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LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL ERRORS AMONG TUGEN LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

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DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

DECLARATION

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

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ABSTRACT

This research sought to determine and describe lexico-grammatical errors made by students in upper primary school. The objectives of the study were to describe the nature of lexico-grammatical errors, investigate the extent to which L_1 contributed to these errors and establish the effect of these errors on the learner language. The study was based on Error Analysis and Interlanguage theories. A simple random sample of seventy five standard six Tugen speakers from Baringo district in Rift Valley province was selected. The researcher then collected data from this sample and classified the various lexico-grammatical errors. The following tools were used for elicitation of data: written composition, passage rewriting, cloze test and a questionnaire. The errors that were identified were grouped into seven categories and later the frequency of occurrence analyzed. The study in the end established that there were indeed a number of lexico-grammatical errors. For instance, sound similarity errors posted a higher percentage compared to the other errors showing that the L_2 learners still needed attention to correct them. Language switch had fewer errors that were picked from this research. The research also established that a majority of these errors are caused by the process of learning the second language while others could be attributed to first language interference. In short, the causes remain varied. The research observed that Tugen L_1 speakers make a lot of lexico-grammatical errors, some hampering their communication while the other errors did not cause miscommunication. The findings from this study will be a source of knowledge to linguists and curriculum developers will gain insights towards the re-arrangement and re-alignment of the language syllabus.

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Error
The term will be used to mean any linguistic deviation from the norms of the language. An *error* takes place when the deviation arises as a result of lack of knowledge.

Target Language
Any language a learner is trying to learn; in this case English

Contrastive Analysis
Comparison of the learner's native language and the target language with the aim of establishing the areas of learning difficulty that are likely to be experienced by the learner.

Error Taxonomy
This is a table or chart where errors are tabulated and separated into their constituent pairs of categories for description and explanation.

Interlanguage
The systematic knowledge of language, which is independent of both the learners' L_1 and L_2 system that he/she is trying to learn.

Lexico-Grammatical Errors
This term will be used in this study to mean grammaticality of words or conveyance of meaning by words/lexical units in a grammatical manner Biber *et al* (1998)

Morphology

The study of the morphemes of a language and how they are combined to make words

Syntactic Structure

These are the rules governing the arrangement of words in a language to make meaningful sentences.

ABBREVIATIONS

K.C.P.E- Kenya Certificate of Primary Education

K.C.S.E- Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

L_1- First Language

L_2- Second Language

SLA- Second Language Acquisition

MT- Mother Tongue

LAD-Language Acquisition Device

UG- Universal Grammar

GB- Government and Binding

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the Study

The teaching of English as a second language to students in upper primary is aimed at enabling them to communicate effectively and to build a future career. For a long time, a lot of attention has been focused on learner language which is full of errors. The study of learners' deviations in any language is known as Error Analysis, that is, the study and analysis of errors made by the learner. Dulay et al (1982: 138) state that errors are the flawed side of learner speech or writing. They are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from the selected norm of mature language performance. They go on to say that mothers and teachers have waged long and patient battles against their children or students' language errors and have come to realize that making errors is an inevitable part of learning. Error Analysis has yielded insights into the L_2 acquisition process that have stimulated major changes in teaching practices.

This current study concurs with the one by Dulay and Burt since it emphasizes the fact that L_2 learners make errors in the process of learning. This research looks at the Tugen L_1 speakers and their process of learning English as a second language. These Tugen speakers are found in Baringo district of Rift Valley Province. It is a smaller sub-tribe of the wider Kalenjin community. They do not however speak the same dialect like the Keiyo, Kipsigis, Nandi, Pokot or Marakwet, all being sub-tribes of the Kalenjin speaking community. As a result, they may not necessarily make errors that are the same. It is because of this reason that this study sought to find out whether the Tugen speakers make errors as they are learning a second language, which in this case is English.English being the official language in Kenya is used as the medium of instruction in Kenyan schools right from standard four to university level and it is also taught as a compulsory subject in Kenyan primary and secondary schools. The use of English as a medium of instruction dictates that students have a certain level of proficiency in English. It is important for the pupils to develop competence in the language. This will help them to use English effectively and to understand the teacher in the classroom. However, several studies that have been done on the written English of second language learners reveal that

learners deviate in their written work. Examples of such studies are as follows; Njoroge (1987); Maina (1991); Simatwo (1993); Bartoo (2004); Njoroge (1996). The analysis of errors in these studies is useful in the re-arrangement and re-alignment of the syllabus so as to come up with a remedial programme for remedial teaching. A similar study on errors made by Tugen speakers learning English as a second language would help in identifying some of the causes of lexico-grammatical errors. Previous studies for instance Simatwo (1993); Njoroge (1996) among others, indicate that L2 learners of a second language i.e. English, have continued to perform poorly in the English language partly due to Teachers' lack of competence in the language of instruction. This in the end has led to students achieving low grades in English. There has been a lot of concern on the poor performance by most of Tugen learners of English. Many Tugen L2 learners progressed to high school without mastering the English language. The English syllabus for primary education aims at learners achieving communication competence at the end of standard eight (Kenya Institute of Education, 2002). All pupils are required to have acquired a sufficient command of English in both spoken and written forms through the language skills of speaking, listening, writing and reading. This is supposed to enable them communicate fluently, follow subject courses and textbooks, and read for pleasure and information. However, most Tugen learners still lacked behind in their language performance.

This research therefore aims at identifying the different types of lexico-grammatical errors made by Tugen L_1 speakers learning English as a second language so as to be able to categorise them and also to find out why these L2 learners deviate in their written work. This classification may be of pedagogical value to educationists. This is because they will be able to get some insights on some of the possible causes of lexico-grammatical errors. As a result of these inappropriate forms, there are lots of complaints from the general public about the dismal performance of students in languages, particularly English.

For students in upper primary to be able to communicate effectively they need to master the target language forms by writing in Standard English. But most L_2 learners make errors in their written work. According to the annual release of results, the Kenya National Examination Council (1999) noted with concern the declining performance on

Kenya Certificate of Primary Education exams. The report showed that in the year 1999, the mean score in English grammar tests was 53.48 and composition 32.58. This KCPE report of 1999 indicates that the students in primary school scored better in the grammar test compared to the written composition which they scored 32.58 percent. In another report published in the year 2002, the mean score in grammar was 42.20 while composition was 34.00. This second report by The Kenya Certificate of Primary Education shows a similar trend whereby students continued to score dismally in their written composition two years after the 1999 Kenya Certificate of Primary Education results had been released. These results show that the L2 learners are not making any improvements at all. The cause of this poor performance Engle (1975) could be as a result of the gap between teachers in the teaching fraternity and tutors in colleges. Some teachers in primary schools were not specialized in the English language because their lecturers in college were not specialized in reading pedagogy. In addition, some teachers trained as teachers because they lacked other courses. Therefore, there is a gap between both professionalism and interest. He observes that teachers were only prepared to teach facts and not principles. From these two reports, it was clear in this research that performance in the English language has been declining. The students do in fact deviate in their written forms. This is evident from this researcher's own background as a high school teacher. He observes that a majority of students join Form One even before they have mastered the English language appropriately.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Lexico-grammatical means the use of words/lexical units in a grammatical manner or conveyance of meaning by words in a grammatical manner. Lexico-grammatical errors in the students' written work hamper their communicative competence. It is evident from students' written work that they fail to use words correctly in that they end up coining new words, misusing words or using wrong word order in an effort to try and express themselves. This may be because they lack the proper vocabulary to use. It is for this reason that this study sought to determine and describe the nature of lexico-grammatical errors made by the Tugen speakers and to find out the effect

of the first language, which in this case is Tugen on the acquisition of the second language.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Establish the different categories into which lexico-grammatical errors fall.
2. Investigate the extent to which the learning process and L_1 contribute to lexico-grammatical errors.
3. To determine how these lexico-grammatical errors affect the L_2 learner's performance.

1.3 Hypotheses of the Study

1. Lexico-grammatical errors can be categorised into different classes.
2. Learners' learning process and L_1 are the major causes of lexico-grammatical errors.
3. Lexico-grammatical errors affect the L_2 learner's performance.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Dulay et al (1982) posit that the study of learners' errors serves two major purposes. One is to provide data from which inferences about the nature of the language learning process can be made. Secondly is to indicate to the teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students have most difficulty and consequently be in a position to correct them.

This study has implications since errors that are related to the process of the acquisition of English as a second language by Tugen speakers has not been analysed. The research therefore gives a detailed analysis of such errors. The research came up with a number of errors made by Tugen speakers which showed that they had problems with spelling similar sounding words, generating non English words among other errors. This researcher feels that these errors can provide more information to other linguists since

they will sample some of these errors and compare them with the other errors made by L_2 learners from other communities.

The study may also be a good contribution to Second Language Acquisition as an academic field and also to the study of error analysis and contrastive linguistics. Also, the teachers may get an insight of some of the most common errors learners make and as a result, attempt to correct them. The curriculum developers and language planners will be in a position to devise new curricula that put into consideration some of the most prevalent errors and suggest new methods of teaching to the teachers. In addition, linguists might find this research invaluable since they may get some important insights about error analysis.

1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study dealt precisely with lexico-grammatical errors. Lexico-grammatical errors in this study consisted of those words that did not convey the right meaning. These errors were collected and grouped into a number of classes. For instance, word coinage, sound similarity errors, omitting certain tense markers and at times using their mother tongue or Kiswahili words in their sentence constructions. This research did not cover all the error categories. For example, syntactic errors whereby L_2 learners are unable to invert sentences or construct sentences which are grammatical. In addition, we also have pronunciation errors in which case a learner has not mastered the phonological features of a particular language. This makes them to find it hard while pronouncing the words. To add to that, we also have lexico-semantic errors that deal with the meaning of a word. This study did not include errors at all levels of language. This limitation may be overcome if more studies are carried out on those areas that have not been looked at in this research. The other limitation was the target population. The study was carried out only in primary schools, and especially among standard six students. This meant that other classes were not covered in this study. But although the research was done in only one class, the results can still be applicable to the other classes that were not included in this research.

The other limitation of this study was the geographical location of the study. The study was carried out in Baringo district, Rift Valley province, in only one division:

Kabarnet. However, the findings from this study can still be generalised to include all the other learners who speak Tugen. This is possible since in linguistic research, the most important thing is to generate representative data which can be achieved even in one particular locality. The other limitation was the target population. This study sampled only Tugen speakers and this meant that non-Tugen speakers in the same classes were disadvantaged. However, this was overcome in that they were very few in number and they did not affect the findings in this current study.

CHAPTER TWO

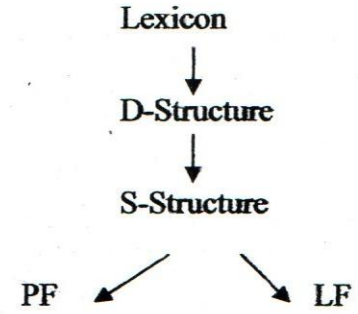
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This section is divided into various sections. First of all, the research will go through studies on lexico-grammatical errors and this will be followed by literature on error analysis and interlanguage. Then, we have studies carried out here in Kenya which are related to error analysis and interlanguage. The objective of this literature review is to fill in gaps, or to come up with additional information that will be of value to linguists, or to add another dimension to whatever information might have been availed by other researchers.

2.1 Lexico-Grammatical Errors

In linguistics, lexis has been derived from the Greek to mean "word" (Wray 2002). He says that lexis describes the storage of language in our mental lexicon as prefabricated patterns (lexical units) that can be recalled and sorted into meaningful speech and writing. This observation by Wray (2002) elaborates the fact that learners of a language have a 'store of language' in their minds that they sort into meaningful grammatical words/sentences when they are called upon to write or to speak. An L_2 learner may not necessarily sort out these words into grammatical words or sentences at all times. He/she may deviate and combine wrong words. Quirk (2003) and Hornby (2000) both define lexicon as the alphabetical list of words with their meanings. Chomsky (1981, 1982, 1986), as quoted in Black (1999) developed a theory referred as "Government and Binding". This theory Black (*ibid*) says, "Assumes that a large portion of grammar of any particular language is common to all languages, and is therefore part of Universal Grammar". She explains that GB theory view is that, "Universal Grammar can be broken down into two main components: levels of representation and a system of constrains". She adds, "GB assumes a derivational model consisting of four levels of representation". They are shown in the diagram below:



She explains and posits that, "the lexicon lists the idiosyncratic properties of lexical items which constitute the atomic units of syntax. These properties include what arguments the item subcategories for. Lexical items are combined together at D-structure and D-structure is mapped into S-structure, which is the syntactic representation that most closely reflects the surface order of sentences S-structure is not directly interpreted itself, but is factored into phonological form PF and Logical Form LF. PF is the interface with the phonology where shapes, sounds, and groupings of items are directly represented. LF is the interface with semantics. Predication relationships and the scope of quantifiers and operators of various kinds are explicitly represented in the phrase structure at LF. These levels are related to one another by rules, a single movement rule maps between D-structure and S-structure and a similar rule maps S-structure into LF". This assertion by Black (1999) shows that lexical items are combined at deep structure, and this structure is mapped into the surface structure. The surface structure reflects the surface order of sentences. Sentences are not just formed haphazardly, they follow a certain order. For instance, a noun cannot just be paired with another noun e.g. *man dog,* yet it can combine with another noun in an expression such as: *man of war, man eater* or *man Friday.*

Black (1999) expounds that a word, such as a noun, verb, adjective or preposition is a lexical category. In structural terms, she says they are called **heads.** Phrases are meaningful groupings of words built up from the lexical category of the same type that they contain. Examples of such phrases are: Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjectival Phrase and Prepositional Phrase. She adds that a particular head is choosy about what can combine with it to form a phrase. She gives the following example of a verb phrase.

relied on Max cannot combine as follows: *relied from Max* or *relied to Max*

This explanation by Black (1999) leads us to understand that all languages are rule governed. This illustrates that the grammar of a language is not haphazard; a learner of say English, must be able to apply all the necessary grammar rules in order to write legible sentences. The concept of language being rule governed means that language has a structure. This is what Lyons (1977) refers to as paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of words. Lyons (1977, 241) explains this relationship and says:

> Lexical items enter into paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations with other elements of the lexicon. Paradigmatic relations hold between a particular unit in a given combination of sounds , words or other linguistic elements and units which are substitute for it in that combination. They are set apart from syntagmatic relations, which are relations holding between a particular linguistic unit and the elements which precede or follow it in combination in which it occurs. For example the adjective big is syntagmatically related to the determiner *'a'* and the noun *'animal'* in the combination *'a big animal'* while it is paradigmatically related with other adjectives such as *'small'*, *'wild'* and *'carnivorous'*.

This assertion by Lyons reinforces what Halliday (1987) had said that, "By virtue of its potentiality of occurrence in a certain linguistic context, a linguistic unit enters into relations of two different kinds; paradigmatic and syntagmatic". A **paradigmatic** lexical relation is a culturally determined pattern of association between lexical units i.e. words Crystal (1987). He identifies the following relations: antonymy, synonymy, hyponymy among other sense relations. On the other hand, **syntagmatic** relations are those that hold between a particular lexical item and the other items which come before it or after it in that particular context (Halliday 1987).

Based on this discussion on the structure of language and language being rule governed, this current study aims at seeing the level that Tugen L2 learners have reached in terms of constructing grammatical sentences. The research is therefore aimed at seeing whether a particular word is grammatical or not, whether a lexical item enters into paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation with other elements of the lexicon. The objectives of the study are to identify and classify non-grammatical expressions and find out the possible causes. The study limits itself to only errors that are due to grammar. This is the

reason why the research is entitled lexico-grammatical. The study will therefore not go into sense relations but will just consider whether a word/phrase is correct by analyzing its order.

Goodwin (1990:101) explains the term lexico-grammatical as, "seeing language as meaning conveyance of words working in grammatical parameters". Wray (2002) elaborates and further says: "Lexis as a concept differs from the traditional paradigm of grammar in that it defines probable language use, not possible language usage". This notion contrasts starkly with the Chomskian proposition of a "Universal Grammar" as the prime mover for language; grammar still plays an integral role in lexis, of course, but it is the result of accumulated lexis, not its generator. Language use shows which occurrences of words and their partners are most probable. This observation by Wray (*ibid*) shows that language users rely to a very high extent on ready-made language "lexical chunks", which can be easily combined to form sentences. This eliminates the need for the speaker to analyze each sentence grammatically, yet deals with a situation effectively. Pinker (1999) expounds and says language usage is what takes place when the ready-made chunks do not fulfill the speaker's immediate needs; in other words, a new sentence is about to be formed and must be analyzed for correctness. Grammar rules have been internalized by native speakers, allowing them to determine the viability of new sentences. Language usage might be defined as a fall-back position when all other options have been exhausted. He identifies the following grammar rules:

- Colligation: the grammar words use
- Collocation: words and their co-occurrences
- Semantic prosody: the connotation words carry

Colligation is the habitual grammar that words keep Richards (2001). For example, the verb 'ban' is almost invariably used in the passive voice as in:

"*Smoking should be banned in restaurants*"

Collocation on the other hand is a rule that indicates how words co-occur with other words to form correct sentences. For example, the grammatical associations of *little* and

small interact in an interesting way with the Collocational associations of these two adjectives:

In general, *little* is similar to *big* in that it tends to co-occur with concrete, often animate, nouns such as *things(s), boy(s), girl(s)*. In contrast, *small* is similar to *large* in that it usually co-occurs with nouns indicating quantities such as quantity(ies), amount(s), number, proportion Richards (*ibid*).

Gough (1996) expounds further and says 'collocation' is the combination of words into two or three word clusters, which occur with a more than chance regularity throughout spoken and written English. For example, 'throw a party', 'strongly suggest' 'utterly amazed' and many more. Sinclair (1991) elaborates that due to wrong collocations, L_2 learners with good ideas often lost marks because they didn't know the four or five most important collocations of a key word that is central to what they were writing about. Hill (1999:5) gives us a clearer explanation and posits that these students create longer, wordier ways of defining or discussing an issue, increasing the chance of further errors. He cites the example: *His disability will continue until he dies* rather than 'He has a permanent disability.'

This study analyzed the Tugen L_2 learners to try and see their mastery of some English grammar rules such as collocation. This research did not consider semantic prosody, the third grammar rule, given above, since it deals with the connotation that words carry. Connotation is a subject for lexico-semantics and not lexico-grammatical.

Biber and Conrad (1998) carried out some research on lexico-grammatical errors, in his study; he says that systemic linguistics is the stratum which handles the wording of a text. He further says that it is the level at which various patterns of semantic structure are realized in word form and is concerned with classes of grammatical and in principle, also lexical unit and the relationships which may be established between them and the grammar above the word or grammar of the sentence structure. The attention in this current study will therefore not be between semantics and syntactic structure but on development of a framework for the analysis of syntactic structure of a text rather than on

semantic networks and realizational rules which map them into the lexico-grammatical wording. Biber and Conrad (*ibid*) underscores that the study of grammar exists at all times because language does not consist of a fixed number say 100,000 of possible sentences. On the contrary, owing to the creative potential of learners, language can produce utterances we have never heard before. This present study was aware of the dynamic nature of language and it tried to analyze any utterance that was made by Tugen L_2 learners and find out if it was grammatical or not.

Gordon (2002:89) in his book 'English for Life' reports an important observation that some words in the Bantu language in Uganda do not end in a consonant. This makes it difficult for students to pronounce final consonants clearly since they are not used to hearing them. He further says that many Bantu languages do not make any distinction between 'l' and 'r', 'f' and 'v' 's' and 'z' all of which in English , convey complete change of meaning. He adds that English has twenty-one or more vowel sounds while African languages e.g. Bantu in Uganda only have seven. Consequently, there are approximately fourteen English vowel sounds which Ugandan students may have to listen very hard to hear, and practise for many hours to reproduce. He gives the following similar sounding words:

Beat- bit	men- main
Bed- bird	Cat- cart
Coat-court	Cot- caught
Mad- mud	Heart- hurt

The most important of these vowels sound and most difficult to most of learners is the neutral unstressed vowel, so essential to the proper stress and rhythm of English conversation. Moreover an L_2 learner may also confuse the sounds of a particular word with another. This may be seen as some form of malapropism which Simatwa (1993) defines as the confusing of a lexical unit with another both having similar sounds, but with quite different meanings. He gives an example: *He can goes another problem.* Instead of 'He can cause another problem'. These slips are sometimes divided into two broad classes. One is classical malapropism in which case the errors are due to ignorance or temporary slips of the tongue, whereby the intended word is known by the speaker, but has been inadvertently replaced by another. The other category is what is called

mondergreens. They result from something being misheard rather than missaid e.g. "*Excuse me while I kiss this guy.*" becomes "*Excuse me while I kiss the sky.*" The other examples of mondergreens are "*very close veins*" being confused for "*varicose veins*". Mondergreens are common among musicians or rather music lyrics. Below are some examples of classical malapropisms: *A rolling stone gathers no moths, Their father was some kind of civil serpent* among others. This present research attempted to categorize errors based on those that were due to L_2 learners confusing similarly sounding words. The current study referred to such errors as 'sound similarity errors'.

O'Connor (1999) in a discussion on pronunciation and rules of grammar, observed that the art of grammar is distinct from the mere knowledge of the language; for all mankind are taught in their infancy to speak their mother tongue, by a natural imitation of their mothers and nurses, and those who are around about them, without any knowledge of the art of the grammar and various observations and rules that relate to it. He expounds further that grammar is nothing else but rules and observation drawn from the common speech of mankind in their several languages. O'Connor (*ibid*) adds and says, "Grammar teaches us to speak and pronounce, to spell and write with propriety and exactness, according to the custom of those in every nation who are or were supposed to speak and write their language best".

This information serves to explain that when we have been excellent users of our L1 we do not, in one sense, know the grammar of our language. We simply know the language. The grammar of a language can be described as the ways in which the words and structures of the language are grouped together to express meaning Lewis (1997). Grammar, Gordon (2002) consists not only of rules but also of observations drawn from the common speech of mankind this means that language is continually changing. He calls language a 'living thing' compared to say Latin which is no longer being spoken as a 'dead' language since it is no longer changing. As such, if we are to use and teach well we must see all the ways in which good speakers and writers use it, their ways of combining words, ways in which words are newly invented and the ever-growing grammar of English.

From this assertion by Gordon (2002), this study made its own assumption and observes that all languages have a grammar that is governed by rules that should be

followed so as to write grammatical sentences. The study as a result, tried to find out which errors could be because of L_2 learners poor mastery of the L_2 rules. Such errors were referred to as, faulty overgeneralization and collocation errors. This is because the study assumes that L_2 learners are taught by language teachers, so that they can master rules of grammar.

Coe (1997) in a study of lexico-grammatical errors explains that L_2 learners can coin new non-English words while attempting to construct words and sentences. In his work, he stated that words and phrases are often created, or 'coined,' by combining existing words, or by giving words new and unique suffixes and/or prefixes. For example, the word 'video' had been used to describe any visual image on a television screen, and 'tape' to describe a thin strip; the word 'videotape' was thus invented as a combination of these two words. Words that are combined are often shortened or lengthened, such as 'smoke' and 'fog' becoming *smog.* Words can also be created through abbreviations, acronyms, by intentionally rhyming with existing words, or simply through playing with sounds. The following are examples of word coinages: dot-com, radar, and laser among others. He says that Coinage is also at times referred to as 'loan translation' or *calque.* For example, 'see-through' for the word 'transparent.' From the above explanation, the study made an effort to identify and classify some errors under word coinage which has been taken to manifest errors that show learners' communicative strategy through invention of new words or phrases in place of those he/she doesn't know. In this study coinage manifested those errors where the L_2 learner created a new lexical unit/item which is non existent in English. For instance, '***rost***' instead of 'roast'.

Tarone (1983) also presented a taxonomy of communicative strategies some of which were divided into subtypes. They included paraphrase errors such as making approximations using features that are similar to the target language forms, word coinage in which case an L_2 learner makes up a new word in order to communicate the desired concept. The other strategies are language transfer here an L_2 learner may literally translate an item word for word from the native language, language switch whereby he/she uses the native language term. These strategies by L_2 learners in an attempt to acquire the target language forms were used to guide this current study in enabling the researcher to establish the different error categories. The research by Tarone (ibid)

however didn't cover all the error categories that the present study used in the process of classifying the different error types. From the taxonomy which was presented by Tarone (1983), this present study borrowed only two: that is, word coinage and language switch. L_2 learners make in an attempt to come up with closer and closer approximations to the target form by at times switching to another language. Language switch can be defined as the process of making words Non-English or English sound like English words Richards (2001).

This research found many instances whereby the L_2 learners drew from their mother tongue to get words without an equivalent in English. For instance, '*chorua*' and '*shamba*' these words are Tugen and Kiswahili words respectively. The word '*chorua*' stands for friend while '*shamba*' stands for land. In the mentalist account of Second Language Acquisition it is elaborated that a child builds up the knowledge of his/her mother tongue by means of hypothesis testing that is, the child connects his innate knowledge of basic grammatical relations to the surface structure from his/her mother tongue. The hypothesis is then tested out against primary linguistic data and modified accordingly. This shows that the child appears to build up his/her competence by successive approximations, passing through several steps that are not yet the target language. This concept of hypothesis testing was used to explain how the L_2 learner progressed along the Interlanguage continuum in much the same way as it was used to explain L_1 progression.

2.2 Error Analysis

There are a number of works that were reviewed in this section; the first one is Corder (1967) who advocated the importance of errors in language learning process to applied linguistics community. Corder (*ibid*) mentions a paradigm shift in linguistics from a behaviouristic view of language to a more rationalistic view and claims that in language teaching, one noticeable effect is to shift the emphasis away from teaching towards a study of learning. He goes on to say that in L_1 acquisition, we interpret a child's 'incorrect' utterances as being evidence that he is in the process of acquiring language and that for those who attempt to describe his knowledge of the language at any point in its development, it is the 'errors' which provide the important evidence. In

second language acquisition, Corder (1967) proposed a working hypothesis that some of the strategies adopted by the learner of a second language are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired. It doesn't mean however that the course or sequence of learning is the same in L_1 and L_2. By classifying the errors that learners make, researchers could learn a great deal about the second language acquisition process by inferring the strategies that second language learners were adopting. He further claims that 'errors' are 'indispensable', since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. He proposes that the study of errors is carried out by means of Error Analysis (EA).

In addition, Corder (*ibid*) argues that error analysis supplanted contrastive analysis since contrastive analysis sought to predict the errors that learners make by identifying the linguistic differences between their L_1 and the target language. The underlying assumption of contrastive analysis was that errors occurred as a result of interference when the learner transferred his/her native 'habits' into the L_2. Interference was believed to take place whenever the 'habits' of the native languages differed from those of the target language. This present study did not totally disagree with the contrastive analysis proposition by Brooks (1960) and Lado (1964) quoted in Carl (1980) that L1 features intruded into the L2. This is because one of the assumptions of the research is that L1 is the cause of a majority of errors by L2 learners.

This current research did not wholly go by the contrastive analysis approach, this is because it agrees with the other researchers e.g. Corder (ibid) and Selinker (*ibid*) that L2 learner errors can be caused by other factors. Contrastive analysis approach was challenged by many linguists who argued that whereas contrastive analysis looked at only the learner's native language and the target language, error analysis provided a methodology for investigating learner language at a deeper level. For this reason, error analysis constitutes an appropriate starting point for the study of learner language and L_2 acquisition Corder (1971). L_2 learners in the process of acquiring a second language make errors which can be attributed to the process of learning the second language, L1, among other strategies of acquiring a second language.

More evidence of the widespread appeal of error analysis can be adduced from Dulay and Burt (1982:140) who contend that "the instant and widespread appeal of error

analysis stemmed from the refreshing alternative it provided to the then prevailing but more restrictive 'contrastive analysis' approach to errors". Dulay and Burt (*ibid*) says,

> Contrastive analysis treatment of errors, which was popular up to the 1960s rested on a comparison of the learners' native and target languages. Error analysis supplanted contrastive analysis since contrastive analysis sought to predict the errors that learners make by identifying the linguistic differences between their L_1 and the target language. The underlying assumption of contrastive analysis was that errors occurred as a result of interference when the learner transferred his/her native 'habits' into the L_2. Interference was believed to take place whenever the 'habits' of the native languages differed from those of the target language. This view was however challenged by many linguists who argued that whereas contrastive analysis looked at only the learner's native language and the target language, error analysis provided a methodology for investigating learner language at a deeper level.

This assertion by Dulay and Burt (*ibid*) explains how the contrastive analysis movement became inadequate for purposes of explaining errors made by an L2 learner. It was observed by attentive teachers that some learner errors were as a result of learners' developmental stages and not because of their L_1. This is the reason why the error analysis approach was proposed. Fred and Wisconsin (1993:7) expounds further by stating that, "language teaching during the past 50 years or so has relied heavily on linguistic theory and on theories of learning". Fred and Wisconsin (*ibid*) claim that in the 1960s and 1970s, teachers were trained in contrastive analysis and among other things; they were often expected to write a contrastive analysis of a portion of the grammars of two languages. This was based on the then prevalent theories of language teaching, which in turn were based on earlier models of language, and language learning. However when the theoretical basis of contrastive analysis was found to be inadequate, teaching based on contrastive analysis went out of fashion and therefore the emergence of error analysis. The error analysis movement can thus be categorized as an attempt to account for learner errors that could not be explained or predicted by L_1 Fred and Wisconsin (*ibid*).

Richards (1971) classified learner errors as follows: those resulting from interference from the mother tongue, which he calls transfer errors or interlingual errors and those that result from the process of learning the L_2 itself, he calls them intralingual or developmental errors. Interlingual errors reflect the intrusion of features of learners' L_1 into the L_2. Examples can be seen from our data where the L_2 learners coin new words

without the /b/, /ð/, /Θ/, /v/ sounds since these sounds are non existent in Tugen which is their L_1. In addition, there are many more examples of sentences and words which show the intrusion of their L_1.

Intralingual errors are those errors whose origin lies within the structure of the L_1 itself, and are errors, which can be made by any learner, irrespective of his/her L_1. Richards (*ibid*) also explains and says that intralingual errors are those errors which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalizations, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn the conditions under which the rules apply. Overgeneralization errors involve the creation of one deviant structure in place of two target language structures. For example: *He can sings*. On the other hand, ignorance of rule restriction implies application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. An example is: *You like to sing* instead of 'Do you like to singing?'

This research borrowed from Richards's classification of errors to be able to get some of its error categories. For instance those that were considered as being due to interference from the learners' mother tongue or those that were due to the process of learning, which have been referred to as, faulty overgeneralization errors in this study. Chomsky (1959) questioned the behaviourist habit theory in explaining language learning and he proposed that all learners are equipped with an internal device of acquiring language which he called 'language acquisition device'. He says that the device is what enables all learners of a language to acquire items so long as they have been exposed to the target language.

This study assumes that all L_2 learners have the ability to acquire a language, and the errors that they make are due to their idiosyncratic differences. The study therefore analyzed each error and considered it to be unique to each L_2 learner. In addition, Gass (2001) says, "it is important for us to understand how second languages are learned, that when we study human language, we are approaching what some might call the human essence, that is the distinctive qualities of mind that are, as far as we know, unique to humans". This assertion by Gass (*ibid*) means that only human beings are capable of speech and other creatures cannot reach the complexity of a human being in terms of speech. The study of how second languages are learned she says is part of the broader study of language and language behaviour. It is no more central or peripheral than any

other part of linguistic study, which in turn has as its larger goal, the study of the nature of the human mind. She explains that the major goal of Second Language Acquisition research is the determination of linguistic constraints on the form of second language grammar.

Klein (1986) brings another dimension and says that first language acquisition occurs when the learner – usually a child – has been without a language so far and how he/she acquires a language. Klein (*ibid*) states that in languages like English, French and German, practically every sentence carries some tense marking affected by a finite verb. He posits that correct tense marking presupposes that the learner has acquired temporal concepts like present, past and future aspect. This is in itself an intricate and laborious process. Many children tend to confuse 'yesterday' and 'tomorrow' right into their early school years since they have two tense categories present and non-present. This proposition by Klein (*ibid*) shows that L_2 learners make errors because they have not mastered tense and aspect in target languages.

The study also picked some aspects from Dulay and Burt (1982) categorization of errors where they classified errors under four categories; linguistic taxonomy, surface structure taxonomy, comparative analysis taxonomy and communicative effect taxonomy. The Linguistic category taxonomy classifies errors according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent the error affects. The surface structure taxonomy classifies errors according to any deviations in the surface structure of the language item, such as, word order. The comparative taxonomy compares errors in the second language with those of children learning a first language. The communicative effect taxonomy is based on the effect the error has on the listener or reader. These are grouped as 'global' or 'local' depending on how much they affect communication. Although the above study is not the same as the present study, it guided the present study in the process of classification of errors. The present study used the linguistic taxonomy in analysis of the lexico-grammatical errors made by Tugen L_2 learners of English. Dulay and Burt (*ibid*) assert that errors that are based on linguistic category taxonomy classify errors according to language component or the particular linguistic constituent the error affects. The language components may include: phonology

(pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style).

Constituents include the elements that comprise each language component. For example, within syntax, one may ask whether the error is in the main or subordinate clause; and within a clause; which constituent has been affected whether it is the adverb, the adjective or the verb. Dulay and Burt (1982) however claimed that errors based on surface structure taxonomy highlight the ways surface structures are altered in this respect. Learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; they may come up with wrong constructions of items or wrong word order. He proposes that analyzing errors from this perspective of surface structure taxonomy holds much promise for researchers concerned with identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learners' reconstruction of the new language. In addition he expounds "it also makes us aware that learners' errors are based on some logic. That is, they are not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but of the learners' use of interim principles to produce a new language".

This research therefore classified errors based on the surface strategy taxonomy whereby errors were classified into different error categories, for example those that were considered as malformation of words due to the similarity of sound were grouped together under sound similarity errors or misspelt words amongst other categories. The other errors which were as a result of L2 learners using the wrong word order were looked at under collocation errors. After this was done, the same errors were given to some statistical analysis to rate the extent of each error category. Error analysis as a movement could not explain the causes of all the errors made by L_2 learners. This as a result led to the interlanguage model that was proposed by Selinker (1972).

2.3 Interlanguage

The notion of interlanguage first appeared in mid 1960s, before then studies of second language learning were motivated by pedagogical or practical concerns, such as the need to improve language teaching methods and classroom materials (Brown and Douglas 1994). The "Interlanguage Hypothesis", originally proposed by S. Pit Corder in a series of seminal papers in the late '60' and early '70s' (reprinted in Corder 1981), can be regarded as the starting point of L_2 acquisition as an autonomous field of inquiry

Brown and Douglas (*ibid*). The hypothesis stated that adult L2 learners have an "in-built syllabus": they construct a mental grammar, different from both the native language (L1) and (L2), that can be studied in its own right, and not only in comparison with the target L2 grammar. Errors, in this new perspective, became a window on the learner's hypothesis about the L2 and not just a measure of what had not yet been learned. The genesis of interlanguage can essentially be traced earlier assumptions such as "interference" proposed by Weinreich (1953). Weinreich (*ibid*) claimed that L1 interferes with the acquisition of the L2. This idea was also expounded further by Lado (1957) who came up with the idea of contrastive analysis that sought to compare a person's L1 with the errors in the L2. Contrastive analysis was later followed by the independent grammars assumption school of Chomsky also called language acquisition device. When these assumptions were challenged, the interlanguage theory was born.

Ellis (1994) states that language learning is like any other kind of learning in that it involves habit formation. He posited that a second language learner learned a second language by picking an item and recalling it the next time it is said just as an animal learns to respond to a bell as a sign of being given food. L_2 learners also respond to stimuli in the environment and subsequently have their responses reinforced so that they are remembered. Thus, a habit is a stimulus-response connection. The proponents of habit-formation theory believed that behaviour, including the kind of complex behaviour found in language acquisition, could be explained in terms of habit formation. Learning took place when learners had the opportunity to practise making the correct response to a given stimulus. Learners imitated models of correct language i.e. stimuli and received positive reinforcement if their responses were correct and negative reinforcement if the answers were incorrect.

This is the theory that had been proposed by B. F. Skinner which was called behaviourist learning theory. The behaviourist, also called habit-formation theory, which was being proposed by Lado and Bloomfield in the 50s didn't last since researchers questioned the behaviourist theory and came up with the mentalist theory. Chomsky (1959) stated that human beings have an "innate ability to learn a language". He continues to say that only human beings are capable of learning a language and that the human mind is equipped with a faculty for learning language, referred to as "language

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acquisition device". Chomsky, (1965: 36) expounds on the notion of language acquisition device and says it is separate from the faculties responsible for other kinds of cognitive activity e.g. logical reasoning. He says that this faculty is the primary determinant of language acquisition which only is "a trigger for the operation of the language acquisition device". The concept of *interlanguage* drew directly on the mentalist views of L_1 acquisition Ellis (1994). The term interlanguage was coined by the American linguist, Larry Selinker (1972), in recognition of the fact that L_2 learners construct a linguistic system that draws, in part, on the learners L_1 but is also different from it and also from the target language. A learners' interlanguage is therefore a unique linguistic system (Richards and Jack 1992).

Ellis (1994) elaborates about the concept of interlanguage and says it involves the following premises about L_2 acquisition: the learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlie comprehension and production of the L_2. He further underscores that this system of rules is viewed as a mental grammar and is referred to as an "Interlanguage". Secondly, the learners' grammar is permeable. That is, "the grammar is open to influence from the outside i.e. through input. It is also open to influence from inside. For example, omission, overgeneralization and transfer errors constitute evidence of internal processing. The learners' grammar is transitional in that learners change their grammar from one time to another by adding rules, deleting rules, and reconstructing the whole system". This result in an "interlanguage continuum" whereby L2 learners construct interlanguages as they gradually increase their complexity of their L2 knowledge. The evidence of this assertion has been elaborated by Ellis (1986) that there are two types of variability in Interlanguage, contextual and free variability. Contextual variability is of two types: situational and linguistic context. The situational context is shown as a continuum of Interlanguage styles. At one end of the continuum is the vernacular style, which is called upon when the learner is not attending to his speech. This is the style that is both most natural and most systematic. At the other end of the continuum is the careful style, which is most evident in tasks that require the learner to make grammatical judgement. The careful style is called upon when the learner is attending closely to his speech. Thus the stylistic continuum is the product of differing degrees of attention reflected in a variety of performance tasks. This featured in this

research whereby when the learners were writing a composition which is a free expression test, they tended to make more mistakes compared to the passage rewriting and cloze test which revealed more caution. Learners thus used the wrong form of the word when they were not self-monitoring but used the target forms when self-monitoring

This does not mean that these learners always use the correct form while they are self-monitoring; there are still cases of the same learners using the wrong forms even though they monitor their speech. But we can draw conclusions that these approximations will finally reach a point where they are able to use the target language form. Corder (1967) made the comparison of hypothesis testing between L_1 and L_2 explicit by proposing that at least some of the strategies used by the L_2 learners were the same as those by which L_1 acquisition takes place. This current study used the Interlanguage model as proposed by Selinker (1972) who stated that there are five processes of Interlanguage, the first one being language transfer in which case the learner projects the features of L_1 on the second language. The second one is overgeneralization of L_2 language rules; this is whereby the learner projects rules of the second language, which are not permitted. This is followed by transfer of training; whereby teaching creates language rules that are not part of L_2 rules. The other one is strategies of L_2 language learning such as simplification that means that the learner tries to simplify the rules to suit his or her own.

In a somewhat different model, but in general agreement, a paper by Nemser (1971) spoke of approximative systems. The term reflects the notion of successive approximations of target behaviour used at the time in work in programmed instruction. Nemser (*ibid*) defines approximative system, as the learner speech at a given time. It is the patterned product of a linguistic system distinct from source and target language and internally structured. In thinking about the learner's performance as an object of study, Selinker (1972 a) picked up Corder's idea and tentatively tried out his term: 'interlanguage'. He claimed that it is the type of language produced by second and foreign language learners who are in the process of learning a language. In language learning, learner's errors are caused by several different processes. These include borrowing some items from the mother tongue and expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known. Interlanguage refers to the second language

learner's system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target language. The interlanguage model can be seen in three perspectives one is the assumption by Corder (1971) which he calls idiosyncratic dialect which means that a learner is equipped with his/her own unique dialect different from another learner. The concept of interlanguage can also be seen as what Nemser (1971) calls approximative system that is:

> At any given time, the approximative system is distinct from the L1 and L2, the approximative systems form an evolving series and that in any given situation, the approximative systems of learners at the same stage of proficiency roughly coincide.

This explanation by Nemser (*ibid*) implies that learner language is distinct from L1 and L2.

The last perspective is what Selinker (1972) called interlanguage. He says it is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language; but instead falls between the two; it is a system based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners slowly and tediously succeed in establishing closer and closer approximations to the system used by native speakers of the language. Second language learners in this study made approximations such as switching to another language, coining words, misusing words, and joining words inappropriately among other strategies in order to be able to communicate in their writing. This meant that L2 learners try to establish closer approximations to the target language forms.

2.4 Studies on Error Analysis in Kenya

Several studies based on Error Analysis have been carried out in Kenya. Since error analysis is used to reveal the interlanguage of the learners, many studies on acquisition of structures of English use error analysis.

Njoroge (1987) carried out a study on the acquisition of six morphosyntactic structures in relation to cross-linguistic influence on the interlanguage. His main focus was the students of upper primary that is standard six to eight. He used three Kenyan languages to find out if interference or cross-linguistic influence caused difficulties in

acquisition of six-morphosyntactic structures of English. The said communities were Luo, Kalenjin and Kikuyu. This research borrowed some aspect from Njoroge's research, that is, the effect of L_1 on L_2 acquisition. However, the present study went further to establish other causes of errors made by Tugen speakers and did not limit itself to L1 interference alone. The difference between Njoroge's and this study is also on the scope that this research covered. This current study did not limit itself to the cross-linguistic influence from the three different languages, but rather focussed on one community that is, the Tugen speakers, a sub-tribe of the Kalenjin speakers. It also looked at students in only one class; standard six yet Njoroge's research studied all the classes ranging from class six to eight.

Maina (1991) carried out a study of the grammar errors in standard eight students' written work in English. He used four primary schools in Nairobi city. Some of his objectives were to find out the most frequent errors that L_2 learners made and whether these errors interfered with the students' competence at this level and the main cause of these learner errors. He found out that past aspect errors in relation to the lexical verbs were the most frequent in standard 8 students' written work. This showed that 'past aspect' was the greatest area of difficulty in learning English at that level. Other grammar errors were also identified although they were not as frequent as the past aspect ones. The other errors that Maina (*ibid*) collected included agreement or concord errors, errors of omission, regularization errors and errors of negation. He hypothesized that most of these errors were caused by many factors but the main factor was overgeneralization. Overgeneralization is a process where the learner extends the use of a grammatical rule of linguistic items beyond its accepted use, generally making an error in the construction Ellis (ibid). Maina's (1991) goes further and says that overgeneralization can be caused by various factors, one of them being the order in which items are learnt. This happens because the learner uses the previous knowledge in order to deal with new linguistic data. Maina (*ibid*) also observed that according to the primary school syllabus, 'present aspect' is taught before 'past aspect'. This made learners to overgeneralize the present aspect rule even where they should have used the past aspect.

This study was similar to Maina's (1991) since it was also interested with grammar errors such as overgeneralization of already internalized rules of English

grammar. This current study classified such errors in the same manner i.e. faulty overgeneralization errors. They are those errors that result when the L_2 learner fails to grasp the rules they have learned but instead apply them even into areas that are not supposed to be applied. They occur from the process of teaching whereby learners internalize the learned rules and go ahead to overgeneralize the same to include items not covered by the rule. The present study as stated earlier, attempted to find out other causes of lexico-grammatical errors. For instance, coinage of new non-English words, sound similarity errors among many others. The other difference between Maina's research and this current research is that, this study targeted standard six Tugen speakers learning English as a second language. It should be noted here that although there were other students from other communities, the focus of this study still remained only on Tugen speakers. On the other hand, Maina's (1991) research targeted only standard eight students. The other difference is the fact that this research also focussed on some selected number of lexico-grammatical errors and did not look at all the grammar errors.

Simatwo (1993) did an investigation of the lexico-semantic errors of standard seven Nandi-speaking pupils in five primary schools in Uasin Gishu and Nandi Districts. His study was based on the error analysis approach and aimed at investigating the nature and causes of errors. He used written composition, translation test, narratives and conversations as methods of data elicitation. He classified errors into nine categories: calques, malapropisms, ignorance, coinage, semantic contiguity, collocation, learning-induced, language switch and anglicization. Simatwo's study was important to the present study because it helped the present study to categorize the errors into a number of the categories. The difference in the two studies was the type of errors picked. This present study aimed at analyzing lexico-grammatical errors while Simatwo's was on lexico-semantic errors, Simatwo's study was carried out among speakers of Nandi language while the present study was carried out among Tugen speakers found in Baringo district Kenya.

Njoroge (1996) carried out a study on morphosyntactic errors on first year undergraduate students of Kenyatta University. Some of the objectives of the study were to identify the most common errors students make at this level and infer the possible causes from the available literature on Second Language Acquisition. He found out that

the students' most common errors were concord errors and errors that affect the verb phrase such as tense and violation of rule restrictions. For example, *my father live in Nakuru* instead of *my father lives in Nakuru*. The L_2 learner in this example violates the rule restriction that singular nouns take the verb with the –s suffix while some plural nouns do not. For instance, *The children lives in Nakuru*. This current study was similar to Njoroge's (1996) research in that its objective was to try and find out some of the errors learners make such as violating rule restrictions and ending up over generalizing the marker for past aspect to include items that are not supposed to be covered by the rule. For example, eat- *eated*. These types of errors were seen in a number of those that were classified as faulty overgeneralization errors. The difference between the two studies is that Njoroge's (*ibid*) research focused on morphosyntactic errors which Huddleston (1988) defines as: "the rules of syntax that govern how the word joins with another to form a phrase and how phrases join with each other to form sentences". This present study aimed at seeing how words have been used in a text to convey appropriate meaning. Some of the errors picked in this current research were similar to those that Njoroge's (1996) also collected in his research. The target population was also not the same. Njoroge's (*ibid*) carried out his study among university undergraduate students yet this present study focused on standard six students in upper primary school.

Another observation on language acquisition as a developmental process was made by Bartoo (2004). In her analysis, Bartoo (*ibid*) carried out some research among the Keiyo L_1 speakers where she looked at the acquisition of English syntax by Keiyo L_1 speakers. It is important to note that Keiyo speakers are a sub-tribe of the Kalenjin community. This means that there is a closer similarity between the errors that are made by the Tugen speakers and the Keiyo's. In her study, she was interested in the syntactic errors that are specific to Keiyo speakers in an environment where the learners know no other language. Her study was a cross-sectional study that looked at the progress of acquisition from class 4-7.

The present study can also be said to be similar to Bartoo's (2004) in that it wanted to establish the lexico-grammatical errors that are made by Tugen speakers. This is because they do not speak the same dialect with the Keiyo as a result, the lexico-grammatical errors made by Tugen speakers of English as a second language may vary.

But when you consider Bartoo's (2004) study, you find that she was concentrating on syntactic errors, yet this study covered only lexico-grammatical errors. It was found out that when learners construct sentences, they make errors on all the sections of language structure. They may construct a word with an inappropriate meaning or with a wrong pattern. The other difference was the target population. While she was targeting the Keiyo speakers of English as a second language, this research targeted the Tugen speakers of English as a second language. Apart from the target population, we also note that she was interested on a cross section of primary school students ranging from standard 4-7, in that she intended to look at the pattern of acquisition of syntactic structures from the said classes but this research only targeted class six students. The objective of this study was to see the most prevalent lexico-grammatical errors that standard six learners make with a view to correct such errors.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

The study was based on Corder's (1974) error analysis approach and Selinker's (1972) interlanguage theory in the identification and classification of errors. Dulay and Burt (1974) assert that, "error analysis came in after contrastive analysis was found to be inadequate. Contrastive analysis sought to predict the errors that learners made by comparing linguistic elements of L_1 to those of the target language". Dulay and Burt (*ibid*) state that the underlying assumption in contrastive analysis was that errors were as a result of interference, where learners transferred native language habits into L_2. Error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make.

The error analysis approach gained prominence after Corder (1967) published an article entitled 'The significance of learner errors' that error analysis took a new turn. He presented a completely different point of view from that of contrastive analysis. Other articles written by Corder (1971; 1974; 1981) expounded further on the error analysis approach. According to Corder, the appearance of errors in a learner's production was evidence that the learner was organising the knowledge available to them at a particular point in time. He said that errors were the most important source of information, accounting for the fact that learners have a 'built in syllabus' and that a process of hypothesis formulation and reformulation was continuously occurring. Error analysis saw

errors as indicators of the learners' current underlying knowledge of the second language, or as clues to the hypothesis (or strategies) that a learner may be testing about the second language, like a child struggling to acquire L1, the L2 learner also tries out successive hypotheses about the nature of the target language.

In his research, Corder (1974:127) suggested the following steps in error analysis research: collection of sample of learner language, identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors and evaluation of the errors. He explained that collection of a sample of learner language in Error Analysis is the starting point in deciding what sample of learner language to use for analysis and how to collect these samples. This is then followed by identification of errors. An error can be defined as a deviation from the norms of the target language; normally the standard written dialects should be selected as the norm. To identify errors, we have to compare the sentences learners produce with what seem to be the 'normal' or 'correct' sentences in the target language, which corresponds with them. This is then followed by description of errors which involves a comparison of the learners' idiosyncratic utterances with a reconstruction of those utterances in the target language. After the errors have been described, the next step is explanation of errors. Explanation means establishing the processes responsible for L_2 acquisition whereby explanations are given as to why errors occur, whether they occur because of L_1 interference or other reasons such as the learners' developmental stages in the process of acquiring a language. After this, is the evaluation of errors, whereby one analyses the effect of errors on the persons addressed. The instruments used to elicit judgements vary in a number of ways. They can be written compositions or correcting errors that learners make for example, tenses, agreement in terms of concord or proper insertion of prefixes and suffixes. The judge who could be a teacher or a marker evaluates the 'comprehensibility' of the sentences containing the errors, the 'naturalness 'of errors or the degree of 'irritation' they arouse.

This study was therefore based on the error analysis approach as proposed by Corder (1974). Identification in this study meant recognising that particular error for example in this study identification entailed recognising first that we had an error which in turn we classified as belonging to a particular category so as to be able to describe it. After recognising the error, we were able to give the correct form of that error and

explain how that error deviated from the correct form. The causes of these errors were handled under explanation, under explanations there are many reasons given for the prevalence of a particular form of error, for example, sound similarity errors, coinage or the other type of errors identified. The researcher was able to come up with numerous causes of these particular errors and there are also some explanations on the influence of these errors on the performance of the L_2 learner.

Selinker's (1972) interlanguage theory approaches second language learning through a detailed analysis of learners' own speech. Interlanguage dates back to the late sixties when second language learning was at its infancy. It refers to the systematic linguistic behaviour of learners of a second language. Interlanguage is an outcome of a set of special strategies that characterise second language learning and hence set it apart from the language produced by the first language learners. The theory looks at the language of the learner as the interim grammar advancing towards the target language. Selinker (*ibid*) gives five processes of Interlanguage. They are listed below:

1. Language transfer in which case the learner projects the features of L_1 on the second language.
2. Overgeneralization of L_2 language rules, this is whereby the learner projects rules of the second language, which are not permitted.
3. Transfer of training, this is when teaching creates language rules that are not part of L_2 rules.
4. Strategies of L_2 language learning such as simplification. The learner tries to simplify the rules to suit his or her own.
5. Communication strategies, such as when a learner omits communicatively redundant grammatical items

This study found this approach by Selinker invaluable in analyzing errors that focus on second language users and also in explaining the possible causes of the L_2 errors that were made by the Tugen learners of English. In most of the examples cited, it was discovered that L_2 learners actually transferred features of their L_1 into the L_2. Moreover, it was also quite clear that these same learners made overgeneralizations in their sentence constructions showing that they misused L_2 rules taught to them by their teachers which we have called, in our research, transfer of training. In some other cases it was evident

that they simplified the rules to suit theirs or made some omissions in their formation of words or sentences especially in times when they were unable to come up with the right words or sentences.

Error analysis helped in the identification and classification of errors which interlanguage does not offer. The theory was most appropriate in our methodology for purposes of identification and classification of errors that focus on the second language learner. It was also relevant in this research, which sought to identify, describe and explain different types of lexico-grammatical errors that L_2 learners make.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This section has been broken down into: the research design, population and location of study, sampling procedure, data collection techniques and data analysis and interpretation.

3.1 Research Design

This study used the archival research design, which entails using written records to access otherwise unobservable behaviors. This design is used to verify subjects' self reports (Lessler and Kalsbeek 1992). The current study is qualitative in nature. Qualitative research is descriptive, since it involves collecting, analyzing and interpreting data by observing what people say or do (Mugenda and Mugenda 2003). Qualitative studies measure status, rather than prediction (Groves 1989). The archival research design was consequently appropriate since it involved the description of the behavior of the subjects without influencing it in any way, and the subjects were measured only once. This present study found this method necessary because of the nature of the data to be collected that is, written down records of student compositions which could not be altered. In addition, the subjects did their tests once.

After the data had been collected, the results were analyzed using descriptive statistics of mean, median and mode. The mean, median and mode are types of averages; the range gives a measure of the spread of a set of data (Groves 1989). This study used only the mean to get its averages of the error categories. Corder's (1972) error analysis approach was used to classify and analyze the lexico-grammatical errors that were identified. Interlanguage theory by Selinker (1972) was used to explain the causes of the errors.

3.2 Population and Location of Study

The study population in this research was made of students in upper primary school. The study sampled standard six students schooling in four primary schools in

upper primary. The researcher was therefore biased towards standard six because he felt he would have ample time administering his tests. Moreover, the study did not aim at analyzing the acquisition of language from one class to another to see the sequence of acquisition of target language forms, but to see the level of acquisition in a particular level in this research, standard six. This is because these L_2 learners are expected to have mastered writing and reading skills at this level as stated earlier. The study was a case study of the district and the findings can be used to represent other similar institutions in the whole country. The four schools were picked at random because nearly ninety percent (90%) of the schools admit students from the local community.

3.3 Sampling

Four schools, in Kabarnet division in Baringo district, Rift Valley province were picked. The four schools were chosen in an effort to make the research representative and to ensure proper analysis of data. The schools were sampled using purposive sampling to get a set of four schools which have been listed as A, B, C and D in Kabarnet division of Baringo district. In each of the four schools sampled, standard six students were used to carry out the research.

The pupils were sampled using simple random sampling technique. Lessler and Kalsbeek (1992) explain that in statistics, a simple random sample is a subset of individuals chosen from a larger set of the population. Each individual is chosen randomly and entirely by chance such that an individual has the same probability of being chosen at any stage during the sampling process. In this present research, seventy five (75) students' work was picked randomly from one hundred and sixty three (163) students' work who did the three (3) tests which were administered. One school was double streamed, which meant that two classes attempted the tests. All the selected standard six classes had a population of approximately thirty to thirty five (30-35) pupils. A student's work was picked irrespective of whether he/she was a boy or a girl. In one class, five (5) students' work was sampled per test; this adds up to fifteen (15) pupils' work in only one class (See table 2). From this sample, the researcher then picked out the most prevalent errors and categorised them into their different classes. The non-Tugen

learners also attempted the tests just like any other pupil although their work was not sampled. Even if a pupil's test was picked, the researcher repeated the sampling process to ensure that only Tugen speakers were sampled. They remained part of the research as much as possible and they did not have any problem in writing compositions. After all, composition writing and filling in blanks in grammar is part and parcel of their daily routine.

Table 2. Pupil Distribution in Each School

No of students Tugen and Non- Tugen

School	Tugen	Non-Tugen	No of pupils	Tests done	Work sampled
A	32	3	35	3	5×3=15
B	29	1	30	3	5×3=15
C	33	1	34	3	5×3=15
D (N&S)	61	3	64	3	5×6=30
TOTALS	155	8	163	12	75

Source: Respective School Registers

KEY:
N- Six North
S- Six South

3.4 Data Collection Techniques

The data in this research was collected using a number of techniques. They are: composition writing, passage rewriting, cloze test and a short questionnaire. The three tests were aimed at getting the lexico-grammatical errors. The study used the questionnaire to get feedback from the teachers about the possible causes of the learner errors and the effect of the errors on the learners.

3.4.1 Composition Writing

The first method that was used to collect data was composition writing. This method was important because it enabled the learners to express themselves freely thus a

lot of data was collected using this method. It is important to point out that after carrying out the pilot study, the researcher found that it would be difficult to allow the regular class teachers to come up with their own set of composition and therefore a similar topic was given to all the learners for purposes of uniformity. The learners wrote down their composition on blank foolscaps. After the exercise, the researcher marked the twenty five (25) composition exercises by underlining the lexico-grammatical errors. (See Appendix 1)

3.4.2 Passage Rewriting

In this test, a passage (story) was read to the Tugen L2 learners of English prior to the actual test. This was done by the regular teachers who were asked by the researcher to expose the learners to the story as many times as possible. These teachers read the story to them but did not avail the same story to L2 learners. During the actual research, the researcher read the same passage to these L2 learners and asked them to rewrite it down on foolscaps that were readily availed by the researcher. Some effort was made to ensure that the passage was very short (See appendix 2). After the test, the researcher marked it by underlining all the lexico-grammatical errors.

3.4.3 Cloze Test

The third method of data collection was a cloze test. This test provided additional lexico-grammatical errors. A few sentences with blank spaces were selected and the L2 learners required to fill in the most appropriate word given in brackets (See appendix 3).

The three tests were done during the students' prep time and the normal lesson time. This test enabled this researcher to sample as many lexico-grammatical errors as possible.

3.4.4 Questionnaire

The last method that was used in this research to collect data was a questionnaire. This questionnaire provided additional information on the possible causes of the lexico-grammatical errors from the point of view of the teachers themselves. The four teachers from the different schools were asked to fill in the questionnaire which had five questions

that had been set by the researcher. The teachers were required to state whether the lexico-grammatical errors by the L_2 learners affected their performance and state some of the possible causes of lexico-grammatical errors. Once the teachers had finished filling in the questionnaires, the researcher picked them and analyzed their response (See appendix 2).

3.5 Pilot Study

A pilot study was carried out in a school that was not used in the actual research. The aim of this pilot study was to test the validity of the research instruments. After the pilot study, necessary adjustments were made to suit the actual study. The pilot study revealed that only one composition with a similar theme would be sufficient. This made this researcher to set a composition with a similar topic for all the respondents. In the process of the pilot study, the researcher also discovered that some words were too difficult for the learners; such words were omitted and substituted with easier ones. This was observed in the passage rewriting test. (See appendix 2)

3.6 Data Analysis

After the tests had been administered, the researcher used Corder's (1974) five steps of error analysis to analyse the data. The steps are as follows:

1. Collection of learner language

The learner language that was collected in this study is Tugen L1 speakers' written work. The researcher wanted to establish if their responses are correct or erroneous. The researcher consequently collected the errors from the students' responses from the following: a composition test, passage rewriting test and a cloze test and marked them.

2. Identification of errors

After the tests had been marked and the errors picked by the researcher, the researcher grouped the errors into seven categories. A given error determined its category as illustrated by Dulay and Burt (*ibid*).

3. Description and explanation of errors

This involves explaining the possible causes of the errors that were collected. In this study, Selinker's (1972) interlanguage theory was used to explain the causes of the errors. Selinker (*ibid*) states that interlanguage is a set of strategies that characterise second language learning. These strategies could include: language transfer where L2 learners transfer features of L1 into L2, overgeneralization, transfer of training or communication strategies such as omission. Apart from Selinker's (1972) interlanguage theory being used to explain the causes of the lexico-grammatical errors, the researcher also used the responses from the teachers to give other possible causes.

4. Evaluation

This is the last stage in this research; it involves giving the frequency of error occurrence and the effect of the errors on the L2 learner. Descriptive statistics of mean, median and mode were used to establish the frequency of occurrences of errors identified. This was to be able to find out which error types were more rampant compared to the others. According to Groves (1989), descriptive research designs use descriptive statistics to calculate the mean. The sole purpose in a descriptive research design being to describe a behaviour or type of subject not to look for any specific relationships, nor to correlate two or more variables since setting is completely natural, with all variables present. He adds that a researcher can acquire a lot of information through description and that this design is useful for identifying variables and hypothetical constructs which can be further investigated through other means.

This present study grouped the errors into the various categories and later counted the totals in each section, once the totals had been known, the researcher calculated the mean so that the frequency of each error category could be known. Concerning effect of errors on Tugen L2 learners, the present study relied on the response from the questionnaire to give explanations.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the identification and classification of the various lexico-grammar errors that are prevalent among the Tugen speakers residing in Baringo district. It has been sub-divided into the following sub-headings: identification, classification and explanation of the lexico-grammatical errors. After this section, we have the statistical analysis of the errors to show their prevalence, and finally is the effect of lexico-grammatical errors in the L_2 learner.

4.1 Identification and Classification of Lexico-Grammatical Errors

After the Tugen L2 learners had done the tests, the first objective of this research was to identify and classify the lexico-grammatical errors. The researcher identified the various lexico-grammatical errors after marking the three tests, i.e. a composition exercise, passage rewriting exercise and a cloze test. The errors were then grouped into seven categories using Corder's steps of identification and classification of errors. The error categories were as follows: faulty overgeneralization errors, collocation errors, sound similarity errors, calques, coinage, language switch and haphazard errors. The process of sorting out these lexico-grammatical errors involved coming up with categories that would be used to place any error that was found in the tests. These error categories have already been explained in the literature review.

To begin with, all the errors that indicate that the Tugen L2 learners have confused similarly sounding words were placed under sound similarity errors. This researcher went through the students' response, and picked all the words that were misspelt, as long as the misspelt word sounded like the correct word. But, if a word was misspelt and did not sound like the target form, the researcher put such lexical units under coinage errors. In this category, sixty (60) errors were collected (See table 3.) The next class of errors is faulty overgeneralization errors; these are errors that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning. For example, overgeneralization of rules to include,

lexical items not covered or incomplete application of target language rules among other attempts by L_2 learners to master L_2 rules. In this research, errors that portray inability by the learner to master target language rules, have been placed in this category. Selinker (1972) calls overgeneralization the incomplete application of rules. That is, L_2 learner strategy to master a second language. This present study found a number of errors whereby L2 learners used the '-ed' suffix to indicate past aspect even in lexical items that are already in the past. Faulty overgeneralization errors that were picked in this study were forty two (42) in number. The other class which this study came up with is, calques. Concerning this error category, all errors that were because of mother tongue interference were placed under this class. Here, the researcher analyzed each error and those errors that showed that the L2 learner was using his/her mother tongue to generate words/phrases were grouped together and categorized as calques. This category posted seventeen errors (17) in total.

Apart from calques, coinage errors had fifteen (15) errors in this research. These errors were as a result of L2 learners, coining words by omitting certain letters or mixing letters therefore generating non-English expressions. In this study, coinage was one of the worst forms of error that affected most of the L_2 learners. The other category is collocation errors which has fourteen errors (14). Collocation errors were in most cases words that had been placed together wrongly thus making grammar mistakes. Under this category, words placed haphazardly without any coherence were placed under collocation errors. This was done by looking at those constructions from the data that had a preposition placed with a wrong verb consequently coming up with erroneous phrases or sentences.

The researcher also came up with another class which is, language switch. All errors that were as a result of the L_2 learner switching to a completely different language were grouped under this category. In this research, a number of Tugen L2 learners resorted to Kiswahili and their mother tongue while they were writing their compositions. Such errors were placed under the class we have called, language switch. They are six (6) in number. The last category in this study is haphazard errors. From the data, there were also other types of errors that could not be explained at all. They are errors that could not

be placed under any of the above classes. Such errors that could not be explained were classified as haphazard errors. This researcher collected nineteen (19) of such errors

4.2 Description of Lexico-Grammatical Errors

Before we embark on the analysis of each error category, it is important to note that the errors that were identified in this study were varied. The findings of this research, show that Tugen L2 learners could not differentiate between similarly sounding words when they were rewriting a passage. This is the reason why a majority of these L2 learners misspelt words. Coinage errors for instance, posted the highest percentage of error occurrence that is, 34.7 percent, compared to language switch which had the lowest percentage of 3.5. It is evident from this study that a majority of Tugen l_2 learners construct sentences or words with many misspelt words but a few L_2 learners may construct sentences with wrong collocations. This may be because these L2 learners have a problem with the spelling of English words. It was also observed from the data, that a number of Tugen L2 learners were still attempting to master target language rules. Because of this; they made a number of errors classified as faulty overgeneralization errors. Faulty overgeneralization errors had the second highest percentage of error occurrence of 24.3 percent. The third and fourth error category is haphazard errors and calques, both posting a percentage of 11.0 and 9.8 percent respectively. In addition, sound similarity errors followed with a percentage of 8.7 percent. The last one is collocation errors with a percentage rate almost similar to that of sound similarity errors, which is 8.0 percent (See table 3).

Table 3 Frequency of Each Error Category and Possibility of Occurrence

Error Category	**Totals**	**%**
Coinage	60	34.7
Sound Similarity Errors	15	8.7
Language Switch	6	3.5
Faulty Overgeneralization	42	24.3
Collocation Errors	14	8.0
Haphazard Errors	19	11.0
Calques	17	9.8
Totals	**173**	**100**

4.3 Analysis and Explanation of Lexico-Grammatical Errors from the Various Tests

After analyzing the lexico-grammatical errors, it is also necessary to analyze the extent to which these lexico-grammatical errors have been observed so as to be able to estimate which type of error needs immediate remedy and which one may be said to be mere slips of the tongue thus, negligible.

In this analysis, we shall also be able to see how each data collection tool produced a particular type of error. The researcher has also analyzed the frequency of each type of lexico-grammatical error from each type of test that was administered to the L_2 learners. This is aimed at establishing which error type was more prevalent than the other. This analysis of frequency will aid in coming up with remedial action for each type of error. It will also enable this research to find out which testing technique is advantageous. This is necessary because the research may not meet its objective of collecting as many errors as possible if only one type of data collection technique is used. Once we know the frequency of error occurrence, this will assist this research to make recommendations. As a result, the L_2 learner can be assisted from these recommendations to acquire a second language. Let us look at table 5 and see the error category and frequency from the composition exercise.

Table 4: Errors from the Composition Exercise

COMPOSITION EXERCISE		
CATEGORY	NO OF ERRORS	PERCENTAGE
Haphazard errors	5	5.68
Coinage	30	34.09
Sound similarity errors	10	11.36
Language switch	1	1.13
Faulty overgeneralization errors	22	25.0
Wrong Collocation	12	13.63
Calques	8	9.11
Totals	**88**	**100**

From table 5, we are able to see the frequency of lexico-grammatical errors from the composition exercise. From this analysis, it is evident that the composition exercise contributed the highest percentage of errors in this current study. This is because the learners had an ample time to express themselves freely without any inhibitions compared to the other tests. In the same composition writing exercise, all the error categories posted one type of error or another (See table 4.)

An observation was therefore made that composition writing is one of the best methods of data collection because of the fact that it allows learners to express themselves freely. It is important to note from the analysis of these errors that there is a significant variation statistically in as far as the number of errors in each category is concerned. For instance, coinage errors posted 34.09 percent compared to language switch with a percentage of 1.13, which was in the case the lowest. This demonstrates that although learners have been allowed to write composition so as to express themselves freely, they still rarely switch to another language. This showed that the L_2 learners had at least acquired the English language and hence rarely switched to their mother tongue while expressing themselves. The picture we get is that most of these learners have gone past the stage of switching directly to either their mother tongue or Kiswahili in an effort to communicate. It shows us that they have at least acquired the target language but they still have a problem with rules governing word formation and sentence construction.

Coinage had the highest number of errors. For instance in the grand total, it posted a mean of 34.7 percent. (See table 3). In general, misspelling errors remain the single highest contributor of lexico-grammatical errors in this research. This is enough evidence to show that Tugen L2 learners have a problem with the spelling of English words. Most English words may have the same spelling yet the meaning of those words may not be the same. For example, the word 'fine' can be classified into different word classes: verb, adjective or adverb. This classification of words into parts of speech might be the reason why Tugen L2 learners confuse words.

Tugen L_2 learners also have a problem differentiating homophones. For example, a word like *cool* may be wrongly spelled as *gool* or */ku:l/* by the L_2 learner. However, */ku:l/* is the correct pronunciation of the said word but *gool* is not. Such an error occurs

because of the inability of the L_2 learners to distinguish between the voiced and voiceless consonants in English or because of the confusing nature of the English spelling system which in some cases might confuse learners.

From this research, faulty over generalization errors was the second highest contributor of lexico-grammatical errors with a mean score of 24.27 percent (See table 3). This explains the fact that lexico-grammatical errors is caused by many factors not necessarily L1. From the examples discussed above, it is apparent that even the process of learning the second language also contributes to the making of lexico-grammatical errors by Tugen L2 learners. This shows that teachers play a crucial role in the process of learning a second language. Consequently, it really matters what the teachers emphasize to the L_2 learners. If they overemphasize certain sounds at the expense of others, the learners will be conditioned into believing that a particular word or sound is the right one to be used in all circumstances.

Sound similarity errors and calques scored almost the same percentage that is 9.75 and 8.67 respectively. But we cannot say that these two error categories are the same, the reason why they posted these close range percentages from the composition exercise was possibly just a coincidence. When we analyze these two error categories, it is still evident that calques scores a higher percentage 9.82 compared to sound similarity with a percentage of 8.67. (See table 3.) It is therefore still in order to say calques are more prevalent in this research compared to sound similarity errors. This explains why errors that are as a result of mother tongue interference are more prevalent.

The other category of errors, wrong collocation had a mean of 14.63 percent. Since this was a free expression exercise, most of these learners expressed themselves freely, no wonder, we have so many errors on wrong collocation. This means that they were unable to join words appropriately. In composition writing, one is required to join ideas so as to communicate sensibly. But if a learner has not mastered a second language he/she may construct words using wrong combinations. Under collocation errors, most of the L_2 learners had a problem with the use of the prepositions. They joined words with inappropriate prepositions. Lastly, haphazard errors were also relatively few with a mean of 6.09 percent (See table 3). They are errors that could not be categorized since they occurred haphazardly.

Let us now turn our attention to those errors that were picked from the passage rewriting test. Their percentages are shown on table 5.

Table 5: Errors from passage test

	Category	No of Errors	Percentage
Passage rewriting test	Coinage Errors	18	32.14
	Sound similarity errors	5	8.92
	Language Switch	5	8.92
	Faulty overgeneralization	6	10.71
	Collocations	2	3.57
	Haphazard errors	11	19.64
	Calques	9	16.10
	TOTAL	**56**	**100**

In the passage rewriting test, coinage errors again posted the highest percentage that is, 32.14 percent. This explains why coinage errors even in the final analysis had the highest percentage as stated earlier. It was followed by haphazard errors with a percentage of 19.64. We need to remember here that under this section, the L_2 learners were required to write a passage. As a result, they made a number of haphazard errors. Besides haphazard errors, we also had the other category of errors that is, calques with a relatively high percentage of 16.10. As stated earlier, these are errors which are due to Tugen L1 interference. Furthermore, in this section that is passage rewriting, there were quite a number of faulty overgeneralization errors. In total, they posted a percentage of 10.71. They were followed closely by language switch errors and Collocation errors with a mean of 8.92 respectively. Sound similarity errors had the lowest number of lexico-grammatical errors that is 3.57 percent (See table 5.) The passage rewriting test had all the error categories posting all the error categories.

After looking at the two data collection tools, the last test which is a cloze test contributed a relatively smaller number of errors because the test had a few items that were tested. (See table 6.)

Table 6: Errors from the cloze test

	Category	No of errors	Percentage
Cloze Test	Coinage errors	12	41.37
	Faulty overgeneralization	14	48.28
	Haphazard errors	3	10.35
	Totals	**29**	**100**

The other test that was administered to the learners was a short cloze test. This was an important test that was intended to test the learners' mastery of the English language tense and aspect. From the data, (See Table 6) faulty overgeneralization errors had the highest percentage that is 48.28 percent. This was followed by coinage errors with a mean of 41.37 percent and haphazard errors having 10.35 percent. The other error categories did not post any percentage. As seen in table 6, it was not possible for all the categories to be covered because of the type of test that was administered to the learners, in this case, a short cloze test. The Tugen L2 learners were required to fill in the blank spaces with the appropriate word given in brackets. It therefore follows that it was not possible to get errors such as wrong word collocations.

In general, one thing that is evident is the fact that faulty overgeneralization errors scored very highly here. This was because of the fact that most of these learners make overgeneralizations while applying target language rules or maybe they had not mastered these target language rules. This is to say that they would apply the rules but not fully. This can be seen in the following examples 26a, *falled* and 32a *gone* (See Appendix 6).

The error categories are discussed in the next section in more detail.

4.3.1 Faulty Overgeneralization Errors

These were identified and classified as errors that showed that the Tugen L2 learners had not grasped target language rules in the process of learning the second language. Ellis (1994) categorises these errors as intralingual errors and defines them as errors that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalizations, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. Richards (1971) grouped these errors under what he called transfer errors. He distinguished the following categories of errors: overgeneralization errors, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concepts being hypothesized, i.e. a learner fails to comprehend fully a distinction in the target language for example the use of 'was' as a marker of past aspect e.g. *one day it was happened.* In this case, we may get instances whereby the learners use 'he', the male pronoun instead of 'she', the female pronoun. Apart from that, there are also examples of Tugen L2 learners over generalizing the 'ed' morpheme and using it in all instances. Many such examples can be seen in this research in which case Tugen L2 learners used 'ed' with irregular verbs that were already in the past aspect. In the present study, we also see L_2 learners using synonymous words but in the wrong context.

This research collected a number of constructions that have been classified as faulty over generalizations. We note that these learners may be making these errors since as the teachers reported in the questionnaire, Tugen L_2 learners' do not put much effort in their English work and they are also not willing to learn. In example 1, the following errors were collected from the cloze and passage rewriting tests.

Example 1

Construction with error	Correct constructions
1 a. he *diged* the garden	1 b. he *dug* the garden
2 a. the boy *felled* down…	2 b. … *fell*
3 a. Mary *telled* me to go…	3 b. …*told*
4 a. the teacher was *thinked* about the…	4 b. … *thinking*
5 a. the boy *falled* down…	5 b. …*fell*
6 a. the young children *eated* their food…	6 b. …*ate*
7 a. the small girl was *beated* by her father…	7 b. …*beaten*

From the examples 1 a – 7 a, The Tugen L_2 learner makes another very common mistake. In this case, s/he assumes that certain morphemes are the semantic markers of time; that to make a word past aspect, you just add {**-ed**}. In the above examples picked from the passage rewriting test, the learner makes a mistake of merely adding the **–ed** suffix to mark past aspect. In example 1 a, *diged* for instance, the L_2 learner adds the –ed suffix to an irregular verb to mark past aspect.

Moreover, the same can be said of the example 4 a *thinked* which is an irregular verb that hardly takes the **–ed** suffix to form past aspect. These other examples 5 a *falled*, 6 a *eated* and 3 a *telled* given above are additional examples of faulty over generalization. These expressions are erroneous because the relations between the items have been flouted. Black (1999) asserts that the surface structure of words reflects the surface order of phrase/sentences. Words must be paired correctly to convey meaning. However, in an expression such as 'falled', the Tugen L2 learner erroneously pairs a verb marking present aspect with -ed to indicate past aspect. In example 7 a *beated* instead of *beaten,* the Tugen L_2 learner has a problem using the 'past participle'.

The past participle in English grammar is used with the perfect aspect to show actions that have just been completed. But our L_2 learner in the sentence above uses the simple present aspect *was* and another past aspect word *beated* which is wrong. These are good examples of what we can call ignorance when it comes to rule restrictions, in which case the learner just adds the past aspect markers without limiting the use of the morpheme **–ed** to only certain words. The learner needs to be aware that certain verbs don't take the **–ed** morpheme to change from present aspect to past aspect.

The examples discussed above show us quite clearly that a number of Tugen L_2 learners still have a problem with the rules that govern sentence constructions in English. In a number of the examples given, the learner just adds the past aspect marker that is the **–ed** suffix to either regular verbs as well as irregular ones. He/she does not limit the use of the **–ed** morpheme to only the regular verbs.

These learners may be making these mistakes because of instruction from their teachers. They may have properly been instructed about the restrictions that certain rules only cover certain sentences/words and not others but the teachers reported that these students tend to forget what they have been taught quite easily and that the English

language has so many rules that usually confuse young learners. These rules are not easy to master even by adults. The rule that restricts the **–ed** suffix addition to only regular verbs is not usually applicable to languages such as Kiswahili or many other African languages. This may explain why L_2 learners use it in all contexts regular and irregular.

It was also observed in this research that the usage of the past participle was quite problematic for the Tugen L_2 learners. Let us look at example 2.

Example 2

Construction with error	Correct constructions
8 a. the small girl was *beating* by her father…	8 b. ….*beaten*
9 a. the boy *fallen* down while coming…	9 b. … *fell*
10 a. my father had *knew*	10 b. … my father had *known*
11 a. Paul *gone* to see his uncle….	11 b. …*went*

From the examples above, the Tugen L_2 learner combines two lexical items that are not related 'was' and 'beating' in the following construction, *the small girl was beating by her father* instead of *the small girl was beaten by her father.* The L2 learner was supposed to use the past participle {-en} so as to come up with the correct construction. The L_2 learner uses the **–en** participle when it is not required or uses the **-ing** participle to indicate the past participle form. Moreover, in the example 16 a *my father had knew* instead of *my father had known.* The same L_2 learner confuses simple past aspect and the participle form. In example 11 a, the learner uses *gone* instead of *went.*

The L_2 learners had a problem differentiating the simple past aspect and the participle form. In all these examples, the L_2 learner either uses a past participle form or the simple present aspect instead of the past participle form. This may be attributed to the fact that s/he confuses the two aspects in English. These are errors that are caused by the process of instruction, whereby the learner is unable to apply tense and aspect rules. It should be noted here that it was not merely the participle forms that were misused. In some other occasions, the present progressive forms were also misused by our L_2 learners. This can be seen in example 3.

Example 3

12 a. Paul *going* to see his uncle…
12 b. Paul is going/ *went* to school
13 a. the boy *falling* down while coming…
13 b. *the boy fell*
14 a. the young children *eating* their food…
14 b. the young children *ate*
15 a. Mary *telling* me to go…
15 b. … *told*
16 a. my father beat her for *caming* home…
16 b. my father beat me for *coming*…

In the instances cited above, the Tugen L_2 learners pair words haphazardly, as a result misusing the present progressive aspect. These learners used the present progressive aspect instead of the simple past aspect. This can be seen in examples 12 a, *going* instead of *went* and 13 a *falling* instead of *fell*. In 13 a, *Paul going to see his uncle*, the L2 learner pairs a noun and a verb with an '-ing' ending minus the auxiliary verb 'is'. This consequently makes the construction erroneous.

In all the above examples except 16 a *caming* instead of 16 b *coming*, the L_2 learner uses the present progressive form instead of the simple past aspect. This can be said to be because of the L_2 learner still making approximations as he/she tries to master the language rules that govern sentence constructions. It may also be attributed to these learners sometimes not reading or revising what they have been taught so that they can master the target language rules. However, in example 4, the learner does not differentiate between the pronoun marking the female and male gender that is 'he' and 'she'.

Example 4

17 a. *she* told me to
17 b. *he* told me to

In this example, 17 a, *she told me to*... The learner uses a marker for the female gender '**she**' for the male marker '**he**'. This was noted while marking the composition exercise that the L_2 learner interchanged **she** for **he** because in the storyline s/he intended to use **she** because she/he had all along been taking of a girl called Jane. S/he fails to distinguish which pronoun can be used to mark either male or female. The cause of this is that in Tugen there are no designated markers of the male and female gender. But if we compare English and Tugen, English has words/pronouns that mark male or female. This error can also be attributed to the fact that '**he**' the pronoun used to show the male gender

is unconsciously used by teachers, preachers and other personalities when they are giving examples. For instance, it is common for teachers to give examples such as *He was playing outside* instead of saying *she was playing outside*. This in turn makes the listeners to use more of '**he**' than '**she**'.

This inadvertent usage could be a possible reason as to why the L_2 learners more often than not use the male gender pronoun. To add to the above point, we can say that the male gender pronoun (he) is used rather than the female gender pronoun (she) because most people tend to show more prevalence for the males than the females which in turn could be reflected even in the process of learning. Alternatively, it could be because learners cannot differentiate between pronouns marking gender, a problem that can be seen even among older and more advanced learners.

Example 5 is evidence of Tugen L_2 learners misusing the perfect aspect. The following sentences can best illustrate this.

Example 5

18 a. *where are you being?*	18 b. *where have you been?*
19 a. *I has coming home late*	19 b. *I had come home late*
20 a. *when we are be going*	20 b. *when we had been going*
21 a. *tomorrow I will going*	21 b. *tomorrow I will be going*

In 18 a, *where are you being?* The L_2 learner fails to use the correct form of the present perfect progressive. He/She has combined items that are not related syntagmatically e.g. 18 a, instead of 18 b, *where have you been?* Beside that, we have an example such as 19 a, *I has coming home late* while the correct form would have been *I had come home late*. These Tugen L2 learners were also unable to join the modal auxiliary *will* with the linking verb *be* and ended up with a phrase that is ungrammatical as seen in 21 a, *tomorrow I will going*.:. instead of the correct sentence 21 b, *...I will be going*. These L2 learners have made faulty overgeneralizations in all these examples.

The following phrases picked from the composition and passage rewriting exercises, the L_2 learner has a problem with the present and past aspects.

Example 6

Construction with error	Correct constructions

22 a. Will you *sang* a song?
23 a. I *was left* my cow
24 a. she was *thought*
25 a. he *think* that…
26 a. he *don't* get us
27 a. I *don't* hear what my….
28 a. I *go* to Kabarnet.
29 a. my friend *tell* me
30 a. I *reach* there
31 a. and we *go* to town
32 a. I *will* go
33 a. when I *go*
34 a. my mother *come* closer
35 a. when I *will came* back
36 a. *I told me*

22 b. will you *sing* a song?
23 b. I *left* my cow
24 b. *thinking*
25 b. he *thought* that..
26 b. he *didn't* get us
27 b. I *didn't* hear what my father….
28 b. I *went* to Kabarnet
29 b. my friend *told* me
30 b. I *reached* there
31 b. …and *we went* to town
32 b. I *would* go
33 b. when I *went*
34 b. my mother *came* closer
35 b. when I will *come* back
36 b. *I told him*

Many of the lexico-grammatical errors in example 6 show that Tugen L_2 learners have used the present aspect form of the word instead of the past aspect form. It is evident that the Tugen L_2 learners from these examples still experience a problem with tense and aspect in English. This can be seen in example 22 a, *will you sang a song*. The learner in this sentence uses the past aspect form of the verb **sang** instead of using the bare infinitive **sing**. The expression, *will you sang a song*? Has items wrongly paired. The reason for making this error can be said to be because of instruction that he/she received from his/her teacher. The only problem here is that the learner cannot tell when to use the past aspect form and when to use the present aspect form.

The same problem is repeated in all the other instances such as, 23 a, *was left,* 24 a, *was thought*, 27 a, I *don't hear,* 28 a, *I go to Kabarnet*. In short, we can say the learner cannot tell when to use present or past aspect. The correct options have been given above. In 36 a, the learner uses pronoun *me* instead of *him*. 'I' 'told' and 'me' are not syntagmatically related. This is because the doer of the action 'I' in this case cannot again tell himself/herself something but rather tells another person. Tugen L_2 learners make all these lexico-grammatical errors since they have not mastered the rules that govern target language. In second language acquisition, L_2 learners receive instruction from their teachers and sometimes these learners may not grasp these rules therefore they make faulty overgeneralizations.

4.3.2 Calques

This research also picked a number of lexico-grammatical errors that were grouped together under the class: calques. The researcher, after picking the errors from the tests put together those errors that were as a result of L_2 learners directly translating words or sentences using their mother tongue under this category. Coe (1997) defined calques as 'loan translations' whereby a learner translates an item into English using his mother tongue as a yard stick. Richards (1971) expounds further and says that most learner errors may result from interference from the mother tongue and such errors he calls them transfer errors or interlingual errors. Interlingual errors reflect the intrusion of features of learners' L_1 into the L_2. Consequently, we can have, for example, some syntactic, phonetic, morphological or semantic features of the learners' mother tongue being reflected into his/her L_2 speech.

For instance, the first example 43 a, *a short road* instead of the correct expression 43 b, *a narrow path*. The L_2 learner has used the term *short* to describe width. In English, width cannot be described using the term *short* but rather, we use words such as *narrow* or *wide*. The lexical item 'short' is related to other units such as, 'tall' and 'big' but is not related to 'narrow'. The order of words in this construction is erroneous. The probable cause of this lexico-grammatical error could be because the learner has used a Tugen word *tenten*[1] that can indeed describe width. When the word *tenten*[1] is translated it means *narrow*. We call such errors Calques.

In this research, the following errors picked from the passage and composition were seen. They are listed as example 7, 8, 9 and 10.

Example 7

Construction with error	Correct constructions
37 a. a *short* road	37 b. a *narrow* path
38 a. the road is very *thin*	38 b. he road is *narrow.*
39 a. the *small* path	39 b. the *narrow* path.
40 a. the road is *small.*	40 b. the path is *narrow*
41 a. very *large* hole	41 b. a very *deep* hole.

42 a. very *long* hole. 42 b. a very *deep* hole

From the examples above, evidence of direct translation from the mother tongue is very prevalent. Most of the Tugen learners of English as a second language are faced with instances whereby they fail to come up with proper target language forms but end up generating their own sentences using their mother tongue as a yardstick. This illustrates why L_1 is seen as a major contributing factor in the formation of lexico-grammatical errors.

When we look at example 37 a, *a short road*, the L_2 learner resorts to his/her L_1 because s/he is unable to come up with the correct sentence. Instead of saying *a narrow path*, the learner attempts an equivalent of the term *narrow*. In Tugen, there is no term to describe the word *narrow*, therefore the L_2 learner comes up with an option in his mother tongue *tenten*[1] which means *short* and uses it instead to replace the term that he doesn't have an equivalent for. In 38 a, *the road is very thin*. The lexical items, *'very', 'thin'* and *'narrow'* are not syntagmatically compatible. As we said earlier, the term *narrow* cannot be translated directly into Tugen. This could be the reason why Tugen L2 learners use lexical units that they have an equivalent in their mother tongue.

In the next example 39 a, *the small path* instead of *the narrow path* the same problem is repeated. The L_1 learner has attempted to look for a word that he can use to replace the word *narrow*. More evidence of L_1 interference is seen in the examples 41 a, *very large hole* and 42 a, *a very long hole*. The correct forms have been cited above. The word *kindo*[2] in Tugen means *large* and *koi*[3] refers to *long* but there is no word for *deep*. It follows therefore that the learner borrows from the vocabulary that he knows to compensate for those he doesn't have in his mother tongue. Example seven below illustrates further how these L2 learners borrow directly from their mother tongue.

---

[1] *tenten-* 'thin'

[2] *kindo-* 'big' 'large'

[3] *koi-* 'long'

Example 7

Construction with error	Correct constructions
43 a. *heat* the meat	43 b. roast the meat
44a. cut the cow	44 b. *slaughter* the cow
45a. *how is you?*	45 b. how *are you?*
46a. come and *told* me story	46 b. come and *tell* me a story
47a. somebody *which is* having…	47 b. somebody *who has*….
48a. *Slite* the cow	48 b. *slaughter the cow.*

From these examples, it is clear that there are numerous errors that can be attributed to L1 among Tugen L_2 learners of English. In example 43 a, the learner uses the word *heat* to refer to roasting of meat. S/he makes this error because he/she may be lacking a word to use to convey the intended message. The L2 learner assumes that to heat something, is a general term that can be used to apply to cooking food as well.

The same concept of overgeneralization is seen in the second example 44 a, whereby the learner uses the word *cut* in place of *slaughter*. However in 45 a, *how is you?* and 46 a, *come and told me story,* the Tugen L2 learner fails to use the correct auxiliary verb '**are**' to mark plural form. In grammar, the pronoun *'you'* takes the verb *'are'* and not 'is'. Therefore, 'you' is related to 'are' structurally. On the contrary, in the next example *come and told me story*, the L_2 learner uses a past aspect marker *told* instead of the correct form *tell*. This is unacceptable in English. This error could have been motivated by the learner's L1. Another example of L1 interference can be seen in 47 a, *somebody which is having…*, the L_2 learner combines two lexical items *which* and *somebody* in that are not related syntagmatically. The assumption is that both can be used interchangeably, yet this is not the case in Standard English. In proper English constructions, the relative pronoun *who* is normally used to refer to living things while the relative pronoun *which* is used when you are referring to non-living things. Compare the following sentences. '*The books which we bought*' and '*The child who came in*'. The first sentence refers to a non-living thing 'a book' while the next one refers to a living being 'a child'.

In example 48 a, *Slite the cow*, the learner makes an innocent overgeneralization because s/he confuses the term *slit* with the term *slaughter*, the two terms may be paradigmatically related but they have been used in the wrong contexts. Due to his/her

mother tongue, the learner may probably have been aware of the term *slit* but instead uses it to mean *slaughter*. In the end, the L_2 learner comes up with a non-English expression *slite*. The expression 'slite' could however be explained as a spelling mistake for the word *slit* which means *cut*. The learner here seems to be aware of the meaning of the word *slaughter* but didn't know that another word for this action exists. This problem can be attributed to the fact that English has many synonymous words and our learners have not mastered all of them. No wonder, they used the words *cut* and *slite* to refer to *slaughter* both expressions are related paradigmatically. The only problem being the spelling of the word *slit*. The term 'slit' in Tugen can be used interchangeably with the term 'cut'.These other illustrations given below give more evidence of the fact that our L_2 learners in most circumstances resort to their L_1 in an attempt to say what they want to say.

Example 9

49 a. I will *see* you fire
50 a. *fire* the meat
51 a. I will *saw* you fire.
52 a. *band* a meat.

49 b. I will *show* you fire
50 b. *roast* the meat
51 b. I will *show* you fire
52 b. *roast* the meat

From the data given above, in example 49 a, *I will see you fire*, the learner resorts to his L_1 and comes up with a term to construct target language expressions. In Tugen, if you want to warn someone, you say *mui iro mat*[4]. When this expression is translated, it becomes *you will see fire*. So instead of saying, *I will show you fire,* the Tugen version *'you will see fire'* is used by the L2 learner. In example 50 a, *fire the meat*, the word *fire* is a direct translation from Tugen *bel*[5]. No wonder the learner directly translates the word *roast* to the one that can be found in his mother tongue. These errors are not confined to merely direct translations but we have cases where the learners' L_1 is seen even in the pronunciation of the words e.g. 52 a, *band a meat*. The word *band* is a corruption of the word *burn* which the learner uses instead of *roast*.

In these other examples, L_1 interference again is the main cause. Let us look at them briefly.

---

[4] *mui iro mat*- 'you will see fire' [5] *bel*- 'roast'

Example 10

53 a. *Come to said storys*
54 a. *Come to tell you story*
55 a. Come *to says stories*

53 b. *come we chat.*
54 b. *come I tell you a story*
55 b. *come to say stories.*

Example 53 a, *come to said storys* which is similar to the other three sentences 54 a and 55 a, lexical items that are unrelated have been combined leading to lexico-grammatical errors. These lexico-grammatical errors may have been caused by the L2 learners' L1 interfering with their constructions. In Tugen, when you want to say, "*come we chat"* you usually say, *nyo keam logoi*[6]. The Tugen speaker doesn't have an equivalent of the word 'chat'. The L_2 learner therefore comes up with his own version *come to said storys* although this expression is erroneous. In 54 a and 55 a, the same learner uses the phrase *to tell* and *to says* to refer to the term *to chat.* Since he/she doesn't have a term for the word *chat* therefore he/she uses what he/she has readily that is, *said stories*.

In these other four examples given below, the L_2 learner borrows from his/her mother tongue while trying to express himself/herself.

Example 11

56 a. *a baby who is mouth is long.*
57 a. *the bus stop I claim the bus*
58 a. *so time was very very late*
59 a. *Come and sleep my home*

56 b. *a baby who stammers*
57 b....*at the bus I boarded the bus*
58 b. *it was very late*
59 b. *come and sleep in my house*

In 56 a, *a baby who is mouth is long;* the lexical item *long* has been used to replace the term *stammer*. This phrase should have been written as '*a baby who stammers'*. In 57 a, *the bus stop I claim the bus,* the word 'claim' has been used to mean 'board' the bus. In this other example 74a, *come and sleep my home*, the L_2 learner omits the preposition 'in'. This learner should have given the answer as, '*come and sleep in my house'*.

This lexico-grammatical error has been caused by the learners' mother tongue interference.

In Tugen, the expression *nyo ru kaita nyuu*[7] when translated becomes *come and sleep my home.* The preposition 'in' in Tugen has no equivalent therefore the Tugen L_2 learner constructs phrases/sentences without the said preposition. Furthermore, these learners may be aware about using prepositions in sentence construction but they may not have mastered their proper usage. This could be due to inadequate revision by L_2 learners. No wonder, they still make errors even if their teachers had corrected them.

4.3.3 Collocation Errors

These were the errors which were grouped together and can be classified as those errors that were as a result of L_2 learners joining words or sentences with the wrong preposition. The other classes of lexico-grammatical errors discussed earlier, had phrases that were ungrammatical since Tugen L2 learners combined lexical units that are incompatible. They are errors that are generally learning induced.

In this next category, the lexico-grammatical errors identified are due to Tugen L2 learners misusing prepositions. In English, certain words must co-occur in order to be able to make sense otherwise, one might end up with words or sentences that are very ambiguous or illogical. Most of the errors that were collected were those in which the L_2 learner constructed sentences using the wrong prepositions with words that are not supposed to occur together. As a result, the expressions were syntagmatically unrelated. Some of the collocation errors were as a result of the learners' L_1 intruding in the process of constructing his/her sentences. Gough (1996) states that certain words occur with two or three word clusters and that they occur with more than chance regularity, i.e. some verbs take certain prepositions for example: *surprised at, accompanied by, written for* and many other examples. In English, it would be wrong to say, '*accompanied on*'. It means therefore that a word/verb must be put side by side with a particular preposition for meaning to be passed on to the reader or listener. From the composition exercise, a number of words and sentences that were wrongly collocated were picked.
They are given below:

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[7] *nyo ru kaita nyuu-* 'come and sleep in my house'

Example 12

Construction with error	Correct constructions
60 a. my school *start at* 12:00am	60 b. my school programme *starts at*...
61 a. my friend *came on* our home	61 b. my friend *came to* our home
62 a. my friend going to church at...	62 b. my friend went to church at....
63 a. when I was *in* the road	63 b. when I was *at* the road
64 a. I told him *that* I come late	64 b. I told him *if* I come late
65 a. *it reach* at 6:00pm	65 b. *at* six pm
66 a. I go *to there*	66 b. I *went there*
67 a. I *looked to* my father	67 b. I *looked at* my father

From these examples given, we can see a number of errors that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. We therefore have instances whereby the L_2 learners have not mastered what words are collocated with which ones and which ones are not supposed to be joined together. The L_2 learner in the end comes up with ungrammatical sentences when s/he uses a wrong preposition. From the illustrations given above and listed as 60 a-67 a, one very clear thing is that the L_2 learner joins a verb with the wrong preposition.

For instance, in example 61 a, the L_2 learner says, *my friend came on our home* instead of *my friend came to our home*...It is therefore clear from these illustrations that the L_2 learners have not mastered the usage of prepositional phrases. They overgeneralize and use any preposition with any verb and proceed to construct their sentences. The cause of such errors could be because of lack of practice as one teacher put it that L_2 learners sometimes do not re-visit their work.

In 60 a, the L_2 learner cannot specify what is supposed to start at that particular time. Here the L_2 learner omits the word 'programme'. But in 61 a, the verb *came* has been joined with a wrong preposition 'on' instead of 'to' which in this instance was supposed to show where an action took place. In English, 'you go to a place' but 'you do not go on a place'. Although when we look at the example 64 a, the L_2 learner uses a relative pronoun *that* yet the most appropriate one would have been a conditional *if* so as to show condition of the action.

The last example 66 a, the learner says, *I go to there* instead of *I went there*. Consequently, introducing the preposition 'to' which is not necessary. The same applies to the example 67 a, as well. These learners also at times wrongly collocate two or more words at once for example in the following examples, 65 a, *it reach at 6:00pm* instead of *...at 6:00pm*. The learner joins the verb 'reach' with the preposition 'at' hence making an error instead of just saying 'at six pm' and omitting the word 'reach'. These are errors that can be said to be caused by the process of learning the second language. The teachers may have shown the learners which words are usually joined or not joined with which type of words. But the L_2 learners may still be struggling to master the rules that govern sentence constructions in a target language. Moreover, most L_2 learners still have problems with tense and aspect and usage of prepositions in English. Most English prepositions are quite confusing and usually pose a lot of problems to many students.

In addition to this, we can also see that the L_2 learner doesn't only misuse the prepositions but s/he may also join one or two lexical units that are not related at all thus generating wrong sentences. Look at example 13.

Example 13

68 a. I told my father *yes wen after going...*	68 b I told my father *after going*
69 a. they *play so good*	69 b. *played so well*
70 a. I was *young boy*	70 b. I was *a young boy*
71 a. my father came inside *a house*	71 b. my father came inside *the house*
72 a. my father asked me *why that* I...	72 b. my father asked me *why* I...
73 a. ...*when I not got* you at home	73 b. *if I don't get* you at home

In 72 a, *my father asked me why that...*, the L2 learner adds the relative pronoun 'that' after the word 'why ' making the whole expression erroneous. The L2 learner did not need to join the two words together since they are not syntagmatically related. The same can be seen in 68 a, *I told my father yes wen after going...*whereby three words have been joined together '*yes, wen and after*' instead of just using one. However, if we consider the example 69 a, *play so good* instead of *play so well*, we can say that this is an error that has been caused by the inability of the L_2 learner to tell the difference between **well** and **good**. These two expressions may indeed be paradigmatically related but they

may have been used in the wrong context. A grammatical expression would be 'well done' or 'good work'. Many L2 learners have a problem distinguishing sense relations in lexical items.

Synonymous lexical items are not necessarily used in all contexts in sentence constructions hence posing a problem to L2 learners. The teachers may not have clearly differentiated to the learners how certain words are synonyms of a particular word and when to use the most appropriate one but the learners may still overgeneralize. In example 70 a, the only problem is the missing article '**a**' which is at times assumed to be a minor mistake but is still a mistake. Teachers in some instances might ignore to explain to their learners when to use the indefinite and definite articles to the detriment of L_2 learners. The same problem applies to example 71 a. In example 73 a, the L2 learner constructs an expression using the relative pronoun 'when' instead of the conditional clause 'if' this expression is ungrammatical. Using clauses in constructions make many L2 learners to make lexico-grammatical errors. Tugen L2 learners were reported in this study not to be practice on what had been taught previously.

4.3.4 Language Switch

In this research, there were also other types of errors that were as a result of learners switching to a different language in an effort to express themselves. In such instances, the learner either switches to his mother tongue or to Kiswahili when s/he cannot come up with the correct word or sentence. The learners ended up transporting non target language forms into their written work. As a result, they would use a word like' shamba' to refer to 'farm' or in some cases use Tugen words for example *n'gen*[8] which means *hole*. Some words like 'shamba', a Kiswahili word is a commonly used word especially by a majority of Kenyans. The study found a number of expressions in the passage and composition where Tugen L_2 learners used a different language other than English. Let us analyze the following examples:

Example 14

Construction with error Correct constructions

74 a. a *dip ng'een*	74 b. a *deep hole*
75 a. *the road* was *mamba*	75 b. *the narrow path*
76 a. the road *tanten*	76 b. the *narrow* path
77 a. the person *chorua*	77 b. a *friend* of mine
78 a. *choma nyama*	78 b. *roast the meat*
79 a. you will go to *shamba*	79 b. you will got to the *farm*

The errors in example 14 are errors whereby the L_2 learner switches directly to his mother tongue or another language. These Tugen L2 learners did not translate the lexical items that were collected but rather, they wrote them down directly using their mother tongue or in other instances Kiswahili. In our data, one thing that was observed is that, this was not a very common problem as such. In the first example 74 a, *a dip ng'een*[8], the Tugen L2 learner has literally switched to Tugen. S/he first of all, confuses the word *dip* with *deep* to describe depth. This is an example of sound similarity errors which has already been discussed. The L2 learner however switches to his/her mother tongue that is Tugen and comes up with a Tugen word *ng'een*[8], which means *hole*.

This expression is a good example of language switch since the L_2 learner just generates an expression using his/her mother tongue. In example 76 a, *the road tanten*[9] and 77 a, *the person chorua*[10]. The L_2 learner switches to his/her mother tongue in an effort to communicate. The word *tanten*[9] is a Tugen word which means *narrow* and *chorua* means *friend*. Since these L_2 learners have not mastered the second language adequately, they end up turning to their L_1 to express themselves. In the next example 75 a, *the road was mamba*, the learner this time round uses a corruption of a Kiswahili word *nyembamba* and comes up with a shorter version of the word. It is a clear example of instances in which the L_2 learners not only switch to their mother tongue but resort to any other means so long as they can communicate.

Tarone (1983) calls this strategy by an L2 learner language switch. He expounds that L2 learners make approximations to the target language by either coining new non-English words or by transferring items directly from their mother tongue.

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[8] *ng'een-* 'hole '

[9] *tanten-* 'narrow'

[10] *chorua-* 'friend'

This shows that the learner has the ability to master any language and this is achieved through a process of trial and error as stated by Selinker (1972); he/she attempts to pass meaning to the other person in the best way he/she deems appropriate. These types of errors in addition, occur because these L_2 learners use their mother tongue more frequently in almost all instances of communication. Moreover, it can be said to have been caused by the process of learning whereby teachers usually instruct the students using their mother tongue or Kiswahili. Therefore the L_2 learner finds herself/himself more at home with his/her mother tongue or Kiswahili.

The other examples 78 a, *choma nyama* and 79 a, *you will go to shamba* are also good examples of language switch. In these two examples, the L_2 learner uses Kiswahili words *choma nyama* and *shamba.* In the phrase 'choma nyama' the English translation is *roast the meat* and the word *shamba* is the English equivalent of *garden.* The word *shamba* is more prevalent in day to day speech here in Kenya compared to the English word *'garden'.* This without doubt explains why the L_2 learners make these lexico-grammatical errors. It is because of this commonness of the word. Some observation was made by the researcher that some of these words may be classified as borrowed words into the English language. For example, *safari* as a word is now commonly used even in commercials or announcements on radio here in Kenya.

4.3.5 Haphazard Errors

These are errors that could not be explained or errors that occurred haphazardly. They were as a result of learners' sheer lack of knowledge about the proper use of a particular word. The learners in this case ended up using a word in a sense that could not be explained or matched with the target language forms. Most of the words they created were vague. Since these errors could not fit under any other category and because of the fact that they were words or sentences that could not be understood by the reader they were consequently grouped together as haphazard errors. In some cases, the L_2 learner could use a word, showing s/he actually understood the meaning of the word but instead used the wrong word class. For instance, an L2 learner could use a noun thinking that it was a verb. Most of the errors are those that hindered proper communication forcing a

reader to guess what was meant. The examples given below that were picked from the composition and passage are discussed in example 15.

Example 15

Construction with error	Correct constructions
80 a. my father said he will *kill* me	80 b. my father said he would *beat* me
81 a. I could *taste* something rotten	81 b. I could *smell* something rotten
82 a. *born* some meat	82 b. *roast* the meat
83 a. you will sing *chores*	83 b. you will sing a *chorus*
84 a. *dakeness nade come*	84b. *it was becoming dark*
85 a. *I want to the firewood*	85 b. *I went to fetch firewood*
86 a. she run *warding* me	86 b. she ran *towards* me
87 a. I was very *road*	87 b. I was very *rude*
88 a. *azema* story	88 b. *amazing* story
89 a. baby that is *not equal*	89 b. a child *who stammers*
90 a. someone *who is fat*	90 b. someone who *has bad manners*

As stated earlier, haphazard errors are those lexico-grammatical errors that could not be easily categorized since they were not clear and thus the researcher attempted an equivalent of these words/phrases. In example 80 a, *kill* instead of *beat*, the L_2 learner has switched to his L_1 to get an equivalent of the word *beat.* The word 'kill' in Tugen means 'beat' i.e. '*bar*'. The words 'beat' and 'kill' can therefore be used interchangeably by a Tugen speaker. Although the word 'kill' has been used grammatically, it should be noted that the L2 learner did not intend to mean 'kill' but rather to be beaten by his/her father. The Tugen L_2 learner in this case is resorting to his/her L_1 in situations whereby he/she lacks a word that he/she can use to communicate or if the said words mean the same thing. Moreover, in such instances the learner may also be making approximations in an attempt to communicate.

In example 81 a *taste* instead of *smell,* the learner makes an error that has no explanation. First of all, this is not even a case of L_1 interference but an error due to ignorance on the part of the learner. The learner is unable to differentiate between *tasting* something say food and *smelling* something. The two words are quite different with different senses. One has got to do with the sense of smelling, the other tasting. The expression, 'I could taste something rotten' has lexical units that are not related

syntagmatically or paradigmatically. The other error 82 a *born some meat* instead of saying *roast the meat*. The learner shows clearly that he/she doesn't know the meaning of the word *born*. Once again, this expression is not structurally acceptable. The word 'born' cannot be combined with the words 'some' and 'meat'. The word 'born' means to belong to a certain family for example to be born to a particular family.

The learner might have been thinking of saying *burn* but again seemed not to have known the correct spelling of the word *burn*. S/he therefore uses the wrong word in the end. These are just haphazard errors, other errors identified in this category include: 89 a *baby that is not equal*. This expression cannot be understood by anybody. It can just be said that this is a learner who is being imaginative while trying to come up with the target language forms. However, in 83 a, *you will sing chores*, we can at least guess that the learner intended to say *chorus* but was not able to say so. Most young learners have got used to being told by their teachers to lead the rest in a chorus, it follows therefore that the same young learners have made some overgeneralization that a song is the same as a chorus.

In the following examples listed as 16 below, the L2 learner demonstrates the intrusion of his/her L_1 while he/she was constructing these sentences. Let us have a look at the following.

Example 16

91 a. *the did* is very far	91 b. *a deep* hole
92 a. the *long plass*	92 b. a *deep hole*
93 a. the road which is *shot*	93 b. a *narrow* path
94 a. he road who *sleam*	94 b. a *narrow* path
95 a. *a person who is not happy*	95 b. *someone with bad manners*
96 a. *dry* the meat	96 b. *roast* the meat
97 a. father beat me *very well*	97 b. father beat me *thoroughly*
98 a. the child have *tall maut*	98 b. a child *who stammers*

The following lexico-grammatical errors are due to the learner's L_1 intruding in his/her constructions. This can be seen in the following examples 91 a, *the did is very far* and 92 a, *the long plass*. In these two expressions, it is not easy to tell what the L_2 learner intended to say, but since the passage had an expression describing a narrow path, we can

possibly say this L2 learner wanted to say 'a narrow path'. The learner demonstrates that he/she has not really mastered the second language to generate grammatical expressions. In these other two examples 93 a, *the road which is shot* and 94 a, *the road who sleam*, we see the learner using the word *shot* and *sleam* to mean *narrow*. The ungrammatical expression *sleam* is a corruption of the word, 'slim'.

This other example 96 a, *dry the meat,* the Tugen L2 learner comes up with an expression which is ungrammatical. We can say that it is correct to say, *dry the meat*, if you wanted it to drip. But in this case, *roasting meat* is not the same as *drying it*. In 95 a, *a person who is not happy* for *someone with bad manners* and 98 a, *the child have tall maut* instead of *someone who stammers*. The Tugen L2 learner has mixed up words that are not related leading him/her to make a lot of lexico-grammatical errors. These two examples in addition, show us that the L_2 learner cannot essentially relate what s/he is saying with the lexical items he/she uses. We can only infer and say that these are haphazard errors on the part of the L_2 learner. The learner here is still in the process of trial and error, in the effort of trying to come up with closer and closer approximations towards the target language forms. This has been expounded by Nemser (1971) that L_1 learners go through a process of trial and error before they can finally come up with target language forms.

4.3.6 Sound Similarity Errors

In this category, this study grouped together lexico-grammatical errors which are due to Tugen L2 learners confusing similarly sounding words in their composition and passage rewriting exercises. This researcher categorized errors which are a result of confusing homophones in this category. This problem may have been caused by the wide range of English vocabulary that these Tugen L2 learners were still trying to master. As a result of this, they had a problem distinguishing between similar sounding words. Gordon (2002) says that L2 learners confusing similar sounding words is widespread in Africa. He gives an example of the Bantu in Uganda and says their language has only seven vowel sounds while English has twenty-one vowel sounds. This disparity in terms of the

number of vowel sounds may be the reason why L2 learners have a problem differentiating similar sounding words.

Most of the examples cited indicate that the L_2 learners have misused homophones. Homophones are words that have similar sounds but different meanings. It could be attributed to either confusion in the sound or spelling of a word. For instance, in Tugen, the following sounds are normally confused; **/t/** with **/d/**, **/f/** with **/v/**, **/p/** with **/b/** and **/s/** with **/z/**. This is because the Tugen speakers have a problem while pronouncing the voiced sounds. Consequently, they may use the voiceless sounds rather than the voiced ones. This shows that the L_1 plays an important role in the formation of these errors. In the research, there were a number of instances whereby L_2 learners confused homophones. We shall begin with the following lexico-grammatical errors.

Example 17

Construction with error	Correct constructions
99 a. she *coast* all these	99 b. she *caused* all these
100 a. *pib* through the hole	100 b. *peep*...
101 a. *tick* skin	101 b. *thick*...
102 a. the *tiff* stole…	102 b. the *thief* stole…

From the composition and passage test, a number of errors that fall under sound similarity errors were picked. These L2 learners have confused homophones and used them haphazardly. From the above instances, the Tugen L2 learner in 99 a, has confused the word *coast* with *caused*. These two words have the same sound but different meanings. In this other combination, 'pib' for *peep* and *tick* instead of *thick*, the L2 learner has substituted words with different senses in an effort to come up with the correct word. The L_2 learner confuses the sound 'b' with 'p', he/she fails to distinguish one sound form another.

These L2 learners have also confused the vowel sound in 99 a, and 100 a. These L2 learners did not differentiate between short and long vowel sounds. In example 100 a, the learner's L_1 make him/her to use sound '**b**' instead of '**p**' for the word *peep*. In example 101 a, the L_2 learner uses the word 'tick' for 'thick'. This possibly can be attributed to the

fact that Tugen L_1 learners have problems with the /Θ/ and /ð/ sounds. In example 102 a, the Tugen L2 learner confuses the word 'tiff' with the word *thief*. This again is because of the difficulty in pronouncing the sound /Θ/ and /ð/. In all these examples, the Tugen L_2 learners confuse similarly sounding words.

Example 18

Construction with error	Correct constructions
103 a. a *dig* skin	103 b. a *thick* skin
104 a. *beef* through the hol	104 b. *peep* through the hole
105 a. pick the *ferries*	105 b. pick the *berries*

In examples 103 a, 104 a, and 105 a above, L_1 interference can be said to have caused these errors as well. This is because the L_2 learners substitute the voiceless sound /**p**/ for the voiced sound /**b**/. Consequently, they end up with a word like *beef* for *peep*, the Tugen language doesn't have words with the sound 'f' and Tugen learners confuse bilabial plosives. These learners also cannot differentiate between the fricative /f/ and the plosive /p/. This can be illustrated in the example 104 a, *beef* which was supposed to be *peep*. They use the two interchangeably thinking they are the same sounds. It could be said that in the process of learning, these learners may end up using the words that their teachers emphasize in class, no wonder the sound '*f*' a non existent sound in Tugen is being used here.

To add to what we have already said, we can see our L_2 learner in example 105 a, uses the word 'ferries' for the word *berries*. This L_2 learner substitutes a fricative with a plosive. Tugen L_2 learners do not use the voiced plosive sounds because a majority of words are pronounced with the voiceless sound(s). These voiceless sounds are simpler to pronounce. These L_2 learners may be confusing sound /**p**/ for /**b**/ because they may be lacking continuous practice or due to the L_1 interfering with their constructions. From the interview that was carried out, teachers reported that they indeed teach these problematic sounds but learners do not make an effort to practise so that they can master spelling similar sounding words. The teachers noted that these L_2 learners rarely revised their work.

Example 19

Construction with error	Correct constructions
106 a. an *rich* tomorrow-	106 b. and *reach* tomorrow
107 a. *bat* we came	107 b. *but* we came
108 a. I wel go to *cat* my hair-	108 b. I will go and *cut* my hair
109 a. *know* I will-	109 b. *now* I will…
110 a. my father told me you *now* what-	110 b. ….you *know* what
111 a. I *so* my friends-	111 b. I *saw* my friends
112 a. my friend *sow* me on the shop	112 b. my friend *saw* me
113 a. ride now	113 b. *right* now

In example 106 a, 107 a – 113 a, the Tugen L2 learners have again confused similar sounding words. This can be seen in the following words: *rich* with *reach*, *bat* with *but*, *cat* with *cut*, *know* with *now*, *so* with *saw*, *ride* with *right*. In all these examples, the Tugen L2 learner seems to be making over generalizations. This is because he/she confuses words of different classes and uses them interchangeably. For instance, verbs with nouns and uses them indiscriminately e.g. 'ride' has been confused with 'right', 'rich' with 'reach'. The Tugen L2 learners in the examples cited above have come up with combinations of words that are not acceptable or rather ungrammatical. In 106 a, *an rich tomorrow*, the lexical items 'an', 'rich' and 'tomorrow' are not syntagmatically and paradigmatically related. These are just a cluster of lexical units placed together generating an ungrammatical expression. The learner uses a particular word form for all the word classes. S/he does not discriminate that certain words can be used in certain contexts only and not in others. These learners may also be making these errors since they are making trial and error before they master the target language rules.

Selinker (1972) called this process of trial and error, 'interlanguage'. He says that, "an Interlanguage is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language but instead falls between the two. It is a system based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners slowly and gradually succeed in establishing approximations closer and closer to the system used by native speakers of the language". It was observed by the teachers that these learners make these

errors because they read words as if they were reading words in their mother tongue or Kiswahili. For instance, *bat* instead of *but* in example 9a.

4.3.7 Coinage Errors

In this category, the researcher grouped together errors that were as a result of Tugen L_2 learners generating non English words. This is because these L2 learners came up with words that were non existent and also appeared to have been making approximations to the target language forms. The researcher therefore put into one category all wrongly spelled words and called them coinage errors. Even if the sound of a word was the same with another word, as long as the word was misspelt and hence a non-English word, it was classified as coinage error. Cygan (1972) defines misspelling as the situation whereby one writes a word without all the necessary letters and diacritics present in an accepted standard order. He adds that most spellings attempt to approximate a transcribing of the sounds of language into alphabetic letters that follow a standard format however; phonetic spellings are often the exception due to drifts in pronunciation over time and irregular spellings adopted through common usage. This assertion implies that lexical items have a standard format that is followed when transcribing sounds. Sounds of language are not arbitrarily grouped together to form grammatical terms.

When L_2 learners are trying to master a second language, they are still in the process of trial and error as expounded by Selinker (1972) that at this stage, a learner makes closer and closer approximations to the target language forms which in the end lead to the target language forms. Therefore in this study, the researcher was able to get lexico-grammatical errors which were due to Tugen L2 learners coining words. Most of these lexical items were picked from the composition and passage. These errors indicated that the L2 learner was either being imaginative while generating words or he/she had not mastered the spelling of English words.

In this section, the following errors were identified.

Example 20

Construction with error	Correct constructions

114 a. *rost* the meat	114 b. *roast* the meat
115 a. *slougter* the cow	115 b. *slaughter* the cow
116 a. he is *gerlus*	116 b. ... *jealous*
117 a. the *norow* road	117 b. the *narrow* road
118 a. *cheless/chelss/jelas*	118 b. *jealous* person
119 a. my *doter*	119 b. my *daughter*
120 a. this *dum*	120 b. ...*doom*
121 a. almost *chorking* me	121 b. ... *chocking*
122 a. now very *arly/hully*	122 b. now it is very *early*
123 a. I was very *rood*	123 b. I was very *rude*
124 a. child which they are *stamary*	124 b. a child who *stammers*

From the above examples, word coinage is common among these learners. L_2 learners in the process of learning a second language make a lot of trial and error in an effort to come up with the target forms. All the examples we have given were picked from the composition and passage exercise. It needs to be elaborated here that the words that were misused by the L_2 learners were as a result of wrong spelling of the English words. This shows that they knew the words but could not spell them correctly therefore new non- English words were generated.

The expressions, *rost*, *slougter* and *gerlus* are examples of misspelt non English expressions by Tugen L2 learners. These expressions should have been spelt as, 'roast', 'slaughter' and 'jealous' respectively. The following other expressions have also been misspelt, 'norow' for 'narrow', 'cheless' for 'jealous', 'doter' for 'daughter', 'hully' for 'early' and 'rood' for 'rude'. These learners are not only unable to spell words correctly; they also at times cannot differentiate the meaning of a particular word from another. For instance, the word *slaughter* was found to have been substituted with the words *slit* and *cut.* (See appendix 6.)

This is a clear indication that the L_2 learners used different types of words that indeed refer to the action of *cutting.* These errors may be due to the fact that these learners have not mastered the wide range of the English vocabulary, or perhaps it could be due to the fact that they do not read extensively so as to differentiate the different words and their usage. In all these examples, the L_2 learner knows the words but he/she doesn't know the exact spelling of the same words. Although these learners seem to know the actual sounds of these words, they cannot spell them properly because they have not mastered the spelling of the English language words. Spelling of words is

challenging to most of these Tugen L_2 learners who are still trying to master it. In English, the pronunciation of some words is different from the way the words are spelled.

This assertion can be seen in example 21 below. Let us have a closer look at these phrases.

Example 21

Construction with error	Correct constructions
125 a. two *strok*	125 b....two *strokes*
126 a. person who has a bad *carecta*	126 b. a person who has a bad *character*
127 a. to go *aniware*	127 b....to go *anywhere*
128 a. I *fech*...	128 b. I *fetched*...
129 a. I *jummed*	129 b. I *jumped*...
130 a. in the *kichen*	130 b. in the *kitchen*
131 a. one chilly *moning*	131 b. ....*morning*
132 a. beat me with a big *stik*	132 b....beat me with a big *stick*
133 a. my *dotor*	133 b. my *daughter*
134 a. people with bad *munus*	134 b. someone with bad *manners*
135 a. *silota* the cow	135 b. *slaughter* the cow

The above expressions were picked from the composition and passage rewriting tests; these examples indicate that Tugen L2 learners have a problem spelling words with silent sounds. These Tugen L_2 learners do not include the sounds/letters that are silent when a word is pronounced. This can be clearly demonstrated in example 125 a, *strok* instead of *stroke*. The expression 'strok' usually has the sound '*e*' being silent when this word is pronounced. This explains why the L_2 learner doesn't include it while writing down this word. In the next example 126 a, *carecta* instead of *character*, the L_2 learner leaves out the letter '**h**' and '**r**' respectively. The L_2 learner here may still be trying to master the L_2 and might not have grasped the English vocabulary well. In English, a word such as *character*, the sound 'r' is silent.

In 128 a, *fech* the L2 learner leaves out the sound 't', in 129 a, *jummed* is minus the sound **'p'** and 131 a, *moning* does not have the sound **'r'.** The problem that these L_2 learners have is that they spell these words leaving out the silent letters. So, we may sometimes find L_2 learners coining words as shown above, not because they do not know the spelling but because such words contain a letter that is silent. In English, some words

contain letters that are silent in pronunciation e.g. 'mortgage' 'phlegm' and 'psychology'. In the word 'mortgage' for example, the letter 't' is silent while the word 'psychology' has the letter 'p' being silent.

In these other category of words, the lexical item may contain a sound that is heard when the word is pronounced yet the word is spelled in contrast with that sound. Let us study example 22.

Example 22

Construction with error	Correct constructions
136 a. the *farst* day	136 b. the *first* day
137 a. she give me three *handred* shillings	137 b. ...three *hundred* shillings
138 a. I was *raning* from school-	138 b. I was *running* from school
139 a. *Beby* has a bag mouth -	139 b. a *baby* who stammers
140 a. *Plet* is broken-	140 b. the *plate* was broken
141 a. ...came home in the *evining*-	141 b. ...I came home in the *evening*
142 a. I *tould* him....	142 b. I *told* him
143 a. the *polise* came-	143 b. the *police* came
144 a. I *ren*-	144 b. I *ran*

In the first example 136 a, *farst*, the L_2 learner makes an error by placing the sound '**a**' in a word that is supposed to be spelled as *first*, the word now has the sound '**i**' which should however be pronounced as '**a**'. The same applies to *handred* instead of *hundred* and *raning* instead of *running* in example 137 a, and 138 a respectively. However in example 139 a, and 140 a, the words are instead spelled with the 'e' sound instead of 'a'. In these two examples, the non English expressions *beby* and *plet,* the Tugen L_2 learner writes these expressions with the vowel 'e' instead of 'a'. The words *polise* and *evining* in 141 a, and 143 a, have been spelled wrongly by the L_2 learner, the correct spelling should have been *police* and *evening* respectively. When you look at these two words, you realize that the L_2 learner has actually pronounced the words *polise* and *evining* properly but the spelling is still wrong.

The cause of these errors could be because of the dissimilarity between word pronunciation and actual spelling of words. Moreover, most of our L_2 learners tend to read English words as if they are reading their mother tongue words which have similar

pronunciation with the actual word. Learners are usually taught by their teachers in their mother tongue or at times using the Kiswahili vowel system 'a, e, i, o, and u'. This in the end makes them to pronounce all words with those vowel sounds as if they were Kiswahili or mother tongue words.

In example 23, the following lexico-grammatical errors which were picked from the composition test, the L_2 learner is generally unable to differentiate between one word and another. Therefore, the words that s/he uses are further away from English words or sometimes closer to English words but without doubt wrongly used in the contexts they appear.

Example 23

Construction with error	Correct constructions
145 a. Jeptoo *when* home	145 b. I *went* home
146 a. I *smalled* something...	146 b. ...*smelt*
147 a. I am *smilling* something...	147 b. ...*smelling*
148 a. Kangogo *toll* me stories.	148 b. ...*told*
149 a. Kiprop can *smile* something...	149 b. ...*smell*
150 a. the teacher is *thot* about...	150 b. ...*thinking*
151 a. ...when he *loked* inside-	151 b. ...*looked* inside
152 a. come to *shark* hands	152 b. come we *shake* greetings
153 a. come to *meat* together	153 b. come and *meet* me
154 a. *owl* which is deep	154 b. a deep *hole*
155 a. going to the shamba and *dinging-*	155 b. ...going to the shamba and *digging*
156 a. ...whose *goot*	156 b. ...*goat*
157 a. you are *chokeking /chongin*	157 b. ...*choking*

In the example 145 a, it is evident that the learner doesn't know which word(s) to use. This is clear in the first sentence whereby the L_2 learner confuses two similarly sounding words and proceeds to give us the word *when* instead of *went*. These words are in fact English words although we cannot substitute one for the other. But in example 147 a, *smilling* instead of the word *smelling*, there is no correlation between the two words i.e. 'smilling' and 'smelling'. The word '*smelling*' is an English word except '*smilling*' which is a word coined by the L_2 learner to stand for 'smiling'.

In example 148 a, *toll* for *told*, the L_2 learner once again confuses two words 'toll' and 'told' and uses them interchangeably. However the word 'toll' refers to a place that is

used to collect tax or the actual number of casualties but 'told' is the past aspect of 'tell'. Furthermore, the words *loked* instead *looked*, in 151 a, the L_2 learner coins the word *loked* this word is similar to the word *lock* than *looking*. This in essence means he/she didn't know the correct word to use. But the L_2 learner in example 150 a, uses the word *thot* instead of *thinking*. The word *thot* in 150 a, is a corruption of the word *thought*. It shows that the L_2 learner knew about the correct word to use but the same learner uses the past aspect form instead of the present progressive form. It therefore indicates that the L_2 learner has not mastered the English tense and aspect. This is consequently a manifestation of an attempt by the L_2 learner to try and master the difficult English words in the process of learning the second language.

In example 153 a, s/he uses the word *meat* to signify *meet*. Although the L_2 learner was supposed to talk about exchanging greeting; s/he uses the wrong word to express himself/herself. S/he opts to come up with a word that expresses exchanging greeting in this case the word used is *meat* to mean exchanging greetings. However, in English, *meat* refers to the product we consume for food. Although, this word can also be pronounced the same way we pronounce the word *meet* which means coming in contact with someone. All the other examples given above are examples of coinage errors found in the data that was collected. They illustrate an L_2 learner who has not grasped the rules that govern word formation in English.

These other three examples shown in example 21 below demonstrate a rather different aspect of learners writing incomplete words. This problem is similar to what we sometimes come across when people speaking English ape Americans in their manner of speech. Let us look at the following phrases.

Example 24

158 a. *diggin* the *gadden*
159 a. she gave me *pemishin*
160 a. *wats hapend?*

158 b. *dig* the *garden*
159 b. she gave me *permission*
160 b. *what has happened?*

In the first example 158 a, the Tugen L_2 learner has something like African American English influencing his/her sentence constructions. American speakers add **'n'** in almost all the words they say. Our L_2 learner here adds **'in'** to the words *dig* and

permission. As a result of this, these words change their pronunciation and spelling as well. In the next example 160 a, *wats hapend?* The L_2 learner does not add the -in suffix but instead shortens the words 'what' and 'happened' and comes up with the non-English words 'wats' and 'hapend'. It appears he/she wanted to say *what is up?* or *what is happening?* These words seem to have an element of American English intruding into the British English. The African Americans at times shorten their English words. These errors could have occurred because of usage by their peers or persons who might have used them once in a while thinking they were being sophisticated if they shortened the words; by adding **'n'** to the words they say or read or leaving out some sounds for example '**h**' in 160 a.

These other examples picked from the passage rewriting and the composition test, the Tugen L2 learner has his L_1 intruding into the L_2. Study the examples below.

Example 25

Construction with error	Correct constructions
161 a. ...when I repeat that *dhing*	161 b. ...when I repeat that *thing*
162 a. I will not *lifit* my cow-	162 b. I will not *leave* my cow
163 a. *gome* we eat storys-	163 b. *come* we chat
164 a. I go to *blay*	164 b. I went to *play*
165 a. *bibb* through the hole	165 b. *peep*
166 a. pick the *parise*	166 b. *berries*
167 a. my *douda*	167 b. *daughter*
168 a. the *thiff* stole...	168 b. *thief*
169 a. my father beat me *thelf strogs*	169 b. my father beat me *twelve strokes*
170 a. *gat* the cow	170 b. *slaughter* the cow
171 a. the *tip hol*	171 b. a *deep hole*
172 a. so just *sidt* down-	172 b. *sit* down
173 a. he *lipited* again	173 b. he *repeated*

In example 25, L_1 has played a major role in the formation of the following lexico-grammatical errors. In Tugen, the sounds **/p/** and **/b/**, **/t/** and **/d/**, **/f/** and **/v/** are still a problem to Tugen L2 learners. Consequently, first language interference may be said to be the probable cause of these lexico-grammatical errors. In 172 a, *so just sidt down*, the L_2 learner wrongly adds the sound '**d**' which is not necessary, it is merely because the

sound 'd' may have been over emphasized to these learners by their teachers. Therefore we see them using it even when it is not needed.

The other example is given as 165 a *bibb*, the word *bibb* a non- English word was used instead of *peep*. From this example, the Tugen L2 learners have a lot of mother tongue interference because they substitute the voiceless sounds with their voiced sounds. This can also be seen in the following expressions: *gome* instead of *come, blay* instead of *play* and *parise* instead of *berries.* All these expressions in 163 a, 164 a and 166 a picked from the list are evidence of L_1 interference by the L_2 learners. The problem of L_1 interference is also seen in the expression *thiff* which should have been *thief* the L_2 learner adds another 'f' to the word *thief* showing that s/he is attempting to master the sounds **/f/**. Almost all Tugen learners of English have a problem with the following sounds; **/b/** and **/p/**, **/f/** and **/v/**, **/t/** and **/d/**. They therefore use the bilabial plosive **/p/** to cover all words with a similar sound whether voiced or voiceless. The same applies to the sound **/f/** which is not used in Tugen words. Notice example 169 a, *my father beat me thelf strogs*, the learner, substitutes /f/ for /v/.

Therefore, to paraphrase what has been said earlier, the sounds listed above still pose a problem to the Tugen L_2 learner, a lot of misuse of the same sounds is noted. The teachers reported in the questionnaire that apart from mother tongue interference being the reason for these errors, Tugen L2 learners may also be pronouncing words as if they were Kiswahili words. As a result, we have a word like 167 a, *douda* which appears like a Kiswahili word. But in 170 a, *gat the cow* the learner uses the sound **/g/** instead of **/k/** a problem caused by his/her L1. The word *gat* was supposed to be spelled as *cut*. Most African languages have this problem of distinguishing English words from those in their mother tongue. Additional evidence of L_1 interference is seen in example173 a, *he lipited again*. This is a strange example because Tugen speakers would hardly have a problem with the /l/ and /r/ sounds like Kikuyu speakers. All in all, it is a good example of L_1 interference which could have been caused by learners hearing their peers from other communities making such errors. These other example 171 a, *the tip hol,* the word *tip* is used instead of *deep* and *hol* instead of *hole*. The learner in an attempt to come up with the correct word(s) generates new words that are non-existent in English although these words sound as English words. This should not be seen as a weakness but as a process of

learning that all L_2 learners go through. They go through trial and error before they can finally come up with target language forms.

4.4 Causes of Lexico-Grammatical Errors

The findings from this study, elaborate the fact that learner errors among Tugen L2 learners are not necessarily caused by L1 interference alone. The second objective of this study had posited that a majority of L2 errors are caused by L1 and the learning process. This fact is disputed from these findings since 50.87 % of the total number of errors collected were due to the process of learning the second language and 34.68 % of the errors collected were as a result of L1 interference. A smaller fraction of errors were due to learner strategy to master the second language. For instance, 10.98 % of the total number of errors sampled could not be explained. While 3.47 % were due to L2 learners switching to another language which is not English. (See table 7.) From this research, it is apparent that Tugen L_2 learners have to some degree acquired English as a second language. The learners hence rarely resorted to another language that was not English.

This study makes the following observation from the errors that were collected. One, most of the Tugen L2 learners in Baringo proceed to upper classes even though, they have not acquired the necessary writing skills in English. This is because some of the errors the Tugen L2 learners made are unbelievable; these errors indicate that they would leave primary school not having mastered English as a second language. Two, the results also indicate that these L2 learners need to be assisted to improve on the acquisition of the second language.

Table 7: Possible Causes of Lexico-Grammatical Errors

Cause of error	**Total number**	**%**
Learning Process	88	50.87
L1 Interference	60	34.68
Haphazard	19	10.98
Language Switch	6	3.47
Totals	**173**	**100**

After looking at the different error categories, it is important to see how the learners' L_1 may have contributed to the making of lexico-grammatical errors. This will enable us to accomplish objective number two of this study. From our data, the researcher found out that first language interference was one of the main cause of the lexico-grammatical errors that were collected. In table 8, it is evident that each error category at least had errors that could be attributed to L_1 interference. For instance, calques had the highest percentage in terms of errors that were collected and were as a result of L_1 interference. Calques posted 28.33 percent of errors that were because of L_1 interference. This is a clear indicator that L_1 is one of the main cause of the lexico-grammatical errors that L_2 learners make. As stated earlier, calques are those errors that result because of L_2 learners directly using items that are prevalent in their L_1 and bringing them directly into the L_2 without converting them into target language forms.

The next error category that had a high number of errors that were due to the learners L1 was that of word coinage, which had the second highest percentage which is, 20.0 percent. A number of these errors indicate that, the L_2 learner picked items from his/her L_1 and transferred them to the second language. In some of the examples already discussed, the learners confuse lexical items that are supposed to start with a voiced sound and write them down using the voiceless sounds. Closer to this category, were sound similarity errors with a mean score of 15.0 percent. It was observed from this research that, the errors falling under this category were also as a result of L_1 interference. We can see this in example an expression like *teaf* instead of *thief* (See Appendix 6). Such errors could be attributed to the learners' L_1 intruding while they are constructing phrases or sentences.

Sound similarity errors was followed by faulty overgeneralization errors with a mean of 11.67 percent. They are those errors that are a result of instruction. Some of these errors were also due to L_1 interference. This is true if you consider an error such as, *heat the cow* and *tomorrow I will going....* (See appendix 6). The L_2 learner in the first instance overgeneralizes the word *heat* to refer to 'roasting' which is ungrammatical. The word *heat* cannot be used to mean *roast*. But in Tugen, the word *heat* when translated still means *roast*. The other example, *I will going*, is the same as *awendi,* a Tugen word meaning *I will be going*. The phrase, *I will going* is ungrammatical because the auxiliary

verb *be* is missing. This indicates that the Tugen language is limited in terms of expressions that mark tense and aspect for example, the auxiliary 'will + be' that differentiates between present aspect, present continuous, past aspect or future time compared to the English language. So, the L_1 leaner uses his/her L_1 to explain himself/herself or to put down expressions in the target language. His/her L_1 is the contributing factor in the formation of the said lexico-grammatical errors. The same errors may also be as a result of the process of learning process. This is because the Tugen L_2 learners are making overgeneralization in word usage.

Haphazard errors had the same mean with faulty overgeneralization errors. For instance, an expression such as, *father beat me very well* and *the child have tall maut*, see appendix 6. The L_2 learner wants to tell us he/she was beaten badly and in the second instance that the child is a stammerer. But the same L_2 learner cannot express himself/herself well in English but instead uses expressions that are closer to his/her mother tongue than English. Collocation errors and language switch had the following percentages 8.33 and 5.0 respectively. These Tugen L2 learners had already gone past making errors showing they were unable to formulate words in English and thus resorting to either their mother tongue or Kiswahili. This is the reason why language switch had a small percentage. Collocation errors show that most Tugen learners still have a problem combining words into correct sentences. This is also a common problem to learners even in higher levels of education. For instance, secondary school students also make this mistake while constructing sentences. They do not usually use the correct prepositions with the right verb. This has been seen by this researcher, a high school teacher himself.

Table 8: Errors as a Result of L_1

ERROR CATEGORY	NO OF ERRORS	PERCENTAGE
Coinage errors	12	20.0
Sound similarity errors	9	15
Language switch	3	5
Faulty overgeneralization errors	7	11.67
Collocations	5	8.33
Haphazard errors	7	11.67
Calques	17	28.33
Totals	**60**	**100**

4.5 Effect of Lexico-Grammatical Errors on the L_2 Learner

The last objective of this research was to find out whether lexico-grammatical errors affect Tugen L2 learners in the acquisition of English. The researcher found out that, the high prevalence of these lexico-grammatical errors by the L_2 learners affected them in their performance. From the questionnaire, the teachers reported that the lexico-grammatical errors that the L_2 learners make affected them in many ways. The language teachers who answered the questions stated that they taught their learners how to write grammatical sentences and that they did emphasize to their students to use the English language while speaking or writing. They went further to state that English, as a subject, is a central subject compared to the other subjects. This is because English is used to measure a person's mastery of the other subjects, which include; Geography, History, Christian Religious Education and the other subjects except Kiswahili.

One thing that was noted is that these L_2 learners might have been receiving instruction in their mother tongue. This may have made them not to acquire the L_2 as early as possible. This in turn makes them unable to construct proper target language forms when they reach standard six. This point further illustrates that the standard six

students that did the various tests in this research had reached standard six without actually mastering the English language. This may explain why they spell words wrongly or construct phrases/ sentences with errors. Some of the teachers also reported that a few of these learners still receive instruction in their mother tongue and they ended up joining the upper classes without having acquired the target language forms. This no wonder, explains why these learners still construct sentences using their mother tongue as a yard stick. This may explain why there is a lot of L_1 interference in the errors these learners make.

The second effect of these lexico-grammatical errors on the L_2 learner is the fact that they cause a lot of delay in acquisition of target language forms since these learners are still making such errors at such a stage in their lives. These errors might in the end impede these L_2 learners in their acquisition of the target language forms. It is also important to note that when L_2 learners make these errors, the errors may in the end imprint on their young minds. This may make them to use erroneous words thinking these words are right. The L_2 learner as a result, might believe that certain words can be used in certain contexts or in all contexts. This is not good because it will be hard to correct such errors. The L_2 learners might also make overgeneralization while using English words. They may consequently use past tense markers e.g. '-ed' even in irregular verbs.

Another effect of these errors on the L_2 learner is that they may eventually become very poor communicators in their written or spoken work. When they cannot communicate properly, they will be disadvantaged and as we had said earlier, may lose out on the job market or even in the wider society since society requires people who can communicate effectively to elect as their leaders or play important societal roles. This means that the said learners cannot attain the careers in their lives that they aspire to be. This aspect of learners being poor communicators means that the L_2 learners cannot express themselves properly in English, in the end these learners tend to fear to talk in front of their peers, their teachers and sometimes in front of people in functions. Most of the teachers concurred that the children also become withdrawn and are unable to socialize with the other students who can express themselves.

It was observed by one teacher that a majority of these L_2 learners who have problems in sentence constructions or in expressing themselves may in the end drop out of school. This is one point that is quite disturbing because we cannot imagine our children dropping out of school because of having problems in the English language. But although we may feel sad about this, this is the reality. Many children have dropped out of school due to poor performance in language.

It was also found out from the questionnaire that these learners have problems in class while discussing. This means that they have problems in group discussions because they fear to be heard making errors. Teachers reported that since they cannot comprehend questions they keep quiet and refuse to talk. This problem has in some instances been taken as indiscipline on the part of the learners by many teachers. As a result, teachers may punish such students thinking they are being rude when they keep quiet when asked questions.

The last point that was also expressed by these teachers is that these L_2 learners perform poorly in their examinations. In one of the schools visited, it was found out that a paltry two or three students out of thirty five to forty score a mean of *A-* or *A* in their KCPE examination. These learners do not only score low marks at the end of their primary school exams, but they also score poorly in their day to day continuous assessment tests. When these learners score low marks especially in the English subject, they do not become competitive like other learners. Consequently, we might end up having students finishing school while still making errors in the English language.

4.6 Summary

In summary, this chapter dealt with data analysis where the different error categories were analyzed and grouped into seven categories. The seven classes are as follows: coinage errors, sound similarity errors, language switch, faulty overgeneralization, collocation errors calques and haphazard errors. The process of classifying the lexico-grammatical errors was based on letting each error to determine its category. For instance, if a Tugen L2 learner used his mother tongue to write a word, that lexical unit was placed under language switch. However, if the same learner attempted a translation of a lexical unit but evidence of L1 was seen e.g. 'heat' to refer to 'roast', this

was taken as calques. Calques in this study were considered to be those lexico-grammatical errors caused by a person's L1.

In general, sound similarity errors were rampant in this study. This is because most of the Tugen L2 learners hade a lot of problem spelling words. Language switch involved Tugen L2 learners switching to another language that was not English. A small percentage of Tugen L2 learners switched to another language. This indicated that these L2 learners had not really acquired the target language forms appropriately. The study made an attempt find out the cause of these lexico-grammatical errors, this is because most of the Tugen L2 learners made lexico-grammatical in this study. The causes of these errors remained varied. For instance, a very high percentage of these errors were due to the learning process. Apart from the learning process causing Tugen L2 learners to make errors, this study noted that first language interference was the second cause of these errors. The study also collected a number of errors that could not be easily categorised. Such lexico-grammatical errors were referred to as haphazard errors. Many of such errors indicated that, Tugen L2 learners needed more assistance to acquire the target language forms.

Learning induced errors were broken into three subcategories: Collocation errors, sound similarity errors and faulty overgeneralization errors. The reason for doing this was to enable this research categorize errors of similar kind in one cluster. For example, phrases or sentences with wrong word order were clustered as collocation errors. But addition of -ed morphemes by Tugen L2 learners to any lexical unit to mark past aspect, were categorised as faulty overgeneralization. The research also discussed the effect of lexico-grammatical errors on the Tugen L2 learner. These lexico-grammatical errors affected Tugen L2 learners in a number of ways. One of the effect was that the Tugen L2 learners ended up performing poorly in their class work. Secondly, these L2 learners could not communicate appropriately. Inability to communicate means that they have a problem in word formation and sentence construction.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter has been divided into five sections. The first section is the introduction which is then followed by the summary of the whole research that gives us a recap of what has been discussed in this study. There is also a section on the conclusions from the research, then some few suggestions that may be of importance in the improvement in the performance of English language. Moreover, there is also a section which deals with the recommendations that have been given for purposes of further research. This may assist other researchers to carry out further research on lexico-grammatical errors. Finally, is a section that deals with the problems that were encountered while carrying out the research.

5.1 Summary

This study was about errors that were made by Tugen L_1 speakers. The researcher carried out some background study so as to get some important insights on error analysis and interlanguage. The researcher also analyzed a number of previous studies and from these studies; evidence of the poor performance by our primary school students was gathered. The research objectives were as follows: to describe the nature of lexico-grammatical errors. This was done by collecting the different types of errors from the L_2 learners' written composition and some other tests that were administered. This was achieved by using Corder's error analysis theory for identification and classification of errors while Selinker's interlanguage theory was used to explain why learners made these errors.

This study in the end established that there were indeed a number of errors that were made by these Tugen L_2 learners. These errors were classified into seven error categories that is: coinage errors, sound similarity errors, language switch, faulty overgeneralization errors, collocations, haphazard errors and calques. From these error categories, the research found out that coinage had the highest number of errors with a mean of 34.7 percent but language switch had the lowest percentage i.e. 3.5 percent. It

was evident from this study that L_2 learners coined words when they could not identify the right words.

It was also observed that most of these learners had a problem with mastering some of the English language rules. This can be seen from the research findings whereby a big percentage i.e. 24.3 made errors that were as a result of learning the second language. All these error categories were picked from the different tests that were administered to the L_2 learners. After the research had established that Tugen L_2 learners make lexico-grammatical errors that can be classified into different classes, the study also sought to establish whether these errors could have been caused by the learners' L_1. It was found that L_1 contributed to a very high percentage of these errors. It was observed that all the error categories that were identified had errors that were due to the learners' L_1 intruding into their L_2. For instance, calques posted 27.41 percent of errors that were because of L_1.

Word coinage on the other hand, had 22.58 percent. All the other error categories also had some percentage of errors that were due to L_1. In short, it was established that a majority of these L_2 learners had their written work hampered or influenced by their L_1. Consequently, the said L_2 learners had problems in their effort to communicate or writing legibly. As a result, they ended up performing dismally in their written work.

5.2 Problems in Research

In the process of carrying out this research, there were a few problems that were encountered. For one to carry out such a research, some things may hinder one from achieving his/her objectives. A research of this nature may at times be difficult to carry out or may also demand a lot from the researcher. The first problem that was encountered was to do with the respondents. This research was carried out in primary schools where most of the learners are used to shouting from their teachers to pay attention. The respondents were at times noisy when the tests were being administered or when explanations were being given. In fact, in one instance, the school administration had to be called in to restore calm in one of the classes.

The other obstacle that was encountered was to do with the issue of getting permission to administer tests to the class six students. In one of the schools, the head

teacher refused to interrupt their school routine. The researcher therefore had to use the students' free time, though it was timed and it was not possible to administer the tests in a relaxed atmosphere. This is because the researcher needed to finish administering the tests before time caught up with him. The other obstacle was seen when the researcher had booked some free time to have access to the students. When the researcher arrived as had been agreed, he was only received by the school matron. On further inquiry, the researcher was informed that the students had gone for a function at another locality. The researcher had no option but to leave the school having accomplished nothing and had to postpone seeing the students to another date.

The other limitation was sampling the data that had been collected; this study only needed to pick the work of six students in each test that was administered. Since four schools had been selected and the tests were four in number, this meant that a total of 96 students' work was picked. In the process of sampling, it was at times not easy to decide which student's work could be picked.

This research also had problems with some of the student's compositions which were the main data collection tools. Some of the compositions were written in pencil and they could not be read. Apart from that, other compositions were unnecessarily long and the others were a bit short.

5.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, we can say that many learners make errors while writing their compositions or when answering questions in English. These errors hamper the L_2 learners' communicative competence. As a result, they perform dismally in their class work. This research concludes that L_2 learners making lexico-grammatical errors should be seen as an attempt by these learners to master the second language. The L_2 learners are in essence making closer approximations to the target language form. Therefore learners who make errors should not be reprimanded or punished but understood to be trying to master the second language. The research also concludes by saying that lexico-grammatical errors can be classified into different categories. As such, this may help any researcher to differentiate the different lexico-grammatical errors and any anyone may be in a position to see which ones need remedial action depending on the percentage of

occurrence. This research also concludes that many L_2 learners may have problems mastering the English language since this language has a number of rules that govern sentence construction that may be difficult to master. This could be said to be one of the reasons why many of the L_2 learners in this study had problems in sentence construction or word formation. The study also observes that the teachers teaching the English language may at times not be experts in the English language. Consequently, learners may end up receiving wrong instruction leading them to deviate from the norm.

Moreover, we note that a majority of lexico-grammatical errors are as a result of learners' L_1 interfering with the L_2. We have seen that this makes the same learners to resort to their L_1 so that they can express themselves because they do not have the correct terms to use. This makes the L_2 learner to make lexico-grammatical errors. The L_2 learners in this study borrowed from their mother tongue while writing down words or constructing sentences. The other conclusion from the research is that most of the lexico-grammatical errors that were collected came from the free expression exercise, which is the 'composition test'. This is a good indicator that for any researcher to be able to get reliable data with the kind of information that he/she is looking for; it is advisable that one uses the free expression exercise as a data collection tool. This will enable a researcher to obtain more detailed data. This is because data collection tools such as 'cloze tests' only test learners using structured questions that are in most instances not flexible

To sum up, the study concludes by saying that lexico-grammatical errors affect L_2 learners in different ways. First, L_2 learner being unable to communicate or communicating with difficulty. This explains why there were different types of errors such as, haphazard errors, which could not be corrected and others such as, faulty overgeneralization which could easily be corrected.

5.4 Recommendations

From this study, it is felt that the following steps should be taken to minimize L_2 learners from making lexico-grammatical errors in their written work.

Teachers need to advise L_2 learners to understand that the English language is used for communication globally. This will help L_2 learners to pay more attention to their

English language lessons and this may in a way contribute to their success in this L_2. This can be done by organizing symposia that will be used as a forum for educating the L_2 learners about the centrality of the English language in their day to day life.

This study also recommends that teachers pay more attention to words that have similar sounds so that the L_2 learners can master them easily. This can be done by the teachers attempting to differentiate for the L_2 learners the different sound systems of different languages. This in the end may assist the L_2 learners to progressively master the different sound systems and as such avoid transporting features of their L_1 into the L_2.

The other strategy that can be used by teachers is to expose the L_2 learners to the English language as much as possible and also to try to motivate learners to be free while they are expressing themselves even though they may still be making errors. This can be attained if teachers are motivated themselves when they are teaching since this will ensure they organise frequent debates, inter-class writing competitions, grammar tests amongst others. Such continued exposure to the L_2 will help the L_2 learners to understand the rules that govern sentences constructions in the said L_2.

It is also suggested from this study that L_2 learners should receive instruction in English, and this should start as early as possible especially in their tender ages to help them to master the English language rules at their tender age. Instruction should be geared at improving the mastery of the English language and as such, L_2 learners need to be instructed using the second language that is English. This will assist the L_2 learners to get used to the uniqueness of each language. This means that L_2 learners will be able to see that languages have different ways of expressing tense and aspect.

- The last recommendation is that language teachers especially those in primary may need further education to enable them attain proficiency in the target language i.e. English. When these teachers further their education, they will be in a position to appreciate the different aptitudes by the L_2 learners and get to know how to assist these L_2 learners to master the English language rules.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

After carrying out this research, the researcher feels that there are still a lot of areas that require to be researched on.

First, it is necessary to carry out some detailed studies on different L_2 learners ranging from standard one up to standard eight, which is the final class in primary school. This will show the pattern of language acquisition right from the time an L_2 learner joins primary until he/she completes primary school.

This study also suggests that more detailed studies are carried out amongst all communities of the Kalenjin speakers since they speak the same dialect with slight variations. This will help in that the findings can be used to find out a remedy that can be applied to all these sub-languages. Although each community has unique characteristics, some of the mistakes L_2 learners make are the same. If the lexico-grammatical errors are found to be similar, the language planners or curriculum developers may come up with material in form of books that can be used by all these sub-tribes.

There is also need to carry out some further studies to establish the relationship between lexico-grammatical errors made by an individual and the errors at other levels of language for example, morphosyntactic, phonological and semantic levels. This can be done in primary, secondary and also universities. Such a research can be done by comparing say phonological errors with lexico-grammatical errors.

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APPENDIX 1- SAMPLE COMPOSITION

LANGUAGE TEST: COMPOSITION WRITING

NAME: Jepkoech J Kiplop

SCHOOL: Kiptiht Pry School

CLASS: STD Six

Write a composition of about 300 words on the following topic;

The day my father beat me for coming home late.

One Saturday moning my Mamei told me that You Now what my chid go to the market She give me some money and she told me now you can go. I Told him Plese Mamei and it was. Didn't tok him when I come late dont beat me my mother said go now I go I go to the bus station I reach there they was very many peapol standing there.

The bus stop there I claim the bus and we go to the bus to the town of Kabarnet I go to the market I so my Frends there they was standing Under the tree them ase you going to the market they told me yes we are going we go Kim them into the market we Sell mangos beans maize bananas Oranges sweet potatos and so many ones. It reach at 6:30 I was in the market a bus told we go and see the peapol were died every body was craying in the town the police come and take them to the mortuary It reach at 7:30 I claim the tax and come home when I reach my Father told me I told you what which is the time the bus fell down and I see the car she take a Stike and beat me and I Will not Fugate

11/20

Check your grammar.

APPENDIX 2- PASSAGE REWRITING

One day, a friend of mine invited me to go to his house to **exchange greetings** and **chat** with him. He appeared unhappy and I thought he was someone with **bad manners**. I asked myself many questions. "Is he tired after **digging his garden** or is he possibly **jealous** of my recent victory in a life and death fight with a **thief**?" In that incident, the gangster kept threatening me that he **would beat me badly**. He **chocked** me and his **thick** arms almost **caused** me a broken leg. My **daughter** who heard my wild cries rescued me from this **doom**.

I asked my friend, "What is wrong with you? Like a **stammerer**, he laughed at my question and instead requested me to accompany him to the forest to **slaughter a goat** and **roast the meat** and later **share with his friends**.

I accompanied him through **a narrow path** and in no time we were busy slaughtering our goat, as we **ate wild berries**. Later, we **chatted** and exchanged views affecting our community.

N/B:

Some words were omitted due to these learners inability to spell.

APPENDIX 3- GRAMMAR TEST

GRAMMAR TEST: NAME Gladys Kipsigon **SCHOOL** Kiwanja Primary

Use the correct tense to fill in the gaps using the word given in brackets

I. The boy---~~falling~~ fell---down while coming home. **(fall)**

II. The young children ---eaet---their food a bit early. **(eat)**

III. The teacher was---thonk---about the next course of action to take. **(think)**

IV. It was---amaze---to see the boy cry like a young child. **(amaze)**

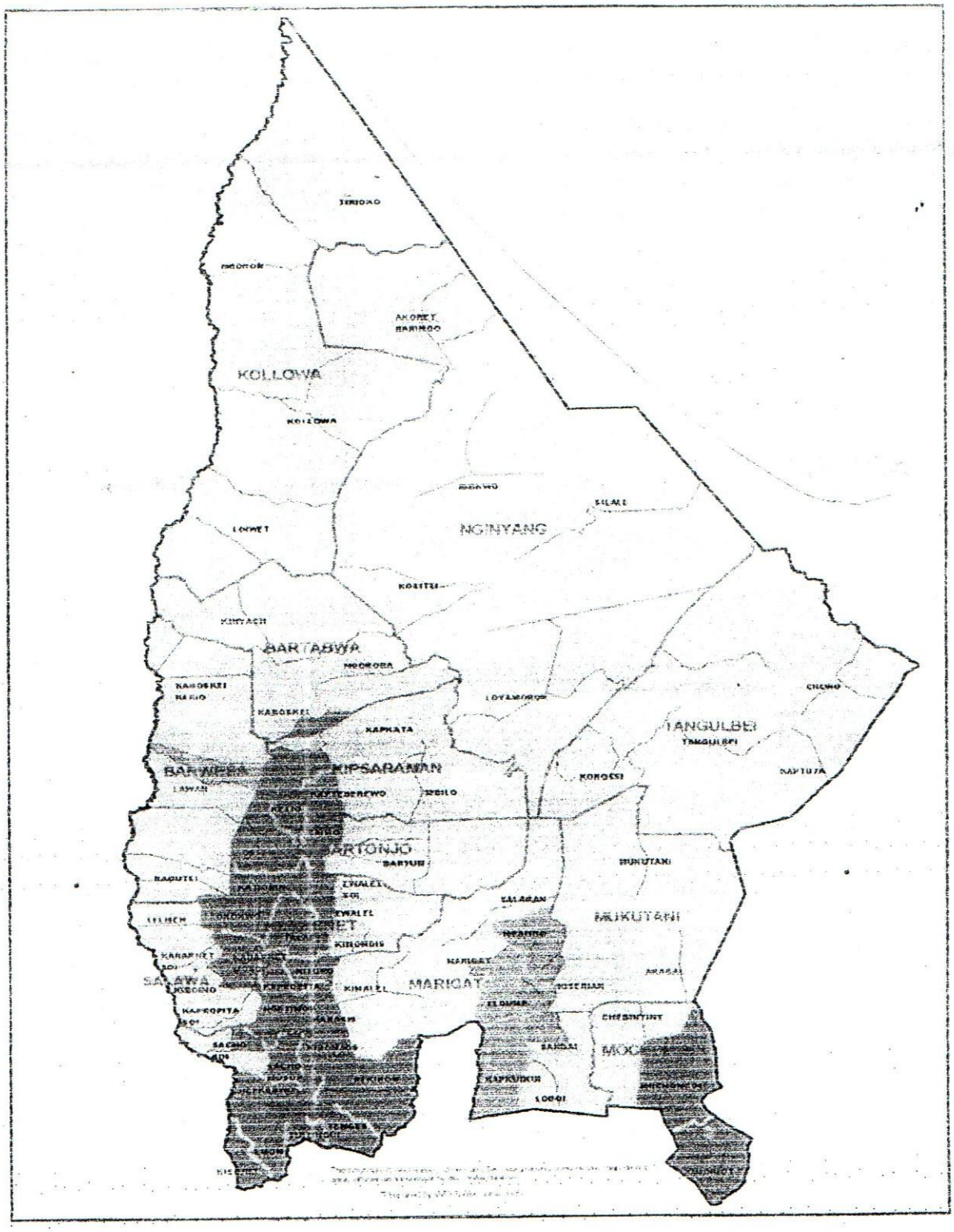
V. The small girl was ---beating---by her father for breaking the water pot. **(beat)**

VI. Mary ---telling--- me to go and see the teacher. **(tell)**

VII. Paul ---went--- to see his uncle every week. **(go)**

VIII. Samson ---Smelt---something like a rotten egg. **(smell)**

APPENDIX 4- MAP OF BARINGO



APPENDIX 5: ERRORS COLLECTED FROM THE RESAERCH

Sentence with error	sentence without error
1a she *coast* all these	1b she *caused* all these
2a *pib* through the hole	2b …*peep*
3a *tick* skin	3b …*thick*
4a the *tiff* stole…	4b the *thief* stole…
5a a *dig* skin	4b a *thick* skin
6a *beef* through the hol	5b *peep* through the hole
7a pick the *ferries*	7b pick the *berries*
8a an *rich* tomorrow-	8b and *reach* tomorrow
9a *bat* we came	9b *but* we came
10a I wel go to *cat* my hair-	10b I will go and *cut* my hair
11a *know* I will-	11b *now* I will…
12a my father told me you *now* what-	12b ….you *know* what
13a I *so* my friends-	13b I *saw* my friends
14a my friend *sow* me on the shop	14b my friend *saw* me
15a ride now	15b *right* now
16a *heat* the meat	16b *roast* the meat
17a *cut* the cow	17b *slaughter* the cow
18a how is you?	*18b how are you?*
19a come and *told* me story	19b come and *tell* me a story
20a somebody *which* is having…	20b somebody *who* has….
21a *Slite* the cow	21b *slaughter.*
22a he *diged* the garden	22b he *dug* the garden
23a the boy *felled* down…	23b …*fell*
24a Mary *telled* me to go…	24b …*told*
25a the teacher was *thinked* about the…	25b …*thinking*
26a the boy *falled* down…	26b …*fell*
27a the young children *eated* their food…	27b …*ate*
28a the small girl was *beated* by her father…	28b …*beaten*
29a the small girl was *beating* by her father…	29b …*beaten*
30a the boy *fallen* down while coming…	30b …*fell*
31a my father had *knew*	31b my father had *known*
32a Paul *gone* to see his uncle….	32b …*went*
33a Paul *going* to see his uncle…	33b …*went*
34a the boy *falling* down while coming…	34b …*fell*
35a the young children *eating* their food…	35b …*ate*
36a Mary *telling* me to go…	36b …*told*
37a my father beat her for *caming* home…	37b my father beat me for *coming*…
38a *she* told me to	38b *he* told me to
39a where are you being?	*39b where have you been?*
40a I *has* coming home late	40b I *had* come home late

41a ...when we are be going	*41b when we had been going*
42a tomorrow *I will going*	42b tomorrow *I will be going*
43a Will you *sang* a song?	43b will you *sing* a song?
44a I was left my cow	*44b I left my cow*
45a... *thought*	45b *thinking*
46a he *think* that...	46b he *thought* that..
47a he *don't* get us	47b he *didn't* get us
48a I *don't* hear what my....	48b I *didn't* hear what my father....
49a I *go* to Kabarnet.	49b I *went* to Kabarnet
50a my friend *tell* me	50b my friend *told* me
51a I *reach* there	51b I *reached* there
52a and we *go* to town	52b and we *went* to town
53a I *will* go	53b I *would go*
54a when I *go*	54b when I *went*
55a my mother *come* closer	55b my mother *came* closer
56a when I *will came* back	56b when I will *come* back
57a *I told me*	57b *I told him*
58a a *short* road	58b a *narrow* path
59a the road is very *thin*	59b the road is *narrow.*
60a *the small path*	60b *the narrow path.*
61a *the road is small.*	61b *the path is narrow*
62a *very large hole*	62b *a very deep hole.*
63a *a very long hole.*	63b *a very deep hole*
64a I will *see you fire*	64b I will *show you fire*
65a *fire* the meat	65b *roast* the meat
66a *I will saw you fire.*	66b *I will show you fire*
67a *band* a meat.	67b *roast* the meat
68a come *to said storys*	68b for *come we chat.*
69a come *to tell you story*	69b come I *tell you a story*
70a come *to say stories*	70b come *to say something.*
71a *a baby who is mouth is long.*	71b *a baby who stammers*
72a the bus stop *I claim the bus*	72b at the bus *I boarded the bus*
73a so time was *very very late*	73b *it was very late*
74a come and *sleep my home*	74b come and *sleep in my house*
75a my school *start at* 12:00am	75b my school *programme starts at...*
76a my friend *came on* our home	76b my friend *came to* our home
77a my friend *going to* church...	77b my friend *went to* church.....
78a when I was *in* the road	78b when I was *at* the road
79a I told him *when* I come late	79b I told him *if* I come late
80a *it reach at 6:00pm*	80b *... at six pm*
81a I go *to* there	81b I went there
82a I *looked to* my father	82b I *looked at* my father
83a I told my father *yes wen after going...*	83b I told my father *after going*
84a they play *so good*	84b played *so well*
85a I was *young boy*	85b I was *a young boy*

86a my father came *inside a house*
87a my father asked me *why that I...*
88a when I not *got you* at home
89a *rost* the meat
90a *slougter* the cow
91a *gerlus*
92a the *norow* road
93a *cheless/chelss/jelas*
94a my *doter*
95a *...dum*
96a *...chorking-*
97a now very *arly/hully*
98a I was very *rood*
99a child which they are *stamary*
100a two *strok*
101a person who has a bad *carecta*
102a to go *aniware*
103a I *fech*
104a I *jummed*
105a in the *kichen*
106a one chilly *moning*
107a beat me with a big *stik*
108a my *dotor*
109a people with bad *munus*
110a *silota* the cow
111a the *farst* day
112a she give me three *handred* shillings
113a I was *raning* from school-
114a *beby* has a bag mouth -
115a *plet* is broken-
116a ...came home in the *evining-*
117a I *tould* him....
118a the *polise* came-
119a I *ren*
120a Jeptoo *when* home
121a I *smalled* something...
122a I am *smilling* something...
123a Kangogo *toll* me stories.
124a Kiprop can *smile* something...
125a the teacher is *thot* about...
126a when he *loked* inside-
127a come to *shark* hands
128a come to *meat* together
129a *owl* which is deep
130a going to the *shamba* and *dinging-*

86b my father came *inside the house*
87b my father asked me *why I.....*
88b if I don't *get you* at home
89b *roast* the meat
90b *slaughter* the cow
91b *jealous*
92b the *narrow* road
93b *jealous* person
94b my *daughter*
95b *...doom*
96b *...chocking*
97b now it is very *early*
98b I was very *rude*
99b a child who *stammers*
100b two *strokes*
101b a person who has a bad *character*
102b to go *anywhere*
103b I *fetched*
104b I *jumped...*
105b in the *kitchen*
106b *....morning*
107b beat me with a big *stick*
108b my *daughter*
109b someone with bad *manners*
110b *slaughter* the cow
111b the *first* day
112b ...three *hundred* shillings
113b I was *running* from school
114b a *baby* who stammers
115b the *plate* was broken
116b ...I came home in the *evening*
117b I *told* him
118b the *police* came
119b I *ran*
120b I *went* home
121b *...smelt*
122b *smelling*
123b *told*
124b *smell*
125b *thinking*
126b *looked* inside
127b come we *shake hands*
128b come *and meet me*
129b a *hole* that is deep
130b going to the *shamba* and *digging*

131a whose *goot*
132a you are *chokeking /chongin*
133a *diggin* the *gadden*
134a she gave me *pemishin-*
135a *wats hapend?-*
136a when I repeat that *dhing*
137a I will not *lifit* my cow-
138a *gome* we eat storys-
139a I go to *blay*
140a *bibb* through the hole
141a pick the *parise*
142a my *douda*
143a the *thiff* stole…
144a my father beat me *thelf strogs*
145a *gat* the cow
146a the *tip hol*
147a so just *sidt* down-
148a he *lipited* again
149a a *dip 'ng'en'*
150a the road was *mamba*
151a the road *'tanten'*
152a the person *chorua*
153a *choma nyama*
154a you will go to *shamba*
155a my father said he will *kill* me
156a I could *taste* something rotten
157a *born* some meat
158a you will sing *chores*
159a *dakeness nade come*
160a *I want to the firewood*
161a she run *warding* me
162a I was very *road*
163a *azema* story
164a baby that is *not equal*
165a someone *who is fat*
166a the *did* is very far
167a the *long plass*
168a the road which *is shot*
169a the road who *sleam*
170a *a person who is not happy*
171a *dry* the meat
172a father beat *me very well*
173a the child have *tall maut*

131b *…goat*
132b *…choking*
133b *digging* the *garden*
134b she gave me *permission*
135b *what has happened?*
136b when I repeat that *thing*
137b I will not *leave* my cow
138b *come* we chat
139b I went to *play*
140b *…peep*
141b *…berries*
142b *…daughter*
143b *…thief*
144b my father beat me *twelve strokes*
145b *slaughter* the cow
146b a *deep hole*
147b *sit* down
148b he *repeated* again
149b *a deep hole*
150b *the narrow path*
151b *the narrow path*
152b *a friend of mine*
153b *roast the meat*
154b you will got *to the farm*
155b my father said he would *beat* me
156b I could *smell* something rotten
157b *roast* the meat
158b you will sing *a song*
159b *it was becoming dark*
160b *I went to fetch firewood*
161b she ran *towards* me
162b I was very *rude*
163b *amazing* story
164b a child *who stammers*
165b someone *who has bad manners*
166b *a deep hole*
167b *a deep hole*
168b *a narrow path*
169b *a narrow path*
170b *someone with bad manners*
171b *roast* the meat
172b father beat *me thoroughly*
173b a child *who stammers*

APPENDIX 6: SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE

Question 1: In the process of teaching, what language do you use? mother tongue, Kiswahili or English?

Teacher a: We emphasize the use of English in all circumstances

Teacher b: English because it is a core subject used in the teaching of other subjects

Teacher c: We emphasize English

Teacher d: English and also Kiswahili

Question 2: Do the students use English in their written and spoken work?

Teacher a: They don't pupils are avers to the use of English. They view the usage of English as something like a punishment since they are not good in it.

Teacher b: Some try but others would rather use the Kiswahili language which is relatively simpler to speak.

Teacher c: Our students are rather lazy, they rarely write their homework nor even try to speak in English.

Teacher d: Although we are very strict in fact even punishing pupils who don't speak in English, they still don't use it. They pocket the disks given to them and keep quiet.

Question 3: From your point of view then, what is your pupils' attitude towards English?

Teacher a: Very low

Teacher b: They dislike using it

Teacher c: Bad attitude

Teacher d: They seem to like it but they are unable to use it.

Question 4: According to you, what are the possible causes of learners constructing words wrongly or rather misusing words?

Teacher a: This is a problem right from home. These children come to school with only the knowledge of their mother tongue.

Teacher b: It is not the mistake of these children; even us the adults have these problems

Teacher c: Pupils take things for granted even after we have taught them; they still do not practise reading, visiting the library or refer to their dictionaries. We cannot blame the teachers these children are extremely lazy.

Teacher d: The pupils' first language

Question 5: Since you agree that these learners make errors in their sentence constructions, usage of vocabulary and usage of language, does the making of these errors in any way affect their performance?

Teacher a: So much, makes them not to do well in the final exams
In addition; the children become withdrawn and feel very shy while expressing themselves. Finally; some of these children who are poor in English end up dropping out of school.

Teacher b: They end up speaking broken English and thus fear talking in front of other pupils. They cannot comprehend questions that have been asked even if they are very simple. They fail in their exams, they fear to discuss in groups, and cannot also express themselves freely because of the language barrier.

Teacher c: They answer questions in the contrary therefore they score low marks. It has drastically affected the other subjects such as: Social Sciences, Mathematics, and Christian Religious Education since these subjects are taught in English. Many

parents have come to school to complain that their children score poorly in most of the subjects. They think we are the cause of this problem.

Teacher d: It has affected them tremendously consider that in the other subjects, the learners are merely required to shade but in English and Kiswahili, these pupils do not shade while writing compositions. They do not do well in the other subjects. These pupils are too local they cannot think of the wider country and the bigger competition they will face outside their school compound. They rarely do well in high school because the same things are taught and they are now required to be more advanced and can argue out points, for example; in discursive essays, debates and other fora were they are required to speak up their minds.

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