MORPHOSYNTACTIC ERRORS IN THE WRITTEN ENGLISH OF STANDARD EIGHT HEARING IMPAIRED PUPILS

BY

EVA AKOTH AYOO

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LINGUISTICS KENYATTA UNIVERSITY NAIROBI

NOVEMBER 2004
DECLARATION

THIS THESIS IS MY ORIGINAL WORK AND TO THE BEST OF MY KNOWLEDGE HAS NOT BEEN PRESENTED FOR A DEGREE IN ANY OTHER UNIVERSITY

EVA J. AKOTH AYOO

THIS THESIS HAS BEEN SUBMITTED FOR EXAMINATION WITH OUR APPROVAL AS UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS:

DR. ANGELINA KIOKO

MS. FLORENCE OWILI

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
NAIROBI
DEDICATION

To my beloved spiritual parents, Bro. John L. Okou and Sis. Maricella Okou who initiated the deaf ministry in the local churches in Kenya, and to my dearest husband, Joshua Ogonji for being a coworker.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I am grateful to the Most High God, through whose grace I have completed this study, and to the saints, whose prayers on my account, have been answered.

My heartfelt acknowledgment goes to my supervisors, Dr. Angelina Kioko, and Ms. Florence Owili, for their expertise in shaping this work, and for their patience throughout the research process.

My appreciation goes to the lecturers and support staff in the English department, for all their input in this study, and to my classmates, Caleb, Ann and Carmeline for their assistance during this time. Sincere gratitude to Dr. Alade and Mr. Maneno (Special Education Department, KU), Dr. Ndurumo (KIE), Kenya Sign language Institute (Nairobi University) and the Kenya Institute of Special Education library for their valuable information in this thesis.

To my loving husband, Jossy, and my parents, Joram and Sophia, my siblings, Esther, Mercy, Sheba, Adam and Emmanuel, “Thank you, for your encouragement that propelled me forward.”

Finally, I particularly thank Kenyatta University for their scholarship award that facilitated my academic and subsistence expenses.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRELIMINARIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of contents</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational definition of terms</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notations</td>
<td>xii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of tables</td>
<td>xiii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Background to the Study</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Research Questions</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Research Objectives</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Research Assumptions</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Significance of the Study</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 Theoretical Framework of the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.1 Study Population</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.2 Sampling Procedures</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.9.3 Research Instruments</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.4 Methods of Data Analysis</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction                            | 20   |
2.2 Approaches to the Analysis of L2 Learners’ Errors | 20   |
2.3 Kenyan Studies on L2 Learners’ Errors     | 24   |
2.4 Studies Related to the Deaf              | 26   |
2.5 Summary of the chapter                  | 34   |

### CHAPTER THREE: DATA ANALYSIS

3.0 Introduction                            | 36   |
3.1.0 Analysis of analysable data: Category 1| 37   |
3.1.1 Verb phrase related errors            | 38   |
3.1.2 Noun phrase related errors.           | 60   |
3.1.3 Prepositional errors                  | 75   |
3.1.4 Clause link errors                    | 81   |
3.1.5 Concordial errors                     | 87   |
3.1.6 Word order errors                    | 93   |
3.1.7 Adjective errors                      | 105  |
3.1.8 Adverb errors                         | 108  |
# TABLE OF CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.2.0 Punctuation and expression errors</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.1 Punctuation errors</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.2 Expression errors</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.0 A summative analysis of category 2 and 3.</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS AND PEDAGOGICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4.0 Introduction</th>
<th>137</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1.0 Discussion on category 1 data</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.1 Morphological errors</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2 Syntactic errors</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.1 Omission errors</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.2 Redundant errors</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.3 Errors of double use of words</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.4 Concordial (Agreement) errors</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.5 Word order errors</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.6 Errors of incomplete constructions</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.7 Choice of grammatical category errors</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.8 Wrong choice of word used</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.3 Punctuation and expression errors</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.3.1 Punctuation errors</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE OF CONTENTS

ITEM                                        PAGE

4.1.3.2 Expression errors                    169
4.1.4 Summary of category 1 discussion       173
4.2.0 Category 2 data discussion             175
4.3.0 Category 3 data discussion             181
4.4.0 Summary of the chapter                182
4.5.0 Pedagogical strategies                182
4.5.1 Total communication                   183

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction                            195
5.1 Attainment of the objectives             195
5.2 Field challenges                         199
5.3 Implications                             201
5.4 Areas for further research              202
5.5 Conclusion                              203

BIBLIOGRAPHY                                204

APPENDIX A: Teachers’ questionnaire         209
APPENDIX B: Pupils’ compositions            210
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contrastive Analysis</td>
<td>The comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaf Unit</td>
<td>A group of hearing impaired children placed in an ordinary or regular school, having special teaching and equipment available for them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decibel</td>
<td>A unit used in measuring loudness of sound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>The use of a linguistic item in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error Analysis</td>
<td>The study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing Impaired Person</td>
<td>One with hearing disorders and therefore requires education by suitable methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interlanguage</td>
<td>The type of language produced by second and foreign language learners who are in the process of learning a language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intralingual errors</td>
<td>An error which results from faulty or partial learning of the target language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kenyan Sign Language: A visual-gestural language used by the Kenyan deaf community for communication.

Mistake: Faulty use of a linguistic item caused by aspects of performance such as lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness.

Morphology: The study of the internal structure of words.

Morphosyntactic errors: Errors that occur in the structure of words, phrases, clauses and sentences. whose language development, even if retarded, is following a normal pattern, and requires special facilities such as hearing aids for education.

Postlingually deaf: A person who became deaf after he/she acquired spoken

Partially Hearing Impaired Person: One who has hearing disorders, but whose language development, even if retarded, is following normal pattern, and requires special facilities such as hearing aids for education.

Prelingually deaf: A person who was deaf at birth or who became deaf before acquiring spoken language spontaneously.
Profoundly Hearing Impaired Person: One with great hearing disorders such that he/she cannot benefit from hearing aids and therefore depends on vision as the main channel of communication.

Schools for the Deaf: Learning institutions exclusively meant for children with hearing impairment, who undergo special teaching with special equipment and methods.

Signed Exact English: A communication system for the deaf in which each individual word in an English sentence is followed by one or more signs for affixes, suffixes, plural and other grammatical devices.

Syntax: The study of how words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences.

Total Communication: A system that advocates the use of all available means of communication by and with the deaf child that seems to be useful.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Contrastive Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dB</td>
<td>Decibel (a unit for measuring hearing ability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>Error Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HI</td>
<td>Hearing Impaired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>Interlanguage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCPE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIE</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KISE</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Special Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSL</td>
<td>Kenyan Sign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KU</td>
<td>Kenyatta University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEE</td>
<td>Signed Exact English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UON</td>
<td>University of Nairobi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE NO.</th>
<th>CONTENT</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Sample linguistic category taxonomy</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Verb phrase related errors</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Noun phrase related errors</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Prepositional phrase related errors</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Clause link errors</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Concordial errors</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Word order errors</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Adjective errors</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Adverb errors</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Punctuation errors</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Taxonomy of Expression errors</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Frequency of errors in each grammatical category in descending order</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Distribution of scripts per school across the three grammatical categories</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Frequency of morphological errors</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Frequency of syntactic errors</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Summary of category 2 characteristics</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT

This is a study which focuses on the morphosyntactic errors in the written English of standard eight hearing impaired (HI) pupils. This research seeks to identify and categorise the morphosyntactic errors in the HI pupils’ written English, and compares the errors of the partially deaf on the one hand, with those of the profoundly deaf on the other. Error differences are also determined between the pupils using Signing Exact English and those using Kenyan Sign Language. The study similarly investigates the possible causes of these errors, and explores Total communication as a pedagogic approach that is designed to enhance language competence of the hearing impaired pupils.

The data comprises free compositions written by standard eight pupils taken from four schools for the deaf. The sample of scripts for investigation was obtained by categorising the compositions, firstly according to readability, then into the type of sign language used, and finally, according to the degree of hearing impairment. These scripts are analysed using the Error Analysis theory. From the final subcategory, a sample of 8 scripts is examined out of a total of 38 scripts. The remaining 30 scripts are further categorised into two subcategories, 2 and 3, with the initial sample of 8 being category 1. Category 1 scripts contain analysable scripts. Category 2 mainly comprises scripts that display the KSL word order structure. This category recorded the highest number of scripts, 26 in total. Category 3, a total of 4 scripts are those with English and non-English words put in no discernible order.
The findings of this study reveal that the written English of the hearing impaired has various morphosyntactic errors, especially concerning the verb. The study also shows that the partially deaf have better English than the profoundly deaf. Based on the literature reviewed, the study recommends that Total Communication, which advocates for the use of any and all means of communication by and with the hearing impaired be adopted. The role of Signing Exact English in the learning process is also emphasised. These findings will be useful to the Kenya Institute of Education, as it prepares teaching and learning materials for language programmes for the hearing impaired, and to the educationists involved in the field of the hearing impaired. This research may contribute to the current studies based on performance language data of Kenyan learners of English.

This thesis is organised into five main chapters. Chapter one is composed of the background information introducing the study. Chapter two investigates other research findings that relate to this current one. Chapter three is the analysis and presentation of data. Discussions on the causes of errors, interpretation of findings and pedagogical implications make up chapter four. To conclude the thesis, chapter five presents a summary of the entire work, and identifies gaps requiring research in this field.
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

English is an important language in Kenya since it is used in various formal sectors such as courts of law, parliament, civil service, education, media, business and personal correspondences (Hancock and Angogo, 1982). Within the education sector, English is not only taught as a compulsory subject but it is also used as a service subject. Therefore, fluency in all aspects of the English language will undoubtedly enable the student to perform better in all other subjects. Ability in English is often the yardstick by which young Kenyans are judged (Kenya Institute of Education, 1980). A good command in English is consequently a crucial matter.

Several researches that have been done on the written English of second language (L2) learners reveal that learners exhibit errors in their written English (See Njoroge, 1987; Maina, 1991; Nyamasyo, 1992; Njoroge, 1996). The analysis of errors presented in these studies is useful in designing a remedial syllabus or a programme for remedial teaching. Hence, a similar study on the written English of the hearing impaired, henceforth (H1) was necessary to meet the same ends.

Instances of public concern on the situation of the deaf have been noted in the media; that many deaf children learn up to standard eight but do not sit for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Examination (K.C.P.E.). This is because schools
for the deaf are not ready to register the deaf for this examination since they think the deaf cannot continue learning (Ombiro, 1998: 17). It is claimed that for the deaf to go beyond standard eight, they need to be trained properly on how to communicate (Nyamogo, 1996).

Though learners of English at all levels are bound to make morphosyntactic errors in their attempt to achieve a mastery of the language, the types of errors made by learners of the same level also depend on their hearing ability. "Hearing is the foundation for a normal linguistic development" (Burns and Davey, 1973:40). Quigley and Paul (1984) also comment that the importance of hearing to language development is so crucial that even small amounts of residual hearing, especially when amplified, can make great differences in children's oral language. Mathe (1986) adds that education of the deaf depends solely on acquisition of language. Due to the effect of hearing impairment on language, Cooper and Rosenstein in Quigley and Paul (1984:146) concluded that:

...Deaf children have been found to be markedly retarded in their achievement test scores. Their written languages compared to that of the hearing children, was found to contain shorter and simpler sentences, to display a somewhat different distribution of the parts of speech, to appear more rigid and more stereotyped, and to exhibit numerous errors or departures from Standard English use.

The English syllabus for primary education has the general objective that "at the end of the primary English course, the learner should be able to communicate fluently, independently and accurately in his/her everyday life"
All pupils, upon completion of this course are expected to have acquired a sufficient command of English in both spoken and written forms through the exercise of the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Kenya Institute of Education, 1978).

The HI pupil is disadvantaged in acquiring the first two language skills; listening and speaking, naturally. The partially HI have to use hearing aids, whereas the profoundly deaf cannot benefit from these aids. Despite this condition, the English syllabus for the hearing and HI pupils remains the same, and so does the national examination. A child, who in standard eight does not have an adequate command of English, has problems with his/her first national examination- Kenya Certificate of Primary Examination (K.C.P.E.), since it is taken in English, except for other language papers that are naturally taken in those languages (Omondi, 1988).

It is against this background that the researcher examines the written English of the standard eight HI pupils in four primary schools for the deaf.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

This study analyses the morphosyntactic errors in the written English of standard eight HI pupils. Though studies on the characteristics of second language learners in Kenya at various levels of education have been done (See Njoroge, 1987; Maina, 1991; Nyamasyo, 1992; Njoroge, 1996) none, to the
knowledge of the researcher, has addressed the written English of standard eight hearing impaired pupils.

The HI pupils are disadvantaged in the learning process due to their impairment, yet these pupils learn the same syllabus as the other regular pupils and sit for the same examination. After class eight, many HI pupils enrol in vocational schools to undertake vocational courses such as tailoring and carpentry.

According to the Ministry of Education, only four secondary schools for the deaf exist despite there being 32 primary schools for the deaf. Although this shortfall in secondary schools could explain why vocational training is readily opted for, the English proficiency level of these pupils could have a role to play. Fluency in all aspects of the English language will enable the students to perform better in all other subjects (Kenya Institute of Education, 1980).

The study assumes that the written compositions of the hearing impaired have errors in the various morphosyntactic categories. Morphosyntactic errors are those errors which occur in the structure of words, phrases, clauses and sentences. Thus, this work attempts to identify and classify these errors and compare them in relation to the degree of hearing impairment and type of sign language used. The study also discusses some of the possible causes of these errors together with some pedagogic strategies available in literature which may be employed to reduce or eliminate them.
1.3 Research Questions

The study sought to answer the following questions:

i. What are the types and frequencies of morphosyntactic errors in the written English of standard eight HI pupils?

ii. Is there any significant difference between the frequencies and types of errors made by the partially deaf and the profoundly deaf?

iii. What are the differences and/or similarities between errors made by pupils using SEE and those using KSL?

iv. What factors contribute to the errors identified in the study and what pedagogical strategies can be used to eliminate them?

1.4 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study were to:

i. Identify and categorise the morphosyntactic errors in the standard eight HI pupils’ written English.

ii. Investigate differences in the errors made by the partially deaf and profoundly deaf.

iii. Determine error differences between the SEE pupils and KSL pupils.

iv. Establish the possible causes of these errors and discuss pedagogic strategies from available written authorities on how to reduce or eliminate the observed errors.
1.5 Research Assumptions

The study assumed that:

i. The written English of the HI has errors in the various morphosyntactic categories but verb related errors are the commonest.

ii. The profoundly deaf, who lost their hearing at birth or before acquiring speech, have more errors than the partially deaf.

iii. Among the HI, SEE pupils write better English than KSL pupils.

iv. The main cause of errors in the HI pupils’ written English is overgeneralization and available literature provides strategies that can be used to reduce or eliminate errors.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Corder (1973) notes that the most obvious practical use of the analysis of errors is in teaching. Errors provide comments, they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his/her teaching materials and techniques, and show him/her the parts of the syllabus he/she has been following that have been inadequately learned or taught and that need further attention. This is the day to day value of errors. In terms of broader planning and with a new group of learners, Error analysis, henceforth EA, provides the information for designing a remedial syllabus or a programme of remedial teaching (Mukhebi and Muciri, 1988).
Richards and others (1985:96) also observed that a study of learners' errors would help to "obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials."

Thus, the findings of this study will be useful to the Kenya Institute of Education, (henceforth KIE), as they prepare teaching and learning materials for English language programmes for the HI. This study is also a contribution to the current studies based on performance language data of Kenyan learners of English (See Njoroge, 1987; Maina, 1991; Nyamasyo, 1992; Njoroge, 1996). It contributes to the on-going research into the analysis of the errors in the English of learners at different educational levels in Kenya. It expands the coverage of E.A. to include the HI.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

This study falls within the field of applied linguistics. It looks into the morphosyntactic errors that occur in the written English of standard eight HI learning English in Kenyan schools. For purposes of this study, about 40 scripts were needed for investigation. 38 scripts were consequently obtained from four schools for the deaf (school A:12 scripts, school B: 13 scripts, school C: 8 scripts, school D: 5 scripts). The form of data used in this research is in the form of learners' written texts. The representativeness of the data is judged in terms of the texts of the learners' written work. The 38 scripts used represent schools using KSL and SEE as a medium of instruction. It also encompasses learners who are partially and profoundly deaf. The study also
aimed at involving pupils in deaf units as opposed to those in schools for the deaf. However, the reality on the ground revealed that deaf units mainly comprised the lower classes, from pre-school to standard three, after which these pupils are taken to schools for the deaf to continue with primary education. Since this study focuses particularly on the standard eight pupils, and there was none from the deaf units, data could only be collected from schools for the deaf. Included in this study are discussions on some pedagogical strategies available in literature, for reducing and/or eliminating the learners' errors.

The study is limited to written language. Written language is a product of language in the mind and shall be used to access the mental processes related to language use by means of Richard’s (1974) strategies.

The study is also limited to morphosyntactic errors. These are the errors that occur in the structure of words and in word combination. Morphology, the study of the internal structure of words, and syntax, the study of word combination in the internal structure of phrases and sentences, are the two most important linguistic domains in the grammar of any linguistic system. This is therefore our emphasis.

Errors in this study are determined through the consideration of the systematic deviations of the pupils' written English from the norm of the target language, British English, as described in Quirk et al. (1985). Maina (1991) and
Njoroge (1996) also adopt this approach in their study. The HI pupils are measured against this standard because they are tested on the basis of the British standard variety.

The study is also limited to standard eight pupils with hearing impairment. This level is significant in Kenya's education system because of the national examination that the pupils take. It is the highest level in primary school and by KIE standards, there are clear proficiency levels of what is expected. The standard eights are therefore selected because they represent a category of learners who are assumed to have obtained a particular level of competence in language and are qualified and ready to sit for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Examination. This population is taken to be representative of the entire standard eight HI pupils since they have a common language, Kenyan Sign Language.

The study is also restricted to this level because it is the most available level for academic research, and considering also that most HI pupils undertake vocational courses after completing their standard eight, and therefore do not pursue secondary education.
1.8 Theoretical Framework of the Study

The study of second language learners' errors has always been of much concern as reflected in the emergence of systematic approaches to second language learning. Second language learning studies attempt to facilitate the process of target language learning by studying the phenomenon of 'errors' within a scientific framework. Such frameworks include contrastive analysis (CA), interlanguage (IL) and error analysis (EA). These three areas of research have had a primary goal of facilitating target language (TL) learning by providing insights into the nature of the learner's performance.

CA advocates claimed that a systematic comparison of the source language and the TL at all levels of structure will generate predictions about the areas of learning difficulty in the TL for speakers of the source language. Furthermore, they maintained that the best teaching materials will emphasise those features of the TL that differ markedly from corresponding features of the source language (Schachter and Celce-Murcia, 1977). However, some difficulties predicted by CA were not reflected in learner performance at all. Again many errors which turned up had not been predicted by CA. Consequently, CA fell into disfavour and researches turned to other explanations of second language acquisition such as EA. This study will therefore not be based on CA.

The theoretical framework of IL will also not be adopted in this study. IL was a term coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to the interim grammars constructed
by second language learners on their way to the target language (McLaughlin, 1987). Corder (1981) refers to the study of IL as the study of language systems of language learners. Other terms for learners' language have been proposed such as 'transitional competence' by Corder and approximate systems' by Nemser (1971). Each of these terms draws attention to different aspects of the phenomenon. The term 'IL' suggests that the learners' language will show systematic features both of the TL and of other languages they may know, most obviously, their LI. 'Transitional competence' emphasises that the learner possesses a certain body of knowledge which underlies the utterances he makes and which is the task of the applied linguist to investigate. 'Approximative system' stresses the goal-directed development of the learner's language towards the TL system.

Selinker (1972) argued that the IL, which he saw to be a separate linguistic system resulting from the learner's attempted production of the TL norm, was the product of five central cognitive processes involved in second language learning. These are:

i) Language transfer.

ii) Transfer of training.

iii) Strategies of second language learning.

iv) Strategies of second language communication.

v) Overgeneralization of the TL linguistic material.

However, this study did not adopt this theory of IL because IL is only limited to cognitive processes that explain errors but it does not provide procedures to
analysing the errors.

The theory of Error Analysis formed the base of this study since it has explicit methodology of identifying, categorising and analysing errors. Sridhar (1981) states that EA provides insights into the strategies employed in L2 acquisition and in turn into the process of language learning in general. The study adopted the procedure for EA as spelled out in Corder (1974). It is as follows:

i) A corpus of language is selected, for example through composition writing.

ii) The errors in the corpus are identified. The errors are labelled with the exact nature of deviation from the standard norm.

iii) The errors are classified. A grammatical description is assigned to each error, for example, errors of articles and errors of verb forms.

iv) The errors are explained. In this stage, an attempt is made to identify the psycholinguistic cause of errors. For example, Richards (1974) identifies various strategies associated with developmental or intralingual errors. These are overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesised. These strategies will be used in this study to explain the errors.

v) The errors are evaluated. The seriousness of each error is assessed to make principled teaching decisions.

The same theory was also employed in Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996).
1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.9.1 Study Population

The population in this study is composed of standard eight pupils in four schools for the deaf. As has been mentioned previously, this study required about 40 scripts which would generate enough data for investigation. Consequently, a total of 38 scripts was obtained from four schools for the deaf. These were, Kambui school for the deaf (coded as, A), Machakos school for the deaf (coded as, B), Ngala school for the deaf (coded as, C) and Murang'a school for the deaf (coded as, D). According to the information retrieved from the questionnaires, Machakos and Kambui schools for the deaf, employ the use of SEE in the teaching learning process. The other two schools, Ngala and Murang'a use KSL. The common factor in these schools was the standard eight level. The parameters of variation that concerned the study were the degree of hearing impairment, and the type of sign language employed in the schools.

Regarding the degree of hearing impairment, the population consisted of the partially deaf and the profoundly deaf. Hearing loss is measured in decibels (dB). Any significant deviation (15-20 db or more) of an individual's hearing threshold level at any frequency gram represents a hearing impairment (Quigley and Paul, 1984). Measurements of 15 to 90 dB indicate partial impairment. Beyond 90 dB characterises profound deafness. Whereas the partially impaired use hearing aids, the profoundly deaf depend entirely on
sign language. This information assisted in clarifying one of our assumptions (see section 1.5 ii).

1.9.2 Sampling Procedures

Purposive sampling procedures were carried out to pick out the standard eight level. It is expected that by this level the pupils have attained most if not all of the necessary English language skills required for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Examination.

All the standard eight H.I. pupils in the four schools wrote a composition each, within a duration of forty minutes, under the supervision of the researcher in two schools and under the supervision of their English teachers in the other two schools.

The sampling process was adapted according to the differences that were reflected on the ground. Upon obtaining the data, it was seen that the grammar in most of the scripts had so many errors that it was impractical to use the theory of EA in some of them. Consequently, the researcher read through each of the scripts and categorised them according to readability. The most readable scripts formed category 1, which was analysed using the theory of EA as planned. These were eight scripts. Category 2 had scripts with some evidence of coherence and meaning that could be partially reconstructed. They were a total of 26 scripts. Category 3 scripts had recurring English words with some
non-English words. 4 scripts comprised this category. These distinctions have been discussed in chapter three. In a diagram, the sampling procedure can be exemplified thus:

```
|-----------------|       |-----------------|
| Total Population | (40±5) | Analysable      |
|-----------------|       | Unanalysable    |
| i) Analysable through EA |       |                 |
|                  | Analysable | Unanalysable    |
| ii). Type of sign language | s | k | s | k |
| iii) Degree of Hearing Impairment | a | b | a | b | a |

Key: a – Partially impaired
     b – Profoundly impaired
     s – SEE
     k – KSL
```

1.9.3 Research Instruments

The study employed two research instruments namely, written composition and questionnaires. All members of the population, standard eight class, were subjected to free composition writing. They were asked to write one composition of not less than 150 to 200 words on the following topic:

“How I spent my last holidays”.

Free composition was used since it allows for a wide range of language structures. Maina, (1991) and Njoroge, (1996) also used this type of
composition. The composition topic had been selected because it is activity oriented. It was therefore expected to provide data on the use of verbs. This was to help clarify one of our assumptions that verb related errors were the commonest in the HI pupils' written English. The compositions were written within forty minutes, the same duration for this paper in the national examinations.

The pupils' teachers were asked to fill in a questionnaire (See Appendix A). It was mainly used in explaining the data. The first five items in the questionnaire regard the pupil(s). These included their names which helped in matching each pupil's composition with their respective questionnaire. Next, the information on the degree of hearing impairment assisted in categorising the subjects into the partially hearing impaired (from 15 to 90 dB) and profoundly impaired (from 91 dB and over). The categories of hearing disorders are those in current use in Kenya (Mathe, 1986). The third item on the use of a hearing aid helped in explaining data of those partially impaired pupils who do not use the hearing aid. Without this aid, they may hear at most loud voices about one foot from the ear as one approaches 90 dB (Quigley and Paul, 1984).

The fourth item relates to the age of onset of hearing impairment. Quigley and Paul, (1984) comment that although a child who suffers a 100 dB sensorineural hearing impairment at six years of age has the same degree of impairment as a child who suffers 100 dB impairment prior to birth, the
language and communication consequences are very different. The former will have established an auditory based internalised language system developed through oral communication interaction with the parents and others. The child born deaf will reach the age of six years with very little of the cognitive performance and linguistic proficiency of the other child. Ideally, children with normal hearing until two years of age should have some language advantage over children born deaf, (Quigley and Paul, 1984), however, this is not usually the case. Any such advantage is usually lost, and the child deafened at two years and the child born deaf tend to be indistinguishable educationally by age six. For this study, therefore, the critical age at onset of hearing impairment was three years of age (See Quigley and Krestschmer, 1982:3; Lowenbraun, Appelman and Collaban, 1980:4). Again, the profoundly deaf who lost their hearing after acquiring speech assisted in explaining the sample, due to the advantage of the established language system they obtained prior to deafness. Finally, information on the type of sign language used in each school was necessary in determining which of the two approaches between SEE and KSL was more productive than the other.
1.9.4 Methods of Data Analysis

EA in this study was done according to Corder's (1974) procedure which was also adapted by Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996). It involves:

i. Selection of a corpus of language.

ii. Identification of errors in the corpus.

iii. Classification of the errors identified.

iv. Explanation of the possible causes.

v. Evaluation and pedagogical implications.

The analytic approach of 'Let the Errors Determine the Categories' (Norrish, 1983) also used by Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996) assisted in categorising the morphosyntactic errors. According to Norrish (1983), there are fundamentally two main approaches to the mechanics of EA. The first is based on a set of preconceptions about the learners' most common problems. It is referred to as the 'pre-selected category' approach. The second, which we adopted, involves grouping the errors as they are collected into particular areas of grammatical and semantic problems. This latter approach, of 'let the errors determine the categories' allows the errors themselves to determine the categories chosen, by a process of sorting and re-sorting (the errors need to be copied onto cards for this process) the categories will eventually define themselves. The identified errors will indicate the grammatical categories. This approach is suitable only for written English. These errors have been presented using the approach of 'Linguistic Category Taxonomy' as presented
by Dulay and others (1982) also adopted by Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996). Linguistic category taxonomy stresses on two classifications in the presentation of errors observed in language performance data. On the one side, there is linguistic category and error type while the other side has an example of learner error observed in the data. Frequency ratings were illustrated by means of tables showing frequency counts and percentages.

We opted to adopt the table provided by Maina, (1991:9), and used by Njoroge, (1996:15) to exemplify the mode of presentation of grammatical errors.

**Table 1: A Sample Linguistic Category Taxonomy**

**Noun Group Errors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic Category and Error Type</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Morphology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Redundant use of the possessive marker 's</td>
<td>...and all people at in the matatu's came out (A1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spelling errors</td>
<td>...I like rest to see tevlesion and radio... (B8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Syntax</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Multiple pronouns used in apposition</td>
<td>My we live in Kangundo (B4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is a review of literature in the field of error analysis. The review begins by looking at approaches to the analysis of L2 learners' errors. We then review Kenyan studies on L2 learners' errors, and finally examine studies related to the deaf. A summary of the chapter is also given at the end of this chapter.

2.2 Approaches to the Analysis of L2 Learners' Errors

Richards et. al. (1992) provides a definition of error that distinguishes it from competence mistakes. He observes that an error is the use of a linguistic item such as a word, in a way, which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing fault or incomplete learning. An error results from incomplete knowledge, while a mistake made by a learner when writing or speaking, may be caused by aspects of performance such as fatigue. Mistakes are typically random. In our analysis, deviations that occurred in an unsystematic way were taken as mistakes but, systematic consistent deviations were taken as errors, and formed the data for this study.

Early studies on L2 learners' errors mainly concentrated on developing conceptual frameworks within which errors could be studied. One such framework is contrastive analysis (CA) which arose as a field of research between the post war years and early 1960 (Ellis, 1985). At the time, there was
a strong assumption that most of the difficulties facing the L2 learner were imposed by his/her first language. That where there were differences between L1 and L2, the learners’ L1 knowledge would interfere with the L2, and where L1 and L2 were similar, the L1 would actively aid L2 learning (Ellis, 1985). The writings of linguists such as Lado (1957; 1964) and Brooks (1960) tended to emphasise points of contrast between two language systems.

In the late 1960s the CA hypothesis was subjected to empirical investigation. Several criticisms were raised on the predictions made by CA. It was noted that many difficulties predicted by CA were not reflected in actual learner performance at all; and many errors which turn up were not predicted by CA (Sridhar, 1981). Other criticisms regarded the theoretical bases of CA. Sridhar (1981) also observes that CA is incapable of accounting for learner behaviour given its theoretical and methodological assumptions. CA was less concerned with defining, identifying, and distinguishing error in performance than with predicting error occurrence on the basis of formal divergence between the linguistic systems of the L1 and the TL (Lenon, 1991:180). Nyamasyo (1992) points out that CA is not appropriate when using learner performance data obtained from learners in a multilingual environment such as Kenya. This is because it does not take into account the possibility that the learner may be learning two or more languages at the same time. It also does not take into consideration the existence of two or more languages in the learning environment.
Consequently, the role of L1 was played down and CA became less fashionable (Richards and Sampson, 1974). Subsequent attempts to rectify what was seen as an overtly theoretical approach to language learning evolved into what some linguists refer to as error analysis (EA) (Richards and Sampson, 1974). Our study adopts a non-contrastive approach to EA. The same approach has been adapted by Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996).

Error Analysis developed as a branch of applied linguistics in the 1960s and set out to demonstrate that many learner errors were not due to the learners’ L1 but reflected universal learning strategies (Richard et al 1992). Richards et al (1992) also points out that EA was carried out in order to identify strategies which learners use in language learning, identify the causes of learners’ errors and obtain information on common difficulties in language learning as an aid to teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.

Prior to early 1970s, however, EA consisted of little more than impressionistic collections of ‘common errors’ and their linguistic classification into categories such as mistakes of agreement, omission of articles (Sridhar, 1981). Little attempt was made either to define ‘error’ in a formally rigorous and pedagogically insightful way or to systematically account for the occurrence of errors either in linguistic or psychological terms (Sridhar, 1981).

The resurgence of interest in EA is attributed to Corder who in his articles (Corder, 1967; 1971; and 1974) helped to give EA direction. Ellis (1985) has
spelled out Corder’s (1974) procedure for EA as already mentioned (See theoretical framework section). It is as follows:

i. A corpus of language is selected
ii. Errors in the corpus are identified
iii. The errors are classified
iv. The errors are explained
v. The errors are evaluated.

Corder (1974) also postulates that the recognition of an error crucially depends upon the analyst making a correct interpretation of the learner’s intended meaning in the context. This is firstly achieved by asking the learner to express what he/she meant to say. This yields an authoritative interpretation and hence an authoritative reconstruction of his/her utterance. This is what a native speaker would have said to convey that message in context. Secondly, the knowledge of the learner’s intention is accessed by inferring the meaning intended by the learner from the surface structure of his/her text sentence together with the information derived from its context. This is plausible interpretation that gives plausible constructions. This latter approach is utilised when it is not possible to consult the learner. This study adopted the latter approach since the learner was not available for consultation. This approach was also used by Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996).

Ellis (1985) notes that the context for the new interest in errors was the recognition that they provided information about the process of acquisition. EA provides information on the linguistic type of errors as well as the
psycholinguistic type of errors produced by L2 learners (Ellis, 1985). The psycholinguistic errors in this study were explained by the various strategies learners employ as propounded by Richards (1974). These include:

i. Overgeneralization: The learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the TL. It is used when the items do not carry any obvious contrast for the learner (Ellis, 1985).

ii. Ignorance of rule restrictions: Here rules are extended to contexts where in TL usage they do not apply.

iii. Incomplete application of rules: This is a failure to learn the more complex types of structure because the learner finds s/he can achieve effective communication by using relatively simple rules (Ellis, 1985).

iv. False concepts hypothesized: This refers to errors derived from faulty understanding of TL distinctions. For example ‘is’ may be treated as a general marker of the present tense as in ‘*he is speaks French’.

2.3 Kenyan Studies on L2 Learners’ Errors

In Kenya, several researches have been undertaken in the area of second language learners’ errors. These include those of Njoroge (1987), Maina (1991), Nyamasyo (1992) and Njoroge (1996). Njoroge (1987) studied the acquisition of six morphosyntactic structures of English by Kenyan children.
He concluded that language acquisition is mainly a developmental process. The types of errors made in the process reflect the strategies and processes involved in L2 learning. He explained most of the errors by the strategy of overgeneralization (See pp. 252, 263, 288). For example, he says that the suffix ‘-s’ may regularly be used to mark all types of plurality. Thus, nouns such as ‘policemen, children’ were taken to be in their singular form. Consequently, the learners overgeneralise plural marking with ‘-s’ leading to double plural marking.

Nyamasyo (1992) examined the grammatical and lexical characteristics of the writing of Kenyan pre-university students. Her findings matched those of Njoroge (1987) that overgeneralization was the main cause of errors. Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996) acknowledged the same. The findings that overgeneralisation explained most of the errors identified contributed in forming one of our assumptions that overgeneralisation is the cause of most of the errors. These studies also confirmed that errors related to verbs were very common in the language performance data of Kenyan learners. Maina (1991) had carried out a study on the grammatical errors in standard eight pupils’ written English in four city schools in Kenya. His data generated 297 verb errors out of a total of 702 errors, comprising 42.3% of the total errors. Njoroge (1996) did a study on first year undergraduate students in Kenya to determine morphosyntactic errors in their written English. He counted 311 verb phrase errors out of a total of 1023 errors. In Njoroge (1996) verb phrase errors had the largest percentage of errors comprising 30.4%. This information
formed the base of one of our assumptions that verb related errors are the commonest among the HI.

Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996) employed Error Analysis theory in analysing their data. Based on this, this research uses the EA theory to identify, classify and describe the errors. The mode of presentation of the errors using the linguistic category taxonomy in Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996) guided this research in presenting the errors observed using the same taxonomy.

2.4 Studies Related to the Deaf

In this section, we review studies on the methods used in the teaching of the deaf, followed by their communication systems and lastly studies on their written language.

Traditionally, HI children in schools for the deaf have been taught through the oral-aural method. It concentrated on speech, speech (lip) reading and auditory training (Kenya Institute of Education, 1993). The aim was to make the deaf speak (Akach, 1991). Speech and speech (lip) reading helped give cues of what is being said whilst auditory training was to make the deaf aware of the environmental sounds. Any form of signs, gestures or fingerspelling were avoided as it was believed that they would hinder the HI child from developing the spoken language (Mundeke, 1988).
Some drawbacks to this approach include the fact that the profoundly deaf children cannot discriminate speech sounds accurately by hearing alone. They need other cues to help them understand what is being said. Oral-aural approach is also time consuming and painstaking for teachers, parents and especially the child. Teaching of speech to the HI is difficult (Mundeke, 1988).

Another approach to language teaching is total communication. In the mid 1980s, the Ministry of Education allowed Machakos School for the Deaf to experiment with this alternative method (Kenya Institute of Education, 1993). The aim was to ascertain how effectively the children would cover the regular school curriculum. The method was evaluated and found to accelerate learning in children. Consequently, it was recommended to be used in learning institutions for the deaf (Kenya Institute of Education, 1993). Our research recommends the same approach.

Total communication is a philosophy towards communicating with deaf people in a way that gives each method (speech, lip reading, fingerspelling, sign language) equal importance (Mbewe and Serpel, 1983). It is a multisensory approach, involving several senses such as hearing, sight, smell and touch, as avenues of learning and communication. Total communication advocates for the use of any and all means of communication by and with deaf children (Quigley and Paul, 1984).
The main communication medium for the deaf people is sign language. The study done by Akach (1991) was useful in accessing the sign language used in Kenya. Akach provides a concise account of the sentence types of Kenyan Sign language (KSL). Akach identified and described the various types of sentences in KSL as follows:

i. Declarative sentence such as,
   ‘You are deaf’
   expressed as, ‘DEAF YOU’

ii. Interrogative sentence such as,
   ‘Are you deaf’
   expressed as ‘DEAF YOU’

Akach explains that in signing, the distinction between the two sentence types is possible because it is accompanied by non-manual components. For example, the interrogative sentence is accompanied by the head and shoulders moved forward and eyebrows lifted.

iii. Imperatives (request, command)
    Such as ‘Pick up the book’
    Expressed as, ‘BOOK PICK’

Its being an imperative sentence is shown syntactically by the absence of the subject noun phrase, plus compressed eyebrows, constant eye contact with the addressee while the head and the shoulder remain in forward position.

Sign language is a language in its own right. It is the native language of the deaf, created by them to be used for communication among themselves and
with others (Jensen and Yego, 1988). Sign language is a visual-gestural system of communication. Within the deaf community, sign language is learned naturally as a first language from childhood. However, unlike most languages, sign language is more often passed on from child to child rather than from parent to child (Costello, 1983: x). It has a structure, which is independent of spoken language structures. There are different sign languages. These include American sign language, Israel sign language. The national sign language in Kenya is the Kenyan sign language (KSL).

Another linguistic system employed in some schools for the deaf in Kenya is the Signing Exact English. It should be noted that the deaf who use SEE have also been exposed to KSL since the latter is their national language. KSL therefore is popularly used since it is the language the deaf use to communicate amongst themselves and with the hearing who understand it. SEE, is mainly introduced through the school. In SEE, each individual spoken word in the correct English sentence is followed by one or more signs (Jensen and Yego, 1988). In January 1969, a group of deaf individuals, parents of deaf children, children of deaf parents, teachers of the deaf, interpreters, and program administrators met in southern California to discuss appropriate, effective ways to represent English in a gestural mode. From this group developed three published systems, originally similar but now quite different: Seeing Essential English (SEE 1), Linguistics of Visual English (LOVE), and Signing Exact English (SEE 2) (Gustason and Zawolkow, 1993: IX). Since our study was only concerned with SEE 2, it shall be referred to as SEE.
The main concern of the original group was the consistent, logical, rational, and practical development of signs to represent as specifically as possible the basic essentials of the English language. This concern sprang from the experience of all present with the poor English skills of many deaf students, and the desire for an easier, more successful way of developing mastery of English in a far greater number of such students (Gustason and Zawolkow, 1993:IX).

Signing Exact English, (SEE) is one of the widely used manual codes for representing English to deaf children (Ramsey, 1989). This is accomplished by assigning each English word and affix a sign in accordance with a set of principles. The developers built the lexicon by borrowing American sign language (ASL) signs, modifying ASL signs with handshape features from the manual alphabet, and inventing signs specifically to represent English derivational and inflectional morphemes (Ramsey, 1989). It is believed that SEE makes English spoken language visible and easier for the deaf person to understand (Jensen and Yego, 1988). This information on sign languages aided in clarifying the assumption that SEE pupils write better English than KSL pupils.

The original SEE group, worked within a framework of ten ‘basic tenets’ which served to outline their interpretation of the educational context in which they were working and to argue in support of their goal (Ramsey, 1989:128-129). They are as follows:
1. Acquiring good English is a tremendously difficult task for a child born deaf.

2. The most important factor in acquiring good English is an understanding of its syntax and structure.

3. Normal input must precede normal output. Aural input being blocked, visual input must be used.

4. The visual cues of speech reading are too small and ambiguous to make possible normal, natural language learning.

5. Sign language is easier to see than speech reading or fingerspelling.

6. The feeling for structure is more important than the ability to spell a word in question immediately.

7. The patterns or structure of English may easily be added to the sign language.

8. It is easier to sign all parts of a sentence than to sign some and spell others.

9. Any specific sign should mean one thing, and one thing only.

10. English should be signed as it is spoken. This is especially true of idioms.

The SEE planners state that the most important principle in SEE is that English should be signed in a manner that is as consistent as possible with how it is spoken or written (Gustason and Zawolkow, 1980) as quoted in Ramsey, (1989).
Quigley and Paul (1984), report that SEE is the most widely used educational approach with deaf children especially in America. They record a study done by Babb (1979) who studied thirty-six deaf children who had been exposed to SEE for at least ten years. Half of the subjects were exposed to SEE only in school and the other half were exposed to it both in school and in the home. He observed that the group exposed to SEE in the home as well as school performed significantly better than the school-only group. This study demonstrates the importance of family influence on the language development of deaf students at school. However, it also points out the usefulness of SEE in learning environments. This study also influenced our assumption that SEE pupils perform better in written language than KSL pupils.

Wamae (2003) conducted a research on the effects of sign language mode of instruction on acquisition of English affixes by hearing-impaired form two learners of English in Butere-Mumias district. Learners in the two schools were made to write down the sentences their teachers were given to sign to them. These sentences contained words with affixes such as, ‘-ed’, ‘-ly’, and ‘-s’. The students were also given filling in exercises which required filling in the gaps with the correct prefixes and suffixes. The findings indicated that less than 50% of the learners got the affixes under investigation right. This was attributed to the teachers’ mode of signing. When the teacher signed the required affixes, the students captured them in writing. When the affixes were left out, and only the base of the word was signed, likewise, the students omitted the affixes.
The researcher concluded that the HI form two learners have not acquired affixes in their vocabulary. This study assisted in emphasising our objective that SEE pupils write better English than KSL pupils since SEE captures the entire syntax of English as well as the affixes in words. KSL does not given it is a language in its own right, with its own syntax.

Studies of free written language for the deaf have been popular since the early studies of the Heiders (1940) in Quigley and Paul (1984). They found that their deaf subjects were typically seventeen years old before they used the same proportion of compound and complex sentences in their compositions as did ten year old hearing subjects (See also Marshark, 1997). "Hearing loss results in language skills that are not age appropriate" (Maxon and Brackett, 1992:3). Thus, studies of written samples from the hearing impaired have often shown apparently deviant language (Bamford and Saunders, 1985:155).

Other studies in the area of Error Analysis are those of Perry (1968) and Myklebust (1964) in Quigley and Paul (1984). Both authors presented pictures to samples of deaf children and asked them to write compositions about the pictures. They reported that deaf children made errors of addition (of unnecessary words), omission (of words needed to make the sentence correct in standard English), substitution (of wrong words), and order (with word order of their sentences departing from that of Standard English) (Quigley and Paul, 1984). None of the authors provided a detailed analysis of the kinds of errors in the various categories. This present study however adopts the analytic
approach of 'Let the Errors Determine the Categories' as propounded by Norrish (1983), together with the 'Linguistic Category Taxonomy' (Dulay et al 1982) to facilitate detailed identification and classification of morphosyntactic errors in the sample.

Another researcher, namely, Ivimey (1976) in Bamford and Saunders (1985), examined the written language of a ten year old deaf child. He concluded that the HI child exhibits the greatest difficulties in the verb system in English. Quigley and Paul (1984) also pinpointed the particular difficulty that deaf children seem to face with the verbs 'be' and 'have'. One of our assumptions that verb related errors are the commonest has also been based on these studies.

2.5 Summary of the chapter

As presented in the reviewed literature, Error Analysis (EA) theory is the theoretical framework forming the basis of the study. The outlined procedure of EA assisted in selecting, identifying, classifying, explaining and evaluating the written English of the standard eight HI scripts. This procedure comprised the process of analysing the data. The Kenyan studies carried out on L2 learners’ errors (See Maina, 1991; Njoroge, 1996) similarly used EA in analysing their data.
The literature examined on the studies done on the written English of the deaf concurred that the written English of the HI has errors. This guided us in one of our assumptions that the HI compositions have errors in the various morphosyntactic categories. Other Kenyan studies that contributed significantly to this study include that of Akach (1991) which assisted in explaining the KSL structure, the language of the deaf.
CHAPTER THREE: DATA ANALYSIS

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The data collected from the four schools was subdivided into two major groups of analysable data and unanalysable data, based on the readability of these scripts. Out of a total of 38 scripts collected, the analysable data, also labelled, category 1, had 8 scripts, 3 from school A, and 5 from school B. Both schools employ SEE in the teaching/learning process. School C and D, use KSL. The unanalysable scripts were further subdivided according to the most readable to the least readable and formed an additional two categories, 2 and 3. Category 2 was made up of scripts with some evidence of coherence and some meaning could partially be reconstructed. A total of 26 scripts were obtained here (school A: 9; school B: 8; school C: 6; school D: 3). Category 3 comprising 4 scripts (school A: 0; school B: 0; school C: 2; school D: 2), had English and non-English words, which were recurrent in the compositions, and were put in no discernible order (see samples of the scripts in appendix B).

The following sections discuss the nature of the data in each of these categories. We begin by presenting the analysable data in detail since it has been analysed using EA which was the focus of our study. The unanalysable data is then presented.
3.1.0 ANALYSIS OF ANALYSABLE DATA: CATEGORY 1

In this section, this study analyses the various grammatical errors that emerged in the data. Out of the corpus of language that was selected through the compositions written by the HI pupils, the total of 802 errors from the 8 scripts were identified against the British Standard norm described in Quirk et al (1985). The errors have been labelled with the exact nature of deviation from the standard norm. These errors have also been classified using the analytic approach of 'Let the Errors Determine the Categories' (Norrish, 1983) also used by Maina, (1991) and Njoroge, (1996). The errors identified indicate the grammatical categories, such as, errors of articles and errors of verb forms. These errors have been presented using the approach of 'Linguistic Category Taxonomy' as presented by Dulay and others, (1982) also adopted by Maina, (1991) and Njoroge, (1996). The errors have been presented according to the grammatical category that had the most errors down to the one that had the least. The percentage of errors of each grammatical category is presented in brackets below. Therefore, we begin by verb phrase related errors (which formed 32.17% of the total errors), then noun phrase related errors (20.82%), prepositional errors (12.72%), clause link errors (4.49%), concordial errors (4.61%), word order errors (4.24%), adjective errors (1.62%), adverb errors (1.12%). The crucial non-morphosyntactic errors, punctuation (12.84%) and expression errors (5.36%), conclude the section of the analysis of this data.
3.1.1 VERB PHRASE RELATED ERRORS

3.1.2 INTRODUCTION

The verb element plays a central role in a clause structure. It is the most obligatory of all the clause elements. Whereas other elements such as the subject, the complement and the adverbial, can be omitted from the clause, the verb cannot (Crystal, 1988).

In our data, verb phrase errors had the highest frequency count. In this section we will categorise and present the verb phrase errors noted in the analysable data. The errors were categorised into two major types: morphological errors and syntactic errors.

(A) MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS

We begin by presenting the morphological errors under the subtopics of errors related to the present tense, errors related to the simple past tense, omission of the ‘-ing’ participle, incomplete application of the past progressive aspect rule, errors related to the ‘to-infinitive’ and verb related spelling errors.

(I) Errors related to the present tense.

These included the following:

(a) Progressive aspect used instead of present tense.

For example,

1. After they were moving bags on grass, wait for a bus come to Ngong’s hill and going back to Nairobi. (B2)
Instead of,

After that, we were moving bags on grass. We waited for a bus to come to Ngong hills and go back to Nairobi.

The first pronoun ‘they’ has been reconstructed to ‘we’ because the pupil talks about what he or she and others were doing and had been using first person in the text. In the preceding sentence, the verb is in its infinitive form ‘to come’, thus, the conjoined clause after the coordinating conjunction ‘and’ needed a verb in the present tense. Hence, ‘go’.

(b) *Past tense used instead of present tense.*

For example,

2. So next term 2 whe I came here.... (B1)

Instead of,

So next term when I come here...

The word ‘next’ functions as a determiner that looks ahead of time (Chalker, 1990). Therefore it requires a verb in the simple present ‘come’ and not in past tense ‘came’ since the action has not yet taken place. Furthermore, future time in subordinate clauses as in the case above which is introduced by ‘when’ takes a verb in the simple present (Quirk, and Greenbaum, 1973).
(II) Errors related to the simple past tense included the following:

(a) *Errors in the use of regular past tense.*

(i) Omission of the past tense ‘-ed’ marker.

For example,

3. One day, I wake in the morning and *cook* for tea. (B4)

Instead of,

One day, I woke up in the morning and *cooked* tea.

4. I took my breakfast. When I *Finish* the work, I went ...(A1)

Instead of,

I took my breakfast. When I *finished* working, I went...

These sentences are reporting past events and so the expected tense is the past. The verbs in the preceding clauses were in the past tense. Hence the correct forms should have been, ‘cooked’ and ‘finished’.

(ii) Using the regular past tense affix with the ‘to-infinitive’.

For example,

5. When we saw we *start to arrived* at home... (A1)

Instead of,

When we *arrived* at home...

The verb ‘saw’ is in its past form and can only take another verb in the past. The ‘to-infinitive’ only takes a verb in its base form, and not as past tense as indicated in the above example. The verb ‘arrived’ has no beginning or end unless it is a convoy arriving in intervals. Hence, the use of the verb ‘start’ with ‘arrived’ is erroneous.
(iii). Past progressive aspect used instead of simple past tense.

For example,

6. After we went to eat at 10.35 a.m. went back in to our three groups and we were practising the songs and drama about Jesus, Moses, Abraham, Cain, Abel and something. (B2)

Instead of, ‘...we practised...’

The tense of the context is in the simple past as indicated in the preceding verb, ‘went’. Thus ‘were practising’ had the past tense marking on the auxiliary ‘were’. However, the past tense should have been marked on the verb ‘practise’. Thus, the learner should have used simple past ‘practised’ instead of ‘were practising’.

(iv). Redundant auxiliary verb used instead of a past tense verb.

For example,

7. I am say to father for the after very cold and wind. I want to say to father I will go to saint cathedral. (B7)

Instead of,

I said to Father that the afternoon was very cold and windy. I wanted to say to Father that I will go to Saint cathedral.

8. One day, they were arrive Ngong’s hill at 12.30 p.m... (B2)

Instead of,

One day, they arrived at Ngong hills...

In English, the auxiliary comes in to carry tense when the verb is inflected for aspect because the language does not allow one verb word to be inflected for
both tense and aspect. In cases, 7 and 8, the verbs, ‘say’ and ‘arrive’, are not
inflected at all, and therefore past tense should be marked on them. An
auxiliary is needed only when the main verb carries other inflections.
(v). ‘-ing’ verb participle used instead of the simple past tense verb.
For example,
9. ...I wake in the morning on 25th Dec 1999 and cooking for tea. (B4)
Instead of,
...I woke up in the morning on 25th Dec 1999, and cooked tea...
10. Are you all ready “asked Father”. We answering yes father... (B1)
Instead of,
“Are you all ready?” asked father. We answered, “Yes Father.”
The expected tense is in the past as indicated by the specific time reference
25th Dec 1999 in example 9 and a preceding past tense verb ‘asked’ in
example 10. The erroneous verbs needed to have conformed to the foregoing
tense.
(vi). ‘-ly’ adverbial suffix used instead of a simple past tense ‘-ed’ marker
on the verb.
For example,
11. My mother was not in nairobi she likely to stay in Murang’a for... (A2)
Instead of,
My mother was not in Nairobi. She liked to stay in Murang’a...
In example 11, the verb ‘was’ is in the past tense. The following sentence
should have continued with the same tense. The reconstruction of the word,
'likely' in example 11 to 'liked' and not as an omission of 'was' in the sentence to read, 'was likely', is based on the use of this word as a verb in foregoing texts. Similarly, as indicated in the adverb-errors section, HI pupils rarely used adverbs in their compositions. Thus, 'likely' as an adverb is not likely in these compositions.

(vii). The '-al' noun suffix used in place of a simple past tense verb.

For example,

12. When we arrival at Mombasa we saw...(B1)

Instead of, 'arrived'

The verb 'arrived' is in the subordinate clause beginning with 'when' up to 'Mombasa' which does not stand on its own. The clause is dependent on the main clause, which has a verb in the past tense. Thus, the dependent subordinate clause should have the same tense. Again, the word, 'arrival' is a noun erroneously used in the slot of a verb.

(b) Errors related to the irregular past tense.

(i). Simple present tense used instead of past tense.

a. Irregular lexical verbs.

For example;

13. One day I wake in the morning and cook for tea.....(B4)

Instead of 'woke up'.

14. At 0.00 A.M, begin 2000 years we were very happy...(B2)

Instead of, 'began'.
b. Primary auxiliary verbs.

For example,

15. I met Daniel in Saint Cathedral at 10:30 A.M. They are to Jamhuri party on 12th Dov 1999. (B7)

Instead of,

I met Daniel in Saint Cathedral at 10:30 A.M. They went to Jamhuri party on 12th Dec 1999.

16. ... and saw that is dress...(A2)

Instead of,

... and saw that was a dress....

17. When I saw the outside of gate have no vehicle. (A1)

Instead of,

When I saw there was no vehicle outside ...

In examples 13 to 17 above, past tense has been used in the preceding sentences and so the tense of the context required a verb in past tense.

(ii) Redundant auxiliary verbs used with main verb instead of a simple past tense verb.

For example;

18. I am go to town with my friend to buy soda. I am go to home and very tired for walk anytime...(B4)
Instead of,
I went to town with my friend to buy soda. I went home and was very tired of walking everytime.

The verb ‘go’ does not require a primary auxiliary verb in the context above. ‘Go’ can carry the past tense since it is a simple verb phrase constituted of only one verb. The auxiliary verb is therefore not helpful and is redundant.

(iii) Inappropriate choice of modal auxiliary.

For example,

19. I want say to father. I will go to saint cathedral on Sunday. (B7)
Instead of,
I had wanted to say to Father that I would go to Saint Cathedral on Sunday.
The pupil had already come back from Saint Cathedral in the preceding paragraph, and was giving a report on how he had wanted to request his father to permit him to go.

20. My mother was get I can work hard of dig the shamba because I can go back to school. (A1)
Instead of,
My mother found out I could work hard digging the shamba so that I could go back to school.
(iv) **Use of regular past tense 'ed' marker with irregular verbs.**

For example,

21. We finished and beautifuls My uncle wiped a car coloured white and all things **kept** on the car... (A2)

Instead of, 'kept'

22. ...many people – very happy, jumped and **drank**. (B2)

Instead of, 'drank'. The past tense of the verb 'drink' is formed by a vowel change, hence 'drank'.

Crystal (1988) points out that an irregular verb is one where some of the forms such as past forms, are unpredictable. In the cases above, 'kept' is formed from 'keep' orthographically by the deletion of one vowel and the addition of the letter, 't' at the end of the word. 'Drink' changes to a past form by a vowel change [i → æ].

(v) **The past progressive used instead of the simple past tense of the irregular verb.**

For example,

23. ...we were practising the songs and drama about Jesus, Moses, Abraham, cain, Abel and something. At lunch, we were eating bread and juice, we were playing for a long time until 4.30, sometime they were talking with girls and boys. (B2)
Instead of,

We went back into our three groups and we practised the songs and drama about ... and others. At lunch, we ate bread and juice and played for a long time until 4.30 pm, and sometimes we talked with girls and boys.

The context of the narrative in script (B2) refers to a certain day that the ‘pupils’ went back into their three groups. Thus, the use of the past progressive aspect, ‘were eating’ implies that another event may have been taking place as the pupils were eating. This event is not reflected in the script. The succeeding clauses, ‘we were playing/talking’ suggests that the pupil intended to list the activities they did on that day. Hence, the simple past tense should have been used.

(vi) ‘-ing’ verb suffix used instead of simple past tense of the irregular verb.

For example,

24. We went on the shamba to dig. We digging on the food of maize, arrowroot...(A1)

Instead of, ‘dug’

The preceding clause contains a verb in the past tense (that is, ‘went’). Based on the tense of the context, ‘dug’ should have been used.

(vii) To – infinitive used instead of the simple past tense.

For example,
25. He told me to go on 23th Dov 1999. My father to go home in Machakos on 23-12 1999. (B7)

Instead of, ‘went’

Chalker (1990) highlights that most to-infinitive clauses refer to the future time. In the above example, the activity of going home had already happened. So, the verb should have been in the past tense form, ‘went’.

(III) Omission of the ‘-ing’ participle.

(a). Present tense used instead of verb with ‘-ing’ participle.

For example,

26. I like go my friend with the brother to see...(B8)

Instead of,

I like going to my friend with my brother to see...

The word ‘like’ preceding ‘go’ is a verb. It has been used in the present tense. The verb ‘go’ follows it immediately and therefore it is expected to have a non-finite form. Thus, ‘-ing’ is needed. Another reconstruction could have been, ‘I like to go to my friend with...’

(b). To – infinitive used instead of verb with ‘-ing’ participle.

For example,

27. I was outside the gate to wait the bus. (A1)

Instead of,

I was outside the gate waiting for the bus.
The verbs ‘was’ and ‘waiting’ belong to the same verb phrase, since the separating prepositional phrase ‘outside the gate’ is a mobile adverbial, which can occur in another position of the sentence such as the end.

I was waiting for the bus outside the gate.

Note that this reconstruction is ambiguous. All the same it serves to explain the mobility of adverbs. According to the preceding context of script A1, the pupil intended to present the past progressive aspect (I was outside the gate waiting for the bus) and not to expressing the future in the past tense (I was to wait for the bus outside the gate).

(IV) **Incomplete application of the past progressive aspect rule.**

The past progressive aspect is constructed with the auxiliary ‘be’ in past form + ‘-ing’ verb. In the case below, past tense is marked by the use of the auxiliary verb but ‘-ing’ ending is omitted from the main verb.

(a) ‘-ing’ participle omitted on the main verb.

28. I was happy because we are going for a christmas day were we live in Muranga. (A2)

Instead of,

I was happy because we were going on Christmas day. We were living in Murang’a at that time.
(b). *Past tense and ‘-ing’ participle omitted from verb phrase.*

For example,

29. I **am go** to meet in saint cathedral about the camp and game in Ngong hill on 13\textsuperscript{th} Dov 1999. (B7)

Instead of,

I **was going** to meet ? in Saint Cathedral about the camp and games in Ngong hills on 13\textsuperscript{th} Dec. 1999.

The tense of the context of the script was in the past. This should have been marked on the verb ‘am’ to read ‘was’. The progressive aspect, ‘-ing’ should have been marked on the verb ‘go’ to become ‘going’. The entire past progressive rule was omitted.

(V) **Errors related to the ‘to – infinitive’**

(a). *To – infinitive used with past tense verb instead of the base form of the verb.*

For example,

30. ... he told me **to went** with me... (A4)

Instead of, ‘to go’

31. I **was going to saw** mother... (A1)

Instead of, ‘to see’

The ‘to-infinitive’ occurs with the base form of the verb (Chalker, 1990).

Hence, using it with past tense form of a verb is erroneous.
(b). *To – infinitive used with perfective aspect instead of the base form of the verb.*

For example,

32. I had let to gone home alone. (A4)

Instead of,

I had been let to go home alone.

The perfective aspect rule contains 'have' plus the '-ed/en' form of the verb. The verb 'had' already carries the past tense, and requires another verb to carry the perfective aspect. The verb 'let' which follows cannot mark this aspect. Thus, the verb 'be' needs to carry the aspect.

(c). *To – infinitive used with the 'ing' verb suffix instead of the base form.*

For example,

33. I went to greeting my grandfather... (A1)

Instead of, 'to greet'.

The particle 'to' is often used with the base form of the verb. The simple 'to – infinitive' consists of the particle 'to' plus the base form of the verb (Quirk 1985). The verb in the example above is not in its base form but 'ing' participle.

(d). *Noun used instead of the 'to – infinitive'*

For example,

34. We went to school to learn and collection the books... (A1)

The conjunction 'and' joins units of the same status in a sentence (Crystal, 1988). This example breaks this rule since the 'to-infinitive' is joined to a
noun ‘collection’ making the construction faulty. The correct construction should have read, ‘We went to school to learn and to collect the books...

35. We are have someone for buyer to supermarket... (B7)

Instead of,

We had someone to buy from the supermarket...

(VI) Spelling errors.

For example.

36. We stopped in our grandmother’s gate... (A2)

37. My holiday is to go home and revise my hard work. (B1)

(B) SYNTACTIC ERRORS

The syntactic category contains omission errors, redundant verbs, incomplete verb phrases, transitivity errors and use of a preposition in place of a verb.

(I) Omission of verb errors.

(a) Omission of lexical verbs.

For example,

38. On 12th Nov.1999 we closed school to go home with parents so go in the bus ___ to Nairobi. (B8)

Omitted ‘going’ to read,

‘On 12th November 1999 we closed school. We went home with our parents. So we went into the bus going to Nairobi.’ This is an omission of the verb in progressive aspect.
Another example would be,

39. We close the door and ___ back together to Muranga. (A2)

Possibly, the omitted simple past tense verb is ‘went’.

The adverb ‘back’ is hanging because it does not have a verb to modify.

(b).  *Omission of primary auxiliaries.*

(i). Omission of primary auxiliary ‘be’

For example,

40. Jamhuri day ___ on 12\textsuperscript{th} Dec many visitors come to my house... (B4)

Possible omitted verb, ‘was’ or ‘is’

(ii). Omission of primary auxiliary ‘have’

For example,

41. ...we were playing and ___ funning... (B2)

Instead of,

...we were playing and having fun ...

Here, ‘fun’ which is not a verb was used as one with the addition of the ‘-ing’ participle.

42. I ___ never see the river in Kisumu. It was the first day to go to Kisumu. (B1)

Possible omitted auxiliary, ‘had’
(c). Omission of modal auxiliaries.
For example,
43. My mother told me what did you like to go I said I ___ like for Nairobi ...
   (A2) Instead of,
My mother asked me, "Where would you like to go?" I said, "I would like to go to Nairobi...

The construction 'would' plus the base, 'like' is one of the basic types of verb phrase construction. Without the modal auxiliary the meaning of the sentence would change.

44. I say to father when ___ go to home live in Machakos (B7)

Instead of,
I said to father, "When will we go home?" We live in Machakos.

(II) Use of redundant verbs

(a). Redundant lexical verbs
For example,
45. My uncle sat on the table room and all people welcomed for our party making. (A2)

The verb 'making' does not serve any purpose in this construction. Therefore, it is unnecessary.

(b). Unnecessary primary auxiliary verb 'be'
For example,
46. I was put clothes into my suitcase...(B2)
The verb ‘put’ is an irregular verb that does not change its form. It has the same form for present tense, past tense and the perfective aspect. However, the pupil still marked tense externally on the verb ‘be’. Thus there was a double past tense marking.

(c). Redundant ‘to – infinitive’

For example,

47. We are so holiday at home the family they are work to do well. (B8)

Instead of,

We were so (happy) at home. The family worked well.

The tense of the reconstruction is based upon past dates that the pupil mentioned earlier in the script.

(d). Unnecessary modal auxiliary.

For example,

48. My mother give the money to buy the wheat flour and anybody I can want. (A1)

Instead of,

My mother gave me the money to buy wheat flour and anything I wanted.

The use of the modal auxiliary, ‘can’ was unwanted.
(III) **Incomplete verb phrases.**

(a). *Omission of the auxiliary 'be' verb.*

For example,

49. My uncle sat on the table room and all people ___ welcomed for our party making. (A2)

Omitted, 'were'

The verb phrase in which the omitted verb should have been is a passive construction that requires an auxiliary 'be' plus the '-ed' participle of the verb. This construction therefore requires two inflections: past tense inflection and a passive inflection. Since the verb 'welcome' already carries the '-ed' participle of the passive construction, the 'be' is necessary to carry past tense.

(b). *No main verb in verb phrase.*

For example,

50. My grandmother’s house were ___ with stones... (A2)

Omitted verb, 'built'

The verb phrase above is also a passive verb construction. The past tense has been carried by the auxiliary verb 'were'. A main lexical verb is needed to carry the '-ed' participle of the passive.

(c). *Incomplete 'to – infinitive'*

Omitted ‘to’ particle

For example,

51. My mother go to Acacia supermarket ___ buy other anything. (B4)
52. I want ___ say to father. I will go to saint cathedral on Sunday. (B7)

(IV) **Errors related to transitivity.**

(a) **Monotransitive verb errors.**

For example,

53. My uncle bought for me a new dress. It was covered with a different paper gifts. I thought it is a book. I open ___ and saw that...(A2)

Here, the pupil failed to complete the meaning of the monotransitive verb, 'open' by not providing an object. Hence, the verb was used intransitively.

(b) **Ditransitive verb errors.**

For example,

54. We went to matatu go, home stop matatu and give ___ money 60/=.

(B4)

Instead of,

We went to the matatu going home. The matatu stopped and we gave them/him/her money worth 60/=.

55. We told ___ a problem to make a second party happy new year. (A2)

Instead of,

We told them our desire/concern/wish/ of having a second party on the new year day.

Verbs like 'give' and 'tell' above have been used ditransitively. Therefore, they require two objects, an indirect one and a direct object (Leech and Svartvik, 1975:301). In many cases, the indirect object names someone who
receives something (Leech, 1989). The pupils omitted the indirect object perhaps because it was understood in the context but the resulting constructions are ungrammatical.

(V) **Use of a preposition as a verb.**

For example,

56. One day, I wake up in the morning and cook for tea. My family with food for tea and bread. (B4)

Instead of,

One day, I woke up in the morning and cooked tea. My family ate/had tea and bread.

In the example above, 'with' is a preposition that expresses meanings such as 'having' which can apply in this example.

Out of the 802 errors, 32.17% were verb phrase errors obtained from the category 1 data. Out of this figure, 76.36% were morphological, and the remaining 23.64% were syntactic.
Table 2: Taxonomy of Verb Phrase Related Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MORPHOLOGY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Errors related to the present tense</td>
<td>So next term 2 whe I came have... (B1) Instead of, ‘come’</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Errors related to the simple past tense</td>
<td>...they take all thing from the car. (A2) Instead of, ‘took’</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>58.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Omission of the ‘-ing’ participle</td>
<td>...very tired for walk anytime (B8) Instead of, ...very tired of walking every time</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Incomplete application of the past progressive aspect rule</td>
<td>...leader were drama and they were laughing ... (B2)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Errors related to the ‘to-infinitive’</td>
<td>...he told me to went with me... (A4) Instead of, ‘to go’</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) Spelling Errors</td>
<td>My father communicated with God through prayer (B2) Instead of, ‘communicated’</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SYNTAX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Omission of verb</td>
<td>Very happy nothing _ bore (B8) Instead of, ... nothing was boring...</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Use of redundant verbs</td>
<td>I am with father... (B7) Instead of, My father and I ...</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Incomplete verb phrases</td>
<td>all people _ welcome for party (A2) Instead of, ...all people were welcome for the party...</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Errors related to transitivity</td>
<td>We pray for God to protect _ we go to in bus (B7) Omitted, ‘us’</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Use of a preposition as a verb</td>
<td>...stop town in Tala out go to hotel: with chapati, kuku... (B4)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>258</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.2.0 NOUN PHRASE RELATED ERRORS.

3.1.2.1 INTRODUCTION

The noun phrase consists of determiner(s), premodifier(s), the headword (a noun) and post modifiers as indicated in Leech (1989:361). Leech and Svatvik (1975:251) provide the following structure of an English noun phrase:

![Noun Phrase Diagram]

This section is composed of the noun phrase errors observed from our data. The errors were subdivided into the two major groups: morphological errors and syntactic errors. The morphological errors identified were related to the head noun in the noun phrase. These involved the use of the possessive marker...
s where it is not needed, omission of the possessive marker where it is needed, regular plural marker 's' attached on the wrong word, and spelling errors.

The syntactic errors comprise incorrect choice of noun, omitted parts of the noun phrase, redundant parts of the noun phrase and incorrect noun phrases in apposition. Other syntactic subcategories include errors related to the use of pronouns such as omissions and incorrect pronoun choice, redundant use of pronouns, double pronouns in apposition, omitted dummy subjects and other word used instead of a pronoun. The final subcategory concerns determiners, comprising omitted determiners, errors in the choice of determiners, incorrect use of multiple determiners and redundant determiners.

A. MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS.

(I) Errors related to the noun word in the noun phrase.

(a). Use of possessive marker where it is not needed.

For example,

57. We arrived at home 4 o'clock because of matatu's goes slowly...(A1)
58. After they were moving bags on grass, wait for a bus to come to Ngong's hill. (B2)

The possessive marker or the 's' genitive mainly expresses possession (Crystal, 1988). Other meanings expressed could be origin of something, description of something among others. However, its use in the two examples above serves none of these purposes.
(b). *Attaching the plural marker 's' on the wrong word.*

For example,

... to bring my grandmother who lives in Muranga with others relative. (A2)

According to the narrative context, the 'grandmother' lived with several relatives. Thus 'others' should have been 'other' and the plural 's' should have been attached to 'relative' hence 'relatives'.

(c). *Spelling errors*

For example,

59. That morning I woke up early and so I found everybody ...(A4)

Instead of 'everybody'

60. ... meat, chapati, soup, patotoes ...(B8)

Instead of, 'potatoes'

**B. SYNTACTIC ERRORS**

(a). *Incorrect choice of noun*

For example,

61. My mother go to Acacia supermarket buy other anything. (B4)

Instead of, 'things'

'Other' is a determiner that can be used with singular and plural count nouns and uncountable nouns (Chalker, 1990). In the construction above, this determiner has been used with a pronoun, 'anything' which is erroneous.
(b). *Omitted parts of the noun phrase.*

For example.

62. Because sometimes my favourite ____ are volleyball... (B1)

63. That I was happy very much because then I found one happy ____ (A4)

Adjectives such as ‘favourite, happy’ as above, are words which express some feature or quality of a noun or pronoun (Crystal, 1988). In the sentences above, the nouns being described by the adjectives are missing hence the adjective has nothing to modify.

(c). *Redundant parts of a noun phrase.*

For example,

64. I was fine to buy and to make a method of gifts, ballons. (A2)

Instead of,

I was happy to buy and make gifts and balloons.

The construction has more meaning with the omission of the underlined words.

(d). *Incorrect noun phrases in apposition.*

For example,

65. It was my family the holiday to do well... (B8)

66. ...the family they are work to do well... (B8)

Apposition is a relation between two noun phrases that describe the same thing (Leech, 1989). In example (65) above, the two noun phrases in apposition refer to two separate entities, ‘family’ and ‘holiday’. In example (66), the noun
phrases refer to one entity namely, 'the family'. However, 'they' is a noun phrase which is a pronoun, and can only be used to replace the noun phrase 'the family'. The two noun phrases, 'the family' and 'they' are therefore interchangeable and consequently, cannot be appositioned.

(II) **Errors related to the use of pronoun.**

(a). *Omitted pronouns.*

For example,

67. I am go to home and very tire for walk anytime and ___ rest sleep.

(B4)

Instead of,

I went home and was very tired of walking everytime and I rested and slept.

68. At night, we were eating rice and meat, ___ leader were drama. (B2)

Omitted 'our'

69. I open and saw that ___ is dress. (A2)

Omitted 'it'

(b). *Errors related to the choice of pronouns.*

For example,

70. At 4 o'clock I start to go back at school and I give us the greeting. (A1)

Instead of, 'them' as in,

At 4 o'clock, I started going back to school and I greeted them.
In example (70) the pupil talks of greeting those he/she found in school when they opened. Thus 'them' and not 'us' is correct.

(c). Redundant use of pronouns.

For example,

71. So my mother buy me a good dress and shoes also me. (B1)

From the sentence, the recipient of the dress and shoes is indicated by the first person singular objective pronoun, 'me', that comes earlier in the sentence. The second use of 'me' in the same sentence is unnecessary.

72. ...work is cooking for eat rice, meat, chapati, soup, potatoes and fruit anything. (B8)

'Anything' is an indefinite pronoun which is non-assertive (Chalker, 1990). In the above example, the learner may have intended to show that the list continued.

(d). Double pronouns in apposition.

For example,

73. My we live in Kangundo. (B4)

The two pronouns 'my' and 'we' have different qualities. 'My' is a possessive first person singular subject pronoun, whereas 'we' is a subjective first person plural pronoun. They can never occur appositionally in English, since relations of apposition occur between two noun phrases describing the same thing (Leech, 1989).
(e). Omitted dummy subjects 'it' and 'there'.

For example,

74. Many visitors come to my house and ___ many food for chapati, kuku... (B4)

Instead of,

Many visitors came to my house. There was a lot of food such as...

75. ... my family together ate tea and blueband with bread ___ nice food... (B4)

Instead of,

... together with my family (we) ate tea and bread with blueband. It was nice food...

'There' is used when we want to talk about something or somebody existing or not existing (Chalker, 1990). Thus in example (74) 'there' should have been added to show the existence of a lot of food. Most English sentences need a subject, so with verbs that do not have any real doer, we use an empty 'it' as in example (75) above (Chalker, 1990).

(f). Other word used instead of a pronoun.

For example,

76. I never see the river in Kisumu. It was the first day to go to Kisumu. (B1)

In example (76) the pupil talks about himself or herself, hence uses the subject pronoun, 'I'. When referring to his/her first day in Kisumu, the pupil should
have used the first person singular possessive pronoun, 'my' and not the definite article 'the'.

77. My uncle weep a car coloured white and all things keeped on the car.
(A2)
The general context of the above example describes the uncle's car. Thus the pronoun 'his' should have been used to read,
My uncle wiped his white coloured car...

(III) Errors related to the determiner.
(a). Omitted determiners.
(i). Omitted 'the'
For example,
78. When I saw the outside of ___ gate have no vehicle. (A1)
79. Thank to God for ___ happy New Year. (B2)
The definite article 'the' used when the thing or person has already been identified as in example (78) and (79) where the 'new year' and the 'gate' had already been mentioned in the preceding sentences. 'The' can also be used even if the actual thing or person has not been mentioned before, yet it is clearly understood from the general context as in example (80) below. In addition, singular countable nouns require an article.
80. ... and look go run help for ___ bag. (B4)

The general context of example (80) is that of a mother returning home with luggage, and the son eagerly waiting for her return so as to help her carry her bag. The definite article was therefore needed since the noun ‘bag’ was specific.

(ii). Omitted ‘a’, ‘an’

For example,

81. ... my aunt began to tell me “You are ___ older girl than me”...(A2)

Omitted ‘an’

82. We pray for God to protect. We go to in ____ bus. (B7)

Instead of,

We prayed to God for protection. We went into a bus.

According to Chalker (1990), ‘a/an’ the indefinite articles are mainly used with singular count nouns. They are used to mean any one of a kind or group. Thus in example (82) the article, ‘a’, premodifies the noun ‘bus’. In example (81) the presence of the adjective, ‘older’ and the singular noun ‘girl’ requires an appropriate indefinite article.

(iii). Omitted determiner ‘that’

For example,

83. I go back at home to see how can went at ___ time (A1)

In example (83) the determiner ‘that’ specifies the noun ‘time’ making it more definite.
(iv). Omitted general ordinals.

For example.

84. We ate food at 7 o’clock and slept at 8 o’clock. At 7 o’clock of ___
morning I work up and start to cook...(A1)

Omitted, ‘following, next’

An ordinal number is needed to identify the ‘morning’ the pupil is talking
about.

(b). *Errors in the choice of determiner*

For example,

85. When I arrived to Thika I was very happy to saw mother in the hotel.

There was no previous mention of this ‘hotel’. ‘The’ in this case should not
have been used since it only refers to things or persons already identified in a
context such as this.

86. My father was going from Nairobi show to see all other animals. (A4)

‘Other’ is used as determiner that means “one(s) apart from the one(s) already
mentioned (Leech, 1989: 319). In this example, the use of ‘other’ is
unnecessary since this was the first time the pupil was mentioning the noun,
‘animals’.

(c). Incorrect use of multiple determiners.

For example.

87. ...at Thika we boarded some one matatus goes at home. (A1)
The combination of ‘some’ and ‘one’ is ungrammatical since the former is plural and the latter singular. The context talks of ‘one matatu’. Thus, ‘one’ as a determiner was the most appropriate.

88. ...my father told our the driver...(B2)

‘Our’ has been used as a determiner in the example above. ‘The’ is a definite article. Only one of them can be used at a time because both are central determiners and central determiners do not co-occur (Crystal, 1988).

(d). Redundant determiners.

For example.

89. My uncle bought for me a new dress It was covered with a different paper gifts. (A2)

Instead of,

My uncle bought for me a new dress. It was covered with different gift wrappers.

Quirk et al (1985:272) explains that the indefinite article is used for singular count nouns. In example 89, the noun is in plural hence the indefinite article ‘a’ should have been eliminated.

90. ...for camp in show, game, drama, preach and the another. (B7)

Instead of,

...in shows, games, dramas, preachings and other activities/events.
A total of 167 noun phrase related errors were obtained from the analysable data. Syntactic errors were the most common with a percentage of 89.82%. The identified morphological errors accounted for the remaining 10.18% errors.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MORPHOLOGY</strong></td>
<td>(i) Errors related to the noun word in the noun phrase</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Use of possessive marker where it is not needed</td>
<td>...and all people at in the matatu's came out... (A1) Instead of, ... and all people in the matatu came out...</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Attaching the plural marker 's' on the wrong word.</td>
<td>...to bring my grandmother who lives in Muranga with others relative. (A2) Instead of, 'other relatives'</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Spelling errors</td>
<td>I like rest to see television and radio... (B8) Instead of, I like to rest and to watch television and radio...</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SYNTAX</strong></td>
<td>Errors related to the noun word in the noun phrase.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i). Incorrect choice of noun.</td>
<td>My mother go to Acacia supermarket buy other anything. (B4) Instead of, 'things'</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii). Omitted parts in the noun phrase</td>
<td>I am say to father for the after very cold and wind. (B7) Instead of, 'afternoon'</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii). Redundant parts of a noun phrase</td>
<td>my father told our the driver that driver come to my school (B2)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv). Incorrect noun phrases in apposition.</td>
<td>It was my family the holiday to do well... (B8)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic category and error type</td>
<td>Example of learner error</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors related to the use of pronouns</td>
<td>(i) Omitted pronouns ...many people very happy, jumped and draked (B2) Instead of, many people were very happy they jumped and drank (sodas, wine)...</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>19.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ii) Wrong choice of pronouns One day, they were arrive Ngong’s hill... (B2) Instead of, One day we arrived at Ngong hills...</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(iii) Redundant use of pronouns So my mother buy me a good dress and shoes also me. (B1) Instead of, So my mother bought me a good dress and shoes also.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(iv) Omitted ‘there’ Many visitors come to my house and _ many food for chapati, kuku... (B4) Instead of, Many visitors came to my house. There was a lot of food...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(v) Other word used instead of a pronoun My uncle weep a car coloured white and all things kepted on the car. (A2)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors related to the determiner</td>
<td>(i) Omitted determiner ...the matatu’s stop at _ bus stop and all people... (A1) Instead of, ...the matatu stopped at the bus stop and all people...</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>24.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic category and error type</td>
<td>Example of learner error</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Errors in the choice of determiner</td>
<td>We sat down in the matatus and start to talk the story. (A1)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, We sat down in the matatu and started talking about a story.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Incorrect use of multiple determiners</td>
<td>...at Thika we boarded some one matatus goes at home. (A1)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, ...in Thika we boarded one matatu that goes at home.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Redundant determiners</td>
<td>My uncle bought for me a new dress It was covered with a different paper gifts. (A2)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, My uncle bought me a new dress. It was wrapped in gift wrappers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>167</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.3 PREPOSITIONAL ERRORS

3.1.3.0 INTRODUCTION

Prepositions are words which express a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement, the other by another part of the sentence (Quirk, et al. 1985). Leech and Svartvick (1975), add that the prepositional complement is usually a noun phrase, as in;

There will be 1400 delegates at the conference.

Prep. NP

a wh-clause as in,

No conclusions can be drawn from what the press reported yesterday.

Prep. Wh-clause

or an '-ing' construction as in,

By signing the treaty, both nations have made an effort towards peace.

Prep. -ing construction

Crystal (1988) outlines three functions of the prepositional phrase (PP); a post-modifier in the noun phrase, an adverbial, a verb or adjective complement as in the following examples respectively,

1. I saw a man in a raincoat.
   NP PP

2. In the morning, we went home.
   Adverbial

3. He lay on the floor. I'm sorry for him.
   V PP Adjective PP
A number of prepositional errors were identified in the category 1 data. Since prepositions do not have any inflections as verbs and nouns do, there were no errors categorized under the morphological section of the data analysis. Therefore, all errors identified were syntactic, and were subdivided into six types. The incorrect choice of a preposition, use of a preposition where none is needed, omitted prepositions, double preposition marking, use of other grammatical category word instead of a preposition and use of incomplete prepositional phrases.

SYNTACTIC ERRORS

(I) Incorrect use of a prepositions

For example.

91. I shaked all people in my homes for the christmas day (A2)

Instead of, 'on'

Preposition 'for' expresses meanings such as duration of time (such as, ..for two days) or purpose and/or intended destination (such as, 'He died for his country'). Hence it was incorrectly used. Preposition 'on' was the most appropriate since the postmodifying noun phrase is an adverb of time.

92. My father was going from Nairobi show to see all other animals... (A4)

The preceding verb phrase 'was going' indicates the intention of the 'father'. Thus 'to' would have complemented the verb phrase to give a meaning of 'goal'. The pupil however selected the converse of 'to' which is 'from'.
(II) **Use of a preposition where none is needed.**

For example,

93. ...my father told me to tell me at all the main ways. (A4)

Instead of,

... my father told me to tell him all the main ways.

94. I am with mother go to home... (B7)

Instead of,

I went with Mother home...

The preposition ‘at’ gives the meaning of direction, or time when, none of which can be applied in example (93). The preposition ‘to’ in (94) indicates direction and reaction. Sometimes it is used with a noun phrase as in, ‘to school’. However, in example (94), preposition ‘to’ cannot be used with the noun phrase ‘home’.

(III) **Omitted prepositions**

For example,

95. At home ___ my holiday the family to rest for at night... (B8)

Instead of,

At home, during my holiday, my family would rest at night...

The preposition, ‘during’ adds a meaning of a period of time, in our case ‘holiday’. Without it, there is no relationship at all between the prepositional phrase ‘at home’ and the noun phrase, ‘my holiday’.

96. We sat down in the matatus and start to talk ___ the story. (A1)

Omitted preposition, ‘about’
'About' points to the subject matter of 'talk'. 'About' combines with a considerable range of verbs (Quirk et al 1973), including 'talk'

(IV) Use of double preposition

For example.

97. I went to for breakfast and waited until 8.45 a.m. (B2)

98. We go to in bus... (B7)

99. They my family with for food all time (B8)

In example (97) 'to' can only be used if a verb such as, 'have, eat' is included. 'For' can be used on its own to express the same meaning. Therefore, 'for' is most appropriate. In example (98) the two prepositions 'to, in' can each be used on its own to express different meanings. 'To' would express going in the direction of the bus whilst 'in' would mean to be inside the bus. In example (99) none of the prepositions are useful in adding meaning to the sentence.

(V) Use of another grammatical category word in place of a preposition.

For example.

100. I see it is full coloured and ballons (A2)

Instead of,

I saw it was colourful with balloons

In this context, the adjective 'colourful' requires a prepositional phrase to add meaning to it. In this erroneous example, the conjunction 'and' joined two words of different word classes. 'Coloured' is an adjectival participle while
‘balloons’ is a noun. Since the conjunction ‘and’ joins words of equal status, it needed to be replaced with a preposition.

(VI) **Incomplete prepositional phrase**

For example.

101. ...many visitors come to my house and many food for ___ chapati, kuki and soda... (B4)

Instead of,

...many visitors came to my house and there was a lot of food, for example chapati, kuku and soda...

102. I woke up early ___ morning. I took my breakfast.

Omitted part, ‘in the’

A total of 102 (12.72%) prepositional errors were observed in the analysable data. Out of the 6 subcategories, use of prepositions where none is needed and incorrect use of prepositions were the most common prepositional errors as the table below exemplifies.
### Table 4: Prepositional Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Incorrect choice of prepositions</td>
<td>My uncle sat on the table room... (A2)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>34.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, ‘in’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Use of prepositions where none is needed.</td>
<td>I wake in the morning on 25th Dec 1999, and cooking for tea (B4)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, I woke up on 25th December 1999 morning, and cooked tea.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Omitted prepositions.</td>
<td>One day, they were arrive Ngong’s hill at 12.30 pm... (B2)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Omitted, ‘at’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Double preposition marking</td>
<td>...and all people at in the matatus came out. (A1)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Use of another grammatical category word in place of a preposition.</td>
<td>I see it is full coloured and balloons. (A2)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, I saw it was colourful with balloons.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) Incomplete prepositional phrase</td>
<td>I woke up early morning. I took my breakfast. (A1)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Omitted, ‘in the’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.4 CLAUSE LINK AND WORD COORDINATION

ERRORS

3.1.4.0 INTRODUCTION

Leech (1989) explains that clauses are the main structures of which sentences are built adding that a sentence contains at least one main clause and/or subordinate clauses. Sentences with one clause are called simple, and sentences containing more than one clause are called compound and/or complex (Leech and Svartvik, 1975). There are two main ways of linking clauses together: coordination and subordination.

In coordination, the clauses that are joined have the same status in the sentence. (Crystal, 1988) such as,

\[ \text{Tom washed his clothes and Jim cooked food.} \]

Clause 1 conjunction Clause 2

There are three main coordinators: ‘and, but, or’ (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

The other way of linking clauses is through subordination. In subordination, one clause is included in the other (Leech and Svartvik, 1989). The units that are joined do not have the same grammatical status. One clause, also called the subordinate clause relies on the main clause for expression of complete thought.
The presentation of the clause link errors is accompanied by a brief explanation of the error in each sub division.

(I) **Errors related to the subordinate clause.**

(a). *Incomplete subordinate clause*

For example.

103. I run away to saw how the noise. I was outside the gate to wait the how- clause bus...(A1)

‘How’ is a subordinate conjunction (Chalker, 1990) which explains the manner of happening. In the example above, the manner in which the noise occurred is unclear since it lacks a verb such as, ‘was’.

(b). *Subordinate clauses used without a main clause*

104. When I arrived home all member of the family were very happy because they saw me that there were many visitors in my home (clause 1) that my father was going from Nairobi show to see all other animals (clause 2) when he arrived home at night (clause 3) so he was (A4)

The underlined clauses from script (A4), are subordinate because of the indicators of subordination; ‘that’ and ‘when’ that introduce them. Subordinate clauses are usually not capable of standing alone as the main clause of a sentence. (Leech and Svartvik, 1975) The above cases lack a main clause to complete their meaning.
(c). **Redundant subordinate clauses**

105. That morning I woke up early and so I found everybody (Main clause) so that I might all others (Subordinate clause) but I had all my month (Main clause) that we had might in ourselves. (Subordinate clause)

(A4)

In example 105, it is not clear how the subordinate clause forms part of the main clause. Subordinate clauses are classified by the role they have in the main clause (Leech, 1989: 79). For example, noun clauses are subordinate clauses which can fill the position of noun phrases. As in,

a. No one believes that the earth is flat.
   
   That – noun clause

b. No one believes Jane.
   
   Object noun phrase

The subordinate clauses in script A4 do not seem to have a role in the main clauses preceding them.

(d). **Omitted clause subordinators**

For example,

106. I like to go for sleep _ the bore. (B7)

Omitted ‘because, since’ to read,

I wanted to go to sleep because/since I was bored.

The pupil omitted the clause subordinator, which gives the meaning of ‘reason’.
(e). *Redundant clause subordinators*

For example,

107. ...when he arrived home at might so he was very happy... (A4)

108. ...when my uncle come my school he told me to went with me after
    the exams when was finished. (A4)

The underlined clause subordinators 'so, when' above do not serve any purpose in their respective clauses. The position they occur in are main clauses, which are already complete in themselves.

(II) *Errors related to the coordinated clauses and conjunctions*

(a). *Omitted clause coordinator 'and'*

For example (B4) below wrote,

(b). *Redundant conjunction 'and'*

For example,

109. I have little children for parent and wait, my parent came in...(B4)

The conjunction 'and' has been used to join two words of different classes (that is, a noun and a verb). This is erroneous. The role of the conjunction in the clause is redundant.
(c). Use of wrong conjunction

For example.

110. One day, they were arrive Ngong’s hill at 12.30 p.m. when they were looking at house made of wood... (B2)

In the example above, the pupil could have used the conjunction ‘and’ and not ‘when’.

(d). Omitted conjunction ‘and’

For example (B4) below wrote,

111. I am go to home and very tired for walk anytime and rest ___ sleep.

V V

The conjunction ‘and’ can join words of the same class (Chalker, 1990). Thus, it qualifies to join the two verbs in example (111).

A total number of 36 clause link errors was realised. The majority of the errors were omission errors where clause subordinators and clause coordinators as well as the main clause, were omitted.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Incomplete subordinate clause</td>
<td>I run away to saw how the noise. I was... (A1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Subordinate clauses used without main clause</td>
<td>That morning I woke up early and so I found everybody (Main clause) so that I might all others (Subordinate clause) but I had all may month that we had might in ourselves. (Subordinate clause) (A4)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Redundant subordinate clause</td>
<td>...my hobbies is to work hard to pass my exam. next term. so I want this day we close school. (B1)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Omitted clause subordinators</td>
<td>I was hungry we went with my mother to the hotel...(A2)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Redundant clause subordinators</td>
<td>I have little children for parent and wait, my parent came in...(B4)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) Omitted clause coordinator</td>
<td>We went at home I saw my mother at home...(A1)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii) Redundant conjunction</td>
<td>They are so stay the children but my mother and father have to work...(B8)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(viii) Use of wrong conjunction</td>
<td>One day, they were arrive Ngong's hill at 12.30 p.m, when they were looking at house made of wood... (B2)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ix) Omitted conjunction</td>
<td>I like rest to see Tevlesion... (B8)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>36</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.5 CONCORDIAL ERRORS

3.1.5.0 INTRODUCTION

Oxford concise dictionary (1990) defines concord as the agreement between words in gender and number. Quirk et al, (1985:755) define it as the relationship between two grammatical units, such that one of them displays a particular feature (such as, ‘plurality’) that accords with a displayed feature in the other. It is a way of showing that two grammatical units have a certain feature in common (Crystal, 1988).

The most important type of concord in English is concord of number of the 3rd person singular between subject and verb in the present tense (Quirk, et al, 1985). Singular subjects in the present tense take singular verbs, and plural subjects take plural verbs. As in:

i. The shop opens today.
   Sing. Noun sing. verb

   Not, * The shop open today.
   Sing. Noun plural verb

ii. The shops open today.
    Plural noun plural verb

   Not, * The shops opens today.
   Plural noun plural verb

Additionally, except for the verb ‘be’, the verb generally does not show concord in the 3rd person in past tense (Quirk, et al 1985). For example,
Another type of agreement is gender concord. Crystal (1988) observes that a contrast of male and female gender, based mainly on the sex of a person or animal, is restricted to two of the third person singular pronouns. These are: 'he/she, him/her, his/her(s), himself/herself'. The various forms of 'I, you, it, we' and 'they' are sex-neutral.

The identified concordial errors were all syntactic, since concord refers to the agreement between words in aspects such as gender, number and person. The errors were divided into two main groups: errors related to number concord and errors related to gender concord. The subdivisions of number concord contain number agreement within the noun phrase, where singular nouns were used instead of plural, and plural nouns were used instead of singular ones, and number agreement between the subject and the verb.

Errors related to gender agreement contain the masculine pronoun used instead of feminine pronoun.
(I) **Errors related to number concord.**

(a). *Agreement errors within the noun phrase.*

(i). Singular noun used with plural determiners.

For example,

112. ...and the others were stay in school at two week. (A4)

Instead of, 'two weeks'

113. ...they take all thing from the car. (A2)

Instead of, 'all things'

The determiners, 'two, all' preceding the nouns 'week' and 'thing' are quantifiers which require plural nouns. If this requirement is not met, there is no number agreement in the noun phrase.

(ii). Incorrect plural noun used with determiner.

For example,

114. We sat down in the matatus and start to talk... (A1)

Instead of, 'the matatu'

115. My mother was not in nairobi she likely to stay in Muranga for a full days. (A2)

Instead of, 'a full day'

In example 114, the definite article 'the' preceding the noun 'matatus' refers to the specific 'matatu' which the writer and her mother boarded. It is therefore incorrect to have a plural noun. The indefinite article 'a' in 115 occurs with singular nouns only. Its occurrence with the plural noun 'days' is therefore erroneous.
(b).  *Errors related to number agreement between the subject and the verb.*

(i).  Singular subject used with plural verb.

For example,

116. Because sometimes *my favourite are* volleyball and my hobbies is ...  (B1)  

Sing. Subj.  plu. Verb

Instead of, *‘my favourite (game) is...’*

117.  *...leader were* drama and they were laughing at drama.  (B2)

Sing. Subj.  plu. verb

Instead of, *‘(our) leader was...’*

The verbs used in the examples above do not agree with the number in the nouns they refer to.

(ii).  Plural subject used with singular verb.

For example,

118.  *...after the exams when was finished...*  (A4)

plu.subj.  sing.verb

Instead of,  *...after the exams were finished...*

119.  *...and others was very big to finish them all.*  (B1)

Instead of,  

*...and others were too much to finish.*

The plural nouns, *‘exams, others’* required plural verbs *‘were’*
(II) Gender agreement.

(a) Masculine pronoun used instead of feminine pronoun.

For example,

120. At home my sister had many visitors who came to visit him. (B1)

Instead of 'her' since the noun referred to, 'my sister' is feminine. 'Him' is masculine and is not a reference to the preceding text.

The total number of concord errors was 37. Most of these errors were related to number agreement.
## Table 6: Concordial Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| (i) Singular noun used with plural determiners | My uncle go to buy another things to bring my grandmother (A2)  
My uncle went to buy other things/another thing to bring to my grandmother...                                                                                                                              | 12        | 32.43 |
| (ii) Incorrect plural noun used with determiner | I arrived home all member of the family... (A4)  
Instead of, ... all members                                                                                                                                                                                             | 15        | 40.54 |
| (iii) Singular subject used with plural verb | My grandmother’s house were with stones... (A2)  
My grandmother’s house was built of stones...                                                                                                                                                                        | 7         | 18.92 |
| (iv) Plural subject used with singular verb | ... and others was very big to finish them all. (B1)  
Instead of, ... and others were too much to finish.                                                                                                                                                                 | 2         | 5.41  |
| (v) Masculine pronoun used | At home my sister had many visitors who came to visit him (B1)  
Use of ‘him’ instead of ‘her’                                                                                                                                                                                            | 1         | 2.70  |
| **TOTAL** | **37**  | **100%** |
3.1.6 WORD ORDER ERRORS

3.1.6.0 INTRODUCTION

The sentence patterns in English according to Leech and Svartvick (1975) are:

i. SVC as in 'Mary is pretty.'
   S  V  C

ii. SVA as in 'John is here.'
    S  V  C

iii. SVO as in 'Everybody admired it.'
     S  V  O

iv. SVOA as in 'I put the plate on the table.'
    S  V  O  A

v. SVOC as in 'We have proved him wrong.'
    S  V  O  C

vi. SVOO as in 'She gives me gifts.'
    S  V  O  O

vii. SV as in 'The children laughed.'
     S  V

The order in phrases differs according to the type of phrase. For example, in prepositional phrases, the preposition comes first while in the noun phrase the noun can be surrounded by the modifiers.
3.1.6.1 IDENTIFIED WORD ORDER ERRORS

Since word order refers to the arrangement of words at the phrasal and sentence level, all the identified errors fell in the syntactic category.

The observed errors have been subdivided into phrasal word order errors and sentential word order errors. Within the phrasal level, we present observed errors within the noun phrase, and the adjectival phrase. At the sentence level, the study presents the incorrect placement of the sentence elements observed such as the subject, the object, the adverbial and the verb. The study also presents multiple word order errors at the sentence level.

(I) Phrasal word order errors.
(a). Noun phrase word order errors.
(i). Determiner and (pro)noun order errors.

For example,
121. So my father took a bus and **all** we went on it. (B1)

Instead of, 'we all'

'All' is a predeterminer which has optional 'of-constructions' which are optional with nouns (for example, all (of) the meat) with nouns, but obligatory with personal pronouns (as in, 'all of it). Thus in example (121) the pupil should have included an 'of-construction' and the objective form of pronoun 'we' to read, 'all of us'. Another alternative would have been to interchange
'all' and 'we' so that 'we' comes first, since 'all' can occur after the head (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

122. ...mother is work in the market for cities another. (B8)

Instead of,

...mother was working in the market in another city.

Leech (1989:45) notes that the determiner 'another' precedes a noun or pronoun.

(ii). Noun/adjective Word order errors

123. My uncle weep a car coloured white ... (A2)

Instead of, 'My uncle wiped a white-coloured car.

Although the ordering of adjectives before a noun is not always fixed, there is a preferred ordering according to Leech (1989). The first adjective should be one describing value (such as 'beautiful'), followed by another describing size (such as, 'little'). The third one could express age (as in, 'old'), followed by an adjective expressing colour (say, 'green') and next is a defining adjective such as Indian. The two adjectives 'white' and 'coloured' in example, 123, describe 'colour'. Both were placed after the noun they were describing instead of before it, beginning with the adjective 'white' then coloured. The two adjectives are supposed to be hyphenated thus, 'white-coloured'.
(iii). Determiner / adjective order errors.

For example,

124. He is give to me for new the bible. (B7)

adj det

In this example, the adjective 'new' is meant to premodify the noun, 'bible'. Thus, it is attributive. Where a noun phrase has a determiner, attributive adjectives appear between the determiner and the head of the noun phrase (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973). The correct form would have been;

'He gave to me the new bible.'

det adj

(iv). Incorrect order of nominal modifiers.

For example.

125. At 6 o'clock I hurry the food of evening. (A1)

Instead of, 'the evening food'

126. On the way home we took a car for own mother. (B1)

noun noun

Instead of, 'our mother's car'

(v). Numeral/Noun order errors

For example,

127. At 0:00 a.m begin 2000 years we were very happy... (B2)

Instead of,

At 12:00 a.m began the year 2000. We were very happy...
The correct order is 'year' before '2000'. When a numeral and the year are interchanged, the year attracts a plural marking. At the same time, numerals precede the noun they modify as in, three people, 2000 litres. Example 127 is a specific construction and the candidate seems to be following this general rule.

(b). *Adjective phrase word order errors.*

For example,

128. That I was **happy very much** because then I found one happy. (A4)

   Instead of,

That I was **very much happy** because I found one happy (person).

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) note that adverbs that are intensifiers usually occur immediately before the lexical verb, or before the complement in the case of lexical verb 'be'. In the case above, the lexical verb 'be' is 'was' and the complement is 'happy'. Thus the intensifiers, 'very much' should have been put between these two elements 'was' and 'happy'.

(II) **Sentential word order errors.**

(a). *Verb/Subject word order errors.*

For example,

129. Said **my uncle** prepare those new thing and keep on a big bag. (A2)

   V   S
This construction is acceptable only if the writer is employing stylistic variation for a certain effect. It is highly unlikely that this is what the pupil intended. The correct construction should have been,

My uncle said, “Prepare those new things and keep them in a big bag.”

\[ S \quad V \]

130. We went to matatu go home stop matatu and give money... (B4)

\[ V \quad S \]

Instead of,

We went to the matatu going home. The matatu stopped and we gave...

\[ S \quad V \]

The examples above are declarative sentences in which the verb occurs after the subject.

(b). Object/Verb word order errors

For example,

131. I finish and all food put on the tables... (A1)

\[ O \quad V \]

Instead of,

I finished and put all food on the tables...

\[ V \quad O \]

132. My uncle weep a car coloured white and all things kepted on the car.

(A2) \[ O \quad V \]
Instead of,
My uncle weep a white coloured car and kept all things on the car.

The verbs 'put' and 'keep' are transitive verbs which require a direct object to complete their meaning. These objects should occur after the verbs because the action of the verb is accomplished on them.

(c). *Verb interrupting the noun phrase.*

For example,

133. Some my brother help the cutting meat and patotoes. (B8)

Instead of,

Some of my brothers helped cutting the meat and potatoes.

'The' is a determiner that co-occurs with nouns or words functioning as nouns (gerunds). In the case above, 'the' belongs with 'meat' to form a noun phrase and not with 'cutting'. At the same time the use of, 'gerunds' is a fairly advanced phenomenon for these pupils, considering that their level of English is low.

134. We all had closed school on the same day. (B1)

Instead of,

We had all closed school on the same day.
Leech (1989) outlines the various positions of 'all' in a sentence. He explains that 'all' can often be separated and placed after an auxiliary verb as in the case above. Chalker (1990) adds that 'all' follows an auxiliary or modal verb. Thus the correct position of 'all' in the example above is after the auxiliary 'had' (had all) and not before it (all had)

(d). Incorrect placement of a wh-word.

For example,

135. My mother when he saw my results in the paper... (B1)

S  wh-word

Instead of,

When my mother saw my results...

Wh-word S

The wh-element in the above sentence introduces the subordinate clause. Thus, the wh-word should come before the subject (S).

(e). Adverb (adv) element incorrectly positioned in the sentence.

For example,

136. I was doing well and also my sisters was very happy. (B1)

adv.

Instead of,

I was doing well and my sisters were also very happy.

adv.
137. I have many work at home. The same now when we close… (B1) adv.

Instead of,

I have a lot of work at home. Now, the same happens… adv.

‘Now’ introduces a new stage in the sequence of thought. Thus, it should have occurred in the first position of the following sentence.

(f). Prepositional phrase wrongly placed in the sentence.

For example,

138. I say to father when go to home live in Machakos for christmas. (B7)

Instead of,

I said to father, “When are we going home for christmass?” We live in Machakos.

The prepositional phrase ‘for christmass’ is an adverb of purpose. Therefore, this phrase should occur after the adverb, ‘home’.

139. …go until to bus and stay until stop town in Tala. (B4)

Instead of, ‘in Tala town’.

Prepositional phrases are introduced by a preposition followed by a prepositional complement which is usually a noun phrase.
(g).  *Noun word incorrectly positioned in the sentence*

For example,

140.  On camping day, it was only deaf people but two people were hearing.

Instead of,

Camping day was only for deaf people but two were hearing people.

(h).  *Multiple word order errors.*

141.  I wake in the morning of 25th Dec 1999 and cooking for tea and with bread.

Instead of,

I woke up on the morning of 25th December 1999, and cooked tea. Together

with my family, we ate bread with blueband, and tea. It was nice food...

The total number of observed word order errors within category 1 was 34
which comprised 4.25% of the total grammatical errors observed. Word order
errors within the noun phrase presented the most frequency counts compared

---

...categories as indicated in the table below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Noun phrase word order errors</td>
<td>So my father took a bus and all we went on it. (B1) Instead of, ‘we all’</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Adjectival phrase word order errors</td>
<td>That I was happy very much because I found one happy. Instead of, That I was very much happy because I found one happy (person) (A4)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Verb/subject word order errors</td>
<td>Said my uncle prepare those new thing and keep on a ... (A2) Instead of, My uncle said, “Prepare those new things...”</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Object/verb word order errors</td>
<td>I finish and all food put on the tables... (A1) Instead of, I finished and put all food on ...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Verb interrupting the noun phrase</td>
<td>Some my brother help the cutting meat ... (B8) Instead of, Some of my brothers helped cutting the meat ...</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) Incorrect placement of a wh-word</td>
<td>My mother when he saw my results in the paper... (B1) Instead of, When my mother saw my...</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii) Adverb element incorrectly positioned</td>
<td>stop town in tala out go to hotel: Instead of, We stopped in Tala and went out to a hotel... (B4)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(viii) Prepositional phrase wrongly placed</td>
<td>...told me to prepare for christmas things. (A2)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic category and error type</td>
<td>Example of learner error</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ix) Multiple word order errors</td>
<td>I am with father for talk to from night about to camp for well. (B7)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, I talked to father at night about the camp. It was good.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(x) Noun word incorrectly positioned in the sentence</td>
<td>On camping day, it was only deaf people but two people were hearing... Instead of, Camping day was only for deaf people but two were hearing people...(B2)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.7 ADJECTIVE ERRORS

3.1.7.0 INTRODUCTION

Adjectives are words which describe qualities of people, things and places (Leech, 1989). Adjectives can be used in different positions in a sentence such as before a noun, as in;

The former president.

or after linking verbs like, ‘be, seem, feel’. For example,

I feel thirsty.

When adjectives occur before a noun, they are known as attributive adjectives. When they are used after linking verbs, they are called predicative adjectives.

In this section, the observed adjectival errors are presented. The two major categories of morphological errors and syntactic errors are further subdivided. Morphological errors consist of spelling errors. Within the syntactic errors are the redundant use of adjectives and use of non-adjectival words. A summary of the number of errors concludes this section on adjectival errors.

A. MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS

(a). Wrong spelling.

For example,

142. ... and wore new clothes. and we have tea and bread. We finished and beautyfuls my uncle weep a car... (A2)

Instead of, ‘beautiful’
143. My uncle bought for me a new dress. It was covered with a different paper gifts. (A2)

Instead of, ‘different’

B. SYNTACTIC ERRORS

(a). Redundant use of adjectives.

For example,

144. I like go my friend with the brother to see happy that holiday. (B8)

Instead of,

I liked going with my friend and the brother to that holiday.

145. ... they were looking at house made of wood and somebody were cool down. We were eating... (B2)

Instead of,

... they were looking at a house made of wood and somebody was down. We ate...

The adjectives ‘happy’ and ‘cool’ have been randomly used in the two examples. Thus, they do not add any significant meaning to the sentences.

(b). Non-adjectival words used in place of adjectives.

For example,

146. We are so holiday at home the family they are work to do well. (B8)

Instead of,

We are so happy/busy at home. The family works well.
‘Holiday’ is a noun that is occupying an adjective slot. The adjective is meant to describe the state of being of the antecedent, ‘we’.

147. We stoped in our grand mother’s gate and all grandchildren were laughed to see me... (A2)

Instead of, ‘happy/joyful’

1.62% of the total 802 category 1 errors were adjectival. Within the 2 major categories of morphological and syntactic errors, the syntactic errors were the majority.

**Table 8: Adjective Errors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MORPHOLOGICAL</td>
<td>I like to go for sleep the bore. (B7) Instead of, I wanted to go to sleep because I was bored.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Wrong form of adjective used</td>
<td>My uncle bought for me a new dress. It was covered with a different paper gifts. (A2)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Wrong spelling</td>
<td>I am give to father for new the bible to well (B7) Instead of, I gave father the new bible.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>53.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SYNTACTIC</td>
<td>We are so holiday at home the family they are work to do well. (B8)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Redundant use of adjectives</td>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Non-adjectival words used in place of adjectives</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.8 ADVERB ERRORS

3.1.8.0 INTRODUCTION

Leech (1989) describes adverbs as words which add information to a clause. They also add information to other words in the clause such as verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. When adverbs function as sentence constituents, they express such meanings such as time, place, manner and degree (Aarts and Aarts, 1988). For example,

*We came yesterday.* (time)

Most adverbs are formed from adjectives with the suffix ‘-ly’ (Leech and Svartvick, 1975). For example, ‘frankly, happily, carefully’ from ‘frank, happy and careful’ respectively.

3.1.8.1 IDENTIFIED ADVERB ERRORS

The following categories of morphological errors and syntactic errors form the two major subdivisions of the adverb errors. The morphological errors entail the orthographic errors only. Syntactic errors are further subdivided into redundant adverbs, other grammatical category word used instead of a correct adverb, and omitted adverbs.

A. MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS

(I) Orthographic errors

For example,

148. When I saw the *out side* of gate have no vehicle. (A1)
Instead of, 'outside'

B. SYNTACTIC ERRORS

(I) Redundant adverbs.

For example,

149. They are so stay the children only two but my mother and father have to work... (B8)

Instead of,

There were only two children staying (somewhere). My mother and father have to work...

The verb preceding the adverb 'so' in example (150) is a linking verb that requires a complement such as a noun or an adjective. The presence of the adverb 'so' after the linking verb indicates that the following word should have been an adjective. However, this is not provided in this example. Since 'so' as an intensifier has no significance, it has been used redundantly. As an adverb, it is also incomplete.

150. That I was happy very much because then I found one happy. After that in the morning... (A4)

Instead of,

I was very much happy because I found one happy (someone). After that in the... (A4)
‘Then’ as an adverb bears the meaning ‘at that time’. This cannot be adequately applied in example (151). The sentence makes more sense without it.

(II) **Other grammatical category word used instead of an adverbial.**

For example,

151. My mother told me what did you like to go I said I like for Nairobi... (A2)

Instead of,

My mother asked me, “Where would you like to go?” I said I’d like to go to Nairobi...

‘What’ is an interrogative pronoun which asks about something. For example, ‘What are you looking for?’ (Leech, 1989). ‘Where’ on the other hand functions as an adverbial in some wh-questions to mean ‘(in) what place?’ (Leech, 1989). Thus, the most appropriate word for example in (151) was ‘where’ since the answer given to that question was referring to a particular place.

(III) **Omitted adverbs**

For example,

152. “You are older girl than me” because you know _?_ to cook food.

(A2)

Omitted adverb, “how”
'How' is a manner adverb, which usually complements a verb that requires an obligatory predication (Quirk et al., 1985:443). In example (152) the verb 'know' requires the degree adverb 'how' to link it to the to-infinitive 'to cook'. 'How' complements the verb 'know' to its obligatory predicate 'to cook'.

153. My father was _ there at all saints Cathedral...(B2)

According to the context of the script, the pupil and his colleagues were at All Saints' Cathedral. To add that his father was there required the adverb of addition, such as 'also'.

The total number of adverb errors obtained formed 1.12% and most of them were syntactic. Only one error was classified under the morphological category.
Table 9: Adverb Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MORPHOLOGICAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Orthographic errors</td>
<td>When I saw the <strong>out</strong> side of gate have no vehicle. (A1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SYNTACTIC</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Redundant adverbs</td>
<td>After that in the morning I was <strong>too</strong> number two... (A4) Instead of, After that, <strong>in</strong> the morning, I was number two...</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Other grammatical category word used instead of an adverb.</td>
<td>My mother told me <strong>what</strong> did you like to go I said I like for Nairobi...(A2) Instead of, My mother asked me, “Where would you like to go?” I said I’d like to go to Nairobi.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Omitted adverbs</td>
<td>My mother and father were formed thike <strong>with</strong> my sister and brother. (A2) Instead of, My mother and father were from Thika together <strong>with</strong> my sister and brother.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>9</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2.0. PUNCTUATION AND EXPRESSION ERRORS

The next two subcategories are punctuation and expression errors. These are errors which could not be classified under any of the foregoing 8 subcategories since they are not morphosyntactic in nature. First, we will present the punctuation errors then the expression errors.

3.2.1 PUNCTUATION ERRORS

Punctuation marks separate successive grammatical units (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973). For example, sentences are separated by periods and parts of a sentence can be separated by commas. Some of the main punctuation marks are a full stop (or period) which marks the end of a sentence, and a comma which helps to divide a sentence into smaller units of meaning such as, clauses. The question mark comes at the end of a direct interrogative, and an exclamation mark occurs at the end of a sentence expressing emotional emphasis (Leech 1989:401).

This section comprises the punctuation errors observed in the category 1 data. These errors include omission of punctuation marks, such as the full stop, comma, and quotation marks; incorrect punctuation, and redundant placement of a colon.
(I) Omitted punctuation marks.

(a). Omitted full stop.

For example,

154. My mother was not in nairobi she likely to stay in Murang’a for a full days. (A2)

155. I only go to home live in Nairobi I am with father... (B7)

Crystal (1988) indicates that the full stop, along with an initial capital, separates sentences. The absence of these punctuation marks hinders the identification of the boundaries of a sentence. The indicated positions required full stops since they communicate whole ideas.

(b). Omitted comma

For example,

156. After we went to eat at 10.35 a.m went back in to our three groups... (B2)

157. When I arrived home all member of the family were very happy... (A4)

Some of the items the comma separates are coordinated clauses (especially those with ‘but’), fragment adverbial clauses and phrases (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973). The adverbial clauses above lack commas that separate them from the main clause. ‘When’ introduces an adverbial clause that is subordinate to the main clause, hence, a comma is necessary between the adverbial clause and the main clause especially when the adverbial clause is at the beginning (Leech, 1989:82).
(c). *Omitted quotation marks.*

For example,

158. We answering. Yes father so my father took a bus and all we went on it. (B1)

Instead of,

We answered, "Yes, father." So my father...

Quotation marks are used to enclose direct speech or other quoted material (Leech, 1989). One way of reporting what someone has said is to repeat their actual words (Cobuild, 1990:314). When this occurs, quotation marks are used to enclose the quoted structure. The pupil used actual words without using quotation marks on them.

(II) *Incorrect punctuation.*

(a). *Incorrect placement of the full stop.*

For example,

159. When I saw the out side of gate have no vehicle I went at kwamaiko...(A1)

160. When school close on 12-Dec 1999 My mother come here in school. (B7)

161. We ate food at 7 o'clock And slept at 8 o'clock. (A1)

The full stop has been placed where a comma would have been suitable to separate the subordinate clauses from the main clauses. Other cases involved the full stop breaking the main clause from the subordinate. Subordinate clauses depend on the main clauses to have their meanings complete. In the
above examples, they exist independently, thereby left hanging and incomplete.

(b). *A comma used instead of a fullstop.*

For example,

162. Our school was closed on 12th November, 1999, my father told our the driver that driver come to my school. (B2)

163. ...and hurry bath and cloth nice wear, go to church and pray, pastor gave children gifts...(B4)

In the examples above, the comma has been used to separate main clauses; however, according to Leech (1989), a comma should be used to separate parts of a long sentence. Furthermore, the cited examples are not one long sentence but independent sentences which should have been separated by full stops.

(c). *Quotation marks used incorrectly.*

For example,

164. ...and my aunt began to tell me "You are older girl than me" because you know to cook food. (A2)

The entire speech up to ‘... know to cook food’, should have been in quotation marks since it is part of the spoken word.
(III) **Redundant placement of a colon (:)**

For example,

165. ... until stop town in Tala out go to hotel: with chapati, kuku and soda; finish food. (B4)

The colon makes a more definite separation between a clause and what follows, and implies that what follows is an explanation of what goes before it (Leech, 1989:401). In the above case the colon interferes with the sentence. The sentence can be reconstructed thus,

... until we stopped in Tala town. We went out to a hotel which had chapati, kuku and soda. We finished the food.

A percentage of 12.84% of the total errors identified from category 1 were punctuation errors. Most punctuation marks were omitted. The pupils mostly omitted punctuation marks comprising 65.05% of the total punctuation errors identified.
Table 10: Punctuation Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Omitted punctuation marks</td>
<td>My mother told me What did you like to go (A2)</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>65.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Omitted quotation marks to read, My mother asked me, “Where would you like to go?”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Wrong punctuation</td>
<td>Full stop instead of a comma. <em>So all my holiday, I did not rest because my parent also does’t rest.</em> (B1)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, <em>So during all of my holiday, I did not rest because...</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Redundant placement of a colon (:)</td>
<td>...until stop in town Tala out go to hotel: with chapati, kuku and soda finish food. (B4)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, <em>We stopped in Tala town and went out to a hotel which had chapati, kuku and soda...</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>103</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


3.2.2 EXPRESSION ERRORS

3.2.2.0 INTRODUCTION

The other category of residue errors that emerged in the category I data is what the researcher referred to as expression errors. The term ‘expression errors’ has been used to refer to the inappropriate choice of words. These words were used to express certain meanings in contexts that are not acceptable in Standard English usage. The intended meaning is clear but the construction is different from that expected in Standard English usage. For example, use of ‘... wipe the dishes’ instead of ‘dry the dishes’.

This section therefore encompasses expression errors that were identified in the data. The presentation begins by verb related expression errors followed by noun related expression errors, preposition, adjective and adverb expression errors.

(I) Verb related expression errors

(a). Use of various forms of the verb ‘go’ instead of ‘move’

For example,

166. ... the matatu was going quickly... (A4)

167. ... because of matatu’s goes slowly... (A1)

Instead of the verb, ‘moving’

The verb ‘go’ expresses movement in the above examples. Therefore, ‘Move’ would have been more appropriate.
(b). *Incorrect choice of verb for direct speech, that is, 'told' instead of 'asked'.*

For example,

168. My mother told me what did you like to go I said I like for Nairobi...(A2)

Instead of,

My mother asked me, “Where would you like to go?” I said, “I would like to go to Nairobi...”

The verb ‘tell’ selects the three sentence types of statements, imperatives and exclamation sentences, but not the question. Thus, the verb ‘ask’ befits question sentences.

(c). *Use of lexical verbs in wider contexts than accepted in the standard English.*

For example,

169. ...we went for breakfast and went to dorm and arrange our clothes into suitcase. (B2)

Instead of, ‘packed’

The implication of the verb ‘arrange’ is not synonymous with the intention of the pupil. The pupil meant to use, ‘packed’.

170. ...ate tea and blueband with bread nice food and hurry bath and cloth nice wear, go to church.
Instead of,

... took tea and bread which had blueband. It was nice food. I hurriedly bathed and dressed nicely, and went to church.

In English, ‘tea’ is taken or ‘had’ and not eaten. The two verbs, ‘cloth’ and ‘dressed’ imply similar meanings. However, according to Standard English usage, ‘dressed’ is right in this context.

171. I shaked all people in my homes for the christmas day...the shake me because I am from Nairobi. (A2)

Instead of, ‘greeted’

The normal process of salutation involves shaking hands. This is generally referred to as greeting, and not shaking as suggested above.

(d). *The past continuous verb instead of one lexical verb in the past tense*

For example,

172. One day, they were arrived Ngong’s hill at 12:30 pm, they were looking at house made of wood and somebody were cool down. (B2)

Instead of,

... they saw a house...

173. My mother was get I can work hard of dig the shamba because I can go back to school. (A1)

Instead of,

My mother found out/discovered I could work hard digging the shamba...
(e). Use of a primary auxiliary instead of a modal auxiliary.

As in,

174. My mother told me what did you like to go... (A2)

Instead of,

My mother asked me, “Where would you like to go...”

Usage of the modal ‘would’ incorporates the meaning of willingness, which does not exist in the primary auxiliary ‘did’. The modal ‘would’ is used in polite requests as in (174). The context gives the idea of polite conversation allowing the respondent some choice.

(II) Noun related expression errors

(a). Use of wrong nouns that approximate in meaning to the correct nouns.

For example,

175. I never see the river in Kisumu. It was the first day to go to Kisumu.

(B1)

Instead of,

I had never seen the lake in Kisumu. It was my first time to go to Kisumu.

The pupil’s use of the definite article, ‘the’ before the noun, ‘river’, gives the idea that he/she is referring to a specific lake since there are many rivers in Kisumu. There is only one lake in Kisumu, lake Victoria. The pupil refers to it as a river revealing an insufficient distinction between a river and a lake. It was the pupil’s first exposure to go to Kisumu. The noun ‘time’ gives this meaning. ‘Day’ does not capture a similar meaning.
(b). *Use of descriptive terms instead of a simple noun phrase.*

For example,

176. My uncle bought for me a new dress it was covered with a different paper gifts. (A2)

Instead of, ‘...gift wrappers’

177. ...I work up and start to cook the tea. I finish the work of home...(A1)

Instead of, ‘...the house chores’ or ‘...home work’

These examples illustrate that the pupil lacked ample vocabulary for the nouns being described.

(c). *Wrong choice of pronoun.*

As in, At 4 o’clock I start to go back at school and I give us the greeting. (A1)

Instead of, ‘them’

The context implies that since the pupil was going back to school he/she bade his family (them) goodbye. The usage of ‘us’ is therefore unclear and incorrect.

(d). *Use of the wrong form of a noun.*

For example,

178. ...he saw me trying to cook a hen...(A2)

Instead of, ‘chicken’

According to Standard English usage, ‘hen’ is the female of the domestic fowl. Chicken can refer to domestic fowl in general and also to the meat from such
birds. Hen is more specific referring to the female of fowl. The pupil does not distinguish the two.

(III) Preposition related expression errors.

(a). Incorrect usage of 'for'

For example,

179. My mother told me what did you like to go I said I like for Nairobi... (A2)

To mean, 'to go to'.

180. My brother watch for mother wait and look go run help for bag and share for cake. (B4)

To mean, '...run help carry the bag and share the cake.

181. We are have someone for buyer to supermarket in ngong'.

To probably mean, We had someone who went to buy (something(s)) in a supermarket in Ngong.

182. So work is cooking for eat, rice, meat, chapati, soup... (B8)

To probably mean, 'to be eaten...'

(b). Incorrect usage of, 'with'.

For example,

183. ...stop town in Tala out go to hotel with chapati, kuku... (B4)

To mean, '...selling/which had chapati'

184. ...together ate tea and blueband with bread nice food... (B4)
To imply

...together took/had tea with bread which had blueband. It was nice food...

185. My family with food for tea and bread. (B4)

To suggest, ‘...had/ate food’

186. ...he saw me trying to cook a hen with chapatis...(A2)

To mean,

‘...to cook chicken and chapatis...’

187. My grandmother’s house were with stones...(A2)

To mean, ‘...was made of stones...’

(c). Incorrect usage of ‘to’

For example,

188. My uncle loved my grandmother and my father to mother very much.(A2)

To mean, ‘loved my’. To’ in the example, gives the general meaning of movement or direction towards or actually reaching (Chalker, 1990). Thus, the verb ‘loved’ has not been used in place of ‘to’ since the preposition gives the direction of the understood verb ‘loved’. That is, the ‘love’ is passed from the father ‘to’ the mother.

The above sentence could also be reconstructed as,

My uncle loved my grandmother and grandfather very much.

This shows that rather than use one word, ‘grandfather’, the pupil described the relationship.
189. I am with father for talk to from night about to camp... (B7)
Instead of, ‘...about the camp...’

The pupil was referring to a specific camp he attended and was recounting the camping experience. For that reason, the definite article, ‘the’ was more appropriate. The preposition ‘to’ on the other hand implied that the pupil was passing on information on how to camp.

(IV) **Adjective related expression errors.**

*Use of phrases instead of one word adjective.*

For example,

190. My grandmother’s house were with stones I see it is full coloured and ballons.

Instead of, ‘...I saw it was colourful with balloons’ or ‘...fully coloured with balloons’.

191. ...my brother have for friend another speak many only time.

Instead of,

...my brother has another friend who is talkative.

The terms ‘colourful, fully coloured’ and ‘talkative’ sums up the unnecessarily lengthy descriptive terms.

(V) **Adverb related expression errors.**

For example,

192. I heard some noisy at home. I run away to saw how the noise I was outside the gate... (A1)
Instead of.
I heard some noise at home. I ran outside to see how the noise ___ I was outside the gate...

Chalker (1990) gives the general meaning of ‘away’ as being, ‘from here (or there) to another place’. In the above case, the pupil ran towards the direction of the noise which was ‘outside’. The noise had attracted the pupil. Thus, ‘away’ is not an appropriate adverb since it also means ‘going out of reach of danger’ which is not the intended meaning above.

193. I am go to home and very tired for walk anytime and rest sleep. (B4)

Instead of,
I went home and was very tired of walking all the time. I rested and slept.

‘Anytime’ means ‘at whatever time’. From the context of the narration, the pupil could only talk of having walked ‘every time’ or ‘all the time’ but not ‘anytime’.

A total count of 43 expression errors which formed 5.36% of the total errors in category 1 data were identified. Prepositions related expression errors led in this category followed by verb expression errors as displayed in the following table below.
### Table 11: Expression Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic category and error type</th>
<th>Example of learner error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Verb expression errors</td>
<td>...we went for breakfast and went to dorm and <em>arrange</em> our clothes into suitcase. (B2)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, 'packed'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Noun expression errors</td>
<td>...he saw me trying to cook a <em>hen</em> ... (A2)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, 'chicken'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Preposition expression errors</td>
<td>...he saw me trying to cook a <em>hen with chapatis</em>... (A2)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, 'and'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Adjective expression errors</td>
<td>...my brother have for friend another <em>speak many only time</em>.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instead of, ...my brother has another friend who is talkative.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Adverb expression errors</td>
<td>I heard some noisy at home. I run away to saw how the noise. I was outside the gate... (A1)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 12 above, it can be concluded that verb phrase related errors led significantly in the total number of errors identified in this category. The same findings were observed by Maina (1991) and Njoroge (1996).

3.3. A SUMMATIVE ANALYSIS OF CATEGORY 2 AND 3 DATA.

3.3.0 INTRODUCTION

This study classified all the scripts into 3 major categories according to the level of grammatical English adopted in the scripts. Out of a total of 38 scripts collected from 4 different schools for the deaf, only 8 could be analysed using the Error Analysis theory. The theory requires that errors be isolated from the scripts and thereupon reconstructed according to Standard English. This was only barely possible with the 8 scripts discussed in the foregoing sections.
remaining 30 fell under the other 2 categories to be discussed in this section. These categories were:

**Category 2:** Scripts with a few well-formed English phrases, in which case, some meaning could be reconstructed from a few portions of the scripts. (26 scripts).

**Category 3:** Scripts with English words and non-English words, which recur, and are put in no discernible order (4 scripts).

I. **CATEGORY 2 SCRIPTS**

The scripts, in this category are, A3, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, B3, B5, B6, B9, B10, B11, B12, B13, C1, C2, C4, C5, C6, C8, D2, D4, D5, a total of 26 scripts. Below we discuss the most dominant characteristics of the language in the scripts, which impaired the use of Error Analysis theory in analysing them.

The pupils used nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions and wh-words. A greater number of the words used were nouns, common nouns in the main. These consisted of nouns like, people, window, bus. Verbs followed nouns in popularity. Nearly all verbs were in their bare form, as shown by the underlined cases below.

194. **Hallo good morning to teacher** find very good where all things also people who alone friends two **remember.** (A10 Line 19-22)
195. Sister to how many pray church walk life people seen to Bless communicate how known to pray always life give only work planting seed rain hope (D5 Line 18-21)

These scripts had concord errors. As mentioned before, concord refers to the agreement between words in aspects such as gender, number and person. Some examples are cited below.

196. ...problem yes kambui have good bord road. (A9 Line 22)

'Kambui' is a proper noun since it refers to a specific place. Being singular, it required a verb in the singular form, hence, 'has' and not 'have'. Here there is no number agreement between the subject and the verb.

197. we are four sister. we are Two brother. (B6 Line 16-17)

'Four' and 'two' are plural numerals that modify plural nouns. In the example above the two numerals precede singular nouns. Again, there is lack of number agreement within the noun phrase.

198. I have a big family of ten member. (D2 Line 2)

The pupil omitted the plural marker 's' on the noun, 'member'. The noun phrase 'ten member' is therefore erroneous.

Another characteristic identified in the data is the frequent use of wrong tenses. Script B9 L1-3 reads;
199. We are close school on 12th Nov 1999 wait for my parent brother come
to go pick me I am go to eat enough.

The date mentioned in the above extract indicates past tense. Therefore the
verbs should have reflected this tense and not present tense. Some of these
verbs were even redundant. This portion could have read;
‘We closed school on 12th November 1999. I waited for my parents and
brother. They came and picked me. We went to eat.

There was also the use of redundant words in these compositions. For
example,

200. Then again kenya bus start go to place across to Jericho to stop bus.
come and in home for rest. I can Tomorrow start I will work day for
work my child go to bath finish. (B13 Line 14-18)

The words in this extract do not build one meaning. They seem to occur
independently of each other thereby rendering many of them redundant.

Spelling errors were also evident in the data such as ‘brithday’ (birthday),
‘parnet’ (parent) as in A5, ‘tuseday’ (Tuesday), ‘promblem’ (problem) as in
A9, ‘hoilday’ (holiday) in B6. Some non-English words were also identified.
For example, ‘cropy’ (A5), ‘sherphen’, ‘gafe’ (B12). However, these formed
the minority.

These scripts were also characterised by omissions of pronouns (I, we, he,
they), auxiliary verbs such as, ‘have, are, is’. The remaining words were
mainly content words like, lexical verbs (pray, hear, begin), proper nouns (God), common nouns (food, problem,) which carry the subject matter the pupil intended to convey.

Other attributes of category 2 scripts, which incapacitated the use of the Error Analysis theory included uncoordinated and occasionally incomplete constructions. Many structures tended to occur in entire isolation to one another rendering plausible reconstruction impracticable. Omitted portions of incomplete sentences were also unobtainable. For example,

201. Last holiday next weekend to visitor holiday How do you holiday. my family when? school have not problem or board in class to meet parnet. I talk may next weekend. I happy brithday to visitor Here to told to may there yourself family to diet or brith day. (A5 Line 1-7)

202. I will where school to God give prayer to prepare money. I am go to please when school where prayer to way protection. (B6 Line 25 - 27)

203. But some pupils to wrote in English very Foolish me same. Why teacher to teach everyday: deaf yes Remember tomorrow in the morning to forget why teacher very angry: (A5)

Recovering the intended meaning of the structures above was impossible since the sentences failed to make sense. The analysis of this study focussed on morphosyntactic errors. This was only possible if the structural patterns of the words, phrases and sentences were identifiable.

These candidates did not recognise proper punctuation rules such as the full stop which separates sentences, and the comma which among other functions
identifies subordinate clauses. This made it difficult to make out complete sentences for reconstruction where sentence meanings were obscure. For these scripts, one could to a limited extent capture the meaning intended by the pupil but it was not possible to reconstruct the structures, which was the interest of our study.

Within this category, there were also few morphological verb inflections observed. These included, the present continuous ‘-ing’ suffix, as seen below:

204. visitor story telling so that not be the manne manner the saw are ...
     (A6 Line 6-7)

205. I like speaking a family father and mother the family want you like near ...
     (B11 Line 9 - 10)

The past tense ‘-ed’ marker was further noted in the data. For instance,

206. and cast their prays to reached have cooked very work carry for she good cooking...
     (C5 Line 19 – 20)

207. come visitor family but holiday told know please something only different...
     (A3 Line 3 – 5)

Some portions of category 2 scripts contained noticeable English words with haphazard word order that makes meaning difficult to capture.

208. It was many to people so with today in because to holiday me people how you have belive all people come visitor family but holiday told
know please something only different do you have last sorry me please know as with accident...(A3 Line 1 - 6)

209. Month December 25\textsuperscript{th}, 12-1999. What is eat like you wheat, meat, orange juice biscuit, sweet And Sheep and Chiken Cutting for Cooking of people for partya family. the christmas Merry A happy. finish have angins I Will near the year Happy is talk you wait I look night from...(B11 Line 11 - 15)

II. CATEGORY 3

Scripts that came under this category were those with a few English words some of which recurred and non English words. The 4 scripts which were classified in this category included, C3, C7, D1, D3. The majority of the English words used were nouns followed by verbs. Most nouns were common nouns such as, chapati, church, water. The verbs used were largely in their simple present tense. The past tense and the present continuous tense hardly ever occurred. The subsequent portions are samples taken from some of the category 3 scripts.

210. Ithink up dieno be very Hallo hungru must uant eat is firend was lant see it very legs juse removed morining bay do...(C3 Line 12 - 14)

211. my nan are is boog mary wambui mary is nan is gooks are ware a are is my nan are gooks is are Jeman Waaba is are eggs cat kee. is are skeek
In summary, the research population consisted of scripts categorised into three groups based on whether they could be analysed using the Error Analysis theory. The table below summarises the distribution of scripts in their various categories.

**Table 13: Distribution of scripts per school across the 3 grammatical categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School/Total</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysable</td>
<td>Unanalysable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A = 12 scripts</td>
<td>3 Scripts</td>
<td>9 Scripts</td>
<td>0 Scripts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B = 13 scripts</td>
<td>5 Scripts</td>
<td>8 Scripts</td>
<td>0 Scripts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C = 8 scripts</td>
<td>0 Scripts</td>
<td>6 Scripts</td>
<td>2 Scripts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D = 5 scripts</td>
<td>0 Scripts</td>
<td>3 Scripts</td>
<td>2 Scripts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total =38</strong></td>
<td><strong>8 Scripts</strong></td>
<td><strong>26 Scripts</strong></td>
<td><strong>4 Scripts</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS AND PEDAGOGICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In this study, errors are categorised into the two broad subdivisions of morphological and syntactic errors in their respective grammatical categories of verbs, nouns, prepositions, clause link, concord, word order, adjectives, adverbs, punctuation and expression categories.

This chapter discusses the characteristics of the errors observed in category 1 to 3 data and relates these characteristics to the causes of error as outlined in Richard (1974). We first examine the nature of the morphological errors (219 errors) followed by syntactic errors (437) errors and residue errors (146). Following this, the attributes of the other unanalysable categories (2 and 3) are examined. The prominence of the discussion of these three categories lies in the predominant characteristics inherent in each of them. Possible causes of the errors also form the discussion. Finally, a summary of the general characteristics in each category is presented at the end of this discussion.

4.1.0 DISCUSSION ON CATEGORY 1 DATA

The category 1 scripts, those which were analysable through the use of Error Analysis approach, were a total of 8 scripts, forming 21.05% of the entire 38
scripts collected from the 4 schools. As said earlier, these were the scripts with recognisable English structures and vocabulary. A total of 802 errors were observed in this category, and have been discussed in the sections below.

4.1.1 MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS

As alluded to before, these are errors associated with morphemes (the smallest meaningful unit in a language) and the way they combine in word formation (Richards et al, 1985). A total of 219 morphological errors falling into four grammatical categories, namely: verb phrase related errors (197), noun phrase errors (17), adverb errors (1 error) and adjectival errors (4 errors), were observed in the category 1 data.

Verb phrase morphological errors had the highest frequency (89.95%) of the morphological errors. Quigley and Paul (1984:150) discuss a study where most of the difficulties the subjects faced occurred in the use of verb inflections. The errors observed by Quigley and Paul (1984) involved mainly omission of inflections. In our study, the HI standard 8 pupils encountered greatest difficulty in the use of the simple past tense for both regular (32.63%) and irregular verbs (45.78%). Instead of marking the simple past tense on the verb, the pupils tended to omit this tense altogether. Consequently, the verbs were used in their base form or in their simple present tense form resulting in erroneous structures.
Past time in some of the scripts was marked lexically by adverbs of time such as, ‘12th December 1999’ and ‘one day’ in the examples below.

212. When school close 12-Dec 1999 My Mother come here in school. (B7)
213. One day, I wake in the morning and cook for tea. (B4)

Instead of,

When school closed on 12th December, 1999, my mother came to school.

One day, I woke up in the morning and cooked tea.

The learner may have considered adverbs of time adequate to mark past time instead of marking the verb morphologically.

This observation agrees with what Bamford and Saunders (1985) quote from a study done on deaf subjects in which past form was used for present and vice versa, and that within this confusion, the verbs were used as generally unchanging units, significant markers occurring externally to the system.

In the cases cited above, tense was not marked by an internal verb change but by an external marker of reference to past dates and/or adverbs of time. Such errors can be attributed to the strategy Richard (1974) refers to as, overgeneralisation. The learner overgeneralised the use of adverbs of time. Richards (1974:175) states that overgeneralisation is associated with redundancy reduction. It may occur, for instance, with items which are contrasted in the grammar of the language but which do not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learner. The ‘-ed’ marker, in narrative or in other past contexts, often appears to carry no meaning since pastness is usually
indicated lexically in stories. Thus the learner cuts down the tasks involved in sentence production. Similarly, the past tense marker has no significant and obvious contrast for the learner. So as to reduce the task involved in sentence production (that is, by marking past tense) the learner omitted this tense on the basis of reference of time in the mentioned dates and adverbs.

While this could be linked to overgeneralisation, it could also be explained the strategy of transfer of the learners’ first language, KSL, in this case. Akach (1991:88) explains that past tense is marked in KSL at the beginning of the sentence by a flat hand configuration moving from the front of the head towards the back. The rest of the signs in the sentence are in their present form. No wonder they used adverbs of time only and did not mark past tense on the verb as well, thereby using the verbs in their present tense form.

Another morphological verb related error that was outstanding in the data was in the use of the auxiliary ‘be’. This was principally noted in the redundant use of this verb and its forms, in places where only one verb in the simple past tense was sufficient. For example,

214. One day, they were arrive Ngong’s hill at 12.30 pm… (B2)

Instead of,

One day, they arrived at Ngong hills…

This type of error could be attributed to ignorance of rule restrictions where the English grammar allows the auxiliary to carry tense only if the main verb is carrying aspect. The redundancy of the verb, ‘were’ implies that the pupil
does not know the rules of when and how to use the auxiliary ‘be’. The language does not allow one word verb phrase to be inflected for both tense and aspect. Since the verb is not inflected in the sentence above, the auxiliary verb should not have been used. The learners however, seemed to prefer marking tense by use of auxiliaries rather than inflecting the verb.

The frequency of morphological noun phrase errors was 7.76%. Many errors were noted in the use of the possessive marker. Thus, the pupils were aware of the possessive marker but did not know how to apply it. In the example,

215. …and all people at in the matatu’s came out… (A1)

The main purpose of the possessive marker is to express possession (Crystal, 1988). Its use in the example above is redundant. This implies that although the pupil recognises that the possessive marker is a feature in nouns, he/she has extended the use of the ‘-s’ genitive in inapplicable contexts. Hence, the concept of ignorance of rule restrictions could explain this error. Below is a table showing the frequency of morphological errors in descending order.
Table 14: Frequency of morphological errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>89.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>219</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.2 SYNTACTIC ERRORS

As already indicated syntactic errors are those errors relating to the arrangement of words in a phrase, clause and/or sentence. These were 437 forming 54.49% of the total 802 errors. These were observed in the grammatical categories of nouns, prepositions, verbs, clause link, concord, word order, adjectives and adverbs. We discuss the observed syntactic errors under the broad categories of, omission errors (33.63%), redundant use of words (22.66%), wrong choice of words (16.25%), incomplete phrases (7.32%), multiple use of words (1.83%), agreement errors (8.47%), word order errors (7.78%) and grammatical category choice errors (2.06%). The causes are explained by the strategies as discussed by Richard (1974).
4.1.2.1 OMISSION ERRORS

These were errors where pupils left out certain words, which were necessary to express the intended meaning grammatically. Pupils mostly made omission errors (33.63%). The highest omission frequency was recorded in the noun phrase category (51.70%), followed by verbs (19.73%), then prepositions (14.29%), clause link category (11.56%), and adverbs (2.72%).

Within the noun phrase category, pupils tended to omit determiners (24.55%) and pronouns (19.76%). The pupils mostly omitted the definite determiner ‘the’ and the indefinite determiner ‘a, an’. Quigley and Paul (1984:155), quote a study where deaf students were much more likely to accept incorrect sentences where function words such as, determiners, prepositions, and verb particles had been omitted than sentences where nouns, verbs, and adjectives (content words) had been incorrectly omitted. This seems to be linked to the nature of sign language. For example, KSL emphasises content words rather than function words. Thus determiner omissions could be explained as a phenomenon of first language influence, in this case sign language.

Of the omitted pronouns, 72.72% omissions were first person subject pronouns (that is, ‘we’ and ‘I’). For example,

I say to my father when go to home (B7)

Instead of,

I asked my father, “When are we going home?”
This error could be attributed to the strategy of overgeneralisation. The learner must have considered that the context reveals the persons concerned. Hence, there was no need of using pronouns in anaphoric reference. Thus, with the omission of pronouns, overgeneralisation removes the necessity for coherence, thereby relieving the learner of considerable effort.

This error could also be explained by the strategy of simplification. Ellis (1985:171) states that learners seek to ease the burden of learning in various ways such as simplification. Simplification consists of attempts by the learner to control the range of hypotheses he/she attempts to build at any single stage in his/her development by restricting hypothesis formation to those hypotheses which are relatively easy to form and will facilitate communication. Overgeneralisation is a manifestation of simplification where a learner relies on prior knowledge to facilitate new learning. For example, Richards (1974) gives the example of using, 'going to' form in French to express future meaning, simply because it is easier to learn. In our example above, the learner by mentioning the persons anaphorically, simplifies the necessity for pronominal marking.

Errors related to transitivity accounted for 4.26% errors under the verb phrase category of errors. Most of these errors had to do with monotransitive verbs, in which the pupils omitted the object of the verb, thereby treating the verb intransitively. A total of 8 such errors were identified in the data. Verbs such
as ‘open, keep’ required an object for completion of their meaning. However, the omitted object could be understood from the context. For example,

216. My parent came in school and pick _______ go home. (B4)
From the context it can be understood that the omitted object is the person ‘me’.

217. My uncle bought for me a new dress It was covered with a different paper gifts. I thought it is a book. I open _______ and saw that … (A2)
The omitted object has been mentioned in the previous sentences, that is, ‘the gift’. Hence the pupil perhaps thought it unnecessary to repeat it after the verb, ‘open’. By overgeneralisation the previous mention of the objects, the pupil considered the sentence complete.

Omission of objects could also originate from the KSL structure. Akach (1991) provides the following example for a conditional sentence expressed in KSL.

IF BOOK STOLEN, HE MUST BUY NEW
To mean, ‘If the book is stolen, he must buy a new one’.
In the above sentence, the verb ‘buy’ is ditransitive meaning that it requires at least one object to complete its meaning. However, this is not necessary in KSL since it had already been mentioned before and consequently the object is understood within the context.

Within the clause link category, the pupils mostly omitted ‘and’ as a clause coordinator. These linkers are function words that when eliminated, the
meaning of the sentence can still be maintained although lacking in coordination. Richards (1985) explains that function words are words which have little meaning on their own, but which show grammatical relationships in and between sentences.

Omission errors were also observed in the clause link category where main clauses were omitted resulting in subordinate clauses occurring independently. When one clause is made a constituent of another clause this is described as subordination. Subordinate clauses are often introduced by a subordinating conjunction (Quirk et al., 1985). Subordinate clauses are usually not capable of standing alone as the main clause of a sentence (Leech and Svartvick, 1975). The subordinate clauses introduced by ‘when/that’ below lack main clauses to complete their meaning.

When I boarded the matatu at Kwamaiko, that the matatu was going quickly. When I was happy for spent day that our school was closed that the other deaf children went home and the others were stay in school at two week. (A4)

This error could be attributed to incomplete application of rules. The rule governing the formation of complex sentences states that the subordinate clause(s) is subject to a main clause. To the learner, however, there seemed to be no distinction between subordinate clauses and main clauses. The pupil finds he/she can achieve effective communication by using simple rules, thereby avoiding the complex ones. Consequently, the rules are half learned.
The verb phrase category recorded 19.72% omission errors. Out of this figure, 55.56% were related to the use of primary auxiliary verbs, 33.33% were related to the use of lexical verbs and 11.11% were related to the use of modal auxiliaries. Quigley and Paul (1984) quote a study done by Taylor (1969) in which verbs (particularly copulars) were one of the major omissions in the writing of her hearing impaired sample population. In this study, the copular verb ‘be’ was the most omitted comprising 48.15% of the total omitted verbs. This omission could be explained by KSL influence since the copular is also a function word which the HI omit. The copular, ‘be’ carries the tense of the sentence. However, tense is marked externally in KSL, with the other remaining sentence elements such as the verb being in the present tense. Through such a process, the learner perceives that he/she can effectively communicate without the copular. Thus, the tense of the sentence can be marked by adverbs of time or contextually only and not together with the copular, ‘be’. The example below illustrates this further.

218. many people ____ very happy, jumped and drank. (B2)

Instead of,

Many people were very happy. They jumped and drank...

The verbs, ‘jumped, drank’ have been inflected for past tense but the foregoing sentence needed to bear the same tense too.

Bamford and Saunders (1985) discuss a study pinpointing that deaf children have particular difficulty with the verbs ‘be’ and ‘have’. Most verbs have obvious reference and their meanings can be demonstrated fairly easily. ‘Be’
and 'have' either indicate attributes or possession, or they act as carriers of grammatical features such as tense and aspect. In either case, they are conceptually more difficult to handle by use of sign language than other more concrete verbs.

The other grammatical category with omitted words was prepositions comprising 14.29% of the total omission errors. The prepositions omitted included, 'to, for, during, at, of, by, about, after, in, as'. The most omitted preposition was 'for' 20%. The rest followed closely, with percentages ranging from 15% to 5%. According to a study done by Taylor (1969) quoted in Quigley and Paul (1984), preposition omission was one of the major errors among deaf children in her study. In our study, omission was possibly due to KSL influence since the intended message is conveyed regardless of the omitted preposition. In presenting some positive declarative sentences, Akach (1991) presents the following constructions.

ANNE SCHOOL GO FINISH (meaning, Anne had gone to school)
VISITORS TEN MINUTES GO (meaning, The visitors are leaving in ten minutes)

From the above examples, it is clear that KSL communication is effective even with the absence of prepositions such as, 'to, in' as in the KSL sentences above. This could explain why the HI tend to omit the prepositions.

The least number of omissions were adverbs 2.72%. Marschark (1997) observes that studies and surveys have documented that deaf children use
fewer adverbs. This may explain why the frequency of omitted adverbs was low. These omissions could be attributed to simplification. Simplification involves how second language learners seek to ease the burden of learning the second language by omitting grammatical elements in their second language production (Ellis, 1985). Probably, the learner may have considered that the message is conveyed even with the absence of adverbs and adjectives.

4.1.2.2 REDUNDANT ERRORS

A total of 99 redundant errors were observed in the data, forming 22.66% of the total syntactic errors identified. These are errors of unnecessary use of words where none was needed. The percentages of the various redundancies recorded in the data were as follows: prepositions 38.38%, nouns 30.30%, clause link 11.11%, verbs 10.10%, adjectives 7.07% and adverbs 3.03%. Taylor (1969) in Quigley and Paul (1984), found that the major type of redundancy in her data occurred with prepositions. Our study reveals the same. Prepositions were used in contexts where they were not needed. Njoroge (1996) concurs with Richards (1974) that overgeneralisation seems to be the major factor in the misuse of prepositions. The learner, encountering a particular preposition with one type of verb attempts by analogy to use the same preposition with other verbs. For example, structures using the preposition 'for' such as, 'work for Jane', 'go for a walk' could explain the errors in the following examples;
Pronouns, which were grouped within the noun phrase category, were the most redundantly used, accounting for 7.27% of the redundant noun phrases. These included personal pronouns (such as, ‘I, them, me’), indefinite pronouns (such as, ‘other, all, another’) and non-assertive pronouns (such as, ‘some, someone, anything’). Their usage displayed the pupils’ inability to appropriately use pronouns. For example,

223. So my mother buy me a good dress and shoes also me. (B1)

Instead of,
So my mother bought me a good dress and a pair of shoes also.

224. ...at time 7.30 to help mother in cooking eat ugali, meat, tomatoes, cabbage anything ...(B8)

Instead of,
...at 7.30 I helped mother in cooking. We ate ugali, meat, tomatoes and cabbage.
In example 224, ‘anything’ is non-assertive meaning that it is not specific, yet the pupil specified the ‘list of foods they ate’. These errors result from ignorance of rule restrictions. The pupils seem to be unaware of the restrictions governing the use of pronouns. Richard (1979) explains that this is failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. In this concept rules are extended to contexts where in the TL usage they do not apply. Richards (1974) provides the following examples:

*I am very lazy to stay at home.

*I am too tired that I cannot work.

The examples above indicate a confusion in the use of ‘too’. Richards (1975:175) indicates that this example violates the limitation on structures with ‘too...to’ and uses ‘very’ with ‘to’ and/or ‘too’ with ‘that’. These are again a type of generalisation of transfer of rules to inappropriate contexts, since the learner is making use of a previously acquired rule in a new situation. Some rule restriction errors may be accounted for in terms of analogy; other instances may result from the rote learning rules.

Redundant determiners accounted for 5.99% among the noun phrase errors. These redundant determiners were the definite article ‘the’, and the indefinite article ‘a’. The definite article is used to mark the phrase it introduces as definite, that is, as referring to something which can be identified uniquely in the contextual or general knowledge shared by speaker and hearer (Quirk 1985:265-266). However, in examples such as the one below, the function of the definite article, does not fit this explanation.
I work up and start to cook the tea... (AI)

Instead of,
I woke up and started making tea.

With the use of the definite article, 'the,' the implied meaning is that 'tea' had already been identified previously in the context but this was not the case. The pupil thus does not know the apparent restrictions in the use of the definite article.

The indefinite article is used with singular count nouns, where the conditions for the use of 'the' do not obtain (Quirk et al., 1985:272). 'A/an' is typically used when the referent has not been mentioned before, and is assumed to be unfamiliar to the speaker/hearer. The example below shows a violation of this rule.

I was happy because we are going for a christmas day.

Instead of,
I was happy because we were going for Christmas.

'Christmas' is a proper noun. Proper nouns are not used with articles. This declares the usage of the indefinite article above redundant. These examples also verify that the pupils applied rules governing the usage of the articles in contexts where they are inapplicable. This displays ignorance of rule restrictions.

11.11% of the redundant errors originated from the clause link category. Among these were redundant clause subordinators and coordinators, and
redundant subordinate clauses. Redundant clause subordinators were problematic and were used arbitrarily. These included subordinators, such as, 'so, when, that'. Particularly with the subordinator, 'that', one script, A4 had the most redundant errors with this subordinator. The following passage has been taken from that script.

When I boarded the matatu at Kwamaiko that the matatu was going quickly when I was happy for spent day that our school was closed that the other deaf children went home and the others were stay in school at two week.

Subordination is generally marked by a signal in the subordinate clause (Quirk et al, 1985:997). The signal may be of various kinds such as a clause initiated by a subordinating conjunction like, 'that, such that, though'. In subordination, one clause is included in the other. The subordinate clause relies on the main clause for expression of complete thought (Leech and Svartvik, 1989). In the extract above, the subordinator 'that' does not serve such a function. This displays what Richards (1974) calls ignorance in the restriction of subordinate clause rules where subordinate clauses do not occur on their own but need a main clause to complete their meaning. The construction following the subordinators above are not dependent.

Redundant subordinate clauses further showed the pupils' ignorance of the subordination rule. For example,

227. One day, they were arrive Ngong's hill at 12.30 p.m, when they were looking at house made of wood and somebody were cool down. (B2)

The underlined clause does not conform to the subordination rule that the subordinate clause relies on the main clause for expression of complete
thought. In the case above, the main clause (not underlined) has no relation whatsoever with the subordinate clause in terms of thought. Thus, the so-called subordinate clause is redundant.

Regarding redundant coordinators, the pupils joined two unequal units with ‘and’. Quirk et al (1985) highlights that the only restriction on the use of ‘and’ is that the clauses (or words) should have sufficient characteristics in common to justify their combination. The sentence below violates this rule,

228. I have little children for parent and wait, My parent came in school...

(B4)

‘And’ in example 241 joins a construction to one verb, ‘wait’. This is explained by the strategy of ignorance of the restrictions governing the use of coordinators.

Redundant verbs formed 10.10% in total. Out of these redundant verbs, most were auxiliary verbs. As pointed out earlier, Bamford and Saunders (1985) highlighted that deaf children had particular difficulty with the verb ‘be’ since they are conceptually more difficult to handle than other more concrete verbs. This can explain the random use of the auxiliary ‘be’ in these scripts. Examples such as the ones quoted below, show that these pupils were not aware of the limitations that control the use of the auxiliary ‘be’.

229. I am say to father ... (B7) Instead of, ‘I said to father...’
As explained before, the auxiliary 'be' carries tense when the main verb is inflected for aspect, because the English language does not allow a verb word to be inflected for both tense and aspect. The verbs 'say' and 'arrive' are not inflected at all, and therefore past tense should have been marked on them. A primary auxiliary is needed only when the main verb carries other inflections.

The occurrences of adverbs and adjectives in our sample was minimal comprising only 7.07% and 3.03% respectively. Those which were erroneously used were even fewer. This confirms that the HI use fewer adverbs and adjectives compared to the other grammatical category words.

4.1.2.3 ERRORS OF DOUBLE USE OF WORDS

Another type of redundant error was the double use of a grammatical category (word). These types of errors formed only 1.83% of the total syntactic errors. For example,

231. The family they are work to do well... (B8)
232. My we live in Kangundo (B4)
233. We go to in bus (B7)
234. ...and all people at in the matatus came out. (A1)

Apposition is primarily, and typically, a relation between noun phrases (Quirk et al, 1985). For linguistic units to be appositives, they must normally be identical in reference (Quirk et al, 1985:1300-1301). Examples 233 and 23
4 are prepositions in apposition, yet apposition is a linguistic operation for noun phrases only. In example 232 pronouns are appositives yet the 2 pronouns 'my' and 'we' have differences in number. 'My' is singular and 'we' is plural and additionally 'we' is a personal pronoun while 'my' is a possessive pronoun. Similarly, pronouns can never be appositives in themselves since each pronoun has unique features each differing from the other in person, gender, number, and/or case. Moreover, there are different subclasses of pronouns such as central pronouns, reflexive pronouns. Pronouns can therefore never be appositives for one another. In example 231 the appositives are a noun phrase 'the family' and a pronoun 'they'. A pronoun is a surrogate for a whole noun phrase (Quirk et al, 1985:76) and can therefore never be an appositive to a noun phrase. In case 231 above therefore, 'they' can only be a substitute for 'my family' and not its appositive.

This error can be explained by the strategy of ignorance of rule restrictions on appositions. Apposition for these scripts was not restricted to noun phrases but was in use with pronouns and prepositions as well. Even with noun phrases, the appositives were used incorrectly.

4.1.2.4 CONCORDIAL (AGREEMENT) ERRORS

The agreement errors observed in our data formed 8.47% of the total syntactic errors. 72.97% of these related to agreement errors within the noun phrase, involving cases of singular nouns used with plural determiners and agreement errors relating to plural nouns used with determiners.
Concerning singular nouns used with plural determiners, a study in Bamford and Saunders (1985:156) made the observation that in the HI written language, plurality was denoted by an external marker rather than by morphological modification of the given word. The same trend was observed in our data where plurality was understood in the context but not marked on the required noun, as in:

235. ...and the others were stay in school at two week. (A4)

In the unreconstructed portion above, the use of 'two' shows plurality. This according to Bamford and Saunders (1985), may have satisfied the need for plural marking in the noun that followed. Thus the pupil finds no need of marking plural on these nouns.

This error exemplified overgeneralisation of the numeral, 'two'. By not marking the 's plural morpheme on the required nouns (that is, 'week'), indicated that the learner was relieved of the necessity for number concord since it had already been captured in the numeral, 'two'. The pupil overgeneralised the use of the numeral thereby influencing plural marking on the nouns, or simplified the structure by reducing on the number of plurality markers.

Number agreement was also observed where a determiner requiring a singular noun was used with a plural noun. For example,

236. ...another things... (A2)

237. ...one matatus. (A1)

238. ...a full days... (A2)
‘Another’ is a ‘general ordinal’ (Quirk et al., 1985:262), and has two functions. It can be the unstressed form of ‘one another’ in contrast with ‘the other’, or it can mean ‘further’ or ‘additional’ as in ‘...another two rooms...’. Thus when it is followed by a plural cardinal number, another takes a plural noun as head. Example 236 violates this rule.

The numeral ‘one’ co-occurs with singular count nouns and the indefinite article ‘a/an’ are determiners used with singular count nouns. The examples above, 237 and 238 do not follow this rule since the nouns occurring with the determiners are plural instead of singular. This further implies ignorance in the rules regarding number in the noun phrase.

4.1.2.5 WORD ORDER ERRORS

Word order errors were observed in the data forming 7.78% of the syntactic errors. Sentence word order errors accounted for 64.71%, noun phrase order errors comprised 32.35% and adjectival word order errors had 2.94%.

At the sentence level, the most frequent word order error revolved around the verb. 40% of word order errors in the sentence level involved an interchange between the verb and the subject, object or determiner. This could be attributed to the verb being the most obligatory element of the sentence. The verb plays a central role in the clause structure since it cannot be omitted even if other elements are omitted (Crystal, 1988).
At the phrasal level, the noun phrase word orders were the majority. The pupils’ failure to follow the rule of ordering words in a noun phrase led to erroneous ordering of the constituents of the noun phrase. In some cases, the determiner and the pronoun were interchanged, as in, ‘all we’ instead of ‘we all...’ and in other cases, the determiner was interchanged with a premodifying adjective to yield ‘new the bible’ in place of ‘the new bible’.

Although the order of adjectives before a noun is not always fixed, there is a preferred ordering according to Leech (1989). The first adjective should be one describing or expressing a feeling (for example, ‘beautiful’) followed by another describing size (such as, ‘little’). The third one could express age (as in, ‘old’) followed by an adjective expressing colour (as in, ‘green’), and finally a defining adjective such as, ‘Indian’. Composition A2, is a case where the adjective defining colour was placed after the headword, instead of before it. For example,

239. My uncle Weep a car coloured white and...
Instead of, … my uncle wiped a white-coloured car and...

Word order errors among the HI pupils could be attributed to what Akach (1991) refers to as topicalization. His study showed that in KSL, the HI sign first the thing they want to talk about.

For example,

‘YOUR HOME, FAR.’ To mean, ‘Is your home far?’
the signer first signs 'Your home' since it is the focus of discussion, then signs 'FAR' along with non-manual grammatical markers of raised eyebrows and tilted head, to indicate that it is a question (Akach, 1991). Therefore, the pupils topicalized some words at the expense of their correct ordering in the phrase or sentence. For example,

My mother when he saw my results in the paper,... (B1)

Instead of,

When my mother saw my results in the paper, ...

The example above appears to focus more on the actor of the action, that is, 'mother' rather than the action.

4.1.2.6 ERRORS OF INCOMPLETE CONSTRUCTIONS

Errors relating to incompleteness of the phrase comprised 7.32% of the syntactic errors observed. Of the incomplete phrasal errors, 46.46% comprised the verb phrase category followed by clause link category with 41.17% and 11.76% for prepositional phrase. Within the verb phrase category, constructions requiring '-ing' form of the verb presented most difficulty to the pupils. Mostly this verb suffix was omitted from the main verb in past progressive verb constructions. One of the basic types of verb constructions is the progressive verb construction where auxiliary 'be' + the '-ing' participle of a verb are used (Quirk et al, 1985). The progressive aspect can be either in the past or present tense. However, the pupils used a primary auxiliary verb sometimes in the wrong tense and a main verb not inflected for the progressive aspect. For example,
240. ...leader were drama and they were laughing...(B2)

The auxiliary 'were' is marked for past tense. It is also erroneously marked for plural since the preceding noun 'leader' is in singular form. However, the verb 'drama' required the '-ing' suffix to read, 'was dramatizing'. In the example below, neither was the auxiliary verb inflected for past tense, nor the main verb inflected for progressive aspect. Hence,

241. My mother with Jane are walk on road...(B4)

Instead of,

My mother and Jane were walking ...

Incomplete verb phrases were also noted with the passive construction of the verb. This type of verb phrase is expressed thus auxiliary 'be' + '-ed' participle to give,

'The cake was baked by a child.'

Instances of omission of the 'be' form of the verb or of the main verb was considered incomplete application of the passive construction rule. For example,

242. ...all people ________ welcomed for our party... (A2) Omitted 'were'

243. ...My grandmother's house were ________ with stones... (A2)

Omitted 'built'

Incomplete 'to-infinitive' was also noted in the data. The pupils tended to omit the 'to' particle, and used the verb. Most of these verbs were lexical verbs. Lexical verbs are content words which bear the message.
Errors of incompleteness are attributed to the strategy Richards (1974) called incomplete application of rules. As Ellis (1985) puts it, it is a failure to learn the more complex types of structure because the learner finds he/she can achieve effective communication by using relatively simple rules.

4.1.2.7 CHOICE OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY ERRORS

The errors of words of a particular grammatical category used as a different grammatical category formed 2.06% of the syntactic errors. For example, prepositions were used in place of verbs,

244. One day, I wake up in the morning and cook for tea. My family with food for tea and bread. (B4)

Coordinating conjunctions were used as prepositions for example,

245. I see it is full coloured and ballons (A2)

They are attributed to the strategy Richard (1974) spelt out as false concepts hypothesized. He expounded that some errors were derived from faulty understanding of target language distinctions. For example, ‘is’ may be treated as a general marker of the present tense say: *he is speaks French*. The examples below have been taken from our data,

246. ...stop town in Tala out go to hotel: with chapati, kuku…(B4)

‘With’ has been used as the verb ‘having’ or ‘which had’. (Quirk et al, 1985:704) notes that the notion of ‘having’ is more generally expressed by ‘with’. The learner may have perceived the preposition ‘with’ as expressing
the same meaning as the verb ‘having’, thereby can replace the verb. Another
illustration is taken from the adverb grammatical category, where a wh-word,
‘what’ was used as an ‘adverb’.

247. My mother told me what did you like to go I said I like for
Nairobi...(A2)

‘What’ and ‘where’ are both interrogative pronouns. However, ‘where’
functions as an adverb in some wh-questions to mean ‘in which place’.
However, the pupil used ‘what’ inappropriately. That is, it has been used as a
general marker of an interrogative sentence. This underlies the strategy of
false concepts hypothesized, where the wh-word, ‘what’ is taken as a general
marker of an interrogative sentence.

4.1.2.8 WRONG CHOICE OF WORD

This error accounted for a total of 71 incorrect words used. Prepositions and
nouns each recorded 35 counts of this type of error. Within the prepositions
subcategory, 48.57% incorrect preposition ‘for’ were the highest recorded.
Pupils used ‘for’ instead of prepositions such as, ‘in, of, at, on, to, because, of,
during’ among others. For example,

248. Our pastor gave children gifts for biscuit and sweet. (B4)

Instead of, ‘of’

249. My uncle and aunt began to laugh for me. (A2) Instead of, ‘at’

This error can be explained by the strategy of overgeneralisation. Njoroge
(1996) supports the study done by Richards (1974) where the latter observed
that the major factor in the misuse of prepositions is overgeneralisation. The learner, encountering a particular preposition with one type of verb attempts by analogy to use the same preposition with similar verbs as already mentioned before.

Wrong choices of words encountered within the noun phrase category were mainly personal pronouns such as, 'we, our, us, me, my, they'. In certain instances, instead of a pronoun in the objective case, one in the subjective case such as;

250. ...the rest we are at home (B8)
Instead of, ... the rest of us were at home.

Other instances involved confusion between first person pronouns and third person pronouns. Where 'they' was used instead of 'we'. For example,

251. At night, we were eating rice and meat, leader were drama and they were laughing at drama.

This error is attributed to ignorance of rule restrictions, that govern the use of pronouns in particular positions in the sentence. In the English language pronouns belong to the closed class where sets of items are only exceptionally extended by the creation of additional members (Quirk et al., 1985:17). Pronouns are distinguished in person (first, second and third persons), case (subjective, objective and genitive cases), number (singular and plural) and gender. In choosing incorrect pronouns, the pupils were not guided by the
rules governing pronouns. The pupils applied certain forms of pronouns not suited for that function in the sentence.

Table 15: Frequency of syntactic errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>ERROR TYPE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>TOTAL %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Omission errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>51.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clause link</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Subtotals</strong></td>
<td><strong>147</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>33.63%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Redundant use of words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clause link</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Subtotals</strong></td>
<td><strong>99</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>22.66%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Wrong choice of words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clause link</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Subtotals</strong></td>
<td><strong>71</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>16.25%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Concordial errors</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Word order errors</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Incomplete phrases</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Multiple use of words</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Grammatical category choice errors</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>GRAND TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>437</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


4.1.3 PUNCTUATION AND EXPRESSION ERRORS

As mentioned before, these errors do not fall under morphosyntactic errors. However, they are equally important in English grammatical relations. Put together, these errors accounted for 17.06% of the total 803 errors identified.

4.1.3.1 PUNCTUATION ERRORS

Punctuation errors were 103 in total. Three categories of punctuation errors were observed namely, omitted punctuation marks (65.05%), wrong choice of punctuation marks (33.98%) and redundant punctuation marks (0.97%). Of the omitted punctuation marks, the full stop recorded 61.19% followed by the comma (32.84%) then by quotation marks (5.97%).

According to the English grammar, (Quirk et al, 1985:1623) one orthographic sentence is marked off from the next by terminating it with a period, question mark, or exclamation mark, and by beginning the next with a capital letter. However, the pupils neglected this rule in some portions of their work. Hence, only spaces were used to separate successive units.

Omitted punctuation marks can be explained by the strategy of overgeneralisation. Overgeneralisation is a device used when the items do not carry any obvious contrast for the learner. Where the pupils omitted the full stop which identifies a sentence from another, showed that the successive spaces between the words were sufficient to punctuate the various constructions. Since overgeneralisation involves the learner’s reduction of
linguistic burden, the pupils omitted these punctuation marks since their intended message had been conveyed without the necessity for punctuation.

The pupils' omission of quotation marks is also explained by overgeneralisation. The pupils omitted the period and/or question mark, the comma and the quotation marks in direct speech, as in B1 below,

252. We answering, Yes father so my father took a bus and all we went on it.

Instead of, We answered, "Yes, father." So my..

253. My mother told me what did you like to go (A2)

Instead of, My mother asked me, "Where would you like to go?"

Quirk et al. (1985:1022) explains that direct speech is usually signalled by being enclosed in quotation marks. In the examples above, the pupils may have considered the reporting clause ("We answering" or "My mother told me") a sufficient marker of the direct speech. Thus, the function of the reporting clause is extended to items it does not cover. This is the process of overgeneralisation.

Under the subcategory of wrong choice of punctuation, the full stop was marked incorrectly by 71.43%, the comma by 20% and the quotation marks with 8.57%. Incorrect full stop marking was noted when the full stop occurred in between the main clause and a subordinate clause. In this case a comma would have been suitable to separate the units. For example,
As has been mentioned, the period marks one orthographic sentence from the next. In the above construction, the period breaks off the sentence prematurely. The preceding structure is a subordinate clause introduced by the subordinator 'when'. The sentence occurring after the period is the main clause that completes the meaning of the dependent clause. This is an example of ignorance of rules governing the full stop marking.

The use of the comma instead of a full stop was noted in the data. The example below illustrates this,

255. They were travelling to Nairobi, Daniel, Alex and Mwanza's father went to our home. (B2)

Instead of,

We travelled to Nairobi, Daniel, Alex and Mwanza's father went to our home.

As indicated earlier, the comma separates closely associated clauses within a sentence. The case above indicates 2 separate sentences that should have been separated by a period. This also indicates ignorance in rule restrictions on the use of commas.

Further violations of punctuation rules were noted in the incorrect use of the quotation marks. For example,

256. Are you all ready "Asked father" (B1)
Instead of the quotation marks occurring before and after the direct speech, they were used on the reporting clause, 'asked father'. Quirk et al. (1985) indicates that direct speech is usually signalled by being enclosed in quotation marks. This erroneous construction is an indication of ignorance of rule restrictions on the use of quotation marks.

One instance cited on the use of the colon also indicated ignorance on the use of the same.

257. ...until stop town in Tala out go to hotel: with chapati, kuku and soda finish food. (B4)

Quirk et al. (1985) sums up the function of a colon as a punctuation mark where what follows is an explication of what precedes it or a fulfilment of the expectation raised. In the example above, the preceding construction before the colon is complete, it does not raise any expectation to warrant a colon. Quirk et al. (1985) gives the following example,

I've just had some good news: I've been offered a job in a law firm.

The preceding construction raises expectation which is fulfilled on the latter part. In place of the colon and preposition 'with' in example 270, the pupil could have used 'which had' to express complete meaning.

4.1.3.2 EXPRESSION ERRORS

A total of 43 expression errors were observed in the data under investigation. These were errors where the pupils chose the wrong lexical item to express a particular meaning. Their distribution per grammatical category was in this
manner; prepositions (34.89%), verbs (30.23%), nouns (3.95%), adjectives (16.28%) and 4.65% for adverb expression errors. As has been mentioned earlier, these are the errors involving the expression of meanings in a non-standard way. Quigley and Paul (1984:161), mention a study carried out by Thompson (1936) where an analysis of 16,000 language samples was done from 800 deaf children. The study observed that the written expression of deaf children is more likely to be mechanically correct than it is to have the words correctly used. A study in Bamford and Saunders (1985:155) describes the written language of the deaf as a tangled web type of expression in which words occur in profusion but do not align themselves in an orderly array.

These errors have been attributed to the strategy of false concept hypothesized. This strategy explains that some errors are derived from a faulty understanding of the target language distinctions. For example, ‘was’ may be treated as a general marker of the past tense to yield, ‘*One day it was happened’. This means that the redundant use of the auxiliary verb ‘was’ could result from the pupils comprehending the usage of the verb ‘be’ falsely. In our data for example, the verb ‘go’ was taken to be synonymous with the verb ‘move’ since both involve a displacement from one point to another.

Adjective expression errors accounted for 16.28% within this category. For example, ‘nice’ was used in place of ‘well’, ‘fine’ instead of ‘happy’, ‘very big’ instead of ‘too much’. These errors can be explained by ignorance of rule restrictions as a strategy. Where the pupil wrote,
Some food was very nice and good others was very big to finish them all. (B1)

displayed violation on the limitation of structures with ‘too…to’ and adopted ‘very’ with ‘to’.

Again, preference of the adjectives, ‘nice’ and ‘fine’ over the correct ones and adverbs ‘away’ and ‘anytime’ over their correct ones, ‘outside’ and ‘all the time’ respectively, indicated false concepts hypothesized. The pupils’ comprehension of these adjectives and adverbs is erroneous in the English language.

The use of words/phrases to express meanings beyond the restriction these words/phrases have in Standard English, has bearing on the vocabulary command of the HI pupils. It seems to be very limited. For example, whereas the Oxford English dictionary contains a total of 290,500 main entries, the KSL dictionary has at least 2300 word signs. Any new word that does not have an equivalent sign is finger spelt.

It should be emphasised that 78.95% of the scripts collected for investigation could not be subjected to analysis under the theory of EA. Only 21.05% had comprehensible English grammar although with numerous mistakes. From the sample of 8 scripts analysed, a total of 802 errors were noted. On average, each of the scripts investigated had 100 errors in a composition of not less than 150 to 200 words. Maina (1991) investigated a sample of 120 compositions
from standard 8 pupils in 4 regular primary schools for the hearing. The study yielded 702 intralingual or developmental errors. On average, each of the scripts had 7 errors. Njoroge (1996) observed 1023 errors from the 120 scripts. On average, each script had 9 errors. The HI scripts had 11 to 14 times as many errors as those of their hearing counterparts.

Particular areas that presented most difficulty to the standard 8 HI pupils investigated were mainly function words such as primary auxiliary ‘be’. It should be noted that within verbs, lexical verbs are content words while auxiliaries are functional words. Other problematic function words were determiners, prepositions. Verb morphemes such as the ‘-ed’ past tense marker were also very challenging for these learners. These function words were either omitted, redundantly used, or were incorrectly used. Within the noun phrase category, the overall item that was most challenging to the HI pupil was the definite article ‘the’ and the indefinite determiner ‘a/an’ respectively, followed by the use of pronouns.

In the verb phrase category, morphological inflections particularly the past tense ‘-ed’ marker was heavily omitted by these pupils. The verbs were used in their bare form. The auxiliary verb, ‘be’ featured in most of the types of errors identified. That is, it was omitted, redundantly used and selected wrongly. In addition to this, verb constructions that involved the use of the verb ‘be’ such as, the progressive construction and the passive construction gave further evidence on the difficulties the HI pupil experiences on the use of
the verb ‘be’. As pointed out earlier, Bamford and Saunders (1985) explain that most verbs have obvious reference and their meaning can be demonstrated fairly easily. ‘Be’ and ‘have’ either indicate attributes or possession, or they act as carriers of grammatical features such as tense and aspect. In either case they are conceptually more difficult to handle than other more concrete verbs.

In the prepositional category, there was a general tendency of using one type of preposition, mainly, ‘for’ with several verbs that do not occur with this preposition.

It has also been noted in the data that the pupils used few adverbs and adjectives, hence erroneous structures resulting from the use of these grammatical words was minimal. Regarding punctuation, it was clear that the use of the full stop and the comma still required more mastery as the pupils tended to use these punctuation marks arbitrarily.

4.1.4 SUMMARY OF CATEGORY 1 DISCUSSION

Category 1 scripts originated from school A and B; Kambui and Machakos schools for the deaf, respectively. According to the data collected, these two schools employ the use of SEE in learning. It should be noted that pupils in these schools also use KSL amongst themselves since it is their language. This would explain why evidence of KSL word order structure was evident in their scripts. Although the schools using SEE exclusively formed our analysable data, further research would still be needed to verify the impact SEE has in English learning. This research cannot categorically state that SEE pupils
write better English than KSL pupils because numerous morphological errors, such as errors related to the simple past tense '-ed' marker accounting for 58.14% of the total 258 verb phrase errors were encountered in this data. Wamae (2003) concluded that sign language mode of instruction impacts heavily on acquisition of other grammatical features of English. This means that since SEE captures the affixes and functional words that KSL does not, SEE is a better approach.

Category 1 scripts also had 6 pupils who lost their hearing after 3 years of age. This means that these pupils had established an auditory based internalised language system through oral communication interaction with parents and others (Quigley and Paul, 1984). 4 of these pupils use hearing aids. This means that since they can learn English through hearing, they have an advantage over those who do not benefit from hearing aids. Thus, the partially deaf have fewer errors than the profoundly deaf. 2 scripts in category 1 data came from learners who lost their hearing before 3 years of age, and do not use hearing aids. The factors that contributed to the standard of English in these particular 2 scripts require further speculation into some possible reasons that are possibly socio-cultural or socio-economic that can influence their English proficiency.
4.2 CATEGORY 2 DATA DISCUSSION

As has been mentioned before, this category comprised scripts with a few well-formed English phrases and, with a few portions that could be reconstructed. Being a total of 26 scripts, (school A:9; school B:8; school C:6; school D:3) they formed 72% of the entire population of scripts collected. Majority of the scripts collected came under this category.

One major peculiarity noticed in this category is the influence of KSL on the word order structure of the English in these scripts. For example, the pupils did not mark number agreement within the noun phrase (we are Two brother. B6) or within the sentence (‘Kambui have good bord road.’ Instead of, Kambui has good roads’. A9). In the B6 case, plural number has been marked externally by use of the numeral ‘two’. Whereas this is a feature that can be explained by overgeneralisation, where the pupil reduces his linguistic burden of marking concord on the noun as well as by numerals, it also bears implications on KSL due to the external marking of number. In KSL number is generally marked externally by signing the figures and not by inflecting the words for plural.

Further evidence of the KSL structure in the English of category two scripts was the sentence types. Akach (1991) describes the various sentence types in Kenyan Sign language. For a simple declarative sentence in the past tense, past is marked in KSL at the beginning of the sentence by a flat hand configuration moving from the front of the head (Akach 1991:56). The rest of
the manual word signs in the sentence are in their present tense form. Hence, the sentence, ‘The man stole a book’ will be signed by use of four signs in the order, ‘(pst) MAN STEAL BOOK’ in neutral, with no facial expressions it is declarative. This explains why the present tense was rampantly used in places where the past tense was required. For example,

259. hear open school may 1 month to wait obey work…(A5)
260. I go my kambui 8a go home not stay go home in Kambui you are very hard …(A9)
261. Ndinda care for parent come and in van start ready drive to road (B13)
262. My name father’s kamau has a he work in the shop my name mother’s wanjiru she do not anywhere …(D2)

Note that the underlined verbs are in their present tense.

These scripts also had what Akach (1991) explains as negation of declarative sentences. Akach (1991) highlights that in negating declarative sentences and other types of sentences KSL employs three words, NOTHING, NO, NOT YET. They are signed at the end of the sentence/clause. Below are some examples taken from the scripts.

263. I am very tired about story Machakos no problem well. (B9)
264. because to food maizes and beans to growing nothing sometime pray to God hear nothing sometime prays to well. (D2)
265. …the seen following to can before so worry not thank it was place think gone…(A3)
In A3, we observe an interchange of the verb ‘worry’ and the negator ‘not’ to mean ‘do not worry’.

Contained in the category 2 scripts is the use of the word ‘finish’ recurrently. Akach (1991) states that in KSL it is an auxiliary verb expressing perfective meaning. It indicates an accomplished action. This additionally explains why the verbs tended to occur in their simple present tense form. For example,

266. I will learnt work had K.C.P.E finish go away closed school. (B6)
267. I go to bed. I am go to pray and sing finish go to sleep night time 8.45 ...(B9)
268. ...meat finish happy now eating story joy nice and like eating finish water and clean now time finish now beding...(B12)

Some of these scripts contain omission of function words such as auxiliary verbs, prepositions, determiners and emphasise the use of content words such as nouns, lexical verbs over and above functional words. For example,

Thank you have a name go nairobi mrs eva composition you are you children...(A9)

This portion largely contains content words. This trend occurs throughout the texts and is typical of KSL.
Further evidence of KSL word order in conditional sentences could be seen as noted in the following examples.

269. ...then must read in class not play outside go in class must (D5)

Akach (1991) states that with conditional statements, the condition is normally signed first. This structure of KSL can be observed in script D5 above, see underlined construction where the modal auxiliary ‘must’ occurs twice, first at the beginning of the sentence then at the end of it.

Another KSL aspect that Akach (1991) refers to as topicalisation was also evident in these scripts.

270. many brother or sister and Aunts unice greeting ...morning rain heavily saw was window. (A6)

Akach (1991) explains that the negating words are signed at the end of the sentence. In A6 we see the aspect of topicalisation where signers sign first the thing they want to talk about. Thus the pupil focuses on the people who sent their greeting rather than the greeting itself. Again by mentioning ‘morning’ rather than ‘raining heavily’ the pupil places focus on the adverb of time rather than the verb.

Traces of positive declarative statements noted in this category were written in KSL word order. Akach (1991) states that in this sentence type the signer uses ‘a head nodding movement’ which most probably starts before any manual word-signs are formed and continues throughout the sentence. Thus, the sentence meaning, ‘the man stole the book’, can be made a confirming or an
assuring statement by adding the word ‘yes’ at the beginning. Script B5 below displayed these characteristics.

271. I am for you true yes now today happy 25th Dec 1999 Christmass chapatti and goat, hen meat for want to my family are full true yes my joy children how are you for your thank lord help

4.2.1 SUMMARY OF CATEGORY 2 DISCUSSION

The table below presents a summary of the hearing level of the pupils in this category.

Table 16: Summary of category 2 characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Script</th>
<th>Partially deaf</th>
<th>Profoundly deaf</th>
<th>Pre-lingual</th>
<th>Post-lingual</th>
<th>Hearing aid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>Script</td>
<td>Partially deaf</td>
<td>Profoundly deaf</td>
<td>Pre-lingual</td>
<td>Post-lingual</td>
<td>Hearing aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, 20 scripts characterised pupils who were either profoundly deaf, or who were partially deaf but did not use hearing aids, and were consequently taken to belong to the same group as the profoundly deaf.
22 pupils in category 2 were also prelingually deaf, meaning they lost their hearing before acquiring any language. Since these pupils can only communicate through sign language, this would explain why KSL was prominent in their scripts as already discussed above. Given that their written English could not be analysed using Error Analysis theory, we can conclude that the partially deaf write better English than the profoundly deaf.

6 cases of pupils, five of whom are partially impaired and use hearing aids, and one who is profoundly impaired and uses hearing aids as well were cited in category 2. It would be expected that their English proficiency level match those in category 1. However, other factors such as home environment and background could have played a role in their mastery of English.

4.3 CATEGORY 3 DATA DISCUSSION

These are the scripts that were identified as having few English words and non English words which kept recurring. A total of 4 scripts (school C:2; school D:2), forming a percentage of 10.52%, the least of all the other foregoing categories. In this category, neither the English grammar rules nor the KSL word order structure were observed. As has been described earlier, both English and non-English words were found in these scripts.

Category 3 scripts comprised 2 pupils who were born deaf and 2 who lost their hearing at 18 months and below. These pupils are prelingually profoundly
Their hearing level could explain their English proficiency since not even KSL could account for the language in their compositions.

4.4 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The pattern of errors observed in these categories can be summarised thus:

1. Category 1 scripts contain reconstructible portions of the English language grammar.
2. Category 2 largely has the KSL word order pattern.
3. Category 3 had some English words and incomprehensible words put in no discernible order.

4.5 PEDAGOGICAL STRATEGIES FOR REDUCING ERRORS IN THE HI ENGLISH

Error analysis usually has two functions. The first is a theoretical one and the second a practical one (Corder, 1981). While the theoretical aspect investigates the language learning process, the practical aspect of error analysis is its function in guiding the remedial action in the pedagogic circles. Corder (1981) adds that the value of error analysis is to direct the teacher’s attention to the areas with errors so that he/she might devote special care and emphasis in his/her teaching to the overcoming, or even avoiding of these predicted difficulties.
Errors provide feedback, they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his/her teaching materials and his or her teaching techniques, and show him or her what parts of the syllabus he or she has been following have been adequately learned or taught and need further attention (Corder, 1973). In addition, Error analysis provide the information for designing a remedial syllabus or a programme for a reteaching. Below, we examine some teaching techniques whose emphasis can better the HI English grammar.

4.6.1 TOTAL COMMUNICATION

As elaborated earlier in the literature review section, total communication is a philosophy towards communicating with deaf people. This approach gives each method, such as, finger spelling and sign language equal importance. Total communication is a multi-sensory approach that involves several senses – hearing, sight, smell and touch as avenues of learning and communication. Some of the components of total communication include; eye contact, sound, lip reading, writing/reading, gestures, mimicry, pointing, pantomime, sign language, finger spelling and mouth hand system. (Mbewe and Serpel, 1983). This study will only explore those components of total communication that can have a direct impact in improving the English language of the hearing impaired.

Total communication has evolved as a liberal attitude toward the use of appropriate media to meet individual needs or different situations, rather than
a precise way of teaching (Evans, 1982). Below, this study examines the elements of total communication available in literature and outlines their use in improving the English language skills of the hearing impaired.

(a) **Speech:** This is the natural medium of acquiring language that is mainly profitable to the partially impaired or the hard of hearing. Pupils with residual hearing might be capable of developing speech and language largely along natural lines by hearing and imitating the speech around them (Evans, 1982). Sound amplification becomes crucial in applying the use of this method. Suitable hearing aids should be provided to pupils with some residual hearing as early as possible (KISE 1992).

Some of the scripts studied were those of partially impaired pupils who did not use hearing aids. However, Evans (1982) also points out that total communication is concerned with children who need access to manual communication because they cannot understand speech adequately through hearing even if provided with hearing aids. Nevertheless, since category 1 pupils do not use hearing aids, their level of English can be improved by the other strategies in Total Communication.

(b) **Lip reading:** Since speech is not advantageous to a severely impaired person, he/she might understand what is said by watching the speaker’s face. Lip reading is the visual perception of the shapes and movements of the lips, jaws, cheeks and other mouth-parts, made by the speaker in
articulation of the speech sounds (KISE, 1992). However, lip reading has
its limitations. Speech sounds fall along a continuum of visibility with
vowels being more visible and the consonants less visible. In English, the
more frequently occurring speech sounds happen to be the least visible on
lips, and the most visible are the more rarely used sounds.

Similarly, there is a problem of visual similarity. Some of the sounds,
although visible, have similar shapes, such as the voiced and the unvoiced
pairs of consonants like, [ t/d ]. On the lips these sounds are visually
indistinguishable since the contrast occurs in the larynx (Evans, 1982).
Vowel sounds, although more identifiable in isolation, become less
distinctive in continuous speech (Evans, 1982:36). Thus actual lip reading
ability in deaf children tends to decrease with severity in hearing loss. Lip
reading should therefore not be used in isolation. In lip reading, the teacher
should lip read all the components in the sentence including the affixes and
function words which the hearing impaired tend to omit in their written
language especially those under category 2.

(c) Cued speech/mouth hand system: These two approaches are manual aid
to spoken language. These systems were developed to clarify ambiguities
of lip reading by providing supplementary information on hands (Evans,
1982:40). Cued speech uses 12 different hand shapes while mouth hand
system has 21. The hand shapes in combination with the lip shapes,
provide a one to one correspondence with the phonemes of spoken
language. Visually contrastive consonants such as [t, m, f], share the same manual cue, but conversely the visually similar consonants [p, b, m] have different hand cues. The cues only identify groups of vowels and consonants which are internally contrasted. They do not in themselves give complete recognition of speech. The system supplements, rather than replaces information on lips. Studies done on cued speech concluded that this system clarified the lip reading information among the deaf (Evans, 1982:40). Wamae (2003) noted that whereas the teachers in her study lip read the sentence as it was, they only signed content words leaving out many affixes and function words. Therefore, along with lip reading, cued speech supplements the shortfalls of lip reading.

(d) **Finger spelling:** This approach uses hand and finger shapes to represent the alphabetic letters of written language. It has a word for word correspondence with reading and writing. The Kenyan deaf population uses the American one-handed manual alphabet (Evans, 1982). Finger spelling can transmit the correct syntax of English or other written language and its use might reinforce reading and writing skills (Evans, 1982). There have been reports of young Russian deaf children acquiring good vocabulary through early exposure to finger spelling.

Emphasis on finger spelling will therefore increase the English vocabulary command of these pupils thereby reducing expression errors. The fact that the HI use few adverbs and adjectives can be dealt with through
fingerspelling words that do not have a matching sign. New vocabulary
that do not have their own unique sign should be fingerspelt and not
avoided, or replaced with simpler synonym.

(e) **Gestures:** Gestures are spontaneous expressions with arms, hands,
shoulders, and other body parts. Sometimes, gestures stand alone and can
be understood as signs. Gestures of movement such as, ‘come, jump’ are
used by all people. In the classroom situation, care should be taken to use
gestures within the correct tense. For example, a gesture for ‘jumping’
should not just be the actual body movement, but also have another sign
for the, ‘-ing’ ending. Not all gestures are signs.

(f) **Eye contact:** This is an important element of total communication since
the HI individuals depend heavily on vision for communication. Eye
contact facilitates the use of other modes discussed above such as, lip
reading, speech and facial expressions. Eye contact gives the possibility to
lip read some of the spoken words (KISE 1992).

(g) **Pointing:** Pointing is a part of the gestures that can be used for drawing
attention, such as an object or person in question (KISE, 1992). Pointing
also serves to indicate direction as well as serve as actual signs. Some
examples of pointing used as gestures are, ‘get out’ or ‘that one’. An
example of pointing as signs include body parts like, ‘mouth’, ‘nose’, and
personal pronouns such as, ‘you, me, him’ (KISE, 1992).
(h) **Pantomime:** This is a dramatic presentation played without words, using only action and gesture, facial expressions and body language. Along with this method are imitative pantosigns often called natural signs, signs created naturally such as those of a typewriter, pen/to write, tooth brush and cigarette. These signs are easy to comprehend and master.

(i) **Signed exact English:** This system is a signed representation of English spoken language. The literature review section has explored the history and benefits of SEE. Although this study was not able to state that SEE pupils write better English than KSL schools, studies (Quigley and Paul, 1984) reveal that SEE is a better approach in learning the English language and the most widely used in America. This section looks at the principles of SEE and explains how it can help improve the written English of the standard 8 hearing impaired pupils.

The important principles of SEE obtained from (Gustason and Zawolkow, 1993:XIII-XIV) are as follows:

1. English should be signed in a manner that is as consistent as possible with how it is spoken or written in order to constitute a language input for the deaf child that will result in his mastery in English. This means, for instance, that idioms such as 'dry up', 'cut it out', 'stop horsing around' would be signed as those exact words, rather than as, 'quiet', or 'stop', or 'finish'. The principle also means that inflections or markers must be shown, such as talks, talked, talking, government. This will not only
promote vocabulary development, which is very wanting according to the results revealed in the study, but also capture the word suffixes which these pupils have a tendency to omit such as the past tense ‘-ed’ marker.

2. A sign should be translatable to only one English equivalent. Initialised signs contribute a great deal here, providing such synonyms as ‘hurt, pain, ache’ and so on. However, this principle also means that only one sign should be used for such English words as ‘run’ which has a number of different meanings and a number of different translations in ASL.

These two principles have led to a number of problems and jokes. How does one sign, ‘I saw you yesterday’ or ‘he left home last week’? Is the sign for ‘saw’ the same as in ‘sawing wood’, and the sign for ‘left’ the same as the opposite of ‘right’? For that matter, what of ‘right, rite’, and ‘write’? In an attempt to come to terms with these problems, more principles were developed. Words are considered in three groups:

a) Basic words

b) Compound words, and

c) Complex words.

3. ‘Basic words’ are words that can have no more taken away and still form a complete word for example, girl, talk, the, the noun ‘saw’. For these basic words, the three-point criteria of sound, spelling, and meaning is used. If any two of these three factors are the same, the same sign is used. This
covers multiple-meaning words such as, 'run' which would have the same sign in:

The boys will run. The motor will run.

Your nose will run.

These are all signed differently in ASL. In addition, a different sign would be used for the word 'wind' in:

The wind is blowing. I must wind my watch.

In this case only the spelling is the same; sound and meaning both differ, and since two of the three factors are different a different sign is used. In the case of 'run', spelling and sound are the same, and meaning varies; since two of the three factors are the same, the same basic sign is used. Expression errors such as use of 'arrange' instead of 'packed', in B2, can be eliminated using this principle, since these words differ in all the three factors and consequently have different signs.

4. 'Complex words' are defined as basic words with the addition of an affix or inflection: 'girls, talked, the past tense verb 'saw''. Once such an addition has been made the combination is no longer considered a basic word. Accordingly, the past tense of 'see' is added to produce the verb 'saw', which is not the same as either the noun 'saw' or the verb 'to saw' (which would have past tense added to produce 'sawed'). An affix is added in signs if it is added in speech or writing, regardless of the part of speech. The suffix '-s', for instance, is used both for regular plurals (girls, saws) and the third person singular of verbs (runs, sees, saws). Addition of
suffixes will reduce omission errors of these inflections in the various grammatical categories.

5. 'Compound words' are two or more basic words put together. If the meaning of the words separately is consistent with the meaning of the words together, then and only then are they signed as the component words. Thus 'underline' would be signed 'under' + 'line' but 'understand', having no relation to the meaning of the words 'under' and 'stand, would have a separate sign and would not be signed 'under' + 'stand'.

6. When a sign already exists in ASL that is clear, unambiguous, and commonly translates to one English word, this sign is retained. This is clearest with single meaning words such as the ASL sign for 'girl'. With multiple meaning words, while the sign may fit one ASL way of signing the word, ASL may have other signs for different meanings. This is handled by principle 3 above. Principle 6 explains why signs are presented in this book for compound or complex words such as 'careless, misunderstand, baseball, can't', that could, by following the principles above, be signed 'care' + 'less', 'mis' + 'understand', 'base' + 'ball', 'can' + 'n't'. A single sign is borrowed from ASL when ease and economy of movement are possible with no loss of clear, unambiguous English.

7. When the first letter is added to a basic sign to create synonyms, the basic sign is retained wherever possible, as the most commonly used word. For
instance, the basic sign for 'make' is retained for that word, while the sign is made with C-hands for 'create', and P-hands for 'produce'. In some cases, as with 'guard, protect, defend' users have experienced difficulty remembering which is the uninitialised sign since all three words are used relatively equally; hence all three are initialised.

8. When more than one marker is added to a word, middle markers may be dropped if there is no sacrifice of clarity. For instance, the past tense sign is added to 'break' to produce 'broke', but 'broken' may be signed as 'break' plus the past participle or '-en'. Similarly, 'exam' may be joined by '-ine' for 'examine' but 'examination' may be signed as 'exam' plus '-tion'. Such dropping of the middle markers serves to keep the flow of the sign smooth and efficient, while retaining the identifying marker which shows what word is used. Dropping is not done if confusion might result; for instance, 'will' plus 'n't' creates 'won't', 'will' plus '-d' (or the past participle marker -en) plus 'n't' creates 'wouldn't'. Dropping the middle marker in this case would confuse the two words.

9. While following the principles above, respect needs to be shown for characteristics of visual-gestural communication. While sign languages vary just as do spoken languages, and what is possible in one language may not appear in another, awkward or difficult movements should be avoided whenever possible. For instance, English does not use the trilled 'r' present in other spoken languages, and some phonetic combinations are
not normal in English (for example, ‘wug’ is a possible nonsense word, but ‘pkt’ is not). The same is true of ASL, where simple hand shapes are used much more commonly than more complex hand shapes. Small differences in shape or motion should not occur far from the visual center of attention.

Morphological errors encountered in this study formed 27.31% with verbs comprising 88.79% of the morphological errors observed. Since the morphological errors were those words whose internal structure was erroneous, they can be reduced or eliminated through SEE since SEE captures even the morphological changes that occur within the word. Errors to do with word order can also be addressed using SEE since SEE follows the English syntax. Within the syntactic category, most of the errors encountered were omission errors of function words. As has been emphasised earlier, KSL emphasises content words as opposed to function words. This explains why determiners, prepositions, and primary auxiliaries were omitted. However, SEE has provision for function words. Punctuation errors can also be dealt with through SEE. Most punctuation errors were those which were omitted forming 65.05%. However, through SEE punctuation is marked. For example, a full stop is signed at the end of a sentence.

Critics of SEE hold that the Kenyan deaf share one national sign language whose grammar is independent of the grammars of the various spoken languages (Akach, 1991). This study does not advocate for the elimination of KSL and the adoption of SEE, which follows the syntax of English on a one
on one basis. KSL is a language for the deaf on its own right. The study does not also propose the use of ASL signs exclusively while adopting SEE, since ASL was developed for American deaf population. Thus, the principles of SEE can be localised to suit the environs of a particular nation. For example, KSL signs can be developed (probably to become Kenyan Signed Exact English) to include affixes and suffixes for use in classroom settings.
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This section puts together the findings of this study. It endeavours to respond to the research questions of the study in relation to the findings presented in the prior sections. We explore the attainment of the objectives, the field challenges, implications, areas for further research and the conclusion of the entire study.

5.1 ATTAINMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study were to:

i. Identify and categorise the morphosyntactic errors in the standard eight HI pupils’ written English.

ii. Investigate differences in the errors made by the partially deaf and profoundly deaf.

iii. Determine error differences of SEE pupils and KSL pupils.

iv. Establish the possible causes of these errors and discuss pedagogic strategies from available written authorities on how to reduce or eliminate the observed errors.

Our first objective has been discussed in chapter 3 and 4. The errors inherent in each of the 3 categories of the scripts have been presented and discussed accordingly. In category 1, the errors falling into 8 grammatical categories
were analysed with respect to the EA theory. The findings indicated that the verb phrase related errors were the commonest, with a frequency of 258 errors followed by the noun phrase with 167 errors, punctuation errors with 103 errors, prepositional errors were 102, clause link errors had 36 errors, expression errors were 43, concordial errors were 37, word order errors were 34, adjective errors 13 and adverb errors 9, totalling to 802 errors.

Under the verb phrase category, omission of inflectional endings was the most challenging of the morphological verb phrase errors. This was especially noted with the omission of the past tense on the regular and irregular verb. The verbs predominantly occurred in their base or present tense form. The copular verb ‘be’ and its constructions was notably difficult for the HI pupils. Several instances were noted where the copular was either omitted or used redundantly.

In the noun phrase category, the definite and indefinite article ‘the’ and ‘a/an’ together with the pronoun use was mostly difficult for the pupils. Most errors relating to these grammatical items were omission and redundant errors. In the punctuation errors subcategory, the use of the full stop and the comma was notably troublesome for these pupils. Pupils mainly omitted them or used them incorrectly.

The preposition ‘for’ was the most omitted, most redundantly used and the most wrongly selected, over and above the other preposition errors identified
in the data. The coordinator ‘and’ and the subordinator ‘that’ in the clause link category were also recurrently omitted or used redundantly in most of the scripts. Concordial errors forming 4.63% of the total errors were generally from the noun phrase category where plural nouns were preceded by determiners used for singular nouns and vice versa. Within the expression errors, the verb phrase related ones were most frequent on the one hand, while word order errors mainly occurred among the sentence elements rather than within the phrases on the other hand. The grammatical categories that registered the fewest errors were those of the adverb and adjective categories largely because the HI pupils rarely adopt these items in their written language.

Our third objective was to investigate differences in errors between the partially deaf and profoundly deaf on the one hand, and those of SEE pupils and KSL pupils on the other. The pupils in category 1 whose scripts were analysable were mainly partially impaired who lost their hearing after acquiring speech in English. Only one case was that of a prelingually profoundly deaf pupil. These pupils mostly used the hearing aid. The fact that only the English of the postlingually, partially deaf pupils categorised the analysable data indicates that their English is better than that of the profoundly deaf, especially the prelingually deaf.

Categories 2 and 3 mainly comprised of prelingually profoundly deaf pupils who did not use a hearing aid. Forming a total of 30 scripts these categories
generally were composed of profoundly deaf pupils whose English could not be subjected to analysis by EA.

Objective 3 sought to establish error differences between SEE pupils and KSL pupils. Schools A and B used SEE while schools C and D employed KSL. However, as has been explained before, further research is required to establish the impact of SEE in the learning process.

From the above table, it is noted that schools employing SEE in their learning process (A and B) had fair representation in category 1 the analysable data. It is also significant to note that these schools have the fewest cases of category 3, the weakest scripts. Schools employing KSL (C and D) exclusively mainly featured in categories 3. We conclude that the impact of SEE on learning is positive and can be realised further if emphasised strictly.

Fourthly the study sought to discuss possible causes of errors and discuss pedagogic strategies to eliminate them. The causes of errors were guided by the strategies Richards (1974) propounded of which overgeneralisation of rules and first language influence (KSL) seemed to be the most common causes of errors in category 1 data. The study based on available literature also recommends that the strategy of total communication can assist in eliminating the standard 8 HI pupils’ English, with particular emphasis on methods following the English syntax such as SEE and fingerspelling.
5.2 FIELD AND CHALLENGES

In the course of this study, certain challenges were encountered which would enlighten other researchers interested in the HI domains. First, characteristics of the data encountered called for a change in the approach of analysis. We had set out to use the error analysis paradigm for the analysis of our data. Except for 21.05% of the data, the rest 78.95% could not be subjected to error analysis. The categories identified as 2 and 3, did not have enough English structures to allow for the reconstruction of meaning required by EA. Quigley and Paul (1984:22-23) note that probably the best indicator of a deaf child’s command of English is the quality of the child’s spontaneously produced written language, but there are no good, valid and reliable techniques for assessing this. This study was only able to use error analysis on selected scripts based on their readability. For EA to be used, it requires reconstruction of erroneous structures. This was only possible with the category 1 scripts. The other categories 2 and 3 have been assessed by highlighting some prominent features the scripts in them possessed.

Another challenge was encountered at the recollection of data stage. After administering the first set of tests, the researcher observed some uniformity in some scripts in the verbatim narration of some stories as well as use of sentences that were word for word similar in several scripts. An example would be:
It is often said that family breeds contempt and can easily happen in marriage. Holding on to romance is at helping couples keep marriage and hardly ever holding on to romance and possess after the lived... C2 and C8

Future researchers should supervise in person the composition writing exercise in their schools of study. If this is not possible, the teacher in charge must be notified of this possibility.

Additional challenges were faced in the field when the researcher was informed that there were no standard eight pupils in the deaf units initially included in the study. This affected the original sampling procedure. Originally the scripts were to be divided in the following order:

i). The type of school, giving two categories of deaf units and schools for the deaf.

ii). The type of sign language employed; SEE and KSL.

iii). The degree of hearing impairment; partial or profound deafness.

A random sample of picking any two scripts from the final sub-categorisation of deaf units was to be done, giving a figure of 8. Had the figure been less than this, the difference would be obtained from the sample in schools for the deaf. Another random sample was to be obtained from schools for the deaf by picking any four from the final subgroups to give a total sample of 16. The scripts from the schools were to be increased if the needed sample of 8 was not obtained. The figure below shows the intended sampling procedure of the
scripts to be used in the study.

Total Population (40±5)

i) Type of School
   - Deaf Units
   - Schools for the Deaf

ii) Type of Sign Language
    - SEE
    - KSL

iii) Degree of Hearing Impairment
    - a
    - b

Pick any two from each final subcategory (Total =8).
Pick any four from each final subcategory (Total =16).

Total sample = 16+8= 24.

Key:
- a - partially deaf
- b - profoundly deaf

The revised research methodology has been discussed in section 1.9.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS

It is important to note that 78% of the data collected from standard 8 HI pupils could not be described as English structures. Even in the category 1 data, the scripts had so many errors (100 per script) that it was difficult to envisage the language as that of a national examination class.
The findings of this study have certain implications. These are:

1. By standard 8 the deaf English grammar level has not reached the required standards of English to sit for the national examination.

2. The HI pupil’s preparedness for KCPE in English writing skills is poor and wanting.

3. There is need to reexamine the teaching methods employed in these schools.

4. The findings raise the question of whether the English curriculum is well adopted to the needs of the HI child. Of the studies done on errors of the primary school learners (See Maina, 1991), no study encountered unanalysable data (categories 2 and 3) encountered in this study.

5.4 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research was based on the morphosyntactic errors in the written English of the standard eight HI pupil. According to the data collected, only the first category was analysable using our proposed theory of error analysis. The second and third categories still require in depth grammatical analysis to describe the nature of their English.

A similar study can also be carried out on a different group of the HI, preferably those in secondary schools to assess whether there is any improvement in their English language usage at that level.
5.5 CONCLUSION

In view of this study, it is evident that the standard eight HI pupil has not yet mastered many of the basic grammar rules in English. The best scripts selected for analysis from the data reveal that urgent action is required to improve English language standards in the special schools if they are going to continue to sit the same national examinations with hearing children. This requires the effort of the programme planners at the Kenya Institute of Education, the schools for the deaf teaching staff, parents and the deaf child. Through such concerted effort, progress in the mastery of the English language can be achieved among the HI pupils. This will facilitate their communication skills and ensure better performance in national examinations.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Kenya Institute of Special Education Bulletin (1992) *The educational newsletter of the Kenya Institute of Special Education: Distance education*. (3)5 KISE:Nairobi


APPENDIX A

TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS:

This questionnaire concerns information on the standard eight pupils, the type of the sign language used in the school and the English Language teaching methods. Read each question listed below carefully and fill in or tick the appropriate answer.

1. Name of pupil: ___________________________

2. Degree of hearing impairment (Tick one)
   a) Hard of hearing 15-25 dB____________________
   b) Mild or slight hearing loss 27-40 dB____________________
   c) Moderate hearing loss 41-55 dB____________________
   d) Moderately severe hearing loss 56-70 dB____________________
   e) Severe hearing loss 71-90 dB____________________
   f) Profound hearing loss 91 dB and over____________________

3. Does the pupil use a hearing aid? Yes/No____________________

4. Age of onset of hearing impairment (state precise age if possible)
   a) before 3 years of age____________________
   b) after 3 years of age____________________

5. Which language(s) did the pupil acquire before losing his/her hearing ability? __________________________

6. Which sign language is used in teaching in this school?
   (a) Signed Exact English __________________________
   (b) Kenyan Sign Language __________________________
   (c) Other (specify) __________________________
APPENDIX B

PUPILS' COMPOSITIONS: 13 SAMPLE SCRIPTS

Category 1: A1, A2, A4, B1, B2, B4, B7, B8 = 8 scripts

Category 2: A9, B6, C5, D2 = 4 scripts

Category 3: C3, C7, D1 = 3 scripts
How I spent my last holiday. I woke up early morning. I took my breakfast. When I finish the work, I went to greeting my grand-father and grand-mother and give us my friendship.

Then I go back at home to see how can I went at time, my friend come to bring the mother problem. I heard some trouble at home. I run away to saw how the noise, I was outside the gate to wait the bus.

When I saw the outside of gate have no vehicle, I went at Kwamakro and boarded the bus goes to the Thika. When I arrived to Thika, I was very happy to saw mother in the hotel. At Thika we boarded some one matatus goes at home, we sat down in the matatus and start to talk. The story, we saw we stay in the matatus, my mother was hungry because of matatus goes slowly.

When we saw we start to arrived at home, we were very happy, the matatus stop at bus stop and all people at in the matatus come out, we went at home. I saw my mother at home has a problem of a work we arrived at home. And I help.
COMPOSITION (AE)

How I spent my last holiday was the day for closing school. We were home on 7th April. I journey to Kwamba to Ruiru. I was hungry so went with my mother to the hotel and eat a proper dinner. My mother told me what did you like to do? I said I like to visit Nairobi to visit my uncle. I was very happy living in Nairobi for a few months.

My uncle told me to prepare for Christmas things. I was fine and to make a lot of gifts, ones. My mother was not in Nairobi. She try to stay in Muranga for a full day. My uncle bought for me a new dress which is a book. I open and saw that dress. My uncle and aunt began to laugh at me. My uncle got to buy another thing to bring my grandmother who lives in Muranga with others relation. He come on dig and he saw me trying to cook a hen with Chapatis and my aunt began to tell me "you a older girl than me" because you know to cook food. I said thank you very much. My uncle began to laugh. Said "my uncle prepare the new thing and I keep on a big bag or box. I was happy because we are going for Christmas day were we live in Muranga.

We woke up in the morning. We bathed and wore new clothes, and we had tea and bread. We finished and beautiful morning.
COMPOSITION (A4)

How I Spent my last holiday:

When it was on Friday when I had to go home alone. That I was happy very much because then I had one happy.

After that in the morning I was number two when my uncle come to school he told him to went with me after the exams when was finished. When I found all the deaf pupils I went home with my uncle. When my uncle was happy he so he bought me some sweets.

When I hodged the mate at Kwamaka that the mate was quickly when I was happy for a day that our school was closed that the other deaf children went home and the others were stay school at two week.

When I arrived come all member of the family were very happy because they saw me that the were many visitors in my home that my father was going to Napor's show to see all other animals when he arrived home at night so he was very happy that morning he bought me all
COMPOSITION (B1)

How I spent my last holiday

During last holiday on 12th Nov 1999, when closed the school, My parents came and and I went home. On the way home we took a car for own mother. When we arrived at home, My brothers and sisters were very happy. We all had school on the same day. At home my parent was very happy to see my work in my books. I doing well and also my sisters was very happy. My mother when she saw my results in the paper. She me that I was doing well in my work. So my then buy me a good dress and shoes also it was very happy for that new dress and shoes. I told mother that thank my mother for buy me a good and shoes. When we finish that. My mother told me that 10th Dec 1999 we will visit our Cousins at Mombasa. So I was happy to wait for that day. When the day was near. All my brothers and sisters were ready to go to Mombasa. On 12th Dec 1999 in the morning we take both and after finish to both we took fast. We ate different breakfast. Some food was very nice and others was very big to finish them all. So we ate all my and we became full. After the breakfast, My father tell us We now start our holiday to go to visit our Cousins. All were ready “Asking father”. We answered “Yes father”. So My Jall took a bus and all we went on it. When we start our trip on 13th Dec 1999 it was my first day to see my Cousins at Mombasa. So I was very happy that day. When we arrive at Mombasa. We saw different people and a lot of what all around Mombasa area. We see the Jor Jesus Maria and many things.

During that holiday. When we came back at home I learned new persons in many ways. I help my mother.
My holiday.

Our school was closed on 12th November 1999 when my father told our the driver. My father gave the driver a telephone number that he was going to Nairobi. The driver said yes and the driver drove to Nairobi and picked Daniel, Alex and me from school in my father's car. We were travelling to Nairobi. Daniel, Alex and Minzi went to our home by bus and the driver went to my house; the driver went to my father's working place.

On camping day, it was only deaf people but two people were hearing. I woke up very early in the morning. I was put clothes into my suitcase. I went to have breakfast and waited until 8.45 a.m.

One day, they were going to Ngong's hill at 12.30 when they were looking at house made of wood and somebody were cool down. We were eating at lunch and we were playing and laughing.

Two, three, four and five days, we woke up early in the morning. They went for breakfast at 7.30 a.m. We went for Bible stories in three groups. After, we went for walk at 10.30 a.m. we went back in to our three groups and we were practising the songs and drama about Jesus, Abraham, Isaac, Abel and something. At lunch, we were eating bread and juice, we were playing for a long time until 4.30; sometimes they were playing with girls and boys.

At night, we were eating rice and meat, Leaders were dramatic and they were laughing at drama. After
How I Spent My Last Holiday

We closed school on 12th Nov.

I have little children for parent and wait. My

parent came in school and pick go home

my mother with Jane are work on rice
go until to bus and stay until stop down in
Tala out go to hotel with chapati, kyu
and soda finish food. My mother go to
Acacia supermarket buy other anything. We went to Matalu go home.

stop Matatu and give money 60/=.

My brother watch for mother wait
and look go run help for bag and share
for cause. I help to work in washing
and wash house. One day, I wake in the
morning and cook for tea. My family with
food for tea and bread. Jamhuri day on
12th Dec. Many visitors came to my house
and many food for chapati, kyu, soda
and fruit after go to home. My Jane
my uncle go to Nairobi stay until on 23
go to home. My we live in Kangundo.

after the night goat with meat many food
enough and go to sleep and I wake in the
morning on 25th Dec 1994 and cooking fish tea
and with my family together ate tea and
blueband with bread nice food and hungry bath
and cloth nice wear, go to church and play
pastor gave children gifts for biscuit and sweet
I am go to town with my

friend to buy soda. I am go to home and
How I spent my last holiday

On 12th Nov. 1999 we closed school and went home with parents, so we went by bus to Nairobi. The family was happy on holiday. My holiday at home the rest have work to help mother in clothes, cooking and sweeping. I am very happy on holiday the rest we are at home. Some of my studies another thing, I like to go to my friend about story do well holiday. At home my holiday the family rest for at night my mother to come at time 7:30 to help mother in cooking eat ugali, meat, tomatoes, cabbage anything. So my brother help in cutting meat and patatoes. They my family will for food all for only happy my holiday the holidays on 25th Dec. 1999. So that some rest things another work I like go my friend with brother to see happy that holiday. We are very happy holiday. I like rest to see Television and radio so work is cooking for eat rice, meat, Chapati, Soup patatoes and fruit anything. It was my family the holiday to do well and my father some is work the busy also mother is work in the market for city another many have friend the speak about on holiday. They are so stay the children only two but my mother and father have to work away. Also my friend so take about story. The rest very happy nothing born and my brother.
How I spent my last holiday
in home from where Kombui you are in
because there to stop go my home
in kicumbi known sick go agewa I go
my Kombui so go home not stay
August stay go home in Kombui you are
very hard in grace teacher very good
Kombui very good in a future in may te
story
Thank you have a name go
Nairobi Mrs Eva Composition you are go
we children now luseday week children go
know go primary go home not Sunday 23-72
so meni sport truth in meni them becau
wear in go sa home school beautiful no
in class girls & boys in class to learn elo
very hard teacher kagg then maybe teacher klas
Clever teaching in Children very go to
very dark in a something everalays very
I spent what known put in Nairobi my la
last holiday week not waimage please bys
in Nairobi you the to came Kenya have put
Bromazo yes Kombui have good Bordred
in where Nairobi bless you monk ao1 tis 5
I would live to story I cant brother bira
when they give us finish I
that we go to visit our parent It we do not
the garden of doing alone other wap
Our parent tell in welling not go any when
with helping them as do some work
hard so I spent go Nairobi yo
How I spent last holiday

When I closed school to home I help wash clothes, utensils, scrub and clean room. When I finish school I will wash.

I helped mother home work, shamba. I will go to closed on 12/11/2000 to 25/12/2000 woke early morning 5:30am bathing come back jelly oil, we new dress clean 1-to Kyuuni AIC gift things find to lunch 12:45pm I am go to Joy way church fruits different dance night to morning.

My brother work at help trading.

Mutituni primary school learnt Beth class six, Wambui class one, Mutiluka class Two, Muimo class at school. I father in work business to Nairobi.

I will go to matatu come to back with papers school fees opening Machakos school for the Deaf.

My Aunt live in makindu we are four sister.

We are two brother where does your family stay in Mutituni what is the name mother in Njeri. We are learnt holiday work hard K.C.P.E in class Eight A.

At Machakos school for the Deaf for children. I will bring come to back visit my family.

What did name is Mr. Muyaro. I will learn work hard K.C.P.E finish go to away closed school.

I will where school to God give prayer to prepare money. I am go to please when school where prayer to way protection.
How I spent my last holiday

How is home time come visit food all very happy a street go to home walk friend also planting my mother it is very cook ant taste we all that family has enjoy on holiday friedy to mona we are children or visit my friend come to home well and come very joy because my friend come at home has birthday so very taste we with eat after day mind on tomorrow. Start work some family must work to also they are goes to take jembe from and to in our bus be as family planting some dig very work they are like display to footwall taste so very good of play be come tired to football offer then your parent very on hourdy at home to go walk must be fore come be become so all your known any wa not heave any crop these year how is you place wrong holiday eat milk cup food is boy and girl am boy and eating father mother family many cause fine and cast their Prays to reached have cooked work carry for she good cooking and nice very holiday days happy very holiday days beautiful food is shop and water egg good thing thank holiday I am glad to write you this short letter with hope at heart that you are fine I am fine and enjoy in my school work Makuru is hot and dusty there are no farmers have not heaves any crop you place and members of the family you OK get greeting From my family and friend you we shall by closing school in a months time we shall have along holiday
How I Spent My Last Holiday

My name Rachel Wanjiru, and I live in Murang'a for the deaf. I have a big family, ten members. My name father's name is a he, work in the shop, I have sisters and brother three older. My name sister, want studying finishing than me. My name brother finishing in high school. So you myself sister, youngest than me. Fast time my when to in the study finishing. When close 31/3 at home my friend to visitors 4th April 2000 from Mombasa. I will future welcome meeting visit for all meeting from here go to many fit to holiday. My home hard work children one than boys, there to together four. My ever home with for mother everyday finishing come school 3rd May 2000 my class eight children. Five, there boys than girls two about education for subject different, you student to school for education my hear to school question very near for k.c.e so hope bless you try to pray in fit remember to word day.

Thank you teaching for all children, I there from food have growing vegetable cabbage, tomatoes, mangoes etc. Be now some people in the food problem bit me so sorry many.
How I spent my last holidays

I was very happy, because my family and some other people were also happy. We went on a family outing to a nearby town. We had a good time. My mother made some delicious food. We all ate a lot. It was very nice to see everyone happy.

However, my legs were very sore and I was not able to do much. I thought about my friends, but I saw them later. They were very happy to see me.

I spent most of the time playing with my friends. We had a lot of fun. It was a great holiday.

I hope to have many more holidays like this.
ENGLISH COMPOSITION

Name: David Kamau
Class: Eight

How I spent my last holidays

Write a composition about your holiday days.

My school is naala for the deaf. It is study my school close on 6/11/98. I with the deaf to gether came parent with going to faw thing pay hotel the super marret at bakh after car goin to home my family see deaf and father cane family happy children running lam in to school great for children father see at home on four morrow holiday happy very holiday day because with food cloths the day holiday marabal day poe souder dag dance song daram an eper match police men car gas good very work hard with my father farmer for us he work after cattle good it is mother work for washing and water wood fire good thing work my holiday day at home were enjoy able As we close school my mother picked me up when we reached home she cooked very nice meal for me one Saturday morning I was watering flowers in my garden when I felt helpless and fe
my nan are is boog masy wambui
masy is nan is gooks are
ware a are is my nan are gooks is are
jeman wabab is are eggs eat kee
is are skeek nana bananas are kees on
a man are wana are is kaaks are
mary is nana is giky is eggs are bananas
is are skeek are gooks is kaaks are
wami are is jeman wabai are is wambui are
arana is gooks are bananas are is are
jemen are is jeman is are usskaare
are is eggs kees jemy wamalsagawayaji
jambu baaskg kee9 wami gooks
liagai aremuagi are gooks jul arewa
jemebu are jeyul are are jul dog
are kees are is gooks jul are dog are
bananas wamiis are jul dog arewa
jemebu wamai giky9 jul aree bananaare
are is areew aree dog aree doogs am
liggs is aree dooky9 daag9 areek juliggs
bananahas is areewambul9g9x are
ommahar is aree dooks areegaly
is are gooks bananas eggs is cre9
j jul is dog aree aree dooks guly
jemen aree eggs are daag
FAITEU aree gill girl meci gidd
is are daaght aree do93