformation that attaches tense elements to the verb or auxiliary verb in a sentence. However, some students perform this transformation even where tense is already carried on a main verb leading to "Double Tense Marking".

The ‘Double Tense Marking’ phenomenon presents itself in sentences where tense is marked twice within one sentence.

Example:

S.6  Whom did mother threatened to beat?

In the above sentence, past tense is marked both on the helping verb ‘do’ -‘did’ and on the main verb ‘threaten’-‘threatened’ due to the failure by the learner to perform the affix-hopping transformation. This phenomenon is dealt with in detail later in section 4.6.3.

Affix Hopping is a transformation that attaches tense elements like -ing, -en, and -ed to the verb or auxiliary. However, where only tense exists inside the inverted
‘Auxiliary’ node, the ‘do’ helping verb is inserted to carry the tense as explained earlier in section 4.5.4. The following construction from our learner data is used to explain this phenomenon.

**Example:**

S.7  **Whom did mother threaten to beat?**

a. Mother threatened to beat WHOM (Wh in situ)

b. WHOM Mother threatened to beat? (Wh-preposed)

c. WHOM ‘do’ Mother threatened to beat? (Do Support)

d. WHOM did Mother threaten to beat? (Affix-Hopping)

Compared to other transformations, this is the most poorly performed transformation. Compare Wh-preposing 99.5%, Transposing transformation 93.8%, Do Support 89.8% and Affix –Hopping 48.7% (see table 4.1).

In terms of the IL groups (classes), Form Ones performed 36.7%; Form Two’s 40.1% and Form Threes performed 69.5% of the Affix-Hopping transformation. This implies that Form Threes have a better performance of this transformation compared to Form Twos who are better than Form ones. However, it is also noted that the Form threes have a lower percentage of double tense marking (31.9) compared to Form twos (63.8) and Form ones (65.9) in Written task. A similar picture is evident in the Oral task as seen from table 4.2.

The table shows that higher classes exhibited less ‘double tense marking’ compared to the lower classes in both Oral and Written tasks.
4.5.6 Avoidance

In this study, ‘avoidance’ is considered as a strategy of learning in which, according to Faerch and Kasper (1983), the learners avoid linguistic forms they have difficulty with (transformations in our data). This strategy presents itself in oral tasks as the number of times the learners stopped mid-sentence to reconstruct the sentence afresh avoiding the transformations that were difficult to them. The learner would end up constructing a Yes-No question or even an Echo-question.

Example:

S.8 Where... Where... Is this the administration block?

In the sentence above, the learner realizes that he cannot complete the initial Wh-question due to possibly inadequate knowledge of the transformations required so, he switches to a Yes-No question (which is not an appropriate structure). Cases of avoidance are also witnessed in written tasks where the learners avoid Wh-questions and instead construct Yes-No questions or Echo questions.

Example:

S.9 Mother threatened to beat Peter.

a.) Did mother threaten to beat Peter?

In sentence S.9, the learner was required to construct a Wh-question, questioning the underlined part. However the response in sentence a) is a Yes-No question. From our data, this strategy is used in 14% of the sentences constructed. Form one’s would seem to have applied this strategy more than other IL groups. This is a generally observed phenomenon in IL where learners avoid linguistic forms that pose difficulty to them. Compare Form one’s 17.4% to Form two’s 14.2% and Form three’s 11.5%. In terms of tasks, oral tasks seem to have a higher percentage of this strategy in all IL groups i.e. 29.4% compared to written tasks...
Learners seem to have applied this strategy more in oral than written tasks as shown in Table 4.2. However, on the overall, the statistical differences discussed above do not seem to have a bearing on the Statistical Test of significance as shown in the T-Test values (Table 4.3). The differences in the learners’ performance of all the outlined transformations seem not to be significant statistically. It is evident that although the learners seem to show differences in their performance of the transformations, the differences are not significant. The reason for this could be that the study group does not have a far spread disparity in terms of the period of exposure to formal instruction.

4.5.7 CONCLUSION

From the statistical data above we could conclude that learners performed transformations in the following order of decreasing mastery:

- Wh-preposing transformation 99.5%
- Subject- Auxiliary inversion 93.8%
- Do-support transformation 89.8%
- Affix-Hopping 48.7%

This shows that Affix-Hopping transformation presented the lowest percentage performance in Wh-question formation followed by Do-support transformation, Subject-Auxiliary inversion and Wh-preposing transformation in that order of increasing percentage performance. The learners seem to have established an
order in their performance of the transformations. Wh-preposing transformation seems to be mastered more than the Subject–Auxiliary inversion then Do support and lastly the Affix-Hopping transformation. This order would seem consistent with Ingram’s (1989) statistical analyses of data collected by himself and many other English as a First Language acquisition studies among them Cazden, (1972).

From the foregoing comparison, it would seem quite tenable to conclude that learners of English as a first language undergo a learning process similar to that undergone by learners of English as a Second Language especially in the acquisition of syntactic transformations in Wh-question formation as seen here of the Lubukusu L1 learners. The fact that sentences with Wh- ‘in situ’ show an increasing order from Form Three’s (0.2%) to Form Two’s (0.2%) and Form One’s (1.2%) shows that the IL in focus could be developmental. It would seem as if learners are following a specific pattern of acquisition from Wh ‘in situ’ to Wh-preposing, to Subject-Auxiliary inversion to Do support and to Affix-Hopping transformations.

At the task level, learners seemed to perform better in oral task (90.6%) compared to the written task (85.6%). This shows that in SLA the oral performance seems to speed up acquisition of the target language more than the written performance.
4.6.0 LINGUISTIC DATA ANALYSIS

In the previous section, we looked at the statistical data and drew some conclusions from what we observed from the data. This section however deals with the linguistic data analysis. Here, we look at some of the phenomena that were observed linguistically. These are such as: Wrong choice of Wh- word, use of Double auxiliaries, Double tense marking, use of echo questions, and substitution of auxiliaries. The frequency count method is used to analyze these phenomena. Comparisons of the occurrences of these phenomena between IL groups are made and the findings tabulated where possible.

4.6.1 Wrong wh – Word (Ww)

In the first section for the written questionnaire, the learners were required to choose a wh – word which could best replace the underlined part of the declarative sentence given.

Example:

S.10a James said he injured himself on the pitch.

The declarative sentence above was supposed to be converted into a question by replacing the underlined adverbial of place with an appropriate question word.

The question form would be:

Where did James say he injured himself?

However, it was observed that learners chose wrong wh – words and ended up with structures like:

When did James say he injured himself?

More examples from our data:
S.10b Mother threatened to beat Peter.

How did mother threaten to beat Peter?

S.10c James said he injured himself on the pitch

How James said he injured himself on the pitch?

S.10d Barasa’s father had selected the fat black bull to be slaughtered during his son’s initiation ceremony.

Why Barasa’s father selected the fat black bull to be slaughtered during his son’s initiation ceremony?

From the composite table 4.5, form Threes seem to construct a lower percentage of ill-formed structures due to wrong choice of wh – word (4.6%) compared to form Twos (5.3%) and form Ones (5.9%). Form Ones had the largest number of wrong wh – word choices.

4.6.2. Double Auxiliary (Da)

Learners exhibit this phenomenon where they use more than one auxiliary within one sentence.

Example:

S.11 Why does Matatu touts are rowdy?

So the learners seem to have applied the ‘do’ support transformation where it is not necessary. In other examples, the learners, apart from performing the ‘do’ transformation where it is not necessary, use auxiliaries with mixed tenses as in sentence S.13 below in which ‘did’ carries past tense yet ‘will’ carries future tense.
S.12 Where did Masinde Muliro was born?

S.13 When did the Labour party will conduct elections?

From these examples it seems that the learners have overgeneralized the use of ‘do’ support in sentences to an extent that even when tense is already carried on another auxiliary, they go right ahead and perform the transformation leading to ill-formed structures as shown in examples S.11, S.12, and S.13 above. This phenomenon is labeled ‘Da’ on the composite table 4.5. From the table, Form Ones seemed to have a higher percentage of this phenomenon (12.6%) compared to Form Twos (7.1%) and Form Threes (1.4%). It is certainly clear that Form Threes do not construct as many ill-formed sentences of the type shown in the examples above as the Form Twos, who in turn have less cases of the same compared to Form Ones. See the table 4.5

This emerging trend shall be discussed under section 4.7.1

4.6.3 Double Tense Marking (Dt)

Littlewood (1984) notes that there are instances when tense is marked twice as in:

S.L Where did he found it?

In sentence S .L, past tense is marked on the auxiliary verb do-did and on the main verb find-found.

In the collected data, we have many cases where tense is marked twice.

This phenomenon is seen in constructions in which tense is marked twice within the same clause. The learners seem to mark tense on the main verb as well as on the auxiliary. Some of the sentences bear different or contrasting tenses as seen in
the following examples.

**Examples:**

S.13  **When did** the Labour party **will** conduct elections?

S.14  **How did** Wabuke play Basketball?

S.15a **How did** John **win** the “Omo” lottery?

In sentence S.13, past tense is marked on the auxiliary “do” future tense on the auxiliary “will”

In sentence S.14, past tense is marked on the auxiliary verb ‘do’ and present tense on the main verb ‘play’

In sentence S.15a, past tense is carried on auxiliary ‘do’ – **did** as well as on main verb ‘**win**’ – won.

More examples of this phenomenon can be seen in the following sentences:

S.15b **Where did** Muriuki **buy** a new watch?

S.15c **Where did** Lakwena **train** her soldiers?

S.15d **Where did** the thieves **use** and **dump** the stolen car?

S.15e **Where did** the President **have** a meeting with other heads of state?

S.15f **Where does** Mungiki sect **baptize** its followers?

S.15g **Where did** Diego Maradona **test** positive for anabolic steroids?

S.15h **When does** the bus **pass** here?

S.15i **Why does** the cow **suck**le then lick its calf?

S.15j **How did** John **win** the ‘Omo’ lottery?

S.15k **How did** Leonard **paint** the principal’s office?

S.15l **Where did** the President **have** a meeting with other heads of state?

S.15m **Where does** Mungiki sect **baptize** its followers?

S.15n **Where did** Diego Maradona **test** positive for anabolic steroids?
S.15p  When does the bus passes here?
S.15q  Why does the cow suckles then licks its calf?
S.15r  How did John won the ‘Omo’ lottery?
S.15s  How did Leonard painted the principal’s office?

This phenomenon seems to have been the most prevalent in the learners’ sentences (30.7%) compared to Ww (5.3%) and Da (7.0%). Onditi, (1994) observes that this phenomenon is motivated by the need to accommodate the stranded tense that occurs when the lexical verb is left behind in the Wh-question formation. Form ones have a higher percentage of this phenomenon (41.1%) compared to form Twos (34%) and form Threes (16.9%). This phenomenon seems to confirm that learners failed to perform the Affix - hopping transformation more than any other transformation.

4.6.4  Yes – No Question (Yn)

Some learners construct Yes – No questions instead of the wh- questions expected in the questionnaires. Although this is not an example of ill-formed structures in English, we chose to analyse it here because it is supplied in response to instructions that required students to construct Wh- questions. This phenomenon together with the Echo questions form the bulk of what we are calling avoidance structures.

Example

S.16a  Nafula promised Wanjala she would go to the party because she likes Pilau.
S.16b  Did Nafula promise Wanjala she would go to the party because she likes Pilau?
In sentence S.16a, the learners are supposed to convert the sentence into a question by replacing the underlined part with a suitable question word (in this case ‘why’). However, in sentence S.16b, the learner has formed a Yes – No question.

More examples:

S.16c  Did mother threaten to beat Peter?
S.16d  Did James say he injured himself on the pitch?
S.16e  Did Mudoga tie the cow carefully as his sister collected the milking jelly?
S.16f  Had the fat black bull been selected by Barasa’s father to be slaughtered during his son’s initiation ceremony?
S.16g  Did the broadcaster tell viewers that it could rain in the afternoon?
S.16h  Is it the morning star that you see every morning in the east?
S.16i  Is Kanduyi stadium older than Bukhungu stadium?
S.16j  Did Dominic punish his son for breaking the glass vase?
S.16k  Did the goalkeeper save the last penalty by diving to his left?

From the composite table 4.5, form Threes seemed to have constructed the lowest percentage of the Yes – No questions (3.6%) compared to the form Twos (5.0%) and form ones (11.0%). This observation means that the form Ones avoided more sentences than form Twos who in turn avoided more sentences than form Threes.

4.6.5. Other Phenomena.

The following are phenomena that led to unexpected responses in the linguistic data collected from the learners. These phenomena are not predicted and not
realized in all the IL groups, so they could not be systematically analyzed for every specific IL group.

4.6.5.1 Echo questions.

This phenomenon is witnessed in cases where some learners fail to perform transformations involved in wh – question formation as outlined earlier. This is where the learners repeat the original sentence given in the questionnaire but append a question mark at the end of the statement. In Oral performance, they are accompanied by the rising tone of questions and therefore referred to as Tonal Questions. (Radford, 1990).

Examples:

S.18 Dominic punished his son for breaking the glass vase.

S.19 Dominic punished his son for breaking the glass vase?

The original sentence in S.18 requires the learners to replace the underlined phrase with a suitable Wh-word and form a question. However, some learners append a question mark at the end of the sentence as shown in S.19. This could be acceptable as a well formed ‘Echo question’ but not a Wh-question. This indicates that the learners are avoiding the transformations involved in the Wh-question formation by constructing a sentence that does not involve the transformations.

4.6.5.2 Different Modal Auxiliaries

Some learners seem to have substituted the modal auxiliaries given in the stimulus sentence with other auxiliaries of their own choice.

Examples:

S.20 How will Hellen use the new hair dryer?
The sentence above is constructed in response to the stimulus sentence:

**Hellen may use the new hair dryer.**

The learners are supposed to convert the sentence into a question using the word ‘How’. Whereas the modal auxiliary given in the stimulus sentence is *may*, the learner substituted it for *will*. It would seem, according to the learner, that the two are complementary.

### 4.6.5.3 Missed Auxiliary

It is observed that some learners miss ‘do’ support transformation where it is mandatory as shown in the following examples.

**Example:**

S.21 **Muriuki bought a new watch.**

S.22 **Where Muriuki bought a new watch?**

In S.21, the learners are supposed to use ‘where’ to form a question that could read:

**Where did Muriuki buy a new watch?**

However, in S.22, the learner fails to perform the ‘do’ Support transformation and so ended up with an ill-formed structure. In this example, he performs the Wh-preposing transformation correctly but fails to perform the Subject-Auxiliary inversion, the Do support and the Affix-Hopping transformations.

### 4.6.5.4 Different Auxiliary

It is also observed that some learners replaced the auxiliaries given in the stimulus sentence with their own choices of auxiliaries.

**Example:**

S.23 **Masinde Muliro was born in Matili.**
S.24  Where did Masinde Muliro born?

In S.23, the learners are supposed to use the question word where to form a question from the sentence given which could read:

Where was Masinde Muliro born?

However, in S.24, the learners seem to have replaced the auxiliary was with did.

It is clear that the learners overgeneralised the use of the auxiliary ‘do’ that is, they extended their knowledge of did as a past tense marker to a sentence which has another auxiliary (was) used to mark tense. The reason for the learners using a different modal and auxiliaries could be due to the fact that Lubukusu L1 learners have overgeneralised the use of do, that is, even if they perform the Do support transformation where it is not necessary or replace an existing modal with do, the sentence would still seem to them correctly constructed.

4.7.0 CAUSES OF ILL-FORMED STRUCTURES.

In this sub section, we look at some of what we think may be the possible causes of the phenomena analysed earlier and the resultant ill formed structures. From the Data, it is observed that AH is the most poorly performed transformation leading to ill-formed structures like Da and Dt. These could possibly have their root cause in the syntactic differences between the learners’ L1 (Lubukusu) and the L2 (English).

In the learners’ Lubukusu, tense is always carried on the main verb (See S.26) whereas in English, tense can be carried on either the Auxiliary verbs or on the main verbs. The learners’ L1 does not have a grammatical category equivalent to the auxiliary in English. Modality, Tense and Aspect in Lubukusu are carried on
the main verbs either as inflections or realized through intonation (Mutonyi 1986). This difference could have possibly led to ill-formed sentences like S.14 and S.15.

In Lubukusu, a sentence like;

S.25  How does Wabuke play the ball?

Could have its equivalent in:

S.26  Wabuke kenaanga kumupila ariena?

‘Wabuke plays (the) ball How?’

In sentence S.26, the auxiliary verb ‘do’ is missing because in Lubukusu, there is no word or phrase equivalent of the auxiliary in English. Tense in this case is marked by a rising intonation on the main verb and Aspect, marked by affix ‘nga’, is inflected on the root verb ‘-nyaa’. In this way, the tense could easily be marked twice as in examples S.14 and S.15, two auxiliaries used as in examples S.12 and S.13, or even substituted as in example S.20 without the learners realizing these mistakes. Some learners fail to perform the ‘Do support’ transformation as in example S.22 possibly due to lack of an equivalent grammatical category in Lubukusu.

The learners who fail to perform the Wh- preposing transformation (Wh- in situ) seem to have possibly been influenced by the L1 syntactic structure where the Q word is sentence final (See example C1). However, from earlier studies in language acquisition, it has been observed that even learners of English L1 also undergo a Wh-in situ stage. Onditi (1994) observed similar phenomena in his Dholuo speakers’ English Interlanguage data. This seems to water down the basis of arguing for transfer strategy in cases of Wh- in situ. From the findings of studies like Ravem (1974), Onditi (1994), we can possibly conclude that the Wh-
in situ is a universal stage in Wh-question acquisition because it has been observed in learners of L1 and L2 from different linguistic backgrounds. Therefore, it would be untenable for us to strictly peg it down on transfer strategy. As predicted, many ill-formed structures are observed in the Auxiliary category. This is where Da and Dt fall. The failure by learners to perform the AH transformation translates into the ill-formedness due to Da and Dt as discussed earlier. The learners could not tell the differences (in tense, modality and aspect) between auxiliaries and ended up substituting auxiliaries like in sentence S.20 and S.24. This also led to using two auxiliaries within a sentence as in S.11. Since AH is the most unperformed transformation, it is quite tenable to suggest that Overgeneralization of L2 rules (in the auxiliary category) and Transfer are the possible main causes of the ill-formed structures in the data. We observe from the data that the most overgeneralized auxiliary was ‘do’. This manifested itself in cases of Dt as in example S.15, Da as in example S.11 and even substitution as in example S.20.

At the IL level, there seems to be a gradual developmental sequence in performances with the Form threes performing more transformations than form twos, who in turn performed more transformations than the Form ones. This could be attributed to the effect of the length of exposure to the formal instruction such that those students who have been exposed for a longer period tend to perform more transformations than those exposed for shorter durations.
4.7.1 CONCLUSION

From the tables above, we could conclude that learners performed ill-formed constructions resulting from the use of the phenomena mentioned in the following order:

Double tense marking (Dt) - 30.7%
Double auxiliary (Da) - 7.0%
Wrong wh-word (Ww) - 5.3%

This would indicate that double tense marking was the most prevalent cause of ill-formed sentences constructed by the learners, followed by double auxiliary and lastly, the choice of wrong wh-word. The statistical analysis shows that overall performance of Affix-Hopping transformation was the lowest (48.7%) compared to Do Support (89.8%) Subject-Auxiliary inversion (93.8%) and Wh-preposing transformation (99.5%). At the IL level, Form Ones seem to have a higher percentage of ill-formed structures resulting from these phenomena (17.6%) compared to Form Twos (13.8%) and Form Threes (7.2%). From the foregoing, it would seem that the percentage of ill-formed structures decreased overall as one moved from form one to form three and as one moved form ‘Dt’ to ‘Da’ to ‘Ww’.

It would also seem that ‘Ww’ presented the least percentage of ill-formedness in the learners’ sentence construction. These findings are given an in-depth discussion in the next chapter.
5.0 DISCUSSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we have looked at the implications of the findings in the previous section and compared our findings to earlier studies done in SLA. In our findings, Transfer strategy seems not to have been employed in a significant number of students’ responses contrary to our expectations. We expected the learners to use this strategy in their formation of Wh-questions because their L1 (Lubukusu) differs significantly from the L2 (English) especially at the syntactic level (as explained in section 2.1). On the effects of the length of exposure to instruction, our linguistic data analysis seems to show a positive correlation between the length of exposure and the performance. Our study seems, in this respect, to have established an order of acquisition that could be attributed to the learners of English as a second language from a Lubukusu L1 background. This order seems to tally with the findings of some earlier studies carried out in English L1 acquisition.

5.2 TRANSFER

The Transfer Theory has been criticized by many SLA studies, especially the cognitivists. However the importance of transfer phenomenon in SLA has not diminished as Selinker, (1992) states:

‘...forces leading to NN IL are many, but prime among them is language transfer or influence on the developing IL by the native language...’ (Selinker, 1992:22).

This assertion by Selinker, together with the recent studies by Ringbom, (1992),
Odlin, (1989) have given this phenomenon a new lease of life in the domain of Second Language Acquisition studies.

One of our assumptions was that the frequency of transferred elements would be high in both the oral and the written tasks basing on the syntactic differences between the learners’ L1 and English. According to Ringbom (1992), items that are similar in both L1 and L2 pose a high likelihood of transfer. The theory of cognateness suggests that in cases of similarities between Native Language (NL) and the Target Language (TL), there is a possibility of positive transfer. We shall come back to this issue presently when we look at possible cases of translation.

Schachter, (1992) claims that the greater the linguistic distance between TL and NL, the higher the possibility of transfer. In our study, we expected learners to find more difficulty in the Do support and the Affix-hopping transformations because these two are at the extreme ends in terms of the syntactic differences between the L1 (Lubukusu) and L2 (English). The main reason is that in the learners’ L1, the auxiliary does not carry tense and is not inverted in questions as it is in English. As expected, these two areas present major difficulty to the learners. Tense is the most poorly performed in that learners fail to move the tense markers from the main verbs to the auxiliary verbs as explained earlier.

In Lubukusu, the Q-word has a stylistic alternative in the Q-word questions where it can either be used at the sentence initial position or sentence final position. This stylistic alternative led us to assume that some of the cases where the Wh-preposing transformation seems to have been carried out correctly may in fact, be
cases of translation from L1. Schachter and Rutherford (1979) found that Japanese
and Chinese students overproduced certain target-language forms, such as ‘It is
fortunate that...’ and ‘There is a...’ They speculated that this is because these
languages are topic prominent and that first language discourse functions are
retained through second language syntactic forms. Although these are correctly
formed sentences in English, it is possible that the learners produced them by
chance since similar sentence structures can be found in their L1. This could be a
case of transfer from L1. In our study, many Wh- questions show a manifestation
of the Wh-preposing transformation in their construction however; they could have
been cases of ‘accidental’ Wh- preposing transformation.

**Example:**

S.27a  What is it that Barasa’s father had selected...

Sentence S.27a above could have its corresponding direct translation in Lubukusu:

Sina nisio ...

(What is it that...)

From our data we have the following examples:

S.27b  Why is it that Athletes may faint in the sun?

S.27c  Why is it that Bankers wear ties?

S.27d  Why is it that Joseph Kirimocho is deaf?

S.27e  Why is it that Matatu touts are rowdy?

The formula above could be held responsible for the sentences S.27a-e. We cannot
therefore claim to have identified all cases of transfer and we cannot claim that the
learners have acquired the Wh- preposing transformation to the scales shown in

Table 4.1 owing to the possibility of there having been translation. However, since
we only analysed ill-formed structures, the translation phenomenon requires further research.

Onditi, (1994) observes a similar phenomenon in the Dholuo L1 learners’ IL. He calls this phenomenon ‘Topicalised structures’.

From the foregoing it is evident that although the Wh- transformation seems to have been performed well, it is possible that transfer played a major role in the realization of the transformation. Onditi (1994), quoting Kellerman (1979) takes Wh-transformation as a language neutral feature whereas the auxiliary choice, inversion and affix-hopping as language specific features. “This could mean that Wh-transformation could be acquired more easily through transfer than the other transformations because of the stylistic variations in the placement of the Q-word in the learners’ L1 Dholuo and the Wh-word in English.”(Onditi, 1994). A similar scenario presents itself in our study as explained above. Considering these, we could conclude that transfer could have played a significant role in realizing the cases of correct wh preposing transformation in our data.

The statistical data analysis in this study shows that learners seem to have acquired the wh transformation because its performance is higher than the other transformations. (Table 4.1)
5.3. COMPARISON BETWEEN ORAL AND WRITTEN TASKS

It is widely believed in SLA that a difference in tasks performed by the learners will post a difference in their performance. Studies carried out in SLA have been based on the nature of task and how it influences the performance of the learner. Some of the studies like Krashen, (1985) asserted that time is important for the learners to focus on the form of the linguistic items in question. This could mean that learners perform better in written tasks than in the oral tasks because in oral tasks there is time pressure compared to the written tasks where the learner has all the time to write, read and edit his production. Some other researchers have dismissed time as not being an important factor in the performance of the learners. Cook, (1993) claims:

"Lack of time pressure was no more beneficial to learners who knew the rules explicitly than those who did not" (Cook, 1993: 63).

Ellis, (1994) reports that students perform better in written task compared to the oral task. Therefore, it seems that researchers in SLA have observed varied trends and come to varied conclusions on this matter. For example, Ringbom (1992) claims:

"The ability to communicate in monologue form with somebody who is absent and does not react to what one formulates is a skill that, compared with speaking, requires several additional skills. The mastery of spelling and punctuation, as well as higher demands on both formal accuracy, explicitness and organizational skills are required from the L2 writer" (Ringbom, 1992:103.)

Onditi's, (1994) study seems to agree with Ringbom's (1992) argument in the analysis of his data. The findings of his study show that students perform better on
the oral task compared to the written task. The reason given for this difference being that learners need additional skills to undertake a written task compared to an oral task; thus making the written task relatively more demanding in terms of skills required hence increasing the chances of being performed poorly.

The findings of our study however show that although there seems to be a difference between the tasks at the linguistic level, there is in fact no significant difference between the oral and the written tasks at the statistical level as shown in the t-test values.

From table 4.4, it is evident that the difference between the performance in the oral and the written tasks is not significant at all. The calculated t-values are lower than the critical t-values in all the three IL groups. So we cannot conclude that learners performed better in oral task compared to the written task.

Perhaps this is an area that still needs further research because it seems that we cannot summarily say that one task is performed better than the other on the basis of linguistic data alone.

5.4. LENGTH OF EXPOSURE TO INSTRUCTION

Instruction and its effects on learning is another controversial area in SLA.

Krashen, (1982) argues that formal instruction is directed at consciousness- raising and so, presumably, affects only ‘learning’. Thus, although classroom learners may ‘learn’ rules, they do not manifest them in natural conversation until they have ‘acquired’ them.

Seemingly, Krashen assumes that the conscious learning precedes the sub- conscious and that one can only be competent in a language if he has acquired the
rules in that language at the sub-conscious level. This argument seems to dismiss formal classroom teaching as an important element in learning. He draws a difference between ‘learning’ (the formal instruction) and ‘acquisition’ (informal acquisition like in L1 learners).

However, Ellis (1985) concedes that formal instruction is facilitative in the learning of an L2:

“...Classroom SLA appears to involve the same processing strategies as naturalistic SLA. Where the rates/ success is concerned, instruction is facilitative...” Ellis, (1985: 245).

Our findings seem to support what Ellis (1985) suggests above. The students in higher classes seem to perform more transformations than those from the lower classes. (See table 4.1). It would seem that the length of exposure to instruction does affect the performance of the transformations. Therefore formal instruction is facilitative in SLA.

5.5 ORDER OF ACQUISITION

From the statistical data analysis, we came up with a loosely held acquisitional sequence. We looked at the manifestation of the syntactic features in the learners’ responses. Our conclusion is based on the assumption that learners will seem to have acquired a transformation if they use it correctly in their productive data. This is consistent with Ellis’ (1994) assertion that a syntactic feature can be said to have been acquired if it is evident in the learners’ utterances. It would seem that the learners’ followed the following acquisitional sequence:
1. Wh-preposing transformation.

2. Subject-Auxiliary inversion

3. Do Support transformation

4. Affix-Hopping transformation (See table 4.1)

This order of acquisition is consistent with what Ingram, (1989) established as discussed before. Littlewood, (1984) reporting on longitudinal studies carried out by Adams, (1978), Ravem, (1974) established a more or less similar order in the following:

**Stage 1**

Learners retain the declarative word order with the question word placed at the front of the sentence without inversion.

**Examples**

S.28 What she is doing?

S.29 Why we not live in Scotland?

From our data, we have the following examples:

S.30 Why Joseph Kirimocho is deaf?

S.31 Where Masinde Muliro was born?

S.32 How Wabuke plays basketball?

S.33 Why the Athletes may faint in the sun?

**Stage 2**

Learners show inversion with ‘to be’ and ‘can’. Inversion with do is in routine expressions, such as Do you know? which have probably been learnt as fixed-phrases- an instance where imitation rather than rule-formation is at work. This means that learners use ‘do’ in their speech before they have actually mastered the appropriate rule for forming questions with it.
Stage 3

Inversion spreads to all modal verbs. Learners develop a productive ability to form questions by using an appropriate form of do, inverted with subject.

Example:

S.34 Why doesn’t Toto cry?

He also claims that the sequence is similar in many aspects to that followed by L1 learners. At the same time there are variations due to the mother tongue influence. Here, Littlewood makes a reference to the ‘Transfer’ phenomenon, which we have dealt with in the section above. His acquisition order would seem to tally with the one established by our study. In our study, the frequency of the performed transformations would suggest that the learners have acquired them and those that are less performed would suggest that the learners are still in the process of acquiring them. However, since we did not use proficiency groups in our study, this conclusion remains a loosely held notion that will require further investigation.

5.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, we discussed the implications of the data analyzed in the previous section.

The most striking finding was that although the performance in oral task and written task shows a big disparity in percentage performances, our t-test shows that it is not significantly different. This is contrary to what the earlier researchers had asserted.
The length of exposure to the formal instruction seems indeed to affect the rate and success of the learning of L2. In our study, this seemed to be facilitative of the learning process. Transfer does not seem to affect the learners to a significant level contrary to our earlier assumptions. Although we suspected that some cases of transfer were hidden in translated forms, still the level at which this phenomenon was observed does not reflect the levels at which we expected transfer to affect the learners. L2 learners seem to follow a pattern similar to that of learners of L1. They seem to acquire the transformations involved in the Wh-question formation in a similar order. We look at the summary, conclusions, implications and recommendations of this study in the next chapter.
CHAPTER SIX

6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we give a summary of our study. We also give implications and recommendations for further research in the area of Second Language Acquisition.

6.2 SUMMARY

In this study, we seek to describe the ESL learners’ IL. We also go out to identify the distinctive syntactic features of this group of learners and to identify the possible causes of these distinct features.

Our study is focused on three divisions of Bungoma District which, according to Wanjala (1985), have speakers of Lubukusu L1 who are least influenced by other neighboring Luhyia dialects, and it is settled by Babukusu-the Lubukusu native speakers. The Divisions we chose are: Sirisia Division, Bumula Division and Kanduyi Division (The area shown on the map in Appendix III). The students from these divisions form an arguably homogeneous sample of Lubukusu L1 speakers. The mushrooming of ethnic FM radio stations may seem a cause of variable now but at the time of this study, these radio stations had not yet sprung up.

Our study is motivated by an earlier study done on Dholuo L1 speakers (Onditi, 1994). The said study, focused on the acquisition of English as a second language with specific emphasis on the nature of learning tasks and how the tasks influence
the acquisition of the second language. From the findings and recommendations of this study, we picked cue and carried out our present study. Our interest is to come up with a description of the Interlingual features of Lubukusu L1 speakers learning Wh-questions in English as a second language and find the causes of the features.

This study is carried out using both Oral and Written questionnaires. We focus on students in forms One, Two and Three because this is the approximate time when learners are taught the Interrogative structures. We do not include the form Fours in our study because of their busy schedule, especially in preparation for examinations. The schools from which we carried out our study are: St. Mary’s Kibabii, St. Paul’s Miluki and Mateka Secondary Schools. The sampling of students is based on the area of residence being in the divisions mentioned and the parents being Lubukusu L1 speakers who use the language in their everyday communication.

In the first Chapter, we have looked at the importance of our study within the domain of SLA research. We also look at the theoretical frame work. The chapter also contains the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, rationale and scope and limitations of the study. In the second chapter, we look at a review of the literature related to our study. This chapter is divided into five sections: The first section deals with the studies done on Luhya Language, and then narrows down to studies done on Lubukusu (a dialect of Luhya Language). The second section focuses on Second Language Acquisition. We focus specifically on acquisition of English as a second language.
The third section focuses on studies of the interrogative sentence in English. In this section, we look at the typological categories of Interrogatives and the form and meaning of questions. The fourth section deals with the research done on Wh-questions. The focus here is on how the syntactic structure of the questions is acquired by the learners of English as a Second Language. In chapter three, we focus on the research tools. Chapter four deals with the statistical and linguistic data analysis and the discussions. Chapter five discusses the findings and Chapter Six deals with summary, implications and recommendations.

6.3 FINDINGS

The data analysis in chapter four reveals the following findings:

i) From both the Oral and Written questionnaires, it is established that ESL learners acquired the Wh-question syntactic structure systematically in the following order:

   a) Wh-fronting (reposing transformation)

   b) Subject-Auxiliary inversion (transposing transformation)

   c) Do support.

   d) Affix-hopping.

ii) Affix hopping is the least performed transformation. We have attributed this to the lack in Lubukusu of a definite word category equivalent to the English auxiliary verbs. The Lubukusu L1 speakers possibly lack the knowledge on the use of auxiliary verbs in English. Due to this background they possibly transfer the syntactic structure of their L1 into the L2. Hence they end up with many cases of double tense marking,
sometimes-double auxiliary marking and even missing out the auxiliary altogether.

iii) The students have few problems in the Wh-preposing transformation showing that L1 influence is minimal in the acquisition of syntactic structures of Wh-questions in English despite the major differences in the two languages i.e. whereas in Lubukusu, the Question word comes at the end of the sentence, in English it comes at the beginning (Sentence initial opposed to sentence final positions).

iv) The students tend to perform more transformations in Oral Tasks than in Written Tasks. We attribute the difference to the fact that in written tasks, the learners need additional skills to undertake the task like the mastery of spelling and punctuation as well as higher demands on formal accuracy, explicitness and organizational skills. This makes the written task relatively more demanding in terms of skills required hence increasing the chances of being performed poorly. However, at the statistical level, the t-test shows that the difference between the tasks is not significant. This statistical evidence means that we cannot conclude that learners performed better in oral task compared to written task. This is an area that still needs further research.

v) The learners overgeneralised the rules of English, especially in the auxiliary category.

vi) The length of exposure to formal instruction seems indeed to affect the rate and success of the learning of English as a second language. In our study,
the length of exposure to instruction seem to be facilitative of the learning process. The linguistic data analysis shows that learners who have been exposed to a formal instruction for a longer period perform more transformations than those exposed for a shorter period.

The findings would be used by syllabus developers to lay more emphasis on the transformations INV, DO and AH above because these seem to offer main difficulties in the acquisition of Wh-questions in English as a second language. In case of learners whose L1s do not have a category which can be equated to the auxiliary in English, the teachers of L2 (English) could lay more emphasis on this category to facilitate learning of Wh-questions and syntax in general.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY.

The differences in performance between the written and oral tasks have created a controversy that is far from being resolved as we discussed in section 5.3. This is an area that has provided SLA researchers with varied results. In our study, the difference between these tasks is not statistically significant yet some researchers have recorded significant performance differences in either one or the other (see section 5.3). Owing to these findings, we recommend further research to be done in this area from a different L1 linguistic background.

Whereas the linguistic data analysis reveal that the length of exposure to a formal instructional set up affects the rate and the success of acquisition of English as a second language, some earlier theoretical studies like Krashen, (1982) seem to have come up with notions to dismiss formal classroom teaching as an important element in learning. Yet other empirical studies like Ellis, (1985) concede that
formal instruction is important in learning English as a second language. This is an area that presents a challenge to SLA researchers and further studies done from learners of varied L1 linguistic backgrounds could give different results. This needs further research.
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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE ONE:

Fill in the blank spaces as required.

1. What is your name?

2. Where were you born?

3. How old are you?

4. Where do you live?

5. Are both your parents Bukusu?

6. Which language(s) do you use:
   
   A. With your parents?
   
   B. With friends?
   
   C. With brothers and sisters?

7. To which class do you belong in this school?

8. When did you start learning English?

9. How often do you speak Lubukusu? (Please tick [✓] in appropriate box)
   
   
<table>
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<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<td>a)</td>
<td>With Parents</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>With Friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>With Brothers and Sisters</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
APPENDIX II

QUESTIONNAIRE TWO:

Convert the following statements into questions (questioning the underlined part.)

1. Mother threatened to beat Peter.

2. James said he injured himself on the pitch.

3. Nafula promised Wanjala she would go to the party because she likes Pilau.

4. Mudoga tied the cow carefully as his sister collected the milking jelly.

5. Barasa’s father had selected the fat black bull to be slaughtered during his son’s initiation ceremony.

6. The broadcaster told viewers that it could rain in the afternoon.

7. It is the morning star that you see every morning in the east.

8. Kanduyi stadium is older than Bukhungu stadium.

9. Dominic punished his son for breaking the glass vase.

10. The goalkeeper saved the last penalty by diving to his left.
Rewrite the following sentences as questions using the question words provided in brackets at the beginning of each group.

a) (HOW)

1. Wabuke plays Basketball.

2. John won the “omo” lottery.

3. Leonard painted the principal’s office.

4. The electorate will cast votes to choose their representative.

5. Mr. Nabiswa will teach on Sunday to cover for the lost time.

6. Mercy must feed her puppy on meat to keep it strong.

7. An elephant eats by using its trunk.

8. Wekesa plays his Litungu.
9. The church choir will sing to the President.

10. Hellen may use the new hair dryer.

b) (WHY)

1. The deputy principal whipped Masombo.

2. Bankers wear ties.

3. The Athletes may faint in the sun.

4. Joseph Kirimocho is deaf.

5. The evening bus goes through Mateka on its way to Mianga.

6. A cow suckles then licks its calf.

7. The Matatu touts involve in violent confrontations with the police.

8. Nzoia Bridge is a nightmare to most drivers.
9. The raiders lit a piece of cloth and threw it on our house.

10. Matatu touts are rowdy.

11. (WHERE)

1. Muriuki bought a new watch.

2. The doctor conducts surgery every Wednesday.

3. Promoters will provide free samples of the new margarine.

4. Lakwena trained her soldiers in the bush.

5. The thieves used and dumped the stolen car.

6. The President had a meeting with other heads of state.

7. The chicks may be transferred due to congestion.
8. Mungiki sect baptizes its followers in River Chania.

9. Diego Maradona tested positive for Anabolic Steroids.

10. Masinde Muliro was born in Matili.

11. The exhibition was closed for a female strike.

d) (WHEN)

1. The Labour Party will conduct elections.

2. He began digging the garden.

3. Students wake up at five o’clock.

4. The comet crosses the sky at night.

5. We may go swimming in river Kibisi.

6. The witches may sing and dance naked.
7. Bats come out of their nests.

8. The bus passes here at four o’clock

9. Students need not worry about school fees.

10. The Bukusu sing and dance for a whole month.