MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTIC ERRORS IN THE SPOKEN ENGLISH OF FORM TWO STUDENTS IN TWO SCHOOLS IN GUCHA DISTRICT, NYANZA PROVINCE.

OMAI MAINA .J

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

OCTOBER, 2010.
DECLARATION

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

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Supervisors

This dissertation has been submitted for the review with our approval as university supervisors.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acquisition</td>
<td>It refers to the process that involves naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language and through using it for meaningful communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disc system</td>
<td>This involves giving an object e.g. a piece of wood to anybody who speaks anything but the prescribed language. The offenders are punished at the end of the day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>A systematic and regular deviation from the target language norm. Errors are likely to occur repeatedly and are not recognized by the learner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error Analysis</td>
<td>The study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interlanguage</td>
<td>A systematic knowledge of the second language which is independent of both the learner’s first language and the target language. It is also referred to as idiosyncratic dialect or approximative system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interlingual error</td>
<td>An error which results from language transfer i.e. which is related to the learner’s native language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intralingual error</td>
<td>An error which results from faulty or partial learning of the target language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language proficiency</td>
<td>Refers not only to a person’s ability to carry out a communicative task but also how he carries it out e.g. ability to read, write, speak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>The study of the internal structure of words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School language policy</td>
<td>The language(s) prescribed by the school authority for pupils in the school compound.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second language learning  A general term that embraces both untutored (naturalistic) and tutored (classroom) learning.

Setting  The linguistic environment a learner operates in.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Contrastive Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>Error Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>Interlanguage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCPE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCSE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNEC</td>
<td>Kenya National Examinations Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIE</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOI</td>
<td>Medium of Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLL</td>
<td>Second Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
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MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTIC ERRORS IN THE SPOKEN ENGLISH OF FORM TWO STUDENTS IN TWO SCHOOLS IN GUCHA DISTRICT, NYANZA PROVINCE.

This study looks at the morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of two groups of students herein coded as school A and school B respectively. The study was guided by three objectives. First, it was to identify and describe the morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of form two students. Secondly, we sought to determine the difference in performance in elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not. Our final objective was to infer the cause of errors in the students’ spoken English.

The study employed the interlanguage theory which focuses on the transitional competence of second language learners. Nemser 1971, Selinker 1972; assert that learners develop a set of approximative systems on their way to the target language. The learners possess a certain body of knowledge underlying the utterances they make.

Data for this study was collected by use of a simple random sample of eight (8) students who were chosen from each of the schools A and B. They were subjected to a story telling session on a topic (oral narrative) of their choice. On data analysis, the tape recorded data was transcribed. The various morphological and syntactic errors were identified. To determine the difference in performance in the elicitation tasks given, the
transcribed data was scored out of 20 for each of the students. We used chi-square test to find out if the two populations can be considered equal in performance.

The study is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction. It tells us why and how this study will be carried out and what it intends to achieve. Chapter two is the literature review and theoretical framework. It helps to anchor the research firmly on its foundation. Chapter three is about the research methodology which gives details regarding the procedures used in conducting the study. Chapter four focuses on data analysis and interpretation. This is the raw data from the field is analyzed. Chapter five is a summary of the findings, conclusion and pedagogic implications of the study.
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the Study

In the Kenyan Education system, children attend pre-primary schools before they attain the age of six years where the Medium of Instruction (MOI) is the language of the catchment area which happens to be the mother Tongue (Ireri 1996). Kiswahili is used in urban areas and settlement areas as it is the language of the catchment areas. To some extent, English is used in pre-primary education in parts of urban areas especially Nairobi.

The Gachathi report of 1976 (as quoted in Ireri 1996) reinstated the use of mother tongue when it recommended that the language of Instruction in standard I – III should be the language of the catchment area; a policy which is currently in effect. For many children especially those in rural set-ups, the language commonly used at home has no relation with the language used to generate school based knowledge. The language is relegated to the periphery after lower primary and is excluded altogether from National examinations that mark the end of primary school learning. The complementary role that should exist between the language of education and the wider socio-economic context is lacking.

The restructuring of the Education system from 7-4-2-3 to 8-4-4 made the language policy more favourable to Kiswahili as it became a compulsory subject. However, English still remained the MOI for non-language courses throughout the Education system from standard IV onwards.
English and Kiswahili are official languages in the National assembly and parliamentary candidates have to pass language proficiency tests to be eligible to contest parliamentary seats. Mother Tongues are not recognized as official languages in the National Assembly. In the rest of the Public sector English remains the official language.

Government records, reports and all forms of written correspondences are in English. The official language of the courts is English. However, during proceedings, all languages are tolerated. In the lower courts Kiswahili and mother tongues are used more often, though written records are still in English. The constitution is also written in English. In the civil service and local Government there are no written regulations requiring public servants to be proficient in any language though English is the dominant language. The language of government business is English and to a lesser extent Kiswahili.

There are growing indications that even though English is the official language, Kiswahili is increasingly being used as an official language. Official documents of the Immigration Department including passports and passport application forms are written in both English and Kiswahili. In the mass media, in radio and television broadcasts both languages are used. Mother tongues are not used in any of these areas, except in radio and a few regional newspapers.

Several studies that have been done in the field of SLA (See Kimani 1987; Maina 1991; Nyamasyo 1992; Njoroge 1996; Ayoo 2004) have used written English at various educational levels. The analysis or errors in these studies is useful in designing a remedial syllabus or a programme of remedial teaching. A study of the spoken English of secondary school students is important to achieve similar objectives.
Performance in English has not been impressive since the inception of the 8-4-4 system of education and this trend has continued even after the introduction of the new syllabus in 2006.

The table below shows the general performance in English in K.C.S.E from 2006-2008.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Paper</th>
<th>Candidature</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>Standard deviation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30.71 (51.18%)</td>
<td>7.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>29.88 (37.55%)</td>
<td>12.66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18.93 (31.55%)</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>241,983</td>
<td>79.53 (39.76%)</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26.11 (43.51%)</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>34.95 (43.69%)</td>
<td>12.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18.34 (30.57%)</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>273,066</td>
<td>79.40 (39.70%)</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>24.59 (40.98%)</td>
<td>8.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>22.71 (28.38%)</td>
<td>11.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20.25 (33.75%)</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>300,794</td>
<td>67.57 (33.78%)</td>
<td>26.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Candidates overall performance in English in K.C.S.E from 2006-2008.

From the table above it can be seen that English as a subject has not been able to attain the average mark (50.00%). The performance has also been on a downward trend from 39.76% in 2006 to 39.70 in 2007 and finally to 33.78% in 2008. In English paper 101/1 where aspects of performance and language production are tested, performance was no better. The paper tests listening and speaking skills in written form. Such things as pronunciation, stress and
intonation, conversation and performance aspects of language are covered here as required in the new syllabus.

The paper (101/1) registered a decline in performance of 7.67 percentage points from 51.18% in 2006 to 43.51% in 2007. From 2007 to 2008, there was a decline of 2.53% percentage points form 43.51% in the year 2007 to 40.98% in 2008. The poor performance in English particularly after the introduction of the new syllabus which tests listening and speaking skills prompted this study.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Key among the skills students are supposed to master at the end of the Four year course is the speaking skill (K.I.E, 2002). The K.I.E syllabus outlines its core objective in the listening and speaking skills - which are integrated - as the ability to communicate correctly, confidently and appropriately in different contexts. However, the curriculum developers acknowledge that English being a second language, most learners have a problem in the mastery of both skills. Thus, the need for a study to enrich learners, teachers, teacher trainers and policy makers on the unique problems of teaching the speaking skill and provide insight and practical decisions in the school language curriculum.

This study analyzed Morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of Form II pupils in two schools. Though many studies have been carried out in Kenya at various levels of education in the field of SLA (See Kimani 1987; Maina 1991; Nyamasyo 1992; Njoroge 1996; Mburu 2003 and Ayoo 2004) none to the knowledge of the researcher has addressed the spoken English of students at secondary school level. Most studies have focused on the
written English of students at various levels of learning. But for Mburu (2003) who focused on the lexical and phonological errors of pre-school teachers in classrooms, no study has focused on the spoken English of secondary school students. An information gap was therefore deemed to exist and hence this study.

1.2 Research Objectives

i. To identify and describe the morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of form two students.

ii. To determine the difference in performance in elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not.

iii. To infer the cause of errors in the students’ spoken English.

1.3 Research Questions.

i. Which morphological and syntactic errors does the spoken English of form two students contain?

ii. Is there any significant difference in performance in elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not?

iii. What are the causes of errors identified in the study?

1.4 Research Assumptions

i. The spoken English of form two students contains morphological and syntactic errors.

ii. Students who use English exclusively in school perform better in elicitation tasks than those who do not.

iii. There are various causes of errors in the students’ spoken English.
1.5 Rationale for the Study

Corder (1973) notes that the most obvious practical use of EA is in teaching. Errors provide comments; they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his or her teaching materials and techniques and show him the parts of the syllabus that have been inadequately learned or taught and those that need further attention. Richards (1992) observes that a study of learners' errors would help to obtain information on common difficulties in language learning as an aid to teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. The findings of this study will be useful to syllabus designers in the preparation of teaching and learning materials on the speaking skill.

The study is also a contribution to the current studies based on performance language data of Kenyan learners of English (see, Kimani 1987; Maina 1991; Nyamasyo 1992; Njoroge 1996; Mburu 2003; Njiri 2004; Ayoo 2004). It contributes to the ongoing research into the analysis of errors of learners at different educational levels in Kenya. It expands the coverage of EA to include the spoken English of Secondary school students.

1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This research studied Morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of two groups of students. Clahsen (1985) states that the choice of linguistic structures to assess L2 development must not be arbitrary. It has to be justified in terms of their relevance to the process of L2 development. He further adds that the procedure should focus on the evaluation of syntax and morphology because these may be regarded as the structural frame of a language. Thus any claims about a learner's general L2 proficiency should at least include the evaluation of morphology and syntax. This explains our study's focus on the two areas.
The evaluation of oral L2 speech production should be at the core of an assessment procedure which aims at identifying the general development level of the learners' Interlanguage (Portz and Pfaff 1981: 7 Scherzinger & Scherzinger 1981: 18f) as quoted in Hyltenstan K. (ed.) 1985). Oral language skills are more important with regard to a learner’s communicative needs and claims about the level of a learner’s Interlanguage should be based on oral language data and need not come only from learners’ reading and writing skills. The assessment should be based on a representative sample of spontaneous speech which is gathered in a natural communicative situation. Thus our focus on spoken English.

The study is limited to Form two students learning English at high school level. It is assumed that the selected sample will be representative of the entire Form two population because they have gone through the same curriculum from standard one to eight where English is the medium of instruction and a compulsory subject. They have also been examined by the same body, KNEC and have attained the minimum government requirement of joining secondary School. The students are therefore assumed to be more or less at a similar level of English competence at the time they join Form one. Therefore, the morphological and syntactic errors they make are assumed to be a representative sample of those made by Form two students in other schools in the country.

Further, the choice of Form two students is based on the fact that they are still learners of English because they are receiving input of English content. Again, they have undergone the secondary school curriculum for a period of nearly two years and have managed to cover a good portion in terms of content of the secondary school syllabus.

The sample chosen of sixteen (16) students, eight from each of the schools is deemed appropriate for our study's objectives. The study does not deal with other variables like age,
sex, aptitude, socio-psychological factors such as motivation, attitude, personality etc. that are assumed to impinge on SLA. This is because the learners are looked at as the same cohort with their counterparts in other schools, they follow the same curriculum and have faced the same examination in standard eight and are being prepared to tackle the form four examination.

This chapter has focused on the background to the study, research objectives, questions and assumptions. The rationale for the study, scope and limitations have also been addressed. Our attention now shifts to the literature review and theoretical basis of this study.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0. Introduction

This chapter is a review of literature in the field of EA and the theoretical basis of the study. Under literature review there are three sub-sections. First is a look at the behaviourist theory of language learning, second is the contrastive analysis approach and finally error analysis. Then we shall focus on Kenyan studies in the field of EA. Finally we shall look at the theoretical framework on which this study is grounded. The chapter ends with a brief summary of the salient issues addressed in this chapter.

2.1 Literature Review

Several developments have taken place in the field of language learning. Among these, the behaviouristic approach advocated by B.F Skinner in his book Verbal Behaviour (1957) stands out. Here are some of its proposals and their shortcomings.

2.1.1 Behaviourist Approach

The behaviourist theory describes and explains behaviour using an SR-model. A connection is established between a stimulus (S) and a response (R) to the stimulus. Skinner (1957), the key proponent of this theory did an experiment using rats. He put rats in a cage with two levers. If the rat pressed the first lever, a morsel of food would drop into the cage. If the rat pressed a second lever, it would get itchpowder thrown over it. It turned out that rats are capable of learning: after a number of trials, they systematically pressed the first lever. On this basis, Skinner defined reinforcement.
Positive Reinforcement can be defined as an increase in the probability of occurrence of a response to a stimulus as a result of the fact that the response being correct is rewarded. On the other hand, negative reinforcement can be defined as a decrease in the probability of occurrence of a response as a result of the fact that the response being wrong is punished.

Skinner (1957) postulated that a theory of language learning should be derived from a behaviourist learning theory. He emphasized on tracing the features influencing behaviour. One key factor is frequency – how often an utterance is used in a child’s environment. Children imitate the language of their environment and it is a strong contributing factor to the language learning process. Also, parental approval is an important type of reinforcement because if a child produces a grammatically correct utterance, approval from parents may serve as reinforcement to such an utterance.

The behaviourist theory was subject to various criticisms. Chomsky (1959) in a review of Skinner’s theory argued that human behaviour is more complex than animal behaviour. Chomsky’s Transformational Grammar (TG) heralded a new era in which it was claimed that the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) enables the child to make hypotheses about the structure of language in general and about the structure of the language it is learning in particular. Beneath the overt behaviour is a complex system of finite rules which allow speakers to understand and generate an infinite number of sentences.

On Skinner’s idea of imitation as a strong contributing factor in language learning, Chomsky countered it by arguing that systematic deviations from the language of adults are strong evidence against any theory which seeks to reduce the learning of language to imitative behaviour. The following example from Els et al (1984:28) can explain this.
Consider:

In morphological differentiation countless instances of overgeneralization (extension of the domain of a certain linguistic rule) e.g come, goed, mans etc shows that the innovations on the part of the child cannot be traced back to imitation but rule governed behaviour based on the following principles:

For noun + more than one; use of noun +(s)
For verb + past; use verb +(ed).

Skinner’s argument that frequency with which words and structures occur in the language of the environment will influence the language development of the child was countered by the argument of Brown (1973) as quoted in Els et al (1984:30). He did a longitudinal multiple case study which investigated the acquisition order of 14 grammatical morphemes. It turned out that the acquisition order for the grammatical morphemes was quite similar for all children. This order of acquisition hardly correlates with the frequency of these forms in the linguistic input provided by the parents. Parental frequency can therefore not be said to predict the order of acquisition.

The concept of reinforcement as propounded by Skinner (1957) as a prerequisite to arrive at a higher level of language proficiency was also questioned. Brown et al (1968) as quoted in Els et al (1984:30) observed that in most cases parental approval and disapproval were not dependent on the grammatical acceptance of an utterance but on its truth value. Even if a child uses a primitive linguistic system, communication with parents is possible.

The shortcomings of the behaviouristic approach as advocated by Skinner (1957) led to the need for a new approach of looking at language learning.
2.1.2. The Contrastive Analysis Approach

Els et al (1984:38) provide a general definition of CA as the systematic comparison of specific linguistic characteristics of two or more languages.

One of the major concerns of language learning psychologists is the effects of one learning task on a subsequent one. Ellis (1965) supplies the hypothesis of transfer thus: that the learning of task A will affect the subsequent learning of task B.

Beginning in the post war years and carrying on to the 1960s (Ellis: 1994), there was a strong assumption that most of the difficulties facing the L2 learner were imposed by his or her first language. It was assumed that where there were differences between the L1 and L2, the learner's L1 knowledge would interfere with L2 learning.

The process that was held responsible for this was called language transfer. In case of similarities between L1 and L2, it functioned positively while in case of differences it functioned negatively. Teachers were encouraged (Lado 1957, Brooks 1960) to focus their teaching on the areas of difficulty created by negative transfer by applying massive practice to overcome them.

The psychological basis of CA then is transfer theory elaborated and formulated within a stimulus response (behaviourist) theory of psychology. Proponents of this approach argue that cross-linguistic similarities are facilitative of language learning, a process called positive transfer. The cross-linguistic differences that inhibit SLA are seen as old habits of L1 that stand in the way of acquiring L2 habits. Lee (1968:80) stipulates that the prime or even the sole cause of difficulty in SLL is interference coming from the native language.
Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974a) raised major doubts about negative transfer as a major factor in SLL. A large number of errors could not be explained by L1 interference. Corder (1981:57) states that the contrastive analysis approach cannot be satisfactorily pursued because it imposes a descriptive framework of one language on the data of another.

The question on which criteria could be used to establish (lack of) linguistic relationship and what it is that can be compared in two different languages arises. Els et al (1984:40) observes that languages are not structurally isomorphic—often there is divergence and convergence between L1 and L2—divergence for the L2 learner when there are more structural elements available in the TL for expressing specific meanings than can be found in the source language while the opposite holds true in the case of convergence. This can occur at various levels. For example at the morphosyntactic level convergence and divergence can occur as shown below Els et al (1984:40).

He waited bekledi beklemis

Where English has the regular past tense /-ed/, Turkish distinguishes between definite past tense /di/ (used if the speaker knows as a result of personal observation that the reported event has taken place) and a narrative past tense /mis/ (used if the speaker has not himself witnessed the reported action).

CA was more concerned on error occurrence on the basis of formal divergence between the linguistic systems of the L1 and TL.
Contrastive description of L1 and L2 will have to be based on the same model of description. However not all models of linguistic description will be satisfactory. Further, linguistic descriptions including CA will have to answer the questions why model A is to be preferred to model B. Two linguists in total accord about the levels and categories of language can still produce different analysis of the same language data. When this happens, it is probably the case that each linguist is using a different model of language. Carl.J (1980:35) gives the example below:

The word took /tuk/ can be analyzed in either of two ways:

i) /tuk/ → /teik/ +/ei/ → [u] which is to be read as: /tuk/ consists of the present tense form teik with the medial dipthong /ei/ replaced by the vowel [u].

ii) /tuk/ → /t-k/ +/-u-/ or/tuk/ consists of the discontinuous root /t-k/ with/u/ inserted to mark past tense.

Nyamasyo (1992) observes that CA is not appropriate when using learner performance data obtained from learners in a multilingual environment such as Kenya because it does not take into account the possibility that the learner may be learning two or more languages at the same time. It does not also take into consideration the existence of two or more languages in the learning environment.

The undoubted similarity of certain forms produced by many learners in their attempts to write and speak the target language led to a whole industry dedicated to the investigation of similarities and differences between languages. But learners still went on making errors many of which had no relation to the features of the mother tongue. This led to the need for an alternative way of looking at errors.
2.1.3. Error Analysis (EA)

The fact that there were certain errors which could not be traced to interlingual interference or be predicted by CA led to the rise of EA. Richards (1971) says that EA became distinguishable from CA by its examination of errors attributable to all possible sources not just those that result from negative transfer of the native language.

EA may be conducted on a homogeneous or a heterogeneous group (Corder, 1973). A homogeneous group is one that has similar aspects such as mother tongue, age, sex, motivation and equal knowledge of formation rules of the second language. The errors produced by such a group will be essentially homogenous. On the other hand a heterogeneous group is one that has differing mother tongues, sex, age, etc. Despite this heterogeneity, Corder observes that the group will exhibit common errors. He notes that the theoretical justification for this is that there are certain features of a language which are inherently difficult for anyone to learn.

On the mechanics of EA, Norrish (1983) observes that there are fundamentally two main approaches. The first and more common one is to set up categories of errors based on a set of preconceptions about the learner’s most common problems. It is referred to as the Pre-Selected Category Approach. Its advantage is that in this type of survey it is easier and quicker to carry out the study since errors are simply indicated as ticks on a list of categories. Its drawback is that the issue is pre-judged, errors will be found to fill the categories and the investigation takes on a certain circularity since errors can be sorted out in terms of pre-determined categories.

The second approach which was arrived at by Hudson (1971) and used by Politizer and Ramirez (1973), Maina (1991), Njoroge (1996), Mburu (2003) and Ayoo (2004) as described
in Norrish (1983) is referred to as “Let the errors determine the categories.” In this case the errors are allowed to determine the categories through a process of sorting and resorting of errors written on cards. Though cumbersome and time consuming, the categories ultimately determine themselves.

The other method that is less common is the “Quick Check Approach” which is more suitable for speech whereby the teacher listens to the language in an activity which is designed to produce particular language forms. The teacher may then note the tense used or the pronoun forms. This study will employ the second approach of “Let the errors determine the categories”.

Corder (1967, 1974) identified a model of EA which included three stages:

I. Data collection – Recognition of idiosyncrasy

II. Description - Accounting for the idiosyncratic dialect

III. Explanation - the ultimate goal of EA.

Brown (1994) and Ellis (1995) elaborated on this model. Ellis (1997) gave practical advice and clear examples on how to identify and analyze learners' errors. The initial steps require the selection of a corpus followed by identification of errors. The errors are then classified. The next step after giving a grammatical analysis of each error demands an explanation on the causes of different types of errors.
2.2 Kenyan Studies on Error Analysis

The findings of various researchers in the country show that learners exhibit errors in their written English. Some of these studies include Kimani (1987), Maina (1991), Nyamasyo (1992), Njoroge (1996), Mburu (2003) and Ayoo (2004).

Kimani 1987 (as quoted in Ayoo: 25) 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. His findings show that most of the errors found in the interlanguage of Kenyan school children could be attributed to the strategy of overgeneralization and that the source language does not impinge on the IL forms nor does it determine the relative difficulty experienced by learners in their acquisition of the structures. He further says that for example the suffix “s” may be used to mark all types of plurality. Thus nouns such as policemen and children were taken to be in their singular form. Consequently the learners overgeneralize plural marking with “s” leading to double plural marking e.g. childrens, policemens.

Nyamasyo (1992) examined the grammatical and lexical characteristics of the writing of Kenyan pre-university students. Her findings matched those of Kimani (1987) that overgeneralization was the main cause of errors among this group of students.

The two studies above (Kimani 1987), Nyamasyo (1992), aroused our interest as we sought to establish the causes of errors in students’ spoken English and establish to what extent overgeneralization as a cause of error extends to spoken English.
Maina (1991) carried out a study of grammatical errors in standard 8 pupils’ written English in four city schools in Kenya. His data generated 297 verb errors out 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. 311 verb phrase errors were counted out of a total of 1023 errors. In Njoroge (1996) verb phrase errors had the largest percentage of errors comprising 30%.

Ayoo (2004) conducted a research on the Morphosyntactic errors in the written English of standard 8 hearing impaired (HI) pupils. She obtained 38 scripts from four schools of 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 was the learners' written texts. Her findings (pp 129,136) were that verb phrase errors were the commonest with a frequency of 258 out of 802 (32.17%) followed by noun phrase errors 167 out of 802 (20.82%).

The mode of presentation by Maina (1991), Njoroge (1996) and Ayoo (2004) using the linguistic category taxonomy guided this research in presenting the errors observed using the same taxonomy. In addition the findings from the three studies that verb phrase errors had the largest percentage was significant because they had used written English while our study focused on spoken English and we were keen to establish if the same applies in spoken English.

Mburu (2003) did a study of lexical and phonological errors in the spoken English language of Pre- school teachers in classrooms in Kasarani division. The study was limited to eight
teachers sampled from pre-school teachers in classrooms managed by Nairobi city council which follows the stipulated guidelines by K.I.E. The findings of the study show that the phonological errors had a higher frequency of occurrence than lexical errors. In the phonological errors, the errors most frequent were those voiced in the category of wrong pronunciation of the voiced alveolar lateral sound [I]. In the lexical errors category, errors that were most frequent were those in the category of inappropriate use of lexical items.

This study guided us on our choice to focus on morphological and syntactic errors to broaden the scope in this area and extend the research to secondary school students.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Interlanguage is a term that was coined by Selinker in 1972 to refer to the learners' versions of the target language. It is the transitional stage of the learners' development. It has been referred to variously as Idiosyncratic dialects Corder (1971), Approximative systems Nemser (1971) and Interlanguage Selinker (1972) or transitional competence.

The term Interlanguage is a theoretical construct that aims at explaining the process of SLL. When evolving the term, Selinker believed that only 5% of learners who aim at achieving target language norms will achieve native-like competence, 95% will not. Consequently the learner's utterances will be characterized by systematic deviations from the target language since he cannot produce identical utterances to those of the native speaker.

Corder (1981) asserts that learners possess a certain body of knowledge which we hope is constantly developing, which underlies the utterances he makes and which it is the task of the applied linguist to investigate. Corder (ibid) further says that if the language learner is regarded as a learning device, then, since we cannot study the device by taking it into pieces,
we have to infer its nature from a comparison of the input to the device with the output from
the device i.e. the relation between the syllabus taught and the learners' grammatical
competence at any particular point.

The Interlanguage theory is therefore central in the methodology of EA as Els et al (1984)
assert because it focuses on the L2 learners and thus it consists of empirical research into the
nature and causes of deviations from the L2 norm.

Errors which were initially considered undesirable forms are treated as something that proves
that the learners are in the transitional phase in L2 acquisition. Corder (1974) states that
systematically analyzing errors made by language learners makes it possible to determine
areas that need reinforcement in teaching.

The L2 learner constructs an internal grammar on the basis of the L2 input he receives, a
grammar which in subsequent stages keeps being reconstructed and will approximate
(Nemser 1971) a certain target variety of the native speaker of that language more and more
although it will rarely be identical to it. This internal grammar is therefore characterized by
instability in the sense of change (Els et al 1984:69). The learner acquires and drops specific
varieties continuously.

Selinker’s (1972) concept of Interlanguage was thus one of a system which was in a sense
intermediate between L1 and L2. L2 development then consists of an increasing adaptation
of L1 rules to L2 rules. Corder (1981) however points out that the concept of interlanguage
should be used in a noncommittal sense as to the nature of the continuum, and L2
development should be envisaged as a movement through a series of increasingly complex
stages.
In an article entitled “Significance of learners’ errors” Corder (1967) contended that errors are important in themselves as they are a device the learners use in order to learn. Gass and Selinker (1994) defined errors as red flags that provide evidence of a learner’s knowledge of the second language. Errors are important as they contain valuable information on the strategies people use to acquire language (Richards 1974, Dulay and Burt 1974). The investigation of errors can be diagnostic and prognostic. Diagnostic because it can tell the state of the language learner (Corder 1974) at a given point during the learning process, and prognostic because it can tell syllabus developers about language learners' current problems.

The centrality of the Interlanguage theory in the methodology of EA as discussed above proved apt in our study as we were focusing on the process of second language learning. This explains our choice of this theory.

In this chapter, our focus was on the various developments that have taken place over the years in the field of SLA and the Kenyan studies that have been conducted in the field of EA. The theoretical framework that anchors the study on its foundation was also looked at. In the next chapter, we look at the research methodology- the procedures that were used to collect data and how it was analyzed.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the procedures that have been followed in conducting this study. The research design, site of the study, study population, sampling techniques and sample size, research instruments and data analysis and presentation are discussed here.

3.1 Research Design

Orodho 2003 defines a research design as a scheme, outline or plan that is used to generate answers to research problems. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection and analysis of data. This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative designs.

The qualitative design enabled us to explore and describe the various morphological and syntactic errors that emerged in the study. The quantitative design enabled us to determine whether there is a significant difference in performance in controlled elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not. We used the Chi-square test to establish this relationship.

3.2 Site of the Study.

The study was conducted in Sameta division of Gucha district, Nyanza province-Kenya. Both category A and category B schools are boarding schools situated in the same locality - a rural setting. The two schools were purposively sampled as they have the type of learners central to the issues under study i.e. their linguistic environments whereby in category A there is exclusive use of English in school which is reinforced by the use of the “Disc system” to ensure that it is used even in informal interactions while in category B there are no guidelines
on language use in school thus students can use either English or Kiswahili in the school compound.

3.3 Study Population

There are ten public secondary schools and two private secondary schools in Sameta Division, Gucha District. Two of them, herein coded as category A and Category B respectively were selected for study. Both are boarding schools but category A is a boys’ boarding (Nyamagwa Boys) and category B is a girls’ boarding (Nyamagwa Girls). Variables like sex, age, aptitude and socio-psychological factors like motivation, attitude and personality that are assumed to impinge on SLA have not been dealt with here because the students are looked at as the same cohort who follow the same curriculum. The variables can be the subject of another study.

The setting of the two schools is conducive for this study. Both are in the same locality -a rural setting- this will ensure that factors like location and socio-economic background are not extraneous variables as the catchment area is the same. They are government sponsored schools and are adequately staffed with trained teachers. Syllabus coverage is effective in both schools. None of them offers remedial teaching or private tuition. The entry behavior of students to both schools meets the Government’s minimum requirement of two hundred and fifty marks (250) in K.C.P.E

Students in both schools have attempted a national exam (K.C.P.E) where English was tested as a subject and it was also the medium of instruction in all other subjects except Kiswahili. The two categories of students are at the same level (form 2) in secondary school. At this level it is assumed that the students have covered a good portion of the content of English in the secondary school curriculum and thus can provide adequate and reliable information for
this study. Again they are still learners of English because they are receiving input of English content and are being prepared to tackle a national exam-K.C.S.E.

3.4 Sampling Technique and Sample size

School A is a five streamed school. To pick one stream to be sampled, lots were cast whereby pieces labeled A-E were folded and mixed vigorously in a small box. Class monitors from each of the five classes were called and whoever chose letter C, their class was chosen for study. The selected stream had 65 students. To obtain our sample size of 8, we used systematic random sampling. We divided 65 by 8 to obtain the sampling interval of 8. Numerals labelled from 1-8 were written and placed in a box. Every 8\textsuperscript{th} case in the order 8,16, 24,32,……64, was chosen for study. The same procedure was repeated in school B which is a three streamed school. There were 49 students in school B and to obtain our sample size of 8, we divided 49 by 8 to obtain the sampling interval of 6.Numbers labeled 1-49 were written and placed in a box and mixed. Every 6\textsuperscript{th} case in the order 6, 12, 18,……49, was chosen for study. The total number of students who took part in the study were 16; 8 from each of the schools under study.

3.5 Data Elicitation

Richards (1974) enumerates a number of controlled elicitation techniques used by many applied linguists in the research on learners' transitional competence and the underlying systematic rules involved. These techniques include translation, free composition, elicited imitation, picture composition, sentence completion tasks, structured interviews and story telling. This study will employ the story telling technique.

The sample selected was standardized to sixteen (16), eight (8) from each of the schools-category A and category B respectively. There were two sessions which took place within
two weeks of each other. The sample was subjected to a story telling session on an oral narrative of their choice. The data were tape recorded, transcribed and the errors were identified. The errors were classified, their frequencies in each group tabulated and analyzed, and conclusions drawn.

### 3.6 Data Analysis and Presentation

Corder (1974) has used an approach that was also adopted by Gass and Selinker (1994) in error recognition and analysis that has the following steps:

- a) Selecting of a corpus of language
- b) Identifying errors in the corpus
- c) Classifying the errors identified
- d) Explaining of possible causes of errors
- e) Evaluation and possible implication of results.

On the mechanics of EA, the approach adopted by Norrish (1983) of ‘Let the errors determine the categories’ which was used by Hudson (1971) Politzer and Ramirez (1973), Maina (1991), Njoroge (1996), Mburu (2003) and Ayoo (2004) was used to categorize the morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of the form two pupils under study. The tape recorded data was transcribed and the errors identified. Through a process of sorting and resorting of the errors written on cards, the categories ultimately determined themselves. The identified errors in the sample were classified in terms of their frequency. The errors both syntactic and morphological in both category A and B were then analyzed and summarized in table form with the percentages from each category.
Using the Chi-square, we sought to establish whether the two populations of students under study are equal in performance or not given that category A exclusively use English in school while in category B they do not.

Finally, we tried to establish the cause of errors in the students’ spoken English by reference to relevant literature.

In this chapter we have focused on how data for this study was collected and the procedure to be followed when analyzing and presenting the findings. Our focus now shifts to the actual analysis of the data and the interpretation of findings in the following chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This study had three objectives. First, it was to identify and describe morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of form two students. Then, we were to determine the difference in performance in elicitation tasks between pupils who use English exclusively in school and those who do not. Finally, we were to infer the cause of errors in the students’ spoken English.

The errors identified were allowed to determine the categories themselves using the ‘Linguistic category taxonomy’ approach (see section 2.1.3). The errors were presented according to the category with the highest number of errors to the one with the least in category A and category B respectively. Using the scores obtained from the elicitation tasks we applied the Chi-square test to determine whether there is a significant difference in performance between the two schools under study. Finally, we inferred the cause of errors in the students’ spoken English. The total number of errors identified in category A in the various phrasal categories was 425 while in category B we identified 448. The total from both categories was 873.

The Interlanguage theory as discussed in section 3.2 was employed there. The IL theory is a theoretical construct which refers to learners’ various versions of the TL. An exhaustive analysis of the various types of errors is looked at against the background of the various grammatical categories as obtained in the standard variety of English.
4.1 Data Analysis

In this section we focus on the various types of errors in the various phrasal categories beginning with the category with the highest frequency to the one with the least. First, we focus on morphological errors followed by syntactic errors in categories where both were identified.

4.1.1 Verb Phrase errors.

A verb phrase consists of either a main verb or one or more auxiliary verbs with a main verb (Leech, G and Svartvik, J 1975)

Examples

a). She \textit{came}

Main verb

b). She \textbf{is} \textit{coming}

Auxiliary verb + main verb

There are two types of auxiliary verbs

i) Primary auxiliary verbs e.g. have, be and do.

ii) Modal auxiliary verbs e.g. can, may, shall e.t.c

A simple verb phrase consists of the main verb marked for tense e.g. Jesus \textit{wept}

Verb phrase

A complex verb phrase consists of the main verb and one or more auxiliary verbs

e.g. He \textit{might have been being beaten}

(Modal) (Perfect) (Passive) (Progressive) (Main verb).
4.1.1.1 Morphological errors in the Verb Phrase category

i) Double marking of the past

An irregular verb is one in which some of the forms such as the past tense forms are not predictable e.g. come-came, sing-sang, dig-dug.

Examples

a.) The calf of the cow kicked that of the lion and it felled into a big hole.

Fall is under the category of irregular verbs that do not add -ed to form their past tense but instead undergo a vowel change. Thus, the past tense of fall is fell but the students marked it twice by adding -ed to fell which is already marked for past tense.

Instead it should be:

........and it fell into a big hole

b.) The hyena putted the food on the table.

Put is an irregular verb that does not undergo any change to form the past. However the pupils wrongly used this verb.

Instead it should be:

The hyena put the food...........

c.) When the hyena heared the hare’s voice........

The past tense of hear is heard and it does not add the -ed suffix.

Instead it should be:

When the hyena heard........

d.) The hare eated all the food and left nothing for the hyena.

Eat is an irregular verb that forms its past by changing into ate and not addition of the -ed suffix.

Instead it should be:

The hare ate all the food........
ii) Use of the simple present tense instead of the simple past tense.

Narratives are normally told in the past simple tense because they state events that took place in the past. However, the pupils used a few verbs in the present tense incorrectly.

Examples.

a). When the tortoise fall from heaven......

Instead of

When the tortoise fell from heaven.....

b). Eventually the hyena reached there and he get that his mother was dead.

Instead of:

Eventually the hyena reached there and he got that his mother was dead.

c). When his mother died he dress her very smartly and take her.....

Instead of:

When his mother died he dressed her very smartly and took her........

d). They start caning the hyena.

Instead of:

They started caning the hyena.

There were cases where the context preceding a given expression demanded that the past tense be used but the pupils used the present tense instead.

Examples.

e). The hyena saw that he was dying and he run away.

Instead of:

The hyena saw that he was dying and he ran away.

f). When the traders came they found that there is a smart woman and it seems like she is laughing.

Instead of:
When the traders came they found that there was a smart woman and it seemed like she was laughing.

iii) Using the “to infinitive” with verbs that are not in their base form.

The “to- infinitive” is used with verbs in their base form and even when used in a clause in its past tense form the infinitive must be in the base form (uninflected).

Examples

a). He feared the lion so he decided to run away

Instead of:

He feared the lion so he decided to run away.

b). The lion tried to threatened it…..

Instead of

The lion tried to threaten it…..

c). He decided to following it into the forest.

Here the “to-infinitive” is used with the –ing verb suffix instead of the base form of the verb.

It should be:

He decided to follow it into the forest.

d). This Nyamgondho decided to followed her

Instead of:

This Nyamgondho decided to follow her

iv) There was wrong use of the primary auxiliary verbs in the marking of past simple tense resulting in double marking of the past tense.

Example.

a). The hyena asked, “How did you did it?”

The first primary auxiliary marks for tense and thus the second auxiliary should not inflect for tense to result in double marking of tense
Instead of:

The hyena asked, “How did you do it?”

b). The hare asked, “How did you went?”

Instead

The hare asked “How did you go?”

c). The hyena said that they could go to wherever he could took him.

The modal auxiliary “Could” in the above example has already inflected for tense and thus the following verb should not inflect for tense.

Thus it should be:

The hyena said that they could go to wherever he could take him.

v). Wrong use of stative verbs in the progressive

The progressive aspect refers to an activity in progress. The dynamic verbs which most typically take the progressive aspect are those denoting activities e.g. walk-walking; read-reading; act-acting. State verbs cannot be used in the progressive at all because the notion of “something in progress” cannot be easily applied to them e.g. hope, love, seem e.t.c

Examples

a). Hyena her mother was being dead.

Instead of:

Hyena her mother was dead.

b). Because of his actions, the hare was being hated.

Instead of:

Because of his actions, the hare was hated.

c). After all the animals had ate, the hyena was seeming like he could not stand up.

Instead of:

After all the animals had eaten the hyena seemed like he could not stand up.
4.1.1.2. Syntactic errors in the Verb Phrase category.

i) Incomplete application of the perfective rule.

The past perfect is formed by the past tense of the verb “to have” + the past participle of the main verb e.g. had sung.

In the spoken English of form two students this rule seemed not to be well mastered considering the kind of constructions that they were producing in their spoken English.

Example.

a). So when the calf came back it got that its calf **has joined**.....

Instead of:

So when the calf came back it got that its calf **had joined**....

b). He told the bird what **has happened**........

Instead of:

He told the bird what **had happened**........

c). When the hyena realized that the hare **has known** what **has happened** he went to the hare’s house........

Instead of:

When the hyena realized that the hare **had known** what **had happened** he went to the hare’s house........

d). They discussed how they **had plan** and how they **had stole**......

Instead of:

They discussed how they **had planned** and how they **had stolen**...

ii) Incomplete application of the passive rule

The passive in the past is formed by using the past of the modal auxiliary + the perfective form of the verb to be + the past participle of the main verb. e.g. had been beaten.

However the students were not able to apply this rule fully giving rise to incorrect expressions.
Examples

a). He got his calf *has been thrown* inside.

Instead of:

He got his calf *had been thrown* inside.

b). The hen came back and found that the food *were eaten*

Instead of:

The hen came back and found that the food *had been eaten*.

c). After all the food *had been ate*.....

Instead of:

After all the food *had been eaten*.....

d). Because the cow *had been threaten*.......

Instead of:

Because the cow *had been threatened*. 
The table below is a summary of the various Morphological and Syntactic errors in the verb phrase category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error type</th>
<th>Category A</th>
<th></th>
<th>Category B</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Morphological errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Use of the simple present tense instead of the simple past tense.</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>13.73</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>14.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Using the “to-infinitive with verbs not in their base form</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9.63</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>10.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Double marking of the past tense</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6.506</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Wrong use of the verbs in the progressive</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.337</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Syntactic errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Incomplete application of the perfective rule</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.746</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Incomplete application of the passive rule.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.578</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>45.527</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>48.092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Taxonomy of Verb Phrase errors.
4.1.2 Noun Phrase errors

A noun phrase is a phrase which can act as subject, object, complement of a clause or as a prepositional complement. It is called a noun phrase because the word which is its head (i.e. main part) is typically a noun (Leech G and Svartvik J. 1975).

Example.

Mary (NP) bought a new dress (NP)

The subject Mary, the object a new dress are noun phrases.

The head noun can be accompanied by determiners (the, his) and one or more modifiers. Modifiers which precede the head are called premodifiers. (e.g. good, beautiful) and those which follow are called post modifiers (e.g. in a green dress).

Example

The beautiful (premodifier) girl (head) in a green dress (post modifier).

The structure of an English noun phrase can be written as

Noun phrase

Determiner(s)  (Premodifier(s))  Head  (Postmodifier(s))

The brackets indicate that the determiners and modifiers can be left out. However determiners are more crucial to the noun phrase structure than modifiers.
4.1.2.1 Morphological errors in the Noun Phrase category

i.) The students had a problem indicating the genitive case which is a grammatical case that indicates a relationship, primarily one of possession between the noun in the genitive case and another noun. Inflection of regular nouns in English is realized by an apostrophe + s e.g. boy’s.

In the students’ spoken English this rule was not adhered to giving rise to incorrect expressions (noun phrases).

Examples

a). The chief sons came and asked why the man standing.

The apostrophe + s is missing in the above expression resulting in an incorrect noun phrase.

Instead of:

The chief’s sons came and asked why the man standing.

b). The hyena friends came to see what had happen

Instead of:

The hyena’s friends came to see what had happened.

c). The chief sons surrender the money…

Instead of:

The chief’s sons surrender the money……

ii.) There were instances in the spoken English of students whereby the students used determiners + nouns to indicate possession resulting in incorrect expressions which could be represented by an apostrophe+s

Examples

a). Hyena her mother was being dead

The above phrase demands use of an apostrophe + s instead of a determiner + noun.

Thus it should be:
Hyena’s mother was being dead.

b). The leopard her cubs chased the hare........
Instead of:
The leopard’s cubs chased the hare.

c). One of the chief his sons came and asked....
Instead of:
One of the chief’s sons came and asked....

d). When the hare his mother died.....
Instead of:
When the hare’s mother died......

4.1.2.2 Syntactic errors in the Noun Phrase category

i.) Pronouns inflect for gender-feminine (she), masculine (he) and neuter (it). This is the area that students exhibited a lack of consistency in the use of the various inflections for gender.

Examples

a.) So after the hare did not kill her mother, he went and dug a hole.......  
The antecedent in the above example is masculine thus reference to hare’s mother as her mother is incorrect.

Instead of:
So after the hare did not kill his mother, he went.............

b)...eventually he reached there and he get that his mother was dead. She was very confused.
The preceding references to the hare are masculine. Thus reference to the hare as she is incorrect.

Instead of:
He was very confused.

c). While he (the cow) was running away she met the bird.
The students have mixed the references to the cow using both masculine and feminine pronouns.

Instead of:

While she was running away she met the bird.

d). The hare was keeping around there. She started crying saying he has killed my mother.

Instead of:

The hare was keeping around there. He started crying saying he has killed my mother.

ii.) There were errors in the noun phrase category that related to subject-verb concord. Concord is a relationship between two grammatical units such that one of them displays a particular feature e.g. plurality that accords with a displayed or semantically implicit feature in the other (Quirk et al 1985).

The most important type of concord in English is that of the third person number between subject and verb, the normally observed rule is “a singular subject requires a singular verb; a plural subject requires a plural verb.”

Example

My brother loves soccer (singular)

My brothers love soccer (plural).

This rule was not well mastered by students giving rise to incorrect noun phrases.

Examples

a). Then the cat answered, you know I am up here and you are saying everything that I knows

Instead of:

..........you are saying everything that I know.

b). So that when the tortoise come they would hurt him.

Instead of:

So that when the tortoise comes they would hurt him.
c). He would go to the lake to fish but all were in vain.

Instead of:

He would go to the lake to fish but all was in vain.

d). The leopard’s cubs was hungry and wanted some food.

Instead of:

The leopard’s cubs were hungry and wanted some food.

iii.) Articles are classified as determiners which show the kind of reference a noun phrase has.

(Quirk et al 1985).

They are central determiners. Determiners are categorized into three:

a). Pre-determiners-e.g half, all, double.

b). Central determiners-e.g articles a, an, the

c). Post determiners- e.g many, few, some.

Quirk et al (1985) points out that the three classes of determiners are set up on the basis of their position in the noun phrase in relation to each other. They occur in the order I+II+III.

The definite Article has two forms. It is always written ‘the’ but pronounced /ðə/ before consonants and /ðI/ before vowels

**Examples**

/ðə/ boy /ðI/ tiger

/ðə/ orange /ðI/ huge tree

In the spoken English of the students under study, they exhibited lack of knowledge on the use of the definite article resulting in incorrect expressions.
Examples

a). Since the cat was the friend of human beings.

The uniqueness of reference in the use of the definite article in the above reference is not supplied by any information given earlier in the discourse thus its usage is incorrect.

Instead it should be:

Since the cat was a friend of human beings.

b). This explains why the hen has no the granary to hide its food

The article the in the above usage is superfluous.

Instead it should be:

This explains why the hen has no granary to hide its food.

c). So, the woman asked the Nyamgondho.....

The identity of the character (Nyamgondho) is clear to the speaker and thus does not need the definite article to make its reference clearer. This results in an incorrect expression.

Instead it should be:

So the woman asked Nyamgondho.

The indefinite articles a/an are used where the reference is not uniquely identifiable in the shared knowledge of the speaker and the hearer. ‘A’ is used before words beginning with a consonant sound e.g a chair, a matatu.

‘An” is used before words beginning with a vowel sound e.g an imp, an umbrella.

There was incorrect usage of the indefinite articles as in the examples below.

d)...he went to the lake and on a surprise he found that the net hold a old ugly woman.

Instead of:

....he went to the lake and on a surprise he found that the net hold an old ugly woman.

e). Since the cow was carrying an heavy piece of wood....

Instead of:
Since the cow was carrying a heavy piece of wood.

f.) The hare ran very fast into a opening in the compound and .......

Instead of:

The hare ran very fast into an opening in the compound and .......

The table below is a summary of the various Morphological and Syntactic errors identified in the Noun Phrase category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error type</th>
<th>Category A</th>
<th>Category B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A). Morphological errors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i). Lack of inflection of regular nouns to indicate possession</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii). Use of determiner + noun to indicate possession instead of an apostrophe+s</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B). Syntactic errors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i). Lack of gender concord</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii). Incorrect use of both the definite and indefinite article</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii). Lack of subject-verb concord.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>106</td>
<td>25.541</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Taxonomy of Noun Phrase errors
4.1.3 Prepositional Phrase errors

A preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement, the other by another part of the sentence. The prepositional complement is characteristically a noun phrase, a nominal wh-clause or a nominal-ing clause (Quirk et al 1985).

Examples

a). The beautiful girl in (preposition) a green dress (complement)
b). From (preposition) what he said, (complement), he is supporting the draft.
c). The book is on (preposition) the table (complement)

4.1.3.1 Syntactic errors in the Prepositional Phrase category

i). The students in their spoken English used wrong prepositions in different contexts resulting in incorrect prepositional phrases.

Examples

a). And they came on discussion table
   Instead of:
   And they came to (the) discussion table
b). The food was brought into the table
   Instead of:
   The food was brought to the table.
c). The cat with a loud voice said, “Why everything me, don’t you know that my friend Mr. Duck is down the bed?”
   Instead of:
   ......my friend Mr. Duck is under the bed?
d). The next day he went to the lake and on a surprise.
   Instead of:
The next day he went to the lake and to his surprise.

ii). There was insertion of superfluous or redundant elements or omission of important elements to create prepositional phrases that are ungrammatical.

Examples.

a). When he reached at the gate of the bird he got that the cow……

Instead of:
When he reached the gate of the bird he got that the cow....

b). He arrived the market and found that the hyena.....

In the above example, important elements have been omitted.

Instead of:
He arrived at the market and found that the hyena.....

c). When the hare looked him on the face ....

Instead of:
When the hare looked at him on the face......

d). When they had waited him for long, the hare decided to go to the forest alone.

Instead of:
When they had waited for him for long, the hare decided to go the forest alone.

iii). Wrong use of prepositions without their complements to give rise to incorrect expressions.

Examples

a). The cock answered the one who is up knows everything.

The word up lacks a complement to make its meaning clear.

Instead of:
The cock answered the one who is up there knows everything.

b). The cat answered.....don’t you know my friend the cat is down?

The meaning of down here is incomplete without a complement.
Instead of:
The cat answered…don’t you know my friend the cat is down there?
c). The rat hid under and did not want to be seen.
Instead of:
The rat hid under (the table) and did not want to be seen.
d). The hyena tried to jump over but he could not manage.
Instead of:
The hyena tried to jump over the fence but he could not manage.

The table below is a summary of the various Syntactic errors identified in the Prepositional Phrase category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error type</th>
<th>Category A</th>
<th></th>
<th>Category B</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage %</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactic errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i). Use of wrong prepositions in different contexts</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7.469</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii). Insertion of superfluous elements or omission of important elements.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.542</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii). Use of prepositions without their complements</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.855</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>16.866</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>17.816</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Taxonomy of Prepositional Phrase errors
4.1.4 Adjective Phrase related errors

An adjective is a phrase whose head is an adjective. Leech G and Svartvik J (1975)

Examples

Mary is beautiful (adjective phrase)

Quirk et al (1985) defines adjectives as words which express some feature or quality of a noun or pronoun.

Examples

Tall (adjective) boy

Interesting (adjective) news

Adjectives have several characteristics:

i). They can take comparative and superlative forms by the use of inflections or lexical items more and most. Quirk et al (1985)

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tall</td>
<td>tall-er</td>
<td>tall-est.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big</td>
<td>bigg-er</td>
<td>bigg-est</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjectives with more than 2 syllables commonly use the lexical items more and most to form their comparative and superlative forms.

Examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>more interesting</td>
<td>most interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>more difficult</td>
<td>most difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ii). Adjectives can be pre-modified

Example

...
It was quite (adv) interesting (adj)

The tour was very (adv) nice (adj).

iii). They can have a predicative or attribute function.

Predicative function-they complement the subject or object of the verb.

Example.

The man is very old. (Subject complement)

Attributive function-where they appear between determiners and the head of the Noun phrase
e.g An old man
A beautiful girl.

4.1.4.1 Morphological errors in the Adjective Phrase category

i). The students made use of mixed grading.

Examples.

a). The hare believed that being poor is more worse than stealing.

Instead of:

The hare believed that being poor is worse than stealing.

b). The hyena responded, 'It is more good to be selfish than to work for eight hours in the farm.'

Instead of:

The hyena responded, 'It is better to be selfish than to work for eight hours in the farm.'

c). Of all the animals in the forest, the elephant was the most kindest of them all.

Instead of:

Of all the animals in the forest, the elephant was the most kind/kindest of them all.

d). The hare wanted the most easiest task of cooking than to go digging in the forest.

Instead of:

The hare wanted the easiest task of cooking than to go digging in the forest.
4.1.4.2 Syntactic errors in the Adjective Phrase category.

i). There were errors in the order of adjectives. Opinion adjectives came furthest from the noun followed by those of size, age, shape, colour e.t.c.

Examples.

a). When he went to the lake, on a surprise he found that the net held a old ugly woman.

Instead of:

.... he found that the net hold an ugly old woman.

b). The hare wanted to marry a tall , beautiful, girl in the village.

Instead of:

The hare wanted to marry a beautiful, tall girl in the village.

c). During the wedding day, the tortoise wore a yellow, long, beautiful, silk dress.

Instead of:

During the wedding day, the tortoise wore a beautiful, long, yellow, silk dress.

d). The lion sat near an old, wooden, square table as he listened to the animals case.

Instead of:

The lion sat near an old, square, wooden table as he listened to the animals case.

ii). In some cases the students failed to use the definite article with adjectives in their superlative form.

Examples.

a)... the hare told the hyena that he was cleanest among all the competitors.

Instead of:

.... the hare told the hyena that he was the cleanest among all the competitors.

b)... as they were preparing for the race, the chameleon believed he was best runner.

Instead of:

... as they were preparing for the race; the chameleon believed he was the best runner.
c). The elephant looked most determined to arrest the hare for failing to go the farm.

Instead of:

The elephant looked the most determined to arrest the hare for failing to go the farm.

The table below is a summary of various Morphological and Syntactic errors in the Adjective Phrase category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error type</th>
<th>Category A</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Category B</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A) Morphological errors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i). Use of mixed grading</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.855</td>
<td></td>
<td>08</td>
<td>1.781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B) Syntactic errors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i). Wrong order of adjectives</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.891</td>
<td></td>
<td>07</td>
<td>1.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii). Failure to use the definite article with adjectives in their superlative form.</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>1.686</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>1.781</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.432</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.127</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Taxonomy of Adjective Phrase errors
4.1.5 Adverb phrase related errors

Adverbs are words that modify the meaning of a verb, adjective or another adverb Quirk et al (1985).

Examples

a). They danced nicely (adverb)
b). She sang beautifully (adverb)
c). She ran quickly (adverb)

Adverbs are divided into classes that convey definable but wide ranging set of meanings.

Examples.

- **Soon**, it is going to rain (adverb of time)
- **Although** he is young, he is rich (adverb of concession).
- **While** she slept, I cooked food (adverb of contrast).
- **Slowly**, he went home (adverb of manner)
- **If** it rains, she will not come (adverb of condition).
- **He loves her very much** (adverb of degree).

Adverbs are mobile and can occur in many different positions within a clause. They can occur at the beginning (Clause-initial), in the middle (clause-medial), or at the end (clause-final).

Examples

a) **Sincerely**, Mary was angry (clause-initial).
b) Mary, **sincerely**, was angry (clause-medial).
c) Mary was angry, **sincerely** (clause-end)
Adverbs can also be divided into simple e.g. now, then, soon e.t.c. Or they can be compound e.g. everywhere, somewhere, anywhere e.t.c.

They can also be derivational-those derived by the addition of the -ly suffix to adjectives e.g. quickly, nicely, truthfully, lovingly e.t.c

4.1.5.1 Morphological errors in the Adverb Phrase category

i.) Although adverbs can be derivational i.e. derived by the addition of -ly suffix to adjectives, not all adverbs are so formed.

Examples.

a). The hare **oftenly** went to visit the hyena.

The word **often** is an adverb and does not need an -ly suffix.

Instead of:

The hare **often** went to visit the hyena.

b). The lion **seldomly** attended the farm gatherings.

Instead of:

The lion **seldom** attended the farm gatherings.

c). The lion **oftenly** disliked the numerous complaints he received about the hare.

Instead of:

The lion **often** disliked the numerous complaints he received about the hare.

4.1.5.2 Syntactic errors in the Adverb Phrase category

i). Some students substituted adjectives for adverbs resulting in ungrammatical expressions.

Examples

a.) The hare ran **very quick** to where her mother was....

Instead of:

The hare ran **very quickly** to where her mother was.......
b. Although the chameleon ran very slow he finally won.
   Instead of:
   Although the chameleon ran very slowly he finally won.

c. When hyena realized the food was over he felt real bad.
   Instead of:
   When hyena realized the food was over, he felt really bad.

ii). There were situations where there was redundant use of adverbs to create ungrammatical expressions.

Examples

a. She decided to return back to the lake where this man founded her.
   "Return" captures the sense of ‘going back to’ and does not require the use of the adverb ‘back’ hence its use is unnecessary and the resultant expression ungrammatical.
   Instead of:
   She decided to return to the lake where this man founded her.
The table below is a summary of the Morphological and Syntactic errors in the adverb phrase category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category A</th>
<th>Category B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A) Morphological errors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Derivation using the -ly suffix to words that are already adverbs.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B) Syntactic errors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i). Substitution of adjectives for adverbs resulting in ungrammatical expressions.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii). Use of adverbs to create ungrammatical expressions.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Taxonomy of Adverb Phrase errors.
4.2.0 Computation to determine the difference in performance in Elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not.

Our second objective was to determine the difference in performance in elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not. Our assumption was that students who use English exclusively in school perform better in given elicitation tasks than those who do not. The transcribed data from the students' presentations of oral narratives was awarded marks out of a possible 20 based on the relative ease with which they were able to communicate. The scores obtained from this exercise are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Students’ scores from the oral narrative presented.

4.2.1 Calculation of Chi-Square

Chi square is a statistical test commonly used to compare observed data with data we would expect under the assumption of independence between two variables. Mugenda, O and Mugenda, A (1999). It is used to test whether the deviation between the observed and expected results are due to chance or were due to other factors. It tests the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the expected and observed result.
The chi-square is the sum of the squared difference between the observed frequency \((f_o)\) and the expected frequency \((f_e)\) divided by the expected frequency in all possible categories.

\[ x^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e} \]

where \(f_o=\) observed frequency

\(f_e=\) expected frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed frequency</th>
<th>Expected frequency</th>
<th>((f_o-f_e))</th>
<th>((f_o-f_e)^2)</th>
<th>(\frac{(f_o-f_e)^2}{f_e})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>-50</td>
<td>2500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>-70</td>
<td>4900</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Calculation of Chi-square

\[ X^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o-f_e)^2}{f_e} = 47.25 \]

The degrees of freedom is determined by the number of independent constraints. We had sixteen frequency classes and one independent constraint.

\(d.f = n-1\)

16-1=15

The table value for 15 degrees of freedom at 5% level of significance is 24.996.

If we compare the calculated and table values, of \(X^2\) we find that the calculated value is more than the table value and as such could not have arisen due to fluctuations of sampling. The result thus supports our assumption that students who use English exclusively in school perform better in elicitation tasks than those who do not.
4.3.0 Causes of errors

Our third objective was to infer the causes of errors identified in the study. Although it is difficult to determine with any certainty that a certain error is related to a particular cause Corder (1981), the following are some of the possible causes of errors in the students’ spoken English.

4.3.1 First Language Interference

Although the Transfer theory remains controversial among linguists, it seems to have an effect on SLA in relation to this study. Lado (1957) and Lee (1968) held the view that SL learners almost exclusively rely on the L1 in SLA. Gass and Selinker (1983 a) observe that, knowledge of the native language plays an extensive role in SLA as reported in Selinker(1992:71). They assessed the role of transfer in SLA and concluded that the role of L1 in SLA was to them a fact.

The behaviourist learning theory propounded by Skinner (1957) as discussed in section 2.1.1 assumes that language learning was a product of habit formation. Larsen-Freeman et al(1992) observe that the process of SLA involves overcoming the habits of the L1. Criticism on the behaviourist learning theory by Chomsky(1959) was based on the assertion that human beings have a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) (see section 2.1.1.), a complex system of finite rules which allow speakers to understand and generate an infinite number of new sentences. Reliance on bits and pieces of learnt behavior cannot facilitate this form of creativity. Kenyan studies on SLA by Kimani (1987), Njiiri (2005) are agreed that the learner’s L1 does not impinge on SLA.
The controversies notwithstanding, examples like the ones below from the students’ spoken English pinpoint the fact that to some extent the L1 interferes with SLA.

Consider

a.) The hare said, ‘I will kick you once you sweat, kick you twice you see blood, and the last time you will see your brain.’

“To see blood” can be literally translated to mean to bleed having injured a part of your body, to see your brain means a total damage of the skull that makes its contents to spew.

b). He found the hare was crying and asked him, ‘My friend why are you crying?’

The hare answered, ‘No it seems the smoke is confusing my eye’.

When there is smoke at a given place and it infiltrates one’s eyes, there is a feeling of bitterness. This is what the student literally takes to mean, ‘the smoke is confusing my eye’.

c). They start caning the hyena. They welcomed him with enough slaps.

The expression ‘they welcomed him with enough slaps’ (lifted from the kisii phrase bakamoarigania nechindoe) has been lifted from the first language and it could be translated loosely to mean that they beat him very severely.

To a certain extent it can be seen that students at some point translate ideas and concepts from native language to English resulting in incorrect expressions like the ones above.

4.3.2 Overgeneralization

Richards (1974) defines this concept as the use of previously available strategies in new situations. The learners tend to make errors by applying what they already know of the language to a new situation where such rules do not apply.
Norrish 1983:32 as observed in Maina J. (1992) observes that, ‘some possibilities are the manner and order in which the language items are presented by the teacher or the text’.

This is because the learner invokes the previous knowledge in order to deal with new linguistic data.

**Examples**

i)

a) The calf of the cow kicked hat one of the lion and it felled into a big hole.

b) When this man became rich, he forgot that he had married this woman

The learner knows that regular verbs use -ed form to mark the past tense; the learner overgeneralized this rule to cover irregular verbs as shown above.

ii.) In the use of prepositions, there was overgeneralization whereby students extended the use of prepositions with verbs that they do not apply.

Example

When he reached at the gate of the bird he got that the cow...

The student overgeneralizes the fact that arrive takes the preposition at- arrive at; and extends its use with the verb reach, producing an ungrammatical phrase.

iii.) In the use of adverbs, students inflected the -ly endings to words which are already adverbs extending the rule that adverb s are formed by addition of the -ly suffix.

Examples

- Often-oftenly
- Seldom-seldomly

e.g The hare *oftenly* went to visit the hyena.
4.1.3 Incomplete Application of Rules

This involves the failure to learn more complex types of structure because the learner finds he can achieve effective communication by using relatively simple rules. The learner possesses only a partial knowledge of a particular rule of the target language.

4.1.3.1 Incomplete application of the passive rule

The passive rule in the past is formed by using the past of the modal auxiliary and the perfect form of the verb of the verb to be + the past participle of the main verb.

e.g. had been eaten.

However in the students’ spoken English, this rule was not being fully applied probably because the students realized that they can communicate by only applying part of the rules.

i) He got his calf has been thrown inside

Instead of

He got his calf had been thrown inside.

ii) The hen came back and found that the food were eaten.

Instead of:

The hen came back and found that the food had been eaten.

iii) When the tortoise had been declare the winner.........

Instead of:

When the tortoise had been declared...........

iv) The hare had been warn severally....... 

Instead of:

The hare had been warned severally............
4.1.3.2 Incomplete application of the perfective rule.

The past perfect is formed by the use of the past tense of the verb ‘to have’ + the past participle of the main verb. e.g. had eaten.

In the spoken English of form two students, this rule did not seem to be fully applied.

Example

i.) He told the bird what has happened ...

Instead of:
He told the bird what had happened ...

ii.) So when the calf came back it got that its calf has joined.

Instead of:
When the calf came back it got that its calf had joined ...

iii.) When all the animals has assembled ......

Instead of:
When all the animals had assembled ....

iv.) When the lion has finish speaking ....

Instead of:
When the lion had finished ....

In this chapter, we have analyzed the raw data obtained from the field and used it to address the objectives that we had. Our attention now shifts to our final chapter which is a discussion based on our findings, conclusion and the pedagogical implications of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY.

5.0 Introduction
This chapter constitutes a summary of the findings of this study, conclusions that can be drawn and pedagogical implication of the study. The areas for further research are also addressed.

5.1 Summary of findings.
The researcher had three objectives; first, we were to identify and describe the morphological and syntactic errors in the spoken English of form two students. Secondly, we were to determine whether there is a difference in performance in elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not. Our final objective was to infer the cause of errors in the students' spoken English.

Our study revealed that the spoken English of form two students contains morphological and syntactic errors which have been categorized into various phrasal groups. In the verb phrase category, the use of the simple present tense instead of the simple past tense was found to be the most problematic as in category A, the frequency was 57 with a percentage of 13.73. In category B, the frequency was 63 with a percentage of 14.03.

Although the students mostly employed the simple sentence structure, the verb phrase category proved to be the most difficult. Incomplete application of the passive and perfective rules was of notable concern. Its prevalence in both categories stood at a frequency 28 with
6.746% in A and 34 with 6.572 in B in the perfective aspect. In the use of passive it had a frequency of 19 with a 4.578% while in B it had a frequency of 23 with 5.722%.

In the noun phrase category, wrong use of articles both definite and indefinite was prevalent in both categories. The other categories namely; Prepositional phrase, Adjective phrase and Adverb phrase were not as prevalent in the data obtained meaning that students have little difficulty in this area. Clause link errors identified were too few to warrant an analysis as we were able to pick 2-3 errors from both categories which we considered insignificant. The overall impression is that verb phrase and noun phrase categories need to be allocated more time and practice exercises by the syllabus designers to help the learners grow out of their Interlanguage errors.

In our second objective, we were to determine the difference in performance in elicitation tasks between students who use English exclusively in school and those who do not. We used the Chi-Square test to enable us to establish whether the two populations can be considered equal or not. We calculated and obtained a value of 47.25 for $\chi^2$ which was more than the table value of 24.996 for 15 d.f at 5% level of significance. If the calculated value of $\chi^2$ exceeds the table value, the difference between the observed and expected frequencies is taken as significant. The result thus supported our assumption that students who use English exclusively in school perform better in elicitation tasks than those who do not. The fluctuations could not have arisen due to sampling or chance.

From this study therefore we can emphasize the need to use language in communicative and interactive situations to improve the proficiency of learners. Use of language in meaningful
and practical situations like story telling, drama, and debates is significant in improving the spoken English of learners. The students can be asked to role play, dramatize language items that give them problems and with the guidance of the teachers can be taught on the correct usage of particular speech forms.

Our third objective was to infer the cause of errors in the students’ spoken English. As observed in section 4.1.3, it is difficult to determine with any certainty that a certain error is related to a particular cause.

Although scholars are not agreed on the role of the first language in SLA, this study identified it among the causes of errors in students’ spoken English. The learner’s old habits interfere with the acquisition of new ones. Also, overgeneralization and incomplete application of rules were found out to be the other cause of errors in the students’ spoken English.

5.2 Conclusion

The results of this study show that both groups of students under study have errors in their spoken English which have been classified in the various phrasal categories and described. The results bring into sharp focus the Kenyan system of language learning and teaching where emphasis is on traditional and structural grammars. There is need to devise ways of using language in practical and meaningful situations to improve the spoken English of students e.g. Role playing, story-telling, debates, drama etc.

The curriculum developers should also re-think the training program in primary teacher training colleges. There is need to emphasize on specialization so that teachers can get training on areas where they are competent enough. There should be a shift from emphasis on
methodology to content. Being the engines behind language development in the crucial formative years, they should be competent in their areas of specialization.

The findings also are a pointer to the fact that the four skills of English i.e. reading, writing, speaking and listening are interrelated. Thus there should be methods devised to ensure that students read extensively so that they improve their competence in the other skills of language.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications of the Study.

As an English teacher, a research of this kind is important because error analysis is the best tool for describing and explaining errors made by speakers of a language in order to know the reasons for their occurrence year after year with different groups of learners. This study managed to extend error analysis to the spoken English of high school students and it reveals that their spoken English contains morphological and syntactic errors which have been analyzed herein. Being a second language to most learners, there is need to devise better methods of teaching it in practical situations so that the kind of learners who leave our education systems are proficient in it. With the numerous job opportunities in the liberalized media sector there is need to improve on spoken English to be able to compete in some of these areas where good command of spoken English is required especially in broadcast media.

The frequency ratings especially of verb group errors among the grammatical categories identified would act as a red flag to teachers and curriculum developers to assign more time and practice exercises in the syllabus and course books. The errors indicate the level of difficulty in relation to the frequency of each and thus the attention in terms of time and content required for each in the syllabuses, textbooks and by teachers.
The interlanguage theory as discussed in section 2.3 and the various studies reviewed herein can be of great help to teachers. They would help the teachers to understand the process of language learning and why students commit errors in their effort to master the target language. This will help in the objective analysis of the learning process in place.

5.4 Areas for Further Research

Error analysis as a field of study has been studied widely in Kenya and other parts of the world. However there are still grey areas that can be looked at to elucidate further on this area:

i.) A focus on the spoken English of learners can be extended to learners in higher institutions of learning e.g. universities to find out whether they too commit morphological or syntactic errors in speech. The focus can shift to other domains of linguistics like semantics, phonology etc

ii) The factors like age, motivation, sex, attitude etc. that are assumed to impinge on SLA can be looked at deeply to assess their effect on the spoken English of learners at various levels of learning. Other factors like socio-economic background can also be looked at.
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APPENDICES

Written Transcriptions from Students’ Spoken Data

A1

Why the Hen scratches the ground

Once upon a time the animals used to live together. So one day there were three animals which were great friends this is the rat, the cat and the hen. One day the hen had welcomed the cat to his home. On his way to the hen he was accompanied by the duck. On their way, they were discussing on how they will spend their feast in the hen’s home.

On reaching the hen’s home, they were given a warm welcome so they slept there and they engaged in all the meals, which were there. In the morning the hen woke up early in the morning and went for morning devotion. As you know very well the hen does not remember to close the door. It went for morning devotion and left the cat sleeping with the duck.

So, as they were sleeping they came across foods, which had remained during the night. They decided to consume them before the hen come from morning devotion. So the plan was now hot and they were ready for it. As they were partaking the meal immediately the hen came back while singing.

The cat heard the voices and decided that since he knew how to climb higher places he could go up the ceiling while the rat remained under the bed. When the hen came back he found that the foods were eaten and he decided to sit down with his wife while hungry. As they were seated
they started to discuss about the issues affecting their family. One of them being the school fees of their children, which are the chicks. As they were discussing the hen asked the cock, ‘Now how we do of this question of the fees?’

The cock answered that the one who is up knows everything. The hen then continued asking, ‘You know this is the time of famine what are we supposed to do since we have got no any other food?’ The cock answered, ‘The one who is up there he knows.’

Then hen asked the third question, ‘You know since we live in this country all we need is a lot of security, now what are we going to do?’

The cock answered, ‘The one that is above knows everything.’

While the cat was still up there he was angry and with a loud voice he said, ‘Why everything me, don’t you know my friend Mr. Rat is down the bed?’ Then the hen was amazed with what the cat had said. Then he said, ‘My friend what are you doing there?’

Then the cat answered, ‘You know I’m up here and you are saying everything that I knows; don’t you know that my friend the rat is down?’

Then, he was called from up there and the rat who was under the bed was called. And they came on discussion table. They discussed on how they had planned and how they had stole the food.

So, with a lot of anger the hen decided to chase away the cat and the rat since they were his great friends now they were his great enemies. Before the cat went away he cursed the hen. Since the cat was the friend of human beings he said this quote, “Now since you have chased me away human beings will like your meat and he said this life is Obusuma and Ingoho”.
Finally the cat went away, leaving the rat behind. And the rat since he was chased away he decided that what the hen would eat, he will also come and eat it. This is the reason why the hen has no the granary to hide its food and that is why it continues scratching the ground looking for food since he has got no the granary. The story ends there.
A2

Cursed be Foolishness

Take a story. A long, long ago there lived two animals; hyena and the hare. These two animals respected each other and they lived with great peace. So one day, the hare tricked the hyena that both had to kill their parents. The hare told the hyena that our parents are getting old and it seems our foods are being wasted on them. So what we can do, we want to kill them.

So, the hare tricked the hyena and she accepted that they will start with hyena’s mother. They arranged and killed hyena’s mother. So after that, the hare did not kill her mother, he went and digs enough hole and went and dipped her mother inside there. So the hare used to take food to his mother in that hole while the hyena her mother was being dead. The hyena realized that the hare did not kill his mother. So he arranged and went to the mother of hare where the hole was and killed her. So the hare carried the food taking to his mother. He reached there and eventually he get her mother was dead. She was very confused. When the hyena realized that the hare has known what has happened he went to the hare’s house.

He found that the hare was crying and asked him, ‘My friend why are you crying?’

The hare answered,’ No it seems that the smoke is confusing my eye that is why am crying.’

‘No tell me why you are crying,’ the hyena insisted.

‘It is due to smoke,’ the hare asserted.

When the hare his mother died, he opened his mouth and she seemed like she was laughing. He dressed her very smartly and take her to the nearest market, near a tree. When the traders came
they found that there is a smart woman and it seems like she is laughing. One of the chief sons came and asked why the man standing, he gave him one slap. The hare’s mother went down. The hare was keeping around there. He started crying saying he has killed my mother. The chief his son said, 'Don’t tell anyone; let me give you some money.'

The chief sons surrendered the money to him, enough money. He turned back and said to the hyena that although you killed my mother I have sold her.

The hyena asked, 'How did you do it?' He told him that he went to the nearest market and said, 'Who needs to buy a dead woman?' The hyena said this is a good reason. He said that I can get enough money by now. He told him, 'You take him and get enough money'.

So the hyena arranged and started shouting, ‘Who needs a dead woman?’. The people inside the market were wondering what was the hyena saying. There were strong youths there. They carried two other people. They start caning hyena. They welcomed him with enough slaps. The hyena saw that he was dying and he run away.

He went straight to the hare and asked, ‘You want me to die?’

He asked him, ‘How did you go?’

He said, ‘I asked who wants a dead body?’. No, it was not like that. It was your mistake. That is the end of my story.
Once upon a time there lived a man called Nyamgondho. He used to be a poor man. He had no house. He had no food to eat. He would go to the lake to fish but all were in vain. He would not get even a single fish.

So, one day he went to the lake at night and then left his net dipped in water. Then, he went to his house. But he had nothing to eat. The next day, he again went to the lake and on a surprise he found that the net hold a old ugly woman. So, this woman asked him to marry her. He accepted.

When they went to the house, the woman found that he had nothing to eat and no house and no bed. So, the woman asked the Nyamgondho to build a shade for a temporary house and to search for timbers so that he could build a house.

Suddenly, the woman did her magic and where there was a shade, there was a big house. They had a lot of money and they had food to eat. When this man became rich, he forgot that he had married this woman. He used to drink alcohol and come home late at night. He used to go to his two other wives but he could not attend to this old woman. She got annoyed because she could not be attended to
Nyamgondho also used to beat her because she had nothing to provide him. When he came one day at night and found this woman had already slept, he tried to knock at her door. The woman refused to open for him. He started abusing this woman. He even broke the door, got inside and started to beat this woman.

The next day, this woman woke up and never talked to Nyamgondho. She decided to return back to the lake where this man founded her. On the way, she took all the cows, the house and everything that she had given this man.

This Nyamgondho decided to followed her and upon reaching the lake the woman had already gone inside. This Nyamgondho stood near the lake and until now if you go near the bay where this incident occurred, this Nyamgondho is still there.
The Lion and the Cow

Long ago, there lived a lion and the cow. They were great friends and so they used to work together. One day, the lion and the cow went to look for food. They left their calves together. So, the calf of the cow kicked that of the lion and it fell into a big hole.

When the cow came back and got the calf of the lion inside the hole, she decided to run away because she feared the lion. While he was running away she met the bird. She told the bird what has happened. And the bird has no solution. So, he went ahead and met hare. The hare told the cow not to fear.

Soon the lion came back and he got his calf has been thrown inside the hole. He ran after the cow. When he reached and got the bird, the bird told him that the cow had went in that direction. So, the lion went ahead and met the hare. The hare never feared. The lion tried to threatened it but it never feared.

The hare told the lion, ‘If you joke with me, I will kick you once you sweat, kick you twice you see blood and the last time you will see your brain.’ The hare then went inside and told the cow to give its urine, blood and milk.

So, it came out with three gourds, one having blood, the other urine and one with milk. When the lion tried to fight, the hare threw the gourd with urine to the lion. The lion feared but went ahead
to fight. The second time, the hare threw the gourd with urine. The line feared a little more but continued to fight. And when the hare threw the gourd with milk the lion thought that its brain had been damaged and ran home to look for help.

The cow was very happy because the hare had saved him and promised to allow him take two cups of milk from his house every day. That is the end of my story.