

**The Effects of First Language Interference on Sentence
Transformation among Grade 12 English Second Language Learners
from a Xitsonga High School Community in Malamulele**

Dissertation

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by

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DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation, hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Master of Education, has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, that it is my own work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been fully acknowledged.

Signature

May 2013

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Johannah, and son, Ndzalama Chauke for moral support I received from them throughout my studies, as well as my friend, Sello Makgaka, who, since I started with my studies, supported me with words of encouragement. Special thanks are hereby also extended to my supervisor, Dr T. E. Mabila and co-supervisor, Mr T. N. Manganye, for their guidance.

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ABSTRACT

The research reported in this study firstly sought to examine the effects of First Language (L1) on sentence transformation among grade 12 learners studying English First Additional Language (EFAL). Secondly, it endeavoured to recommend possible measures that could be implemented to eliminate the consequences of such effects, since available research on errors, resulting from L1 interference, offers no feasible classroom solutions to this problem. The significance for this study rests in the sense that it pursued to provide a meaningful soluble contribution to the problem, taking into cognisance South Africa's multilingual and multicultural realities. Thirdly, the study also attempted to ensure that the recommendations made, acknowledged the reality of the fact that a majority of South Africa's EFAL teachers are themselves Second Language (L2) speakers.

To achieve the above, the study employed the mixed method model of research design to answer the question 'What are the effects of L1 interference on sentence transformation among grade 12 EFAL learners?' The findings of this study revealed that learners, who participated in this study are exposed to various sources of language input. In addition, the results indicated that a majority of the learners listen to a predominantly Xitsonga language radio station. Thus, there is very little exposure to English L2 input from this media. With regards to television, however, most of the learners watch SABC 1 and in particular, *Generations*, a multilingual *soapie* (localism for soap opera) dominated by the use of Black South African English (BSAfE). On the issue of the effects of L1 on sentence transformation, the findings showed a number of levels at which sentence transformation is affected by L1.

Given the findings of this study, the researcher strongly recommends that in order to relieve the problem underlying this study, the education system should

consider responding to the call by authors in this field, that BSAfE be accepted as an institutionalised variety, which offers an innovative and unique identity to the South African linguistic context. Thus, the study is of practical importance to various sectors. It contributes invaluable information for curriculum developers and implementers. It also contributes vital knowledge for teacher training programmes.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BSAfE	Black South African English
CA	Content Analysis
CASS	Continuous Assessment
CCA	Constant Comparison Analysis
CLI	Cross-Linguistic Interference
DA	Discourse Analysis
DoE	Department of Education
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DET	Department of Education and Training
EFAL	English First Additional Language
ESL	English Second Language
FET	Further Education and Training
FL	Foreign Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MT	Mother Tongue
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
SAfE	South African English
SBE	Standard British English
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TL	Target Language

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

There is a concern by several linguists (for example Krashen, 1981; Bhela, 1999; Ellis, 2003; and Makalela, 2007), that First Language (L1) speakers commit errors in their second language (L2) production. This notion seems to be particularly true when taking into consideration learners' writing and speech in English Second Language (ESL)¹. Personal observations have revealed that grade 12 learners, studying ESL, are not an exception in this regard.

Available research in this area provides findings, which reveal that L1 is one of several major causes of language interference (Bhela, 1999:22). In addition, a number of researchers have scrutinised the errors L2 learners commit during conversations as well as in their written work. Some of the studies have proffered recommendations to remedy such errors during instruction. However, most of the recommendations do not seem to be feasible, as learners continue to commit errors. This study seeks to examine the effects of L1 interference on grade 12 learners studying English First Additional Language (EFAL). Thus, the study specifically concentrates on sentence transformation, and endeavours to suggest ways, in which effects of language transfer could be addressed.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Since 2003, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) has been struggling to remedy the problem of L1 influence, especially sentence transformation interference, on grade 12 EFAL learners, sadly with very little success. The researcher, who at the time of this study, holds 14 years' experience as educator of grade 12 learners studying EFAL, is acutely aware of the problem, having

¹ Also known as English First Additional Language (EFAL) in the South African education system, and henceforth used interchangeably.

detected that several grade 12 learners did not perform well in their EFAL assessment tasks. Observation evidence revealed that this was consistently the case, when it came to the grammar section of the grade 12 examination and more specifically so, with regard to the question on sentence transformation. In most cases, learners had difficulty when required to transform sentences, especially reported speech, active and passive voice as well as language editing. In addition, learners' results, achieved during previous year tests and examinations, revealed that, for several grade 12 learners, their L1 interfered with their performance in EFAL. Therefore, the researcher's motivation to conduct an empirical study, which investigates the effects of L1 sentence transformation interference on grade 12 EFAL learners, stems from the observed performance.

1.3 Aim of the Study

The research study is aimed at examining the effects of L1 interference on sentence transformation for grade 12 EFAL learners.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives for this study are set as follows:

- To determine sources of L1 interference among grade 12 EFAL learners.
- To determine the types/levels of L1 interference on learners' EFAL performance.
- To recommend alternative ways, in which L1 interference can be addressed.

1.5 Research Question

The formulated research question for this study is:

- 'What are the effects of L1 on sentence transformation for grade 12 EFAL learners?'

Relatedly, the following sub-questions also need investigation:

- What are the sources of L1 interference on sentence transformation for grade 12 EFAL learners?
- What are the predominant types/levels of L1 interference on grade 12 learners' sentence transformation?
- What are the possible ways, through which L1 interference on EFAL can be addressed?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study firstly seeks to examine the effects of L1 on sentence transformation among grade 12 learners studying EFAL. Secondly, the study endeavours to recommend possible measures that could be implemented to eliminate such effects. Thus far, available research on errors resulting from L1 interference, offers very few feasible classroom solutions to this problem. Hence, it is believed that the information and data gleaned from this study could contribute vital knowledge and suggestions to improve learner performance in EFAL. In addition, it desires to contribute positively to the pass rate of grade 12 learners. Therefore, to truly make a meaningful contribution, it has to take into cognisance South Africa's multilingual and multicultural realities as well as acknowledge the reality that the majority of South Africa's EFAL teachers are themselves L2 speakers. Being circumspect of all of the above, the study wishes to be of practical importance to various sectors of the South African education system. For example, initially it could contribute invaluable information to curriculum developers and implementers within the education department. Furthermore, it could provide vital knowledge for teacher training programmes in higher education.

1.7 Research Methodology

The research for this study will be located within the framework proposed by Bachman and Palmer (1996), which has drawn attention to the need for language learners to have knowledge and understanding of the organisational and functional/pragmatic aspects of second language. Hence, according to this duo,

successful learners, by implication, are those, who are able to negotiate the grammatical and textual structure of the language of instruction, and who are able to understand and effectively produce its functional and socio-linguistic bases.

In view of the Bachman and Palmer (1996) model, as well as the aims and objectives of the study, it is obvious that the research question, “What are the effects of L1 on sentence transformation for grade 12 ESL learners?” would best be answered by closely investigating both the grammatical and textual competence of the grade 12 learners, who participate in the study. In particular, according to the framework of this study, the research undertaken has to analyse learners’ abilities to recognise and manipulate the syntactical basis of the English language, as well as show their capacities to comprehend (“see”) the structure and organisation of discourse and argument.

Emanating from the above outline, it therefore follows logically, that the research methodology for this study is drawn from both the quantitative and qualitative paradigms. Thus, the design for this study is carefully selected from within the said paradigms with strong considerations of the research questions, which need to be answered.

1.8 Research Design

From the onset, this study will utilise a mixed methods design, which is a procedure for collecting, analysing and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study, to understand a research problem more completely (Creswell, 2002). Additionally, a *case study* will also form the basis for the design of this study. According to Nisbet and Watt (2005 cited in Bell, Bush, Pox, Goodey and Gouldings, 2010), a case study refers to a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle. Creswell (2007:61) sees case study as “an exploration or in-depth analysis of a bound system”. The exploration and description of the case takes place “through detailed, in-depth data collection methods, involving multiple

sources of information that are rich in context” (De Vos 2003:275). Leedy and Ormrod (2005) agree that in a case study, a particular individual program, or event is studied in depth for a period of time. Hence, it is believed that a case study provides “a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2005:181).

1.9 Research Population and Sample

This study is to be conducted in a high school in the Vhembe district of the Limpopo Province, South Africa. The school is situated 18 kilometres west of Malamulele, which lies at the North of Giyani. It is surrounded by three villages, from which it draws its learners. All three villages are predominantly Xitsonga speaking communities. Like most schools in South Africa, this school uses ESL as a medium of instruction across all subjects. In addition, learners are taught EFAL as part of their curriculum. Similar to most rural South African schools, it is also overcrowded and experiences a lack of resources. In line with the concept of convenience sampling, all grade 12 learners (a total of 132 students) in the school, earmarked for data collection, are to be included in the sample. A number of authors like De Vos 2003, Fouché, 2005 as well as Fouché and Delpont, 2005, concur that a sample selected through this type of sampling procedure ensures that the respondents are those, who are nearest and most easily available. In addition, Cohen *et al* (2005:103), state, “convenience sampling or as it is sometimes called, accidental or opportunity sampling involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents. The researcher simply chooses the sample from those to whom he/she has easy access.” In this case the respondents, who are nearest and most easily available to the researcher, are the grade 12 learners in the school where the researcher teaches.

1.10 Data Collection

The research design described earlier in this document entails that this study will be based on several data sources. In other words, data collection will be triangulated. The data collection process in this study will employ the following instruments:

- (a) A questionnaire - divided into the following sections:
 - Section A, which will be used to collect demographic data, such as learner's age, gender, number of years at school, and grade at school.
 - Section B, which will seek to investigate sources of second language input among learners.
- (b) A sentence transformation test, which will be specifically developed to collect data on L1 interference.

1.11 Data analysis

Content Analysis (CA) will be employed to analyse the qualitative data obtained through the learners' written task (sentence transformation test). According to Leedy and Ormond (2005), coding is the heart and soul of text analysis, therefore, the data to be collected through the learner's test will be coded and analysed according to themes. Hence, the researcher will focus on the following fundamentals associated with coding: (1) Sampling coding, which entails that the subjects are coded to prevent disclosure of their identities. (2) Finding themes in order to identify categories. Thus, in order to obtain a sense of what the collected data might indicate, the researcher will identify general categories/themes and classify each piece of data accordingly. Such an exercise is important for analysing data qualitatively if one considers the point of contention raised by Leedy and Ormond (2005:150), "data should be organized, broken down into themes, perused entirely several times to get the sense of what it contains as a whole".

1.12 Delimitation of the Study

To ensure that the collection of data for this study does not disrupt delivery of the curriculum, it would not be possible to conduct the research in a wider community. Second, upon approach some high school principals also seemed to prefer that the researcher collect data at certain times during the year, which would be time consuming bearing in mind restrictions brought about by stipulated duration for registration of a masters degree. In addition, some educators felt inconvenienced as the research process seemed to be a waste of their valuable time. Thus, a decision was made that this study would limit to one high school.

Due to the fact that first language interference can manifest itself in a number of ways (for example: through pronunciation, grammatical deviations, lexicalisation and many others), this study shall be delimited to focus only on rewriting English sentences without changing their original meaning.

Chapter 2 will follow with a review of the literature on the effects of L1 interference on L2.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature of L1 interference. In essence, Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature on the effects of L1 interference on L2, with specific reference to grade 12 L2 learners from a rural school in a Xitsonga community of the Malamulele area in Limpopo Province.

The chapter is presented as follows: First, section 2.2 presents some insights on what L1 interference actually entails. Second, section 2.3 is a detailed description of the established and known levels of L1 interference. This is buttressed by referring to some tangible evidence from previous studies conducted by prominent authors in this field, such as Chisanga (1987); De Klerk and Gough (2002); Sanderson (2005); Makalela (2007) and Manganye (2007). Finally, the chapter reviews the rise of a new English alternative for South Africa as purported by several authors, such as Mothoa (2001); Makalela (2007) and Manganye (2007) before drawing conclusions.

2.2 Language Interference

Extensive information about the type of errors often committed by learners of ESL (henceforth used interchangeably with EFAL for relevance), has been recorded by a number of previous studies in the area of language interference. Several of these studies were useful for the literature review undertaken as basis for this study, as these sources focus on the causes and effects of L1 interference.

Extensive research on L1 interference has been conducted by researchers, such as Krashen (1981); Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982); Bhela (1999); Ellis (2003); Mothoa (2001) and Manganye (2007). These and other researchers have

provided numerous definitions for the concept interference. For example, Dulay *et al* (1982) as quoted by Bhela (1999) define interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the L1 to the surface of the target language (TL). In addition, Bhela (1999) defines interference as, “errors in the learners’ use of the foreign language (FL) that can be traced back to the ‘mother tongue’ (MT)”. The formal elements of L1 are used within the context of L2, resulting in errors in L2, since the structures of the languages - L1 and L2 - are different. In learning L2, the learners use L1 structures interchangeably with L2 structures, producing inappropriate L2 responses, indicating an interference of L1 on L2 (Bhela, 1999:30).

Ellis (2003:51) refers to interference as the influence that the learner’s L1 exerts over the acquisition of the L2. This author states that transfer is governed by a learner’s perception about what is transferable and by the stage of development in L2 learning. Furthermore, the source notes that in learning a TL, learners construct their own interim rules with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible. Nonetheless, Bhela (1999:21) argues that L2 learners appear to have accumulative structural entities of the TL, but demonstrate difficulty in organising this knowledge into appropriate, coherent structures. This informant mentions that, it appears that there is a significant gap between the accumulation and the organisation of knowledge; hence L1 speakers produce the structures that have errors as L2 learners tend to rely on their L1 structure to produce a response (Bhela, 1999:22). To strengthen this point, the source (1999:23) quotes a study, which suggested that many of the difficulties a L2 learner experiences (for example; with the phonology, vocabulary and the grammar of L2), are due to the interference of habits from L1. The formal elements of L1 are used within the context of L2, resulting in errors in L2, as the structures of the languages, L1 and L2, are different.

Like Ellis (1997), Sanderson (2005) perceives interference as the transfer of elements from one language to another in the speech of a bilingual, and can be defined as the use of features belonging to one language (usually the L1) when speaking another language (for example, L2). Sanderson continued by explaining that interference can affect pronunciation, word choice, or sentence structure and can occur to varying degrees. For example, telling the time is done very differently in English as opposed to Afrikaans. “Prior knowledge of English forms, such as, *It is half-past one*, would make it difficult for a learner to master the Afrikaans equivalent, *Dit is half twee* (literally: ‘It is half two’), because the sound systems (sounds) of these two languages are likely to differ. Hence, learners may have difficulty with sounds or distinctions, which are not found in their L1” (Sanderson, 2005:45).

In a study on cross-language interference, Festman (2004) examined the performance of 17 unequally proficient trilingual students in three TL’s. These languages were L1 German; L2 English; and L3 French. The findings revealed, as Festman (2004:6) had predicted, that more “Cross-Language Interference (CLI) appeared in the weaker than in the stronger languages”. In other words, CLI only occurred in both additional languages (English and French). Hence, according to this source, CLI is mostly transferred due to frequent switching.

Aronin and Toubkin (2001) conducted a similar research study on language interference and learning techniques transfer in L2 and L3 immersion programmes, where the L2 and L3 were not related languages as was the case with Festman’s study. The respondents in Aronin and Toubkin’s (2001) study were 141 Russian speaking immigrant students ranging in ages from 18-23. During the summer, all respondents were studying immersion courses at a university. Of these students, 65 participated in a Hebrew L2 programme and 76 in an English L3 programme. The students in both programmes (Hebrew and English) were asked whether they perceived interference between their L1, L2, and L3 languages. The students of Hebrew immersion were asked whether or

not they felt that English (their L3) hindered their learning of Hebrew (L2). Of the respondents, 89.2% replied that it did not. Only 9.2% of the respondents thought that English interfered with Hebrew.

The students of the English programmes were asked the same question on the interference of languages - that is to say whether or not Hebrew (L2) and Russian (L1) interfered with their studies of English (L3). With English (L3) as a TL the results were different. Of the respondents, 51% claimed that Hebrew (L2) interfered with English (L3), the TL of the immersion programme. Russian (L1) was not perceived as hindering their progress in English. For example, 91 % of the respondents wrote that Russian did not interfere with their English studies. In as far as the learning of the L2 is concerned; Lindfors (1991) maintains that the L2 learner brings increased experience and knowledge of a L1. The author substantiates his point by quoting Fillmore (1991:55) who argues:

Learning a L2 is facilitated in some way by the added age and experience in the case of the second language learner and possibly inhibited in some ways by his knowledge of the L1. Prior knowledge of a L1 may predispose the learner to look for familiar ways of expressing in the new language meanings he is accustomed to expressing in his L1. He will be inclined to make the kinds of distinction in the new language.

To this, Sanderson (2005) notes that, a person's L1 is usually spoken with L1 competence, while a L2 learner may never attain the same degree of proficiency as a L1 speaker. Secondly, a L2 learner already possesses a L1 vocabulary and grammar, and does not have to construct these from scratch in the same way as a L1 learner has to. The learner's knowledge of his or her L1 is likely to influence the way he or she approaches and learns a L2. Where the relevant features of both languages are the same, for example English and Afrikaans, which are related Germanic languages, it results in correct language production known as positive transfer. The greater the differences between the two languages, that is, when they are non-related, like Xitsonga and English, the more negative the effects of the influence are likely to be. Thus, the process will be more positive,

the closer the two languages are, and the more the learner is aware of the relationship between the two languages. “Where aspects of the L2 are similar to the L1, L2 will be learnt more easily because learners will not have to start from scratch” (Sanderson, 2005:45). In addition, the source illustrates:

An English child learning Afrikaans will have no problem learning a construction, such as, ‘Ek is twintig jaar oud’, as this is a direct translation of the English equivalent - I am twenty years old. In contrast, aspects of L2 which are very different from the L1 will be harder to learn because of interference between the two languages (Ibid, 2005:45).

In the same vein, Krashen (1981) argues that the topic of L1 interference has had an unusual history in L2 acquisition research and practice. He notes that for many years, it has been presumed that the only source of syntactic errors L2 performance was the performer’s L1. Subsequent empirical studies of errors made by L2 learners led to the discovery, however, that many errors are not traceable to the structure of a specific L1. Instead, they were found to be common to L2 performers of a plethora of different linguistic backgrounds. Such findings have led scholars to question the value of contrastive analysis and to argue instead for error analysis.

The issue, according to Krashen (1981), is not whether the L1 has an influence on the L2 or on L2 performance or even what percentage of errors can be traced to the L1 in the learner, but, rather, where the L1 fits into the theoretical model for L2 performance. Hence, according to the author, L1 influence is not proactive inhibition, but simply the result of the performer being called on to perform before he has learned the new behaviour. The result is ‘padding’, using old knowledge to supply what is known to make up what is not known. In other words, the L1 may substitute for the acquired L2 as an utterance initiator, when the performer has to produce in the TL, but has not acquired enough of the L2 to do this.

2.3 Levels of Language Interference

According to Sanderson (2005), the L2 can be interfered on two levels. One is known as the positive level and while the other is regarded as a negative level. L2 production can be interfered positively by L1, when the relevant unit or structure of both languages is the same. In this case, linguistic interference can result in correct language production as aspects of the L2 that are the same in the L1 will be learnt more easily, because they do not have to be learnt from scratch.

Negative interference occurs when speakers and writers transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages (Sanderson, 2005). For example, Afrikaans according to Sanderson is a language with SOV word order. The subject of the sentence “S” is typically followed by the object “O”, with the verb “V” at the end of the sentence. Conversely, English has an SVO word order, with the verb usually placed between the subject and the object, rather than at the end of the sentence.

Sanderson (2005:46) illustrates the above example as follows:

Petrus het 'n boek gekoop
(Gloss) *Petrus has a book bought*
 S O V
(Translation) *Petrus bought a book*
 S V O

However, it should be noted that this is the case in past and future tenses. In the present tense Afrikaans word order is also SVO (Ek (S) koop (V) 'n boek (O)). In actual fact the past tense and future tense is: S (ek) aux V (het/wil) (O) 'n boek V gekoop/koop (*Ibid*, 2005).

Another grammatical example as provided by Sanderson (2005) is the use of the subject pronouns *he* and *she* to distinguish between male and female in English. Many languages do not make the gender distinction. Xitsonga, for example, uses the *u* to refer to both males and females. The sentence *U vulavula ngopfu* can mean either - *he talks too much* or *she talks too much*. Because of the grammatical difference in the two languages, some Xitsonga learners of English as L2 have difficulty in distinguishing between the gender distinguishing subject pronouns *he* and *she* in English and often use the above subject pronouns interchangeably.

Sanderson (2005) further argues that prepositions like *to*, *for* and *from* are susceptible to interference. According to the author, these prepositions cause problems for L2 learners because they differ considerably from language to language. Sanderson (2005:47) notes that as a L2 speaker of Afrikaans:

I frequently translate English prepositions directly when speaking or writing Afrikaans. The result is an incorrect answer like, 'Ons gaan op vakansie, 'We are going on holiday', instead of, 'Ons gaan met vakansie', which literally can be translated as, 'We are going with holiday.'

These items and structures may be consciously and unconsciously transferred (*Ibid*, 2005). Consciously, learners or unskilled translators may sometimes guess when producing speech or texts in a L2, because they either have not learned or forgotten its proper usage. Unconsciously, they may not realise that the structures and internal rules of the language in question are different. Such users could also be aware of both the structures and internal rules, yet be insufficiently skilled to put them into practice, and consequently often fall back on their L1. With sustained or intense contact between L1 and L2 speakers, the results of language transfer in the L2 speakers can extend and affect the speech production of the L2 speaking community (Ellis, 1997:51).

According to Krashen (1981); Sanderson (2005) as well as Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2007:346) L1 is usually spoken with L1 language competence while a L2 learner may never attain the same degree of proficiency as a L1 speaker. These like other linguists and researchers found that the aspects of L2 (English) that are affected during second language acquisition (SLA) are syntactic and morphological errors that are unlike the errors often committed by children acquiring their L1.

2.3.1 Some evidence of L1 interference on L2

As early as 1982, Beardsmore cited in Bhela (1999) was quoted as having suggested that many of the difficulties a L2 learner has with the phonology, vocabulary and grammar of L2 are due to the interference of habits from L1. In other words, the formal elements of L1 are used within the context of L2, even though the structures of the languages, L1 and L2 are different. According to Bhela (1999:23), this manifests in different aspects of language production, such as phonology, hybridization, lexical transfer, semantic extension, syntactic transfer, subject copying and tag questions.

2.3.1.1 Phonology

According to Schmied (1991) as well as De Klerk and Gough (2002) the phonology of South African English may be explained in terms of the influence of the five-vowel system. For example, Gough (1996) indicated that vowels in words, such as 'strut', 'bath' and 'palm' are usually merged with /a/, meanwhile words, such as the 'trap', 'dress' and 'nurse' are merged with /e/. In addition, the vowel in words, such as 'set' 'lot' and 'though' is merged with /o/, while at another level, the contrast between long and short vowels in words such as 'foot' and 'goose' may be both /u/ and /o/.

Among the diphthongs, the vowels in words, such as ‘price’, ‘mouth’ and ‘choice’ may be extended over two syllables, giving [aji], [awu] and [oji] respectively (Manganyi, 2007). On the other hand, between the monophthongs [e] and [o] may be used as the vowels for words, such as ‘face’ and ‘goat’ (Gough, 1996; De Klerk & Gough, 2002).

Interestingly, evidence to support the L1 interference on phonological production has been discussed in a number of studies (for instance, Jacobs, 1994 as well as Manganyi, 2007). For an example, ‘Schwa’ in Bantu languages may be realised as a full vowel” (Manganyi, 2007:19). To support this, Manganyi (2007) cites the following example: /a/ as in ‘mother’, but it may also take on spelling pronunciation as in /e/ for ‘seventy’. Other features can be attributed to specific L1 language influences, for example /t/ is a marginal phoneme in isiZulu and may be replaced with /ʃ / by isiZulu speakers (Jacobs, 1994). In addition, Jacobs (1994) indicates that Sesotho speakers may pronounce the consonant cluster /kl/ as an ejective lateral affricate /tʃ/, a phoneme, which occurs in the Sesotho languages. From the above examples, it is obvious that the noticeable distinctions may have several positive and negative effects on the successful learning and acquisition of a L2.

2.3.1.2 Hybridisation

Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997) define hybridization as a process whereby words from an African language, such as SiSwati combine with English bound morphemes like *-ism*, *-ed*, *-ise* and *un-* to create words, which are phonetically neither entirely SiSwati nor English. To substantiate their point the duo (1997:94) provide the following examples:

- *bulala* (promote)
- The man will be *bulawa-ed* soon.
- *Khonta* (seek a piece of land from the chief).

- Over a thousand homes of people who *khonta*-ed under Prince X will be bulldozed after the elections.
- *ngena* (marry a widow to her late husband's brother).
- Women don't like to be *ngena*-ed at all. They prefer to go their own way.

Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997:91) drew the above examples from Swaziland colloquial English. However, similar examples can be found in other L2 varieties of English spoken in Southern Africa, "such as Zambian English or Zimbabwean English, to name only two" (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:94). The reason why L2 users of English in the above context draw words from their L1 language, while English equivalents of these words are available, is because, the word *bulala* translates loosely as promote, and its passive form means be promoted in the Swazi political culture, "The person, who is *bulawa*-ed, can neither turn down the position, nor can they resign from it" (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:91). This is because, doing either, according to this source would be perceived as disrespectful to the king of Swaziland. Therefore, all these shades of meanings would be lost if in their interactions Swazi speakers of English were to use the English word *promote* instead of the Swazi word *bulala*.

2.3.1.3 Lexical transfer

The process of lexical transfer, according to Chisanga (1987) involves the transfer of words from African languages into English. Some examples include:

- Away with *lobola*. Why do they have to be so demanding for their daughters?
- Abolish *lobola*; bring freedom to women and liberation to men.
- What? ... Abolish *lobola* what are the people saying?
- Those who say *lobola* is out-dated must think twice.
- Even donors won't help you if you sit with your hands open like *emanzini* waiting with their mouths open so that their mothers can put in food.

According to Chisanga and Kamwangamalu, (1997) most of the transfer is very closely linked to the culture of the new user, the South African user of English. Chisanga (1987) holds that the word *lobola* is widely used in all the L2 variations of English, spoken in Southern Africa. *The Concise English Dictionary* defines *dowry* as *property or money brought by a bride to her husband*. Hence, in Southern Africa, equating *dowry* to *lobola* would be extremely misleading (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:92). The authors explain that in this context it is:

- Firstly the bridegroom and not the bride, who must bring the money and/or any other property - not to the bride, and in this case the gift is brought to the bride's parents and not to the husband's family as in the case of a *dowry*.
- Secondly, the money brought in, officialises and thereby legitimises the agreement of marriage between the bride and the bridegroom.
- Thirdly, in most cases, if the marriage fails, the bridegroom cannot reclaim the *lobola* given to the bride's parents.
- Fourthly, it is traditionally tacitly agreed that, should the bridegroom die, the bride will be *inherited* by the bridegroom's brother or any designated male member within the bridegroom's family. Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997:92) further explain, "The SiSwati word *ngena*, which translates as *marry a widow* (without the latter's consent) to her late husband's brother, attests to this traditional practice".
- Fifthly, if the bride proves to be barren the bridegroom can claim one of the bride's sisters to become his wife and bear him children. The SiSwati word *inhlanti* bears testimony to this (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997: 93). This means a young girl given to her brother-in-law to bear children, because the latter's wife is barren.

Therefore, if the word *lobola* is translated as *dowry*, it loses its cultural content, that is, the various social and traditional meanings it is associated with in the African culture. L2 speakers of English in Southern Africa are sensitive to the

cultural content of the word *lobola* and therefore tend to use this word instead of its apparent English equivalent, *dowry* (*Ibid*, 1997:93).

2.3.1.4 Semantic extension

Semantic extension is a process whereby an English word is assigned a new meaning, which is a not L1 to L1 user. It is evident in the following items, which are superficially English, but actually reflect the import of the African culture into English:

- a) I have killed many *moons* in that hut - I have lived in that hut for many months (Chisanga, 1987:94).
- b) That girl is *ripe* – that girl is ready for marriage.
- c) The woman has *jumped* him – The woman has slept with another man Chishimba, 1983:219 in Chisanga, 1987:94).
- d) He was charged with *damage* and had to pay a lot of money because the girl has lost her place in school (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:94).

The meaning of (a) above, will not be readily accessible to a L1 English speaker. The verb *to kill* requires an animate object, which the word *moon* is not. The expression *killed many moons* is indicative of the time that the speaker has lived in the hut, since duration in Africa is traditionally usually counted in terms of days or nights or moons. According to (Chisanga, 1987) it is only by acknowledging the difference between these two cultures that (a) can be properly understood or interpreted. Likewise, the meaning of words such as *ripe*, *jump* and *damage* (b), (c) and (d), above, would also not be readily accessible to a L1 English speaker, due to the L2 cultural framework, in which the words are used. Chisanga (1987) notes that, in addition to its original meaning of causing impairment to a person or thing in Zambian English this word has specific reference to making a girl, especially a young girl still at school, illegally pregnant.

Kinship terms such as “*sister, (young) father, (young) mother, co-wife, right-hand wife*, et cetera, represent another area wherein semantic extension contributes to the ownership of English in Southern Africa” (Chisanga, 1987:94). Speakers of any of the L2 English variants spoken in Southern Africa can use the term *sister* to refer to any female, regardless of whether or not she is a relative. In order to distinguish between the general use of the term *sister* and its original meaning when referring to one’s female sibling, the speakers often qualify the term with the expression *same mother same father* as in I went to see my sister *same mother same father* (Chisanga, 1987:190). The sister in question (Chisanga, 1997) can be mother’s sister’s father’s brother’s child of father’s other wife’s child, et cetera. Other kinship terms widely used are *young father* and *young mother*. “*Young mother/father* are not a mother or father who is young but one’s father’s younger brother and mother’s younger sister, respectively” (Chisanga, 1987:95).

2.3.1.5 Syntactic transfer

Bokamba (1982:64) is quoted by (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:95) as having made the following observations with regard to the feature and its usage in African English (L2 varieties of English spoken in Africa): Of the various syntactic-semantic deviations found in African English, none has caused more confusion in communication than the use of affirmative answers to negative yes/no questions. When asked a question, such as:

- Didn’t the college send you an application form?

The answer, according to Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997), many African L2 speakers of English are likely to give is:

- *Yes*, meaning, *the college did not send me an application form* or
- *No*, meaning, *the college did send me an application form*.

In L1 British or American English, *yes* and *no* mean the opposite. Though this phenomenon can be explained as a direct case of interference from African languages, it is not unique to Southern Africa or to English speaking Africa as a whole. Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997:95) explain the above-described phenomena were also observed in the English of East Asia by Kachru (1992).

Another level of syntactic features, as observed by Wissing (1987) and Makalela (1998) in their studies as quoted Mothoa (2001:27) are, “misuse of articles; extension of progressive aspects to static verbs; resumptive pronouns; idiosyncratic use of prepositions; wrong question word order; overgeneralisation of past tense markers; omissions of plural markers; gender conflation; misuse of linking words; misuse of agreement markers as well as tense sequence”.

2.3.1.6 Subject copying

Subject copying refers to the interposition of an independent subject pronoun between a subject pronoun and its verb (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:96). This feature can be attributed to the redundancy found in the subject-verb agreement system of Bantu languages, whereby a subject prefix has to occur irrespective of whether or not the subject noun does surface, as is evident in SiSwati translation of the English structure in (a) and (b) below. Similar structures can be found in other L2 English variants spoken in the region, like Zambian English and South African English, as shown in (c), (d) and (e) (Chisanga, 1987 in Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:95).

(a) These people they cheat too much.

La bantu ba lutsana kakhulu.

(b) Children these days they misbehave.

Bantfwana kulamalanga aba seva.

(c) Having seen the proposals put forward by the chairman, me I do not agree with him.

- (d) Mr Chongwe he has left the bank. He now works on the mines.
- (e) Mculwane said his client he did not want criminals investigating themselves.

2.3.1.7 Word order

According to Reich (1986:80), adult English has a relative word order. If the order is changed, the meaning is also often changed. For example, *Fathers enjoy babies* means something quite different from *Babies enjoy fathers*. The source explains that this word order is because the syntactic information that is in English conveyed by word order is in other languages conveyed by suffixes or other word inflections.

2.3.1.8 Grammatical features

Mothoa (2001:28) presented the following grammatical features of interference: (1) misuse of preposition; (2) misuse of progressive aspects; (3) use of resumptive pronoun and, (4) misuse of gender pronouns.

1) Misuse of prepositions

Prepositions are according to Mothoa (2001:28) generally problematic among ESL learners. The difficulty lies in that black South African languages do not have prepositions. Locative suffixes are used instead of prepositions. The Nguni translation of the sentence *I am going to school* does not have a preposition, but locative prefixes and suffixes. The above sentence is translated as *Ngiya e sikoleni*. In this sentence, the 'e' is a prefix and 'ni' is a suffix. The literal translation is: *I am going to school to* (Mothoa, 2001:28).

2) Extension of the progressive aspect

ON the extension of the progressive aspect, Mothoa (2001) explains that BSAfE speakers extend the progressive aspect to stative verbs. A verb

such as love does not take a progressive aspect in Standard English. Nevertheless, non-standard constructions, such as, *I was loving her*, are prevalent in BSAE speakers' language usage.

3) Use of resumptive pronouns

BSAfE speakers make use of resumptive pronouns in both spoken and written registers as in *Sipho he went to town*. In Ndebele the construction *u-Sipho u-ya edolobheni* can be translated as *Sipho he is going to town* (Mothoa, 2001:29).

4) Conflation of gender pronoun

There is often conflation of gender pronouns in BSAfE speeches. When referring to a female, some BSAfE speakers' of English as observed by Mothoa (2001:29) use a male pronoun or vice-versa. The conflation of gender pronouns sometimes continues without any of the speakers realising it. Sentences, such as *I saw Jane while he was going to town*, are typical even when the referent is a female.

2.3.1.9 Tag questions

Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997) cites '*Is it!*' as one of the most common features of English in Southern Africa, which is used without regard to gender, person and number. "This feature is also found in South African 'White' English" (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:95) and as evidence provide the following conversation between two friends:

A: We went to town yesterday and ran into Jane on the way...

B: Is it?

A: And she asked about you.

B: Is it? What did she say?

A: She just wanted to know how you were doing.

B: Is it?

To substantiate their point further, the duo (1997:95) provide the *following* conversation, which took place between Kamwangamalu and a cashier in a supermarket.

C: Good morning.

K: Good morning.

C: How is your wife?

K: She is fine, thank you.

C: *Is it?* How come she did not come with you today?

K: She wasn't ready when I left.

C: *Is it?* Shame. Please give my regards to her.

K: I sure will thank you.

C: Bye-bye.

K: Bye.

The tag question, '*is it?*' according to this source, is so prevalent in South African White English, South African Indian English, South African Coloured English, and BSAfE.

In a recent study conducted by Havlásková (2010) the existence of Spanish interference in the English written work of sixth grade students was confirmed. During the analysis Havlásková found that syntactic and semantic errors were produced by the use of Spanish structures or the use of Spanish words and meanings in English. Therefore, the conclusion was that those errors were consequence of Spanish interference on the students writing skill (*Ibid*, 2010).

According to Havlásková (2010) the most common syntactic errors produced by Spanish interference in the students' written material were inappropriate use of prepositions, subject pronoun omission, definite article inappropriate use and auxiliary verb omission (70% of the total amount of Spanish interference errors in the grammar structure variable), which were caused by the use of their Spanish structures and functions instead of English ones.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

The point of departure for this study is the language knowledge model as proposed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) following the 1990 classic *Fundamental Considerations of Language Testing* authored by Bachman. The research work of Bachman (1990) draws attention to the need for students to have knowledge and understanding of the organizational, functional and pragmatic aspects of the English language over the recent years. Hence, according to Bachman and Palmer (1996) successful learners by implication are those who are able to negotiate the grammatical and textual structure of the language instruction and who are able to understand and effectively produce its functional and socio-linguistic basis.

In view of Bachman's model, and the aims and objectives of the study, It is obvious that the research question, "What are the effects of L1 on sentence transformation for grade 12 ESL learners?" will best be answered by closely investigating both the grammatical and textual competence of the grade 12 learners who will participate in this study. The summarised details of Bachman's model of language competence or language knowledge specifications are outlined in Table 2.1, on the following 2 pages.

In accordance with the framework of this study, the researcher will analyse learners' ability to recognise and manipulate the syntactical basis of the English language as well as the capacities to 'see' the structure and organization of discourse and argument. It is however important to note that for the researcher in this study, in addition to the framework in which this study is located, the context in which the research is conducted also has a high level of significance. It is in this light that the historical development of English in South Africa is also considered important as it gives an understanding of the context in which the study operates. Hence, the next section begins by offering a historical basis of English in the Cape.

2.4.1 English in the Cape

Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997), relate that more than a century ago, English came to Southern Africa, because of the colonisation of Southern African countries, such as Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe . English was and is still used as an official language in all these countries. In South Africa, English “enjoys a special status both as a native (sic) language for some South African Indian English and a segment of the white population and as a non-native language for others like the black population” (Chisanga & Kamwangamalu, 1997:89).

In 1806, after the second occupation of the Cape, the British administration established the first English-speaking community in Southern Africa. Government officials and the military were largely transient, but the Napoleonic wars brought numbers of more permanent residents, who were attracted, from economically depressed Britain, to become merchants and traders, farmers and officials in local administration in the Cape Colony (Lanham & Prinsloo, 1978).

Table 2.1: Language Knowledge Specifications

Organizational	<p><u>Grammatical</u></p> <p>Vocabulary</p> <p>morphology</p> <p>syntax</p>	<p><i>Vocabulary: "unknown" and "known" vocabulary</i></p> <p><i>Spelling as it affects meaning</i></p> <p><i>Syntax</i></p> <p><i>Understanding relations between parts of text</i></p>	<p>Students' established vocabulary</p> <p>Students' abilities to derive/work out word meanings from their context, plus "known" vocabulary.</p> <p>Students' abilities to recognise and manipulate the syntactical basis of the language</p> <p>Students' capacities to comprehend (<i>see</i>) the structure and organisation of discourse and argument, by such means as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Using devices of cohesion, such as pronoun reference, particularly demonstratives, referring to statements/propositions or "entities" ▪ Paying attention-within and between paragraphs in text-to transitions in argument; superordinate and subordinate ideas; introductions and conclusions; logical development ideas
	<p><u>Textual</u></p> <p>Cohesion</p> <p>Rhetorical organisation</p>	<p>Skimming and scanning</p> <p>Inference, extrapolation and application</p> <p>Separating the essential from the non-essential</p>	<p>Students' abilities to use macro features of text, such as headings, illustrations) to understand the gist of passage or to locate particular pieces of information</p> <p>Students' capacities to draw conclusions and apply insights, either on the basis of what is stated in texts or is implied but not explicitly stated in these texts</p> <p>Students' capacities to comprehend (<i>see</i>) main ideas and supporting detail; statements and examples; facts and opinions; propositions and their arguments; being able to classify, categorise and "label"</p>

Pragmatic		Detailed meaning for reading	Students' abilities "to get at" meaning, at sentence level
	<u>Functional knowledge</u>	Understanding the communicative function of sentences with or without explicit indicators.	Students' abilities to understand (see) how parts of sentences/discourse define other parts; or are examples of ideas; or are supports for arguments; or attempts to persuade; or to define
	Ideational manipulative	Understanding the importance of "own voice" (including "ownership" of ideas) and/or creativity of thought and expression	Students' abilities to "use own voice" appropriately and effectively, and to acknowledge sources of ideas and information (stage specific)
	Heuristic		
	Imaginative		
		Understanding visually encoded forms of information representation	Students' abilities to understand and use graphs, tables, diagrams, pictures, maps, flow-charts
		Understanding basic numerical concepts expressed in text and undertake simple numerical manipulations	Students' abilities to make numerical estimations; comparisons; calculate percentages and fractions; make chronological references and sequence events/processes; perform basic computations
	<u>Sociolinguistic knowledge</u>	Understanding metaphorical expression	Students' abilities to understand and work with metaphor in language, this includes their capacity to perceive language connotation, word play, ambiguity, idiomatic expressions, and so on; familiarity with cultural references and figures of speech
	(Sensitivity to dialect, language, variety; register; naturalness		
	Criteria)	Understanding text genre	Students' abilities to perceive "audience" in text and purpose in writing, including an ability to understand text register (formality/informality and tone (didactic/informative/persuasive etc.)

Adapted from Bachman and Palmer (1996)

Early in the century, Cape Town had acquired the character of an English town, this being the reflection of the most influential sector of the urban community. It was the government-sponsored settlement of 5000 '1820 Settlers' in the Eastern Cape that made English a language of Africa and a distinct variety of the worldwide English. Groups of English-speaking settlers in Natal in the 1850s and 1860s also made their own particular contribution to South African English (SAfE), which is a definable variety of English spoken as a MT largely by South African White people.

The African setting for English as Lanham and Prinsloo (1978) state, made immediate impact on vocabulary and produced a steady stream of new words and meanings, many of which have found their way into Standard English dictionaries. The diaries of 1820 Settler show that borrowings from Afrikaans (for example, *Trek* meaning draw, *Rondavel* meaning round hovel and *Laager* meaning a collection of vehicles in a circle, meant for protection) had entered settler vocabularies within a few years; such borrowings continued to occupy space in the 20th century (*Ibid*, 1978).

2.4.2 English in the Apartheid South African Education

The imposition of Apartheid in 1948 and the Bantu Education Act of 1953 entrenched MT instruction up to the highest possible level for black pupils, and eliminated MT English teachers. This denied black pupils' access to L1 English speakers, "except in the few remaining mission schools" (De Klerk, 1999:12).

After the tragic Soweto uprising of 1976, in which pupils, protesting about language issues, lost their lives, the education policy was amended to increase access to English, but it still could not be acquired in its prestigious form (De Klerk, 1999:312). The context for learning English for black children was inadequate. By the year 1980, most teachers of English in the Department of

Education and Training (DET) were L2 speakers, and these were the products of the inadequate Bantu Education.

According to De Klerk (1999:13), the situation was aggravated by the “long term effects of underfunding, overcrowding and teacher incompetence, combined with limited contact with native (sic) English speakers”. Unfortunately this “led to characteristic patterns of pronunciation and syntax becoming entrenched as norms of spoken BSAfE”.

2.4.3 South African Variety of English

As is the case in numerous English speaking countries around the world, South Africa also boasts its own different varieties of English. One of South Africa’s varieties of English is known as BSAfE (De Klerk & Gough, 2002; Sanderson, 2005 and Makalela, 2007). According to De Klerk and Gough (2002:25) BSAfE refers to a variety of English commonly used by indigenous African Language MT speakers in South Africa’s in areas where English is not the language of the majority (De Klerk, 1999:312). It is also considered by contemporary scholars as a new variety of English, since BSAfE is a recognised ethnolect with its own characteristic linguistic features. About 7 million black South Africans, who schooled through the medium of English, speak it (usually as L2). While formerly seen as a non-standard variety, characterised by interference from local African languages, it is increasingly gaining status. The contributing factors are its use as “a major language of government combined with the rising socio-economic status of its speakers” (De Klerk & Gough, 2002:370). Characteristically, BSAfE uses fewer vowels than English, so that a word like *cart* would have the same vowel as *cut*, while *bad*, *bed* and *bird* would all be pronounced *bed* (Sanderson, 2005:66).

As referred to in 2.4.1, English was brought to South Africa in the early 1800’s when the British assumed control of the Cape. South Africans had English foisted upon them - if they did not learn it; they would have little chance of social and

economic advancement. By the early twentieth century, English became necessary in the lives of many black South Africans. The people were not in a position to be afforded access to the best models of English: educational provision for them was minimal. The situation deteriorated with the imposition of Apartheid in 1948, and the Bantu Education Act in 1953, which slowly eliminated MT English teachers in black communities (De Klerk, 1999). Limited contact with L1 speaker norms has resulted in certain characteristic patterns of pronunciation and syntax that are traceable to MT (De Klerk & Gough, 2002).

These varieties of English have been shaped by various factors (Horne & Heinemann, 2009:27). Chiefly among these are the influences on the language by various population groups using it, which has led to the emergence of different South African varieties of English. The duo identifies five population groups as an example: Afrikaans speakers of European descent, English and Afrikaans speakers of mixed or coloured descent, Indians of Indian descent, Africans of African descent, and English speakers of European descent.

The formation of these population groups and their varieties of spoken English took place under the formation of the apartheid regime:

The separation of communities into socially distinct groups, and the powerful consciousness of ethnic divergence, which developed, influenced upon aspects of life, including language. White, Black, Coloured and Indian South Africans all use English, with varying degrees of sophistication, but as a result of their isolation from one another, native (sic) English, Afrikaans English, Black English, Coloured English and Indian English are containing lexical items unknown to people of other groups, moreover, each exhibiting characteristic pronunciations and even grammatical structures (Horne & Heinemann, 2009:27).

2.5 Multilingualism

Multilingualism refers to the person's ability to use two or more languages as a means of communication in most situations and to switch from one language to the other if necessary (Sanderson, 2005). According to this source such persons acquire their MT or L1 during childhood before they start school. These are often referred to as early bilinguals. Late bilinguals (teenagers or adults) typically acquire the second language in the same way as their L1, by hearing it spoken around them (spontaneous L2 learning). However, late bilinguals often learn in a more formal way, through systematic instruction (guided L2 learning). In such a situation, the L1 usually dominates the other languages (*Ibid*, 2008:74).

According to (Festman, 2004:4) it is commonly assumed that a speaker, who masters several languages, has the ability to choose at any point in time, which of the words he/she wants to use. The author suggests that this ability is usually referred to as "language choice" and entails that when a speaker wants to use a certain language, it is exactly what the speaker does. Makalela (2012) recently referred to this ability as 'trans-languaging', known as CLI in earlier research, for example by Williams and Hammerberg (1998) explaining that despite the speaker's language choice, another language might intrude.

South Africa is also a country, in which a wide variety of communities live together, and many different accents can be identified reflecting both the region in which people grew up and their social status. In the case of L2 speakers, the L1 often influences the way, in which words are stressed and the way certain sounds are pronounced (Sanderson, 2005). Accent variation is often most noticeable in the vowel *i*-sounds and fricative *r*-sounds of a language. For example, an Afrikaans speaker, when speaking English, may roll his or her *rs* in the same way as Afrikaans. For example, according to Sanderson (2005), as

soon as the varieties differ in terms of the words and grammar, they constitute different dialects. If one heard a person say *I threw him with a stone* and another person saying *I threw a stone at him*, the deduction could be made that they were using different dialects. However, this would not be so since the difference here is brought by the fact that the first sentence *I threw him with a stone* is a classic example of L1 (Afrikaans construction – *Ek het hom met 'n klip gegooi*) influence on the L2.

2.6 Conclusion

The literature reviewed in the preceding sections indicates that, several learners, who study English as a L2, bring their experience and understanding knowledge of a L1 (Fillmore, 1991; Lindfors, 1991 and Sanderson, 2005). Therefore, the learners' L1 serves as the basis for learning L2, since aspects of the L2 might appear the same in the L1. In this regard, Sanderson (2005) notes that the aspects of the L2 are learnt more easily as they do not have to be learnt from scratch and in addition, where the relevant feature of both languages is the same, it results in correct language production (*Ibid*, 2005).

However, the emergence of different varieties of English is an indication that the numerous previous studies, undertaken by researchers, to address L1 interference when learning English as a L2, have thus far not succeeded in shaping the language currently being used by L2 speakers of English into the acceptable standard of English. Hence, Krashen (1981:66) correctly observed, “the attempt to cure interference is simply the cure for ignorance as there is no amount of teaching that can correct or undo them”. Therefore, in this study, the researcher's view is that the challenge to cure L1 interference among L2 learners of English serves as a direct call for language planners to consider the recognition of BSAfE as a distinct variety.

Chapter 3 will describe the research methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology used in the study. The purpose of the research was to examine the effects of native (sic) language interference among grade 12 learners studying ESL in a rural public school located in Malamulele.

3.2 Research Design

This study used a mixed methods design, which is a procedure for collecting, analysing and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study, to understand a research problem more completely (Creswell, 2002). The rationale for mixing is that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient in isolation to capture the trends and details of the situation, such as a complex issue of the effects of L1 on sentence transformation for grade 12 EFAL learners. When used in combination, quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and allow for more complete analysis (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

In quantitative research, an investigator relies on numerical data (Charles & Mertler, 2002). Alternatively, qualitative research is ‘an inquiry process of understanding’ where the researcher develops a ‘complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting’ (Creswell, 1998).

In a mixed methods approach, the researchers build the knowledge on pragmatic grounds (Creswell, 2003; Maxcy, 2003), asserting truth is “what works” (Howe, 1988). These sources chose approaches, as well as variables and units of

analysis, which are most appropriate for finding an answer to their research question (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). A major tenet of pragmatism is that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible. Thus, both numerical and text data, collected sequentially or concurrently, can benefit better comprehension of the research problem.

While designing a mixed methods study, three issues need consideration: priority, implementation, and integration (Creswell, Plano Clark, Guttman, & Hanson, 2003). *Priority* refers to which method, either quantitative or qualitative, is given more emphasis in the study. *Implementation* refers to whether the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis comes in sequence or in chronological stages, one following another, or in parallel or concurrently. *Integration* refers to the phase in the research process where the mixing or connecting of quantitative and qualitative data occurs. This study used one of the most popular mixed methods designs in educational research: sequential explanatory mixed methods design, consisting of two distinct phases (Creswell, 2002, 2003; Creswell et al., 2003). In the first phase, the quantitative, numeric, data were collected first, using a questionnaire for biographical and sources of language input data. The data were subjected to analysis of frequency and presented through tables and frequency graphs.

In the second phase, a qualitative case study approach was used to collect text data through a sentence transformation test, which elicited learners' responses that assisted in revealing why certain elements of L1 interference were more predominant than others. In previous language studies, the case study has shown its importance and relevance. For example, through applying a case study Bhela (1999) proved that when the formal elements of L1 are used within the context of L2, they result in errors in L2, since the structures of the languages - L1 and L2 are different. This is because, "In learning L2, the learners use L1 structures interchangeably with L2 structures, producing inappropriate L2 responses, indicating an interference of L1 on L2" (Bhela, 1999:30).

In addition, Leedy and Ormrod (2005) define the concept of CA, which is often applied in a case study. In the same stroke with Leedy and Ormrod (2005:45), this study was “a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of material for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes or biases”. Hence, the researcher ensured that:

- data was collected from the respondents in the study;
- the specific body of material to be studied was identified from the collected data;
- characteristics or qualities to be examined were clearly defined;
- records and details about the context surrounding of the case in study were kept.

3.3 Research Population and Sample

This study was conducted in a rural public high school in the Vhembe district of the Limpopo Province of South Africa. The school is situated 18 kilometres west of Malamulele. Malamulele lies in the North of Giyani. The school is surrounded by three villages, from which it draws its learners. Like most schools in South Africa, it uses ESL as a medium of instruction across all subjects. In addition, learners are taught EFAL in their curriculum. Similar to most rural South African schools, the school is disadvantaged. To this effect, Mabila, Addo-Bediako, Kazeni, Malatjie, and Mathabatha (2006) describe the disadvantaged learner as the one, who has gone through public schools other than those popularly known as previously white only and model C schools. This school is also overcrowded and has a lack of resources, such as enough furniture, classrooms, laboratories and other important infrastructure, previously considered the preserve of white only and model C schools.

In line with the concept of convenience sampling, all grade 12 (a total of 65) learners in the school, where the research data were collected, were included in

the study. A number of authors (for instance; Bailey, 1994; Nachamias & Nachamias, 2008 as well as McBurney, 2001), concur that a sample selected through this type of sampling procedure is able to ensure that respondents “are those, who are nearest and most easily available”.

In addition, Cohen et al (2005:103) state, “Convenience sampling or as it is sometimes called, accidental or opportunity sampling, involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondent. The researcher simply chooses the sample from those to whom he has easy access.” In this case, the respondents, who were nearest and most easily available, were the grade 12 learners whom the researcher teaches.

3.4 Data Collection

Prior to the data collection exercise for the research, a pilot study was conducted. This pilot study was particularly aimed at testing and refining the research instruments, through which the research data would be collected. Furthermore, it was undertaken to test the feasibility of the research instruments, and where possible to improve the design of the research. According De Vos (2003:211), “the pre-testing of measuring instruments consists of trying it out on a small number of persons having characteristics similar to those of the target group of respondents”. In this case, the grade 12 class of 2011 was the respondent group with similar characteristics as that of the target group. In particular, a total of 27 learners from one classroom in the school were selected for the pilot study. As already indicated, this was carried out in order to:

- to assess the feasibility of the questionnaire and test it as data collection instruments;
- to assess whether the questions in the test and questionnaire were able to elicit the expected data;
- assess the clarity of the questionnaire items, instructions and layout; this assisted the researcher to eliminate ambiguities, and difficulties in wording;

- establish the time duration to complete the questionnaire; this was very important since it ensured that the researcher was able to establish and allow sufficient time for the instruments to be administered;
- served as a guideline for the coding/classification system for data analysis;
- to establish if the researcher's methods of collecting data provided accurate information that would be useful;
- to establish if any part of the researcher's study was too difficult or too easy, or impossible to follow; and
- to determine the most effective measures of obtaining the most useful data in the least amount of time.

Thereafter, the questionnaire was revised to suit the data collection needs for this study. The revised questionnaire (see Appendix 1) consisted of 2 sections as explained below:

Section A, Biographical Data and Input Questionnaire Section

It catered for biographical data and sources of L2 input. This data included factors, such as learner's age, gender, number of years at school, and current grade. It also sought to establish the learners' home language as well as any other languages spoken by the participant learners. In addition to demographic data, the questionnaire also sought to investigate sources of L2 input among the learners in the study. Through this section insights into other sources of L2 interference, other than the respondents' L1, were gained. For example, some of these inputs could be television programmes learners watched; radio stations learners listened to; types of magazines and newspapers learners read.

Section B, Sentence Transformation Test Section

It consisted of the sentence transformation test, which was designed for this study. The sentence transformation test was divided into 2 questions. Question 1 was based on statements, which required learners to "Re-write

sentences starting with words given”, but “ensuring that meaning was not changed”. Question 2 was composed of a set of five sentences, which required the learner respondents to rewrite sentences, joining them appropriately to form single statements. This actual data collection instrument (Sentence Transformation Test) was a shortened version of an initial longer version, which was piloted prior to the actual study.

Unlike the pilot study version, which comprised a total of 25 questions, the actual data collection test consisted of a total of 15 sentence transformation questions. This test was used to collect data on L1 interference as follows: the researcher assigned the subjects a written task. This task included questions that required the learners to begin a number of given sentences with the object of the sentence. For example, a sentence such as: *The sponsors will hand out the prizes soon*, was given. The learners were expected to rewrite the sentence, starting with the object of the sentence without changing the meaning. The anticipated answer in this case would be: *The prizes will soon be handed out by the sponsors*.

The second part of the test consisted of questions where the respondents were required to join two sentences into a single sentence without distorting the meaning of the sentence. This task required learners to make use of relative pronouns. For example, take a sentence such as, *Father has a wagon. He uses the wagon on the farm*. The expected answer for this task question would be: *Father has a wagon, which he uses on the farm*.

After the test was written the researcher applied CA and recorded all errors, committed by the learner respondents. Additionally these answers qualitatively provided possible explanations for errors resulting from the learner’s L1 interference.

3.5 Data analysis

As already mentioned in the preceding section, within the area of CA as a tool for research, Constant Comparison Analysis (CCA) was employed to ensure that participant learners' written responses were appropriately analysed. The motivation for this is because CCA can be undertaken deductively, inductively and abductively. For example; *deductively*, codes are identified prior to analysis and then identified in the data; *inductively*, codes emerge from the data, and *abductively* codes emerge iteratively (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:565).

For analysis, the data collected through the learners' written tasks were coded and analysed according to themes. The following steps, as suggested by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007), were followed when data were analysed:

First, the researcher read through the entire collected bank of data. This step was followed by chunking the data into smaller meaningful parts. Then each chunk was labelled with a descriptive title (i.e. the area to which the committed error adhered). Each new set of chunk data was compared with previous codes and similar chunks were labelled with the same code. After all the data had been coded, codes were grouped by similarity, and thus themes could be identified and documented based on each grouping.

In addition to word count analysis, the researcher calculated the number of times each type of error (code) was observed. This identified the most frequently committed types of errors.

The themes were determined according to established guidelines offered by several authors in the area of L1 interference, as was revealed in Chapter 2 of this study (see, Chapter 2, Section 2.4). The coding was in accordance with Tesch (1990 as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:769), who reveals that "coding is the heart and soul of text analysis". Hence, the researcher focused on the following fundamentals associated with coding: (1) *Sampling coding*,

which entails that the subjects are coded to prevent disclosure of their identities. (2) *Finding themes* - data analysis conducted according to Tesch's method of open coding in order to identify themes and categories, in other words the task written by the grade 12 learners, the subjects' marked scripts, the marking memorandum and the subjects' mark sheet, which indicated their scores.

In order to determine what the collected data meant, the researcher identified general categories/themes and classified each piece of data accordingly. Such an exercise was important for analysing data qualitatively if one considers the contention made by Leedy and Ormond (2005:150), "data should be organized, broken down into themes, perused entirely several times to get the sense of what it contains as a whole".

3.6 Limitation of the Study

DoE officials (Curriculum advisers) visited the high schools' Further Education and Training (FET) band in the researcher's district periodically, to determine whether the continuous assessment tasks (CASS) administered by FET educators to Grades 10-12 learners were compliant with the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). Therefore, the research was not extended to other high schools, as the school district manager and the high school principals might only have allowed the researcher to collect data during a certain time of the school year. Thus, this study was limited to the high school, at which the researcher taught. Only subjects from one school (the school in question) in Malamulele West Circuit, served as a study sample for this study project.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

When a researcher enrolls human beings into studies, various ethical guidelines, codes, and regulations should be followed (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993). Hence, in line with the ethical requirements for this research, the researcher

ensured that, before an individual became a subject of the research project, he/she was notified of considerations, which included the aims, methods, anticipated benefits, and potential hazards of the research; his/her right to abstain from participation in the research; and his/her right to terminate participation at any time, as well as the confidential nature of his/her replies. These considerations ensured that no individual learner became a participant of the research study; unless he/she was given permission by their parent or guardian and also personally give consent that he/she agreed to participate.

In addition, no pressure or inducement of any kind was applied to encourage an individual to become a participant in the research study. The identity of individuals, from whom information was obtained in the course of the project, was kept strictly confidential; any information that revealed the identity of individuals was destroyed.

In addition, ethical clearance prior to conducting the research for this study was sought and obtained from the University of Limpopo's Turfloop Research Ethics Committee and was obtained (see Appendices 2 & 4).

Chapter 4 will present the analysis and interpretation of the data.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the data, which were collected on the effects of L1 on sentence transformation among grade 12 learners studying L2 also known as EFAL in the South African Education context. First, the chapter deals with the findings of the pilot study that was conducted to test the validity and reliability of the instruments. Second, the biographical data collected from the respondents are presented. Third, the chapter presents the findings and discussions on the data, which were collected on the sources of language input. Finally, the chapter presents the data and discussions on L1 interference. As already indicated, the next section offers an overview of the pilot study.

4.2 Findings from the Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted on 25 July 2011 at a rural public high school at the researcher place of employment. All grade 12 learners (27 in total) in the school, which is situated in the Vhembe district of the Limpopo Province South Africa, participated in the pilot study.

As it was indicated in Chapter 3, the pilot study sought to establish the following:

- To assess the feasibility of the questionnaire and test as data collection instruments.
- To avoid any problems that could arise during the actual data collection process.
- Assess the clarity of the questionnaire items, instructions and layout.
- Establish the time taken to complete the questionnaire.
- Establish a guideline for the coding/classification system for data analysis.

- To ensure if any part of the researcher's data collection process for the study was too difficult or too easy, or impossible to follow.
- To determine the most effective measures of collecting the most useful data in the least amount of time.

After the instruments were piloted, the following issues were established and considered for revision of the final questionnaire and test, which were employed for the study:

With regard to the test instrument, *items* in *Question 1* of the Sentence Transformation Test were shortened from 15 to 10 statements, which required learners to “*Re-write sentences starting with words given*”, but “*ensuring that meaning is not changed*”. For example, a sentence, such as, *She runs faster than I do*, called on learners to re-write and complete the sentence, starting with, *I don't ...*

Furthermore, there was total of *10 items* in *question 2* of the pilot test. After the pilot, *5 items* remained. These items required the respondent learners to rewrite sentences, joining them appropriately to form single statements. For example, sentences like, *The man did not die. The man was bitten by a snake*. The reason for the reduction of these items was that some questions were similar; for example, *sentence number 10* and *21* both tested direct and reported speech. Therefore, one sentence had to be dropped, as the respondents were likely to respond in the same way to both sentences. Still on the same question *sentences 4, 9* and *21* would produce similar responses. To this effect:

- *Sentence number 4* read: *We were well prepared, so were not afraid to face the other team*. The respondents had to rewrite the sentence stating with the word *Having ...*
- *Sentence number 9*: *She was tired after work, so she decided to buy Kentucky Fried Chicken for dinner*. The respondents had to rewrite the sentence starting with the word, *Being ...*

- *Sentence number 21: My father is a doctor, so he is often called at night.*
The respondents had to rewrite the sentence starting with the phrase, *Being a doctor ...*

After the pilot was conducted, the test *items* in *question 2* were revised as follows:

- *Sentences 3 and 5* required learners to use the same relative pronoun *that* or *which*. *Sentence 3* read: *The bicycle was new. My brother bought the bicycle.*
- *Sentence number 5: The cow has died. Father bought the cow last week.*
- *Sentences 6 and 8* also required the respondents to use the same relative pronoun [*whom*].
- *Sentence 6* read: *The man is my uncle. I spoke to the man.*
- *Sentence 8: The boy was not Raymond. I saw the boy.*

Lastly, questions that sought information about the same type of L2 input were put together.

After the pilot study, a revised questionnaire and test (see Appendix 1) sought to investigate and gather the following information:

Initially, the questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part investigated biographical details of the respondent learners. The second part investigated the sources of language input. The third part, which was the Sentence Transformation Test, consisted of 2 questions, in which 15 and 10 options respectively, required learners to perform various tasks of sentence transformation. In particular, the questionnaire sought to elicit:

- Biographical data; for example, learners' names and their surnames; grade; gender; age; home language as well as any other languages spoken by the learners other than their home language.

- An insight into other sources of L2 interference other than the respondents L1; for example, television programmes learners watch; radio stations learners listen to; types of magazines and newspapers learners read.
- Evidence of L1 interference; examples on these sections were clarified in the discussion of the test instrument, which is given in the next section below.

With regard to the feasibility of the questionnaire and test as data collection instruments, the pilot study revealed that there was no obvious challenge as no setbacks were experienced during the pilot. Thus, learners did not show evidence of struggling to deal with the questions posed in the instrument. There were also no ambiguities associated with the questionnaire's instructions and layout. The learners did not take a long time to finish responding, as the first learner completed the questionnaire within 40 – 45 minutes and the last one, just on 1 hour. The pilot effectively served as a guideline for the coding/classification system for data analysis. Furthermore, no parts were found to be too difficult, too easy, or impossible to follow. Hence, the test was considered the most effective measure for getting the most useful data in the least amount of time as it was envisaged.

After revising the instruments, the final research was conducted on Saturday, 28 November 2011. All the respondents were grade 12 learners at the time of data collection. Even though there were a total number of 65 learners in the grade 12 class in question, it was expected that only 58 would participate in this study. On the day of data collection, only 55 learners turned up to complete the questionnaire and sentence transformation test. The next sections present and discuss the results of the data collection for the study.

4.3 Results and Analysis

4.3.1 Biographical data findings

Table 4.1 below presented biographical findings of the learners' gender, age, home language and the additional language spoken by learners other than their home language. The item findings are presented in calculated total numbers and percentages.

Table 4.1: Biographical Data

<i>Item</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Gender		
Male	25	45.5
Female	30	54.5
Age:		
16 -18	19	34.5
19 – 21	23	41.8
22 – 26	13	23.6
Home Language		
Xitsonga	48	87.3
Tshivenda	01	1.8
Did not specify	06	10.9
Other Languages		
Sepedi	01	7.3
Tshivenda	04	7.3
English	25	45.5
Xitsonga	01	1.8
Did not specify	24	43.6

Table 4.1 revealed the biographical data as follows:

4.3.1.1 Gender of the respondents

With regards to gender, the findings indicated that the total number of male respondents was 25, while the female respondents were 30. This represented a percentage total of 44.5% and 54.5% respectively. According to Cameron (1995), there are three models of language and gender, namely: the *deficit model*, the *dominance model*, and the *cultural difference model*.

In the *deficit model*, females are seen as disadvantaged speakers and communicators. Accordingly, the speech of men is considered as the accepted norm, while women's speech is perceived as deficient. In the *dominance model* men dominate and control women and language. Men in this model control topics of conversation, interrupt more and talk more than women (West & Zimmerman, 1987). The third type, the *cultural difference model* refers to the different biological forms of language used by men and women. This difference is, according to Mabila (2001), due to their early socialisation and lead to different rates of language acquisition. Women in this model tend to attach more value to making connections, seeking involvement and concentrate on interdependencies between people, whereas, men value autonomy and detachment and seek independence, focusing on hierarchical relationships.

According to the researcher, the advantage in this study is that there were more females than males; therefore the researcher is of the opinion that the disadvantage pointed out by Cameron (1995) could not be applied to this study, since there were a slightly higher number of female participants.

The next section presents a discussion on the age of the respondents.

4.3.1.2 Age of the respondents

From Table 4.1 above, it can be deduced that out of the total of 55 learners, who participated in the study, 19 were between the ages 16-18, 23 fell within the 19-21 age range and 13 fell within the 22-26 age range. The researcher noted with concern that most of the learners, who participated in the study were way above the expected grade 12 ages. Although this was a matter of concern, it was not, however, an issue for this study, except for the fact that these learners would have had a long period of exposure to the sources of language input.

The subject of age has often been considered a major factor, which determines success in learning a L2. Collier (1987) points out that when children are asked to learn a L2 for use at school before their first language has sufficiently matured to serve as a source of transferable skills, the learning task is very burdensome and requires more time than older children need. This means that the home language of the respondents affect learners' studying of L2 both on a positive and negative level. Positively, learners use L1 structures, which are the same as that of L2, correctly. This view is supported by Sanderson (2005:45), who says, "If the relevant unit or structure of both languages is the same, linguistic interference result in correct language production as aspects of the L2 and, the L1 is learnt more easily, because they do not have to be learnt from scratch" (Sanderson, 2005:45). In addition, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) as well as Ellis (1994) have noted that when writing or speaking the TL, L2 learners tend to rely on their L1 structures to produce a response.

From the age of the respondents in Table 4.1 it was observed that the respondents' ages ranged between 17 and 26 years. At this age most learners have passed the critical period hypothesis, as such most of them have fully acquired their home language. The learners between these ages (17- 26) use L1 structures as a foundation in producing English sentences and, the L2 is learnt more easily, because they do not have to be learnt from scratch (Sanderson, 2005:45). In other words, learners do not begin the task of learning a L2 from point zero (or close to it). The authors cited above also explain that when writing or speaking the TL, L2 learners tend to rely on their L1 structures to produce a response.

However, there are currently two schools of thought pertaining to age in L2 acquisition. Some researchers (for example, Collier, 1995; and Mabila 2001) argue that learning a L2 at an early stage is advantageous as learners are confident and also have a natural ability to learn other languages, which tapers off as a person ages. Others (for example, Bailey & Buttler, 2003; Resnick, 2004

as well as August & Shanahan, 2006) argue that at an early (i.e. aged 4-7 years); children take much longer to master skills needed for academic purposes and here older children are more equipped to cope. From ages 6-12, children are still in the process of developing in L1 the complex skills of reading and writing, in addition to continuing acquisition of more complex rules of morphology and syntax, elaboration of speech acts, expansion vocabulary, semantic development and even some subtleties in phonological development.

4.3.1.3 Home language of the respondents

All in all the findings from the biographical section of the data collection instrument revealed that the total percentage of learners, whose L1 was Xitsonga was 87.3%, while 1.8% revealed that TshiVenda was their home language. Learners, who did not specify their L1, were 10.9%. The above table revealed that, the majority of the participants' home language is Xitsonga.

With regard to L1, Sanderson (2008) notes that, a person's L1 is usually spoken with L1 competence, while a L2 learner may never attain the same degree of proficiency as a MT speaker. Secondly, a L2 learner already has a L1 vocabulary and grammar, and does not have to construct these from scratch in the same way as a L1 learner has to. The learner's knowledge of his or her L1 is likely to influence the way he or she approaches and learns a L2. Where the relevant features of both languages are the same, it results in correct language production known as positive transfer. The greater the differences between the two languages, the more negative the effects of the influence are likely to be. Generally, the process will be more positive if the two languages are closer, and the more the learner is aware of the relationship between the two languages (Brown, 2000).

Table 4.1 also indicated that the learner participants revealed they also spoke other languages, such as Sepedi and English. This finding confirmed that the community, from which the sample for this study was drawn, had some level of

homogeneity with the rest of the country South Africa, in that it represents a multilingual society.

The following section presents data on the sources of language input, which was obtained through the questionnaire.

4.3.2 Findings on Sources of Language Input

The information on the sources of English language input was investigated to establish if the input(s) enhanced learners' ability to develop and use L2. Thus, the language input section sought to investigate mainly issues, such as the availability and use of certain media like television, radio, newspapers and magazines. It is worth mentioning that, knowledge about such media and other sources of language input was important to ensure that the conclusions, which the researcher drew regarding the inputs, were not fallacious.

First, with regard to the question on television, the research sought to establish whether or not the participant learners had access to a television. Table 4.2 below indicated a summary of the findings for this question. Of the 55 learners, who participated in this study, a total of 52 learners indicated that they had a television at home. This represented a percentage total of 94.5%. On the other hand, 3 learners indicated that they did not have a television at home. This represented 5.5%. The information discussed in this paragraph is also reflected in Figure 4.1 on the next page.

Table 4.2: Access to a Television at Home

<i>Option</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Yes	52	94.5
No	3	5.5

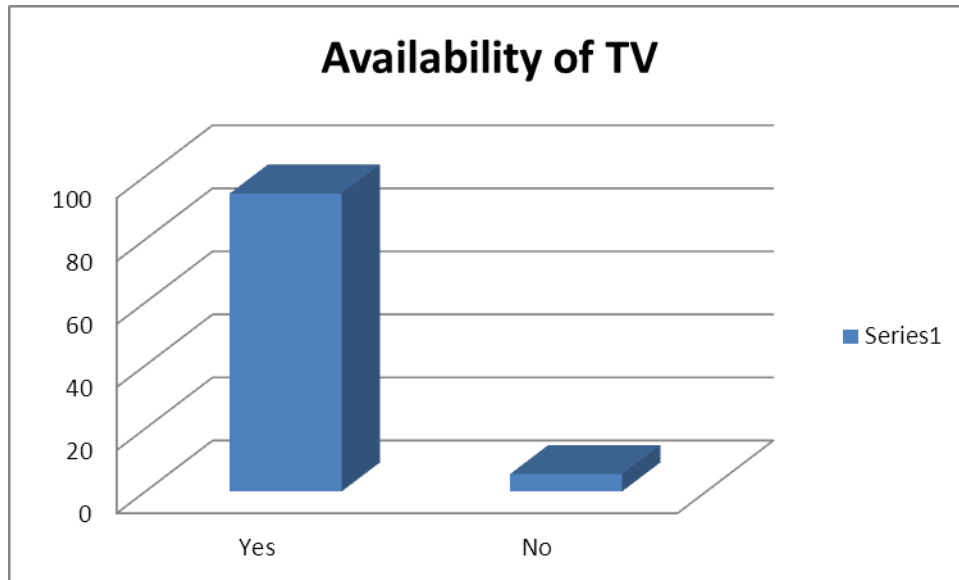


Figure 4.1: Availability of Television

Figure 4.1 above demonstrated the number of learners, who had a television set at home and those, who did not have a television set. Of the total number of 55 learners, 52 learners (approximately 94.5%) had a television at home and 3 learners (approximately 5.5%) did not have a television.

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.2, specified the information to the question that sought to establish, which channels learners mostly favoured, when watching television.

Table 4.3: Channel Mostly Watched

<i>Channel</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
SABC 1	50	90.9
SABC2	3	5.5
SABC3	1	1.8
ETV	1	1.8

Table 4.3 indicated the numbers and percentages of the television channels that learners viewed the most. Learners in this instance responded to the question: *Which TV channel do you mostly watch?* In this item the learners ticked one television channel from the given options above. The results as presented in the

table suggested that SABC 1 was the most watched television channel. Of the total number of 55 learners, 50 learners (approximately 90.9 %) watched SABC 1. SABC 2 tallied a total number of 3 (i.e. 5.5%); SABC 3 and ETV were the least watched channels, reflecting a score of 1.8%. Notably so, the number of learners, who watched television, exceeded the 52 number of learners, who had a television at home. It was thus assumed that although no television sets were found in their homes, the other three learners did watch television at their friends' and neighbours' homes.

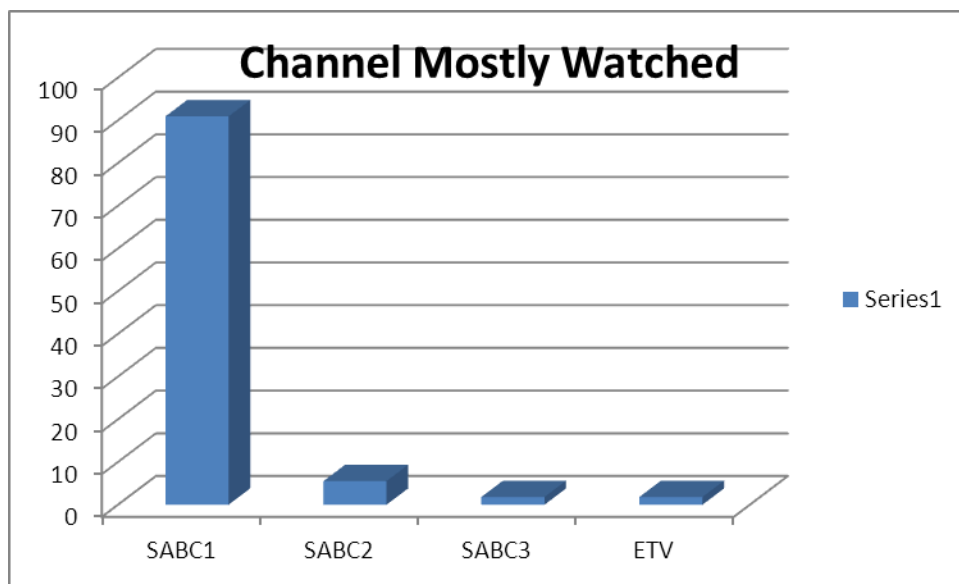


Figure 4.2: Channel Mostly Watched

Figure 4.2 illustrated the numbers and percentages of the television channels that learners viewed the most. Corresponding to the results of Table 4.3, the statistics, as illustrated by Figure 4.2, suggested that SABC 1 was viewed the most. Of the total number of 55 learners, 50 learners (approximately 90.9%) watched SABC 1. SABC 2 tallied a total number of 3 (i.e. 5.5%); SABC 3 and ETV were the least watched channels, reflecting a score of 1.8%.

Table 4.4: Television Programme Mostly Watched

<i>Programme</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Generations	39	70.9
Muvhango	2	3.6
The Bold and the Beautiful	2	3.6
Isidingo	1	1.8
Zone 14	19	34.5
Soul Buddyz	2	3.6
Yo TV	4	7.3
Matrics Uploaded	6	10.9
Wrestling	1	1.8
Jika Majika	7	12.7
Khumbule Khaya	1	1.8
Asikhulume	5	9.1
Election Debate	1	1.8
Jam Alley	1	1.8
Gospel Gold	1	1.8
Friends Like These	1	1.8
News	10	18.2

Table 4.4 reflected the results of the learners, who responded to the question: *Which television programmes do you watch? You may list more than one.* The results presented in this item were specified by numbers and percentages. The show, *Generations* had a total number of 39 viewers (about 70.9%) This result revealed that *Generations* was the television programme that was mostly watched by learners. It is interesting that most of the learners, who participated in this study, watched this multilingual soapie, which was dominated by the use of BSAfE. According to Wade (1997), BSAfE is a new variety of English that is peculiar to South Africa. Following this source's arguments for BSAfE as a distinct variety, a number of authors have called for its standardisation rather than the bastardisation it currently receives. For example, Mesthrie (1995), Buthelezi (1995), Gough (1996), Makalela (1998), Ntlhakana (2000), Mothoa (2001) and Manganye (2007), support this appeal.

The second most watched channel is *Zone 14*, with the total number of 19 learners (34.5%). The total number of learners, who watch *News*, was 10 (18.2%), and this marked it as the third most watched television programme.

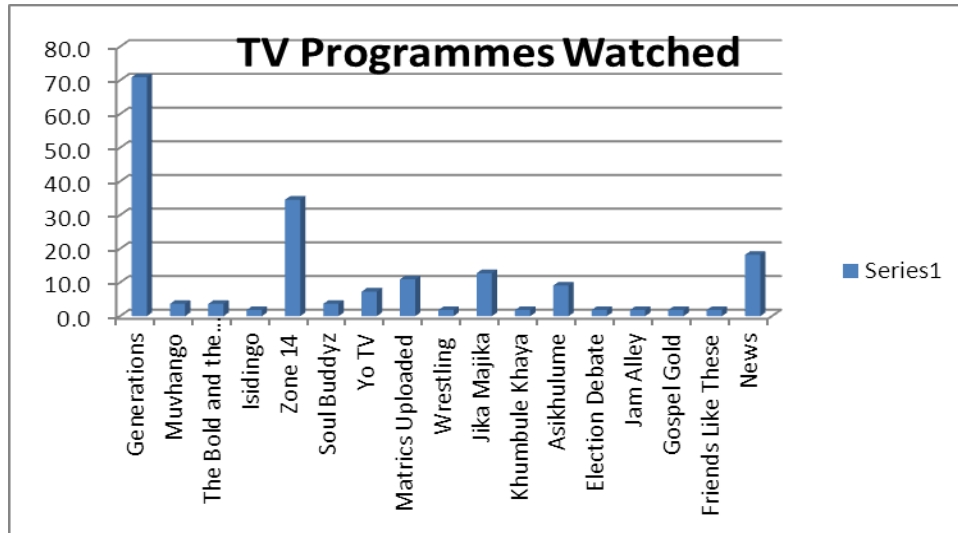


Figure 4.3: Television Programme mostly Watched

Figure 4.3 illustrated all the television programmes watched by the learners. The results of the television programmes watched by learners were graphically presented.

Table 4.5: Availability of Radio

Option	Totals	Percentage
Yes	52	94.5
No	3	5.5

The above table presented the percentage of learners, who had a radio and those, who did not have a radio at home. These percentages were acquired by yes and no answers. The learners responded to the question: *Do you have a radio at home?* The percentage of learners, who had a radio at home was (94.5%) whereas, the percentage of learners, who did not have a radio at home was (5.5%). The 5.5% learners, who did not have a television at home were also the learners, who did not have a radio at home.

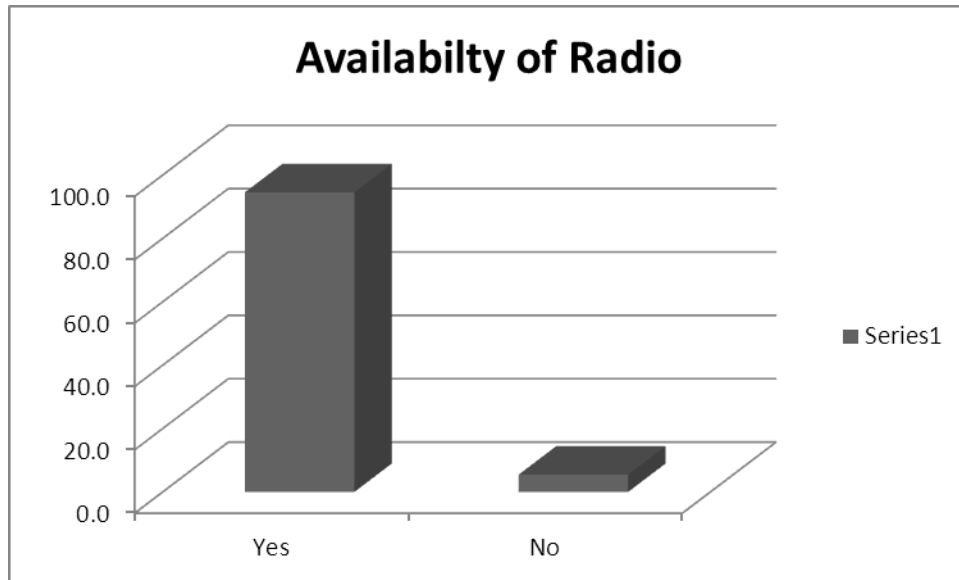


Figure 4.4: Availability of Radio

The figure illustrated the percentage of learners, who had a radio at home and the learners, who did not have a radio. The *Yes* column on the figure represented the number of learners, who had a radio at home and the *No* column denoted the number of learners, who did not have a radio. Of the total number of 55 learners, 52 had a radio and 3 did not have a radio.

Table 4.6: Radio Station Mostly Listened To

<i>Radio Station</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Munghana Lonene	38	69.1
Thobela FM	0	0.0
Phalaphala FM	1	1.8
Jacaranda FM	1	1.8
Capricorn FM	11	20.0
Radio 2000	0	0.0
Other/ UNIVEN FM	1	1.8
None	2	3.6

The table specified the results of the percentages of learners, who listened to the listed radio stations. The learners responded to the item: *Which radio station do you mostly listen to?* The learners each wrote the radio stations they listened to. The 69.1% result presented in this table suggested that the majority of the

learners listened to *Munghana Lonene FM* and 20% of the learners listened to *Capricorn FM*. *Phalaphala FM*, *Jacaranda FM* and *UNIVEN FM* were the least listened to with 1.8% each. A total of 3.6% did not listen to any of the above listed radio stations as they did not have a radio at home. From the above scenario, it was observed that the learners in this study had very little exposure to radio stations that could contribute positively to their English L2 development, thus defeating the basis of Krashen's (1981) hypothesis on comprehensible input.

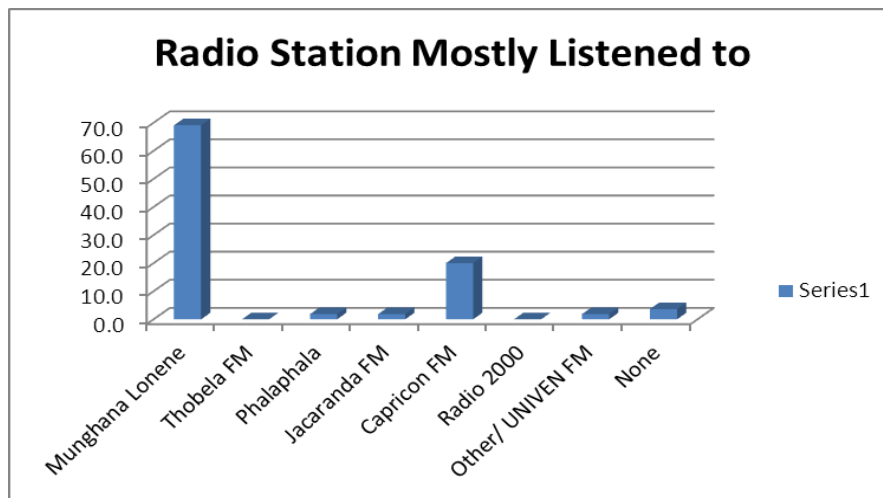


Figure 4.5: Radio Station Mostly Listened To

The figure graphically illustrated the radio stations most listened to by the learners.

Table 4.7: Radio Listening % Frequency

Options	Totals	Percentage
Once a week	8	14.5
Every day	39	70.9
Only on weekends	7	12.7
Once in a while	5	9.1

The table presented the percentage frequency of radio listening by learners, who had a radio at home. The learners responded to the question: *How often do you listen to the radio station chosen above?* The table suggested that 70.9% listened to the radio every day; 14.5% listened to the radio once a week; 12.7% listened to the radio only on weekends and 9.1% listen to the radio once in a while.

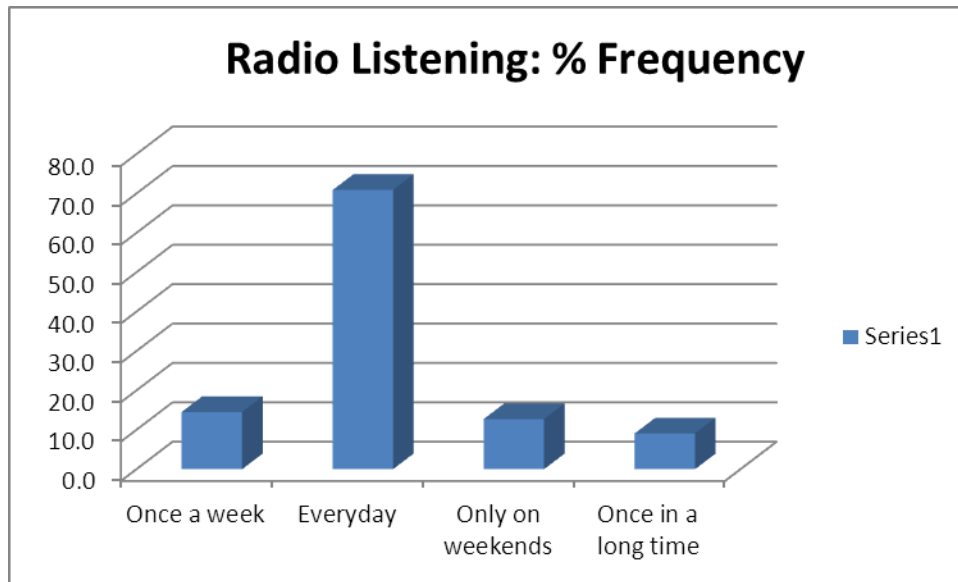


Figure 4.6: Radio Listening: % Frequency

This figure graphically presented the percentage results of the frequency of learners listening to the radio stations.

Table 4.8: Other Radio Stations

<i>Radio Station</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Munghana Lonene	12	21.8
Thobela FM	3	5.5
Phalaphala	14	25.5
Jacaranda FM	11	20.0
Capricorn FM	29	52.7
Radio 2000	0	0.0
Other/ UNIVEN FM	7	12.7
None	0	0.0

The table indicated the percentage results of the frequency of listening to the other radio stations. Here the learners responded to the question: *How often do you listen to the other radio stations?* These were the learners' second and third favourite radio stations. Learners were given the choice of ticking more than one radio station. Following were the results as they appeared both in the Table 4.8 above and Figure 4.7 below:

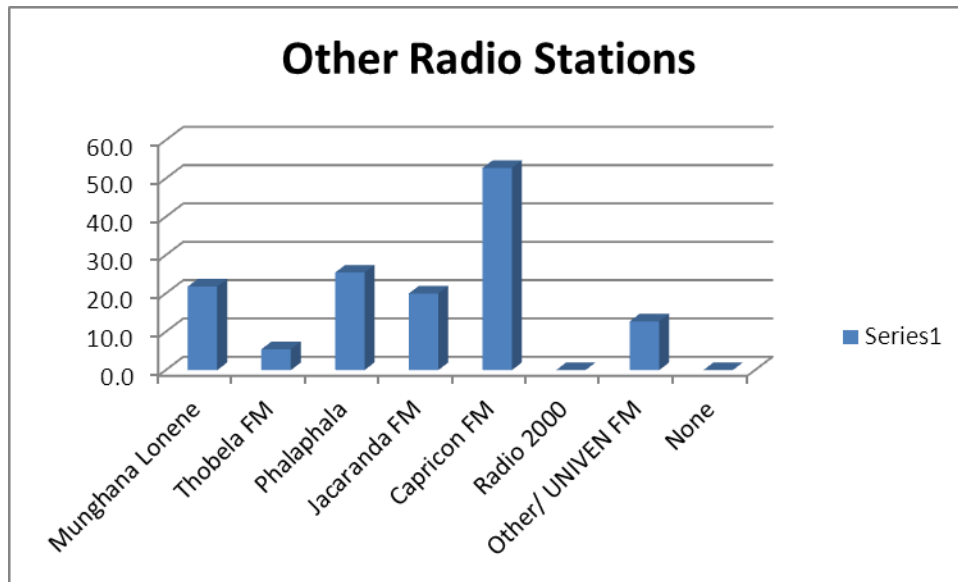


Figure 4.7: Other Radio Stations

The figure illustrated that 52.7% of the total number of 55 listened to *Capricorn FM*. No one listened to *Radio 2000*.

Table 4.9: Other Radio Listening: % Frequency

<i>Options</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Once a week	19	34.5
Every day	11	20.0
Only on weekends	17	30.9
Once in a while	4	7.3

The table above showed the results of how often learners listened to other radio stations. It was observed in this table that very few learners (only 20%) listened to other radio stations every day. In this case, 34.5% of learners, which was slightly higher in number, listened to other radio stations once a week; 30.9% listened to the other radio stations only on weekends; and 7.3% listened to the other radio stations once in a while. The frequency of learners listening to the radio was presented graphically in Figure 4.8 below.

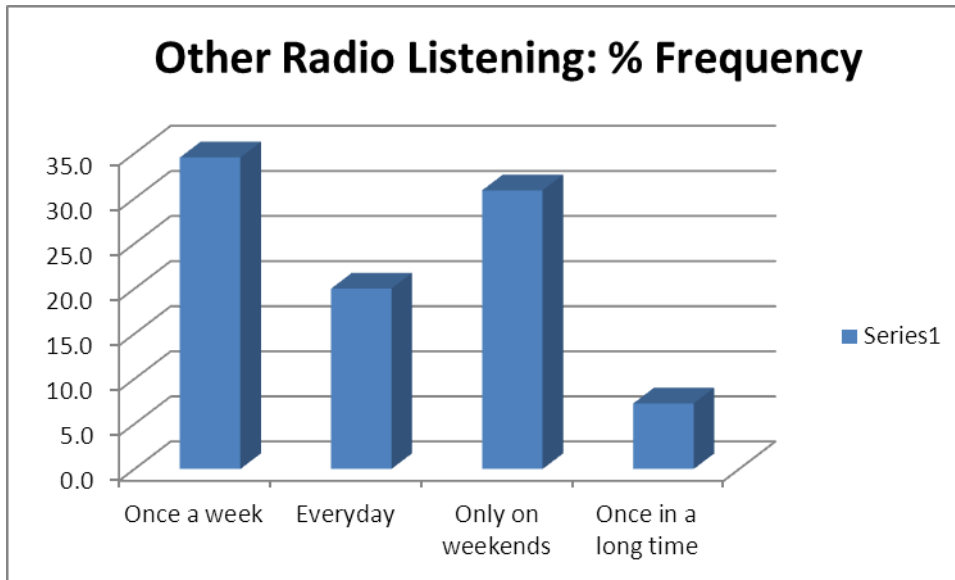


Figure 4.8: Radio Listening: % Frequency

Table 4.10 Newspapers Read

<i>Newspaper</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Daily Sun	31	56.4
Sowetan	21	38.2
Mirror	1	1.8
City Press	3	5.5
Citizen	1	1.8
Sunday Times	1	1.8
The Star	1	1.8

The results in Table 4.10 presented the findings about learners' reading of newspapers and magazines. From the table above it was evident that *Daily Sun* enjoyed a higher percentage of 56.4 readers. The *Sowetan* was regarded as second best, the results showed that it was read by 38.2% learners and the third most read newspaper was *City Press* with only 5.5% readers. *Mirror*, *Citizen*, *Sunday Times* and *The Star* each had a percentage of 1.8%.

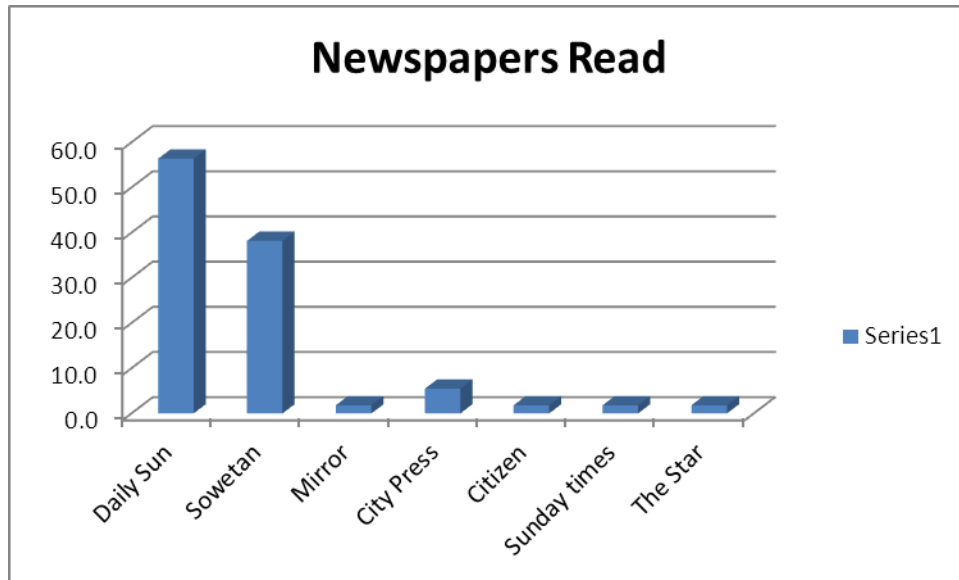


Figure 4.9: Newspapers Read

This figure illustrated the percentage results of learners, who read a specific newspaper. It was observed from this figure that *Daily Sun* and *Sowetan* were the most frequently read newspapers. The *Daily Sun* had a frequency reading of 56.4%, while *Sowetan* had 38.2%, and *City Press* had the frequency reading of 5.5%. *Mirror*, *Citizen*, *Sunday Times* and *The Star* each had a reading frequency of 1.8%.

Table 4.11: Newspaper Reading: % Frequency

Options	Totals	Percentage
Every day	2	3.6
Once a week	23	41.8
Two to three times a week	8	14.5
Once a month	9	16.4
Twice a month	5	9.1

The frequency of newspaper reading in this table indicated that only 3.6 % of learners read a newspaper every day. At least, 41.8% read a newspaper once a week. It is disconcerting that 16.4% read newspapers only once a month, while an alarming 9.1% of learners read newspapers only twice a month.

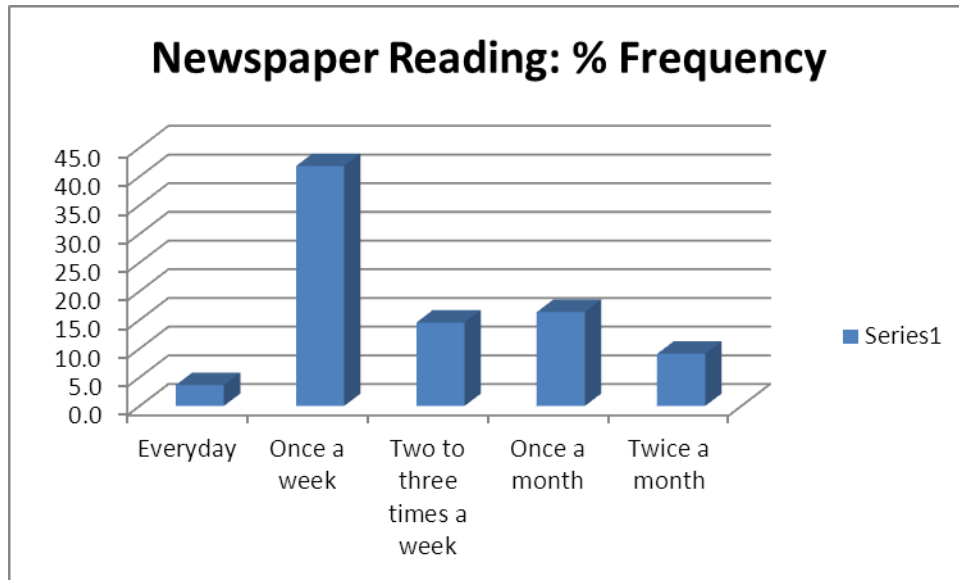


Figure 4.10: Newspaper Reading: % Frequency

The figure presented the analytical results of the learners' frequency of newspaper reading. The learners responded to the question: *How often do you read this (these) newspaper(s)?*

Table 4.12: Magazine Reading

<i>Magazine</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Laduma	4	7.3
Bona	4	7.3
Drum	2	3.6
True Love	5	9.1
Move	1	1.8

Table 4.12 above and Figure 4.11 below revealed the percentage results of magazine reading by learners. *Laduma* and *Bona* both showed a percentage result of 7.3%. *True Love* had the highest reading frequency result of 9.1%. *Drum* had 3.6% and *Move* only 1.8%. The total percentage of learners, who read any magazine, was distressing, as it totalled only 29.2%. From the above findings it was pitifully obvious that a higher percentage (a whopping 70.9%) of learners did not read magazines. This may however be associated with the economic status of the learners under study. Upon deeper inspection, the researcher found that most of the learner respondents, who did not read magazines displayed errors of

subject copying and resumptive pronoun. From this finding, it became evident that magazines were but one input among many that could assist L2 learners in building vocabulary.

Xiaohi (2010:91) states, “When learners receive input, they offer their developing linguistic system the data it needs to start the process of acquisition”. In an empirical study on the effects of comprehensible input on incidental English vocabulary recognition, results displayed that the respondents, who read the enhanced texts performed better than those who did not (*Ibid*, 2010:91). In this regard, 70.9% did not read magazines. The researcher believes that it was this lack of exposure to such valuable input that contributed to learners’ limited vocabulary of English.

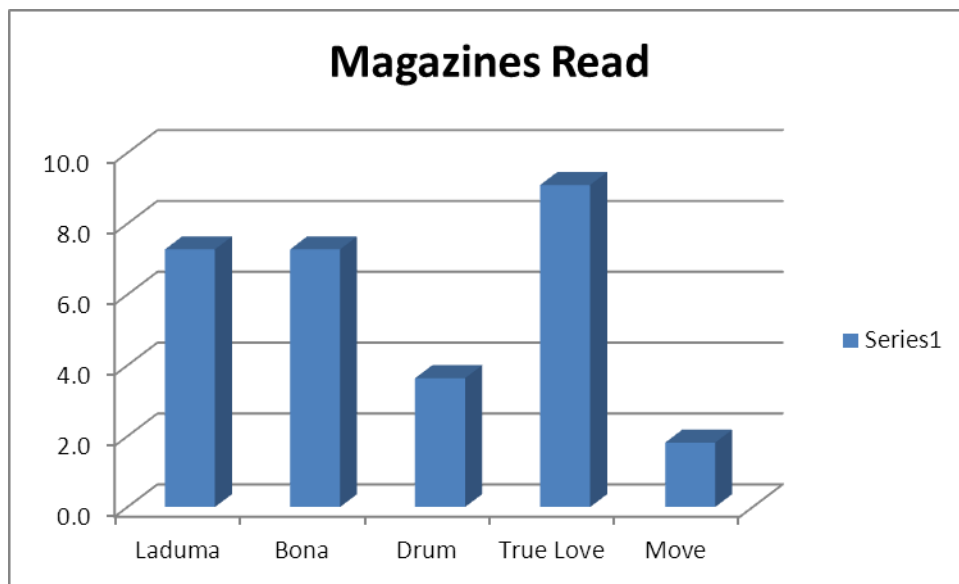


Figure 4.11: Magazines Read

Table 4.13: Magazine Reading: % Frequency

<i>Options</i>	<i>Totals</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Every day	0	0.0
Once a week	5	9.1
Two to three times a week	3	5.5
Once a month	3	5.5
Twice a month	5	9.1

Table 4.13 above and Figure 4.12 below, indicated the frequency results of learners, who read magazines. The majority of the learners read magazines once a week. It was alarming to note that the learners' frequency of reading magazines totalled only 29.2%. Of this percentage, none (0%) read newspapers every day. It was observed, from the statistics of learners, who read magazines that 9.1% read magazines once a week. Those learners, who read magazines twice a month, totalled 9.1%; those learners, who read magazines two to three times a week, were 5.5%; and once a month, only 5.5%; none of the learners read magazines every day. The majority of learners read magazines once a week or twice a month.

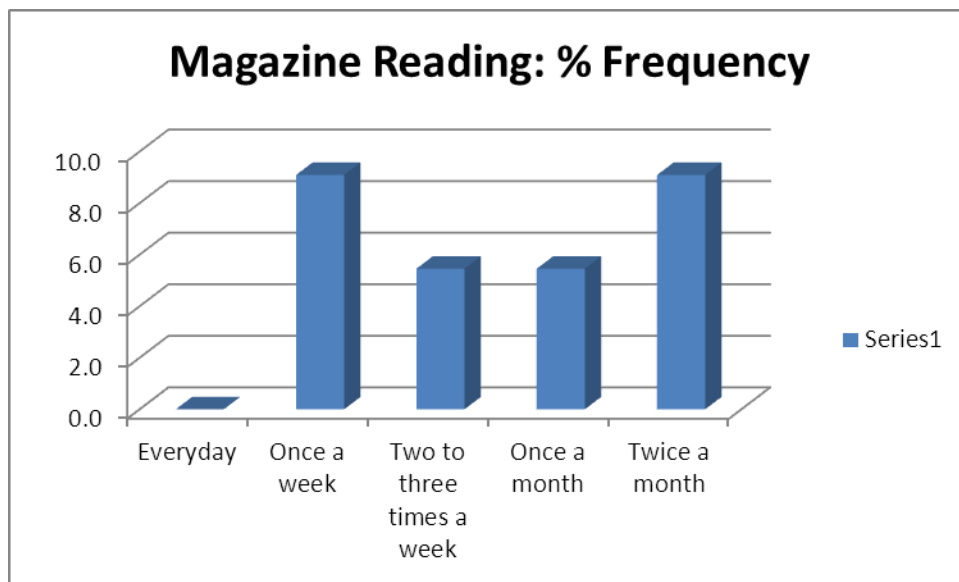


Figure 4.12: Magazines Read: % Frequency

The figure above illustrated the learners' frequency of reading magazine(s) through percentages. Most learners (9.1%) read magazines once a week and twice a month (9.1%). When equating the learners' frequency of newspaper reading with the learners' frequency of magazine reading, the total percentage of learners, who read newspapers, was 85.4%, which far exceeded the 29.2% of learners' frequency of magazine reading. It was however dismal that the 41.8% majority of learners, who read newspapers, only read newspapers once a week.

Overall, the findings revealed that for the learners in this study, there was more access to sources of language input in the form of media, such as radio and television. These had a greater impact on the learners' aural skills of listening and speaking, which as the statistics in Table 4.4 indicated, predominantly also exposed the learners to BSAfE, a variety, which could be accused of being 'polluted' for its deviation from the norm, that is Standard British English (SBE). Conversely, learners' exposure to written media, that is newspapers and magazines, which could enhance their reading and writing skills, were less stimulated (see Figures 4.9 and 4.10) and could be a further contributory reason why there seemed to be so much evidence of the effects of L1 sentence transformation on L2. This is certainly an area, which calls for improvement.

4.3.3 Evidence of L1 interference on L2

The literature review, which was undertaken and presented in Chapter 2 of this study, revealed that the following were among the most well-known grammatical features to look for when making conclusions about L1 interference: Phonology; Hybridisation; Lexical transfer; Semantic extension; Syntactic transfer; Subject copying; Word order; Tag questions; Conflation of gender; Use of the presumptive pronouns; Extension of the progressive aspect and Misuse of prepositions.

The design of this study accommodated an investigation of all, but the first feature (phonology). Therefore, all but the first of the grammatical features had a chance of being proven as evidence of L1 interference among the Xitsonga speaking learners in this study.

As envisaged, L1 has an influence on L2 learners of English, and thus, the findings in this study revealed the following areas/themes, which are presented hereunder in the order, in which they occurred (prevalence) in the learners' responses to the transformation test:

1. Misuse of pronoun
2. Subject copying
3. Resumptive pronoun
4. Misuse of preposition
5. Lexical transfer
6. Conflation of gender
7. Syntactic extension
8. Word order
9. Extension of progressive

4.3.3.1 Misuse of pronouns

Following the word count, which was employed during the CA deployed in this study, the most prevalent type of L1 interference was the misuse of pronouns. A total of 71 incidences of misuse of pronouns were recorded during the analysis of the sentence transformation test. The type of interference specifically most prevalent in *Section B*, of the learners' test was: for example, *Question 1, items 4, 5 and 6*. Most learners avoided the use of pronouns by using the 2nd person pronoun [you] in the referred items: for example, *item 4* served as a good point in case:

Item 4: My father is a doctor so he is often called out at night.

The learners were expected to respond by starting the sentence with the following words: *Being a doctor...*

The learners' answers for this *item* were as follows:

Being a doctor you are often called out at night.

A translation of this response reveals the source of the error committed here as follows:

Kuva uri dokodela wa (u) vitaniwa navusiku.

Loko uri dokodela wa vitaniwa navusiku.

The respondents in this sentence used the pronoun *you* instead of *my father* as expected. This results in the complete semantic loss of the original sentence, because in English it changes the persona from the father (3rd person) to the

referral of self in the 2nd person. The reason for this loss of meaning could perhaps be best explained by what Banda (2000) referred to as, “the dilemma of the mother tongue” when the source indicates that teachers of African languages are in a dilemma about the fact that learners do not speak standard African languages.

The learners in this *item* used *you*, which can be translated to *wa* or *u*, which in Xitsonga is the equivalent to the use of the pronoun *you*. As it is, the English sentence can be translated either as:

Kuva uri dokodela wa (u) vitaniwa navusiku.

or

Loko uri dokodela wa vitaniwa navusiku.

Similarly, *item 5* indicated the following interference:

She was tired after work, so she decided to buy Kentucky Fried Chicken for dinner.

The learners in this *item* like in the previous *item* were expected to re-write the above sentence beginning with: *Being...*

The expected response in this *item* was:

Being tired after work, she decided to buy Kentucky Fried Chicken for dinner.

The predominant responses of the learners' were as follows:

Being tired after work you may decide to buy Kentucky Fried Chicken for dinner.

The translation, which gives meaning to this error, was as follows:

Kuva u karhele endhaku ka kutirha u nga ehleketa ku xava 'Kentucky Fried Chicken' yiva swakudya swana nhlikanhi.

The pronoun *you* in the context, in which learners used it like in *item 4*, did not distinguish gender as is the case with *you* in *item 6* below:

Not knowing an answer you could simply keep quiet.

This translated into:

Kuva u nga tivi nhlamulo u nga miyela,

or

Kuva u nga yi tivi nhlamulo u nga miyela.

The use of the word *you* in this item is the equivalent use of u as used in Xitsonga in the above sentences. The pronoun *you* in this *item*, like the pronoun *you* in *item 5* above, is neutral as it represents both males and females.

The above sentences did make sense in Xitsonga and they were grammatically correct. Xitsonga does not have pronouns. Therefore, the second person pronoun *you* as used by the learners seemed to have been preferred to safeguard themselves from making a mistake as they probably did not know, which pronoun to use in each of the sentences. Thus, the learners, in answering these items, relied on their MT (Xitsonga) when producing their responses.

Question 1, item 4; like in the previous sentences, the learners were required to re-write the sentence: *My father is doctor so he is often called out at night* starting with: *Being a doctor...* The expected answer for this item was:

Being a doctor my father is often called out at night.

The learners' response in this item was:

Being a doctor you will called out at night like his or her father.

Loko uri dokodela u ta vitaniwa na vusiku ku fana na tatana wa yena.

As in the previous sentences, it was observed in this *item*, learners used *you* (2nd person) in the place of *my father* (3rd person). The use of *you* was preferred, probably because the learners were not sure, which (correct) pronoun to use. This was evident in this sentence:

Being a doctor you will called out at night like his/her father.

Loko uri dokodela wa vitaniwa na vusiku ku fana na tatana wa yena.

The learners in this *item* used both possessive pronouns for male and female (*his and her*) in one sentence.

Other learners avoided using both *my father* and the pronoun as in this sentence:

Being a doctor often called out at night.

Loko uri dokodela mikarhi vitaniwa na vusiku.

The omission of *my father* and the pronoun in both sentences (Xitsonga and English version) rendered both the sentences grammatically incorrect. This is probably another case referred to by Banda (2000) as the “dilemma of the mother tongue” whereby “the younger generation finds more status and prestige in the urban varieties than the rural based standard languages”. Therefore the way, in which the learners expressed themselves in their MT, also affected their L2 production. If the learner’s L1 speech, for example, contained erroneous features, such learners were likely to transfer those mistakes to L2. The L2 in this case would be negatively affected as linguistic interference would not result in correct language production, as aspects of the L1 differed from the aspects of L2 (Sanderson, 2005:45).

4.3.3.2 Subject copying

Subject copying occurred in 34 cases of *Section A* of the test instrument. The following examples which learners committed, clarified the findings about this type of error:

One of the questions was as follows:

The History teacher is pretty. The Physical Science teacher is just as pretty.

The learners were required to rewrite the sentence without changing the meaning starting with the words, *Both the ...*

The expected answer was supposed to read as follows:

Both the History and Physical science teachers are pretty.

Conversely, the following were some of the learner's responses:

Both the History teacher and the Physical Science teacher they are just as pretty.

Other learners' responses were:

Both the History and the Physical Science teacher(s) they are pretty.

In Xitsonga grammar, when one constructs a sentence, the subject is always followed by the object of that sentence. In other words, the speaker or the writer copies the subject.

In Xitsonga this can be translated as,

Hinkwavo mathicara (ra History na Physical Science) ma sasekile.

The copying of the subject they came as result of ma. Without the *ma* the Xitsonga translation would read:

Hinkwavo mathicara sasekile.

In Xitsonga the omission of ma in this sentence would not only be grammatically incorrect, but would also result in the sentence not making sense.

Consider this sentence for example:

Vana va munyungela swiwitsi.

(The children eat sweets).

If learners were instructed to translate this sentence into English, most learners' response would likely be:

*The children **they** eat sweets.*

4.3.3.3 Resumptive pronoun

Another error, which became evident, was that of the resumptive pronoun. *Question 1 item 6* aptly and predominantly revealed the error committed.

The *item* was as follows:

Andrew couldn't think of an answer, so he simply kept quiet.

In this *item* the learners were required to start the sentence with: *Not knowing...*

The expected response for this sentence was:

Not knowing the answer, Andrew simply kept quiet.

About 26 cases of the error of resumptive pronoun recurred among learners' responses. The following were some of the learners' responses to this item:

Not knowing an answer Andrew so he simply kept quiet.

Not knowing an answer Andrew so he just simply kept quiet.

Not knowing Andrew couldn't think of an answer so he simply kept quiet².

The answers above can be translated as follows:

Kuva angari ku tiveni nhlamulo Andrew u lo miyela.

Kuva angari ku tiveni nhlamulo Andrew u lo ti miyela.

Leswi angari ku yi tiveni Andrew anga ehleketangi hi nhlamulo u lo ti miyelala.

The underlined u from the Xitsonga translation was used in the place of a resumptive pronoun (*he*). As already cited and explained by Sanderson (2005:44), L2 learners have a L1 vocabulary and a grammar, and do not have to construct these from scratch in the same way as L1 learner. It was apparent that the learners' knowledge of their L1, in this regard, influenced their response as the above sentences reflected L1 interference.

The previous examples resulted from the fact that in Xitsonga the pronoun always accompanies the subject of the sentence as in the following sentence:

Swichudeni swi ya exikolweni hi milenge.

This sentence can be translated as:

Learners go to school on foot.

If Xitsonga learners were to translate this sentence from Xitsonga into English.

The response from most learners would likely to be:

The learners they go to school on foot.

² The researcher is aware that with the correct use of commas, this sentence is actually grammatically correct. However, it is presented in the format in which it is from the learners' original unpunctuated responses which reflects the absence of the comma in the L1.

4.3.3.4 Misuse of prepositions

In total, 22 instances of the misuse of prepositions were observed. These were prevalent in *Question 1, item 8*. The learners in this *item* used the preposition *on* and *at*. This resulted in a semantic change. For example,

The SABC will broadcast the game this afternoon.

In this item learners were required to answer the question by beginning the sentence with: *The game...*

The expected response for this item was:

The game will be broadcasted this afternoon (by the SABC).

Some of the learners' responses to this item were:

The game will be broadcasted at the SABC this afternoon.

Translated as:

Ntlangu wu ta haxiwa eka SABC na nhlikanhi.

or

The game will be broadcasted this afternoon at the SABC.

Ntlangu wu ta haxiwa na nhlikanhi eka SABC.

or

The game will be broadcasted on the SABC this afternoon.

Ntlangu wuta haxiwa ehenhla ka SABC na nhlikanhi.

or

The game will be broadcasted in the SABC this afternoon.

Ntlangu wu ta haxiwa eka SABC na nhlikanhi.

The preposition *at* as used in the English version stands in the place of *eka* in the learners' L1, because the learners' L1 (Xitsonga) does not have multiple prepositions like in English. This was likely the reason behind the misuse of prepositions, since in Xitsonga; *eka* covers all the English language prepositions *in*, *at*, *on* and *by*. In other words, when it comes to using prepositions, English is more specific than Xitsonga. Therefore, the learners used their own discretion.

This lack of specificity leads to the misuse of the prepositions. Some L2 learners, according to Sanderson (2005), guess when they do not know the answer. So, it was likely that the learners in this case could have guessed their answer. The prepositions: *on*, *in* and *at*, as used by the learners in the above sentences, indicated the L1 interference on L2.

The sentences above are acceptable in Xitsonga. Sanderson's (2005) view that L1 speakers have difficulty with prepositions, have been proven true in this study.

In the sentence:

The game will be broadcast this afternoon at the SABC.

The above sentence in Xitsonga can be translated as:

Ntlangu wuta haxiwa ni nhlikanhi eka SABC.

The sentence above answers the questions: *What? When?* and *Where?* For example,

what? Ntlangu (the game).

What about it?

Wu ta *haxiwa* (will be broadcast)

When? *Ni nlikanhi* (in the afternoon)

Where? At SABC. *At (eka)* in this answer was correctly used.

The next *item* for this type of error was as follows:

My brother bought a new bicycle.

Buti va xavile basikiri yintshwa.

In this item the learners were required to rewrite the following sentences joining them appropriately to form a single statement:

The bicycle was new. My brother bought the new bicycle.

The expected answer for this *item* was:

The bicycle, which my brother bought, was new.

The sentence:

My brother bought a new bicycle

as used by learners is grammatically correct in Xitsonga. In this case, the learners used their L1 background to produce a response to this item. In other words, the learners directly translated this sentence from Xitsonga into English.

4.3.3.5 Conflation of gender pronoun

The researcher observed 9 cases of conflation of gender during the data analysis of this study. In *Question 1, item 1*,

She runs faster than I do.

The learners were expected to start the sentence with, *I don't ...*

The expected answer in this item was:

I don't run faster than she (does).

Some learners' responses to this item were:

I don't run faster than her.

I don't run faster than him.

Both sentences can be translated in Xitsonga as follows:

A ni tsutsumi ku fana na yena.

Firstly, in this item, the learners exchanged the pronoun within the gender. For example, the usage of *her* in this sentence:

I don't run faster than her is incorrectly used.

Secondly, the learners also used the pronouns interchangeably. Like other indigenous South African languages, for example, IsiZulu, as was exemplified in Chapter 2 of this study, Xitsonga does not make the gender distinction. The Xitsonga language uses the *u* to refer to both male and female. The sentence:

U vulavula ngopfu,

for example can mean either

He talks too much

or

She talks too much.

Because of the grammatical difference in the two languages, the Xitsonga learners of English as L2, experienced difficulty in distinguishing between the subject pronouns *he* and *she* in English and many of them used the above subject pronouns interchangeably.

Sanderson's (2005) argument is manifested in sentence *number 2* of the learners' response above. In this *item*, the subject *she* in:

She runs faster than I do,

suggests to the reader that the speaker is female. Therefore, the object pronoun 'him' in this case is wrongly used. However, in Xitsonga:

A ndzi tsutsumi ku fana na yena,

is grammatically correct. *Yena* as the learners have used is gender inclusive of both male and female pronouns (in this case he and she).

4.3.3.6 Syntactic transfer

Only 7 occurrences of syntactic transfer were detected in this study. As Sanderson (2005) remarked, in learning a L2, learners use formal elements of L1 within the context of L2, resulting in errors in L2, since the structures of the languages - L1 and L2 are different. The following are evidence of Sanderson's viewpoint in this aspect of language:

The learners in *Question 1, item 8*, were required to rewrite the sentence:

The SABC will broadcast the game this afternoon,

by starting with the given words, *The game...*

The following were some of the learners' responses:

The game will be broadcasted by the SABC this afternoon.

In Xitsonga the sentence can be translated as:

Ntlangu wuta haxiwa hi SABC ni nhlikanhi.

However, some learners responded to the same item as:

The game the SABC will broadcast this afternoon.

This second sentence can be translated as follows:

Ntlangu vaka SABC vata wu haxa ni nhlikanhi.

Both sentences above had been re-ordered in L2 English as source language syntactic structures. Unfortunately, this resulted in errors as the syntactic structure of the learners' L2 differs from that of their L1.

Relatedly, it was also observed that the two translated Xitsonga sentences' syntax differed from that of Standard English. For example, the former,

Ntlangu wu ta haxiwa hi SABC ni nhlikanhi,

Was constructed in the SVO format, and the latter,

Ntlangu vaka SABC vata wu haxa ni nhlikanhi,

according to the SOV format. The L2 syntactic structure as used by the learners was influenced by the way the respondent learners used their L1. In this case the Xitsonga, both the SVO and the SOV formats, are not necessarily grammatically correct, but are acceptable. Thus, if learner's L1 is flawed, it will have an effect on the TL.

In *Question 2, item 1* and *3*, the learners were required to re-write the sentences that followed joining them appropriately to form single statements:

The man did not die. The man was bitten by a snake.

The expected answer in this item was:

The man, who was bitten by a snake, did not die.

Following were learners' responses for this item:

The man did not die because he was bitten by a snake.

Wanuna anga fangi hilkuva a lumiwile hi nyoka,

or

Wanuna anga fangi hambu (loko) a lumiwile hi nyoka.

In *item 3*,

The bicycle was new. My brother bought the new bicycle.

The expected response for this item was:

The bicycle, which my brother bought, was new.

The Learners response in this item was as follows:

My brother bought the new bicycle.

Buti wa mina u xavile basikiri yintshwa.

The above sentences reflect the Xitsonga syntactic features. The sentences' structure, which learners used in the above sentences, is not necessarily correct; nonetheless, they are acceptable in Xitsonga. On this issue, Sanderson (2005:45) concurrently notes that L2 is interfered positively when the relevant unit or structure of both languages is the same. In this case, linguistic interference resulted in correct language production, as aspects of the L2 that are the same in the L1 will be learnt more easily as they do not have to be learnt from scratch.

Conversely, negative interference Sanderson (2005) occurs when speakers and writers transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages. From the expected answer, it was observed that the learners should have joined the sentences by using a relative pronoun. The omission of relative pronouns in *Question 2 items 1 to 5* resulted in incorrect answers.

4.3.3.7 Word order

Word order was another prevalent error, which was observed by the researcher during the analysis undertaken in this study. For example: In *Question 1, item 8*, the sentence referred to stated:

The SABC will broadcast the game this afternoon.

The learners in this item were required to start the sentence with: *The game...*

The expected answer in this item was:

The game will be broadcasted this afternoon (by the SABC).

The following were some of the learners' responses:

The game will be broadcasted by the SABC this afternoon.

Ntlangu wu ta haxiwa eka SABC ni hlikanhi.

and

The game the SABC will broadcast this afternoon.

Ntlangu va ka SABC va ta wu haxa ni nhlikanhi.

The word order in the above two items reflect a Xitsonga interference. English has an SVO word order, with the verb usually placed between the subject and the object, rather than at the end of the sentence as in the following example:

The game will be broadcasted this afternoon.

This sentence was composed as SVO order. Whereas, the learners' responses in this item comprised a SOV order as in

The game the SABC will broadcast this afternoon.

Furthermore, in *item 6*, learners were required to re-write this sentence:

Andrew couldn't think of an answer so he simply kept quiet.

In this item, learners had to start this sentence with: *Not knowing...*

The expected answer for this item was:

Not knowing the answer, Andrew (simply) kept quiet.

The learners' response for this item was:

Not knowing Andrew couldn't think of an answer so he simply kept quiet.

Leswi a nga switivi, Andrew a nga ehleketangi hi nhlamulo, u lo ti miyelela,

or

Leswi a nga swi tivi, Andrew a nga ehleketangi hi nhlamulo u lo miyela.

The sentence indicated Xitsonga interference as it did not conform to SVO order of Standard English.

Additionally, in *Question 2, item 1*, the learners were required to rewrite the sentences joining them appropriately to form single statements. For example in the sentence:

The man did not die. The man was bitten by a snake.

The expected answer in this item was:

The man, who was bitten by a snake, did not die.

The following were the learners' responses for this item:

The man did not die because he was bitten by a snake.

Wanuna anga fangi hilkuva a lumiwile hi nyoka,

or

Wanuna anga fangi hambu (loko) a lumiwile hi nyoka.

Moreover, in *Question 2, item 3*, the learners were required to re-write sentences, joining them appropriately to form a single statement as in the next example:

The bicycle was new. My brother bought the bicycle.

The expected answer for this item was:

The bicycle, which my brother bought, was new.

The learners' responses in this item were:

My brother bought the new bicycle.

Buti wa mina u xavile basikiri yintshwa.

Again, the Xitsonga word order interference in the above sentences (as used by learners) was observed. In this case, the researcher of this study agrees with Sanderson (2005), who indicates that linguistic interference can result in correct language production as aspects of the L2, which are the same as in the L1, will be learnt more easily, because they do not have to be learnt from scratch. This, therefore, means that the way the learners expressed themselves affected the L2 production positively. Conversely, if the learners' L1 speech has erroneous features, such learners carry those mistakes over to L2.

4.3.3.8 Extension of progressive

Only 1 case of the extension of progressive was noticed during the data analysis for this study. This was connected to *Question 1, item 9*:

His laziness sometimes worries me.

In this item, learners had to re-write the sentence starting with the given words: *I am sometimes...*

The expected answer for this item was:

I am sometimes worried by his laziness.

The learner's response in this item was:

I am sometimes worrying by his laziness.

Mikarhi yi nwana na vilela hi vulolo bya yena.

The learner's response in this item reflected an interference of the MT (Xitsonga). The verb in the Xitsonga version is in the present continuous tense. The verb *worry* was also affected in the same way. The learner in this case translated the verb *worry* from present tense to present continuous tense, which is always associated in Xitsonga.

The following chapter will summarise the dissertation's content; proffer recommendations and will suffice with the conclusion.

Chapter 5

Summary, Recommendations and Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to reinstate the aims, summarise the findings as well as discuss the implications of the findings in the study of how L1 can interfere on L2. Finally, conclusions are drawn and recommendations for further research are offered.

The research reported in this study firstly sought to examine the effects of L1 on sentence transformation among grade 12 learners studying EFAL. Secondly, the study endeavoured to recommend possible measures that could be implemented to eliminate such effects. Thus far, available research on errors resulting from L1 interference, offers very few feasible classroom solutions to this problem. Hence, it was believed that the information and data gleaned from this study could contribute vital knowledge and suggestions to improve learner performance in EFAL. In addition, it desired to contribute positively to the pass rate of grade 12 learners. Therefore, to truly make a meaningful contribution, it had to take into cognisance South Africa's multilingual and multicultural realities as well as acknowledge the reality that the majority of South Africa's EFAL teachers are themselves L2 speakers. The findings of this study revealed a number of areas, in which L1 affects learners' efforts in EFAL sentence transformation tasks. Being circumspect of all of the above, the study wished to be of practical importance to various sectors of the South African education system. For example, initially it should contribute invaluable information to curriculum developers and implementers within the education department. Furthermore, it could provide vital knowledge for teacher training programmes in higher education.

5.2 Overview

Chapter 1 served as the orientation for the study and outlined the problem that necessitated this study. The problem statement for this study was that grade 12 learners do not perform well in their EFAL grammar section, particularly in sentence transformation tasks, such as reported speech, changing active into passive as well as language editing. Learners require knowledge of the language of instruction in order to perform well in their studies and develop cognitive skills. This chapter indicated that although researchers are aware that numerous errors are made by L2 speakers, there is a lack of empirical research on L1 interference with regards to sentence transformation. The problem statement therefore was centred on the following questions:

What are the effects of L1 on sentence transformation for grade 12 EFAL learners?

What are the sources of L1 interference on sentence transformation for grade 12 EFAL learners?

What are the predominant types/levels of L1 interference on grade 12 learners' sentence transformation?

What are the possible ways, through which L1 interference on EFAL can be addressed?

Conclusively, this chapter also provided the aim and objectives of the study, as well as the significance of the study and the definition of terms relevant to this study.

Chapter 2 provided a literature review categorised in themes, which were: First, Language Interference, where a number of studies by authors, such as Chisanga (1997); De Klerk and Gough (2002); Sanderson (2005); Makalela (2007) and many others were reviewed. Second, it focused on the levels of interference, where according to Sanderson (2005), it was explained that L2 can be interfered on two levels, known as positive and negative levels. Third, the chapter discussed some evidence of L1 interference on L2. In particular, studies, such as

that of Schmied (1991); Gough (1996); Chisanga and Kamwangamalu (1997); Mothoa (2001); De Klerk and Gough (2002) as well as Manganyi (2007) were mentioned. Abstracting from these authors, it became evident that all of them agree that the following are the most prominent areas of L1 interference on L2: (a) Phonology, (b) Hybridisation, (c) Lexical transfer, (d) Semantic extension, (e) Syntactic transfer, (f) Subject copying and (g) Word order. In addition, according Mothoa (2001) four grammatical features of L1 interference on L2 were discussed. These were (a) misuse of preposition; (b) misuse of progressive aspects; (c) use of resumptive pronoun and, (d) misuse of gender pronouns. Forth, Chapter 2 located the study within a particular theoretical framework. This framework was mainly guided by the arguments purported by Bachman (1990) in his classic titled: *Fundamental Considerations of Language Testing*. Fifth and lastly, the chapter closed by providing some evidence in literature of the context, in which English as a L2 finds itself in South Africa. This was provided through citing the historical background of English in the Cape, English in Apartheid South Africa, the South African variety of English as well as the multilingual setting, in which the language finds itself.

Chapter 3 explained the research methodology in this study. The data collection techniques were the questionnaire and the sentence transformation test. The use of these instruments was complimentary and not contradictorily in the data collection and analysis procedures. The two instruments, used for data collection, were then subjected to a mixed methods research design, where data were analysed using frequency counts and content analysis focusing on emerging themes.

Chapter 4 presented the analysis and interpretation of the data for the study. The data captured from Section A of the questionnaire were analysed for frequency counts as stated in Chapter 3. This information was summarised through frequency graphs with percentages used when appropriate. The responses from

the test section were analysed thematically, drawing from emerging patterns in the data as a whole. The findings were analysed, interpreted and discussed.

5.3 Major Findings of the Study

The main finding, with regards to the sources of L2 input, was that the learners in this study were exposed to various sources of language input, First, the study showed that, with regards to radio, a majority of the learners always listened to *Munghana Lonene FM*, a predominantly Xitsonga language radio station. With regards to TV, however, most of the learners in this study watched SABC 1 and in particular the soapie *Generations*. This is a multilingual soapie dominated by BASfE.

The second and most important finding on the effects of L1 on sentence transformation showed a number of levels, at which sentence transformation is affected by L1. The recognised features, which were found in this study, were as follows:

- Misuse of pronoun,
- Subject copying,
- Resumptive pronoun,
- Misuse of preposition,
- Lexical transfer,
- Conflation of gender,
- Syntactic extension,
- Word order,
- Extension of progressive.

Overall, the findings revealed that for the learners in this study, there was more access to sources of language input in the form of media, such as radio and television. These had a greater impact on the learners' aural skills of listening and speaking, which predominantly also exposed the learners to BSAfE, a

variety, which could be accused of being 'polluted' for its deviation from the norm, that is Standard British English (SBE). Conversely, learners' exposure to written media, that is newspapers and magazines, which could enhance their reading and writing skills, were less stimulated and could be a further contributory reason why there seemed to be so much evidence of the effects of L1 sentence transformation on L2. Thus, the findings of this study proffered numerous effects of interference from L1 on the L2 output of learners, particularly in relation to sentence transformation.

5.4 Recommendations

Given the findings of this study, that (1) learners did not have the appropriate exposure to support Krashen's comprehensible input, and (2) learners attempts at sentence transformation was riddled with a number of levels of L1 interference features, there are recommendations that need consideration.

First, this subject needs to be researched further in other similar communities to this study. Since this study was conducted among grade 12 learners only, research could be widened to other grades involving a larger representative sample and a search for more linguistic features, apart from sentence transformation should be undertaken.

Second, the findings also suggest an opportunity and implementation for material development, especially of the written kind, to provide relevant resources for teaching EFAL in high schools.

Third, in view of the numerous calls for the standardisation of BSAfE, it is also recommended that such a scenario requires the formal introduction of materials that accommodate the inclusion of standardised BSAfE, which is considered by Manganye (2007) as an 'innovative variety'.

5.5 Conclusion

The aim of this research was to examine the effects that L1 interference has on sentence transformation for grade 12 EFAL learners. The finding of this study is twofold: First, it was found that the learners in this study were exposed to various sources of language input. Second, analysis on the effects of L1 on sentence transformation showed a number of levels, at which L2 sentence transformation is affected by L1. However, it is recommended that further studies should be conducted on other grades involving a larger representative sample with the aim of investigating more linguistic features apart from sentence transformation. Lastly, the study recommended that the DBE should consider accepting the call for the standardisation of the 'innovative variety' known as BSAfE.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire and Test

Learners Questionnaire and Test

Please Note:

- *This is a questionnaire and test strictly for research.*
- *At no stage will the results of this exercise be used for your academic profile.*
- *Neither will they have an impact on your final marks at the end of the year. However, if need be we shall discuss aspects of your performance in class for your benefit and learning experience.*
- *Later, the researcher may also seek clarifications or ask some additional questions emanating from the analysis of this questionnaire and test.*
- *Please, fill in the first page (questionnaire section) before answering the questions that follow.*
- *You may choose to ignore the Surname and Initial row if you deem so.*
- *Please feel free to ask the teacher if you need and clarifications about any part during the session.*
- *Lastly, please attempt to answer all the questions as this will help give a clear picture of the issues under investigation in this research.*

Section A: Biographical Data and Input Questionnaire			
Surname and Initials		Current Age	
Gender		Other Languages	
Home Language			
Sources of Second Language Inputs			
Do you have a TV at home?		YES	NO
Which TV Channel do you mostly watch?	SABC 1		
	SABC 2		
	SABC 3		
	ETV		
Which TV programme do you watch? You may list more than one.			

Do you have a radio at home?		YES	NO
Which radio station do mostly you listen to? In other words, this is your most favourite radio station. Please Tick one.	Munghana Lonene FM		
	Thobela FM		
	Phalaphala FM		
	Jacaranda FM		
	Capricon FM		
	Radio 2000		
	Any other (Specify)		
How often do you listen to the radio station chosen above? Tick one	Once a week		
	Everyday		
	Only on weekends		
	Once in a long time		
Which <u>other</u> radio station(s) do you listen to? In other words, these are your second and third favourite radio stations. You may tick more than one.	Munghana Lonene FM		
	Thobela FM		
	Phalaphala FM		
	Jacaranda FM		
	Capricon FM		
	Radio 2000		
	Any other (Specify)		
How often do you listen to the radio station(s) chosen above? Tick one	Once a week		
	Everyday		
	Only on weekends		
	Once in a long time		

Which Newspaper(s) / Magazine(s) do you read? You can list more than one	<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
How often do you read this/these Newspaper(s)?	Everyday	
	Once every week	
	Twice or three times a week	
	Once every month	
	Twice every month	
How often do you read this magazine(s)?	Everyday	
	Once every week	
	Twice or three times a week	
	Once every month	
	Twice every month	

Section B: Sentence Transformation Test

Instructions:

- Answer all questions.
- Write neatly and legibly on the spaces provided on this questionnaire, if the provided space is not enough; please be free to ask for additional paper.

Question 1

Re-write the sentences below starting with the given words, ensuring that you do not change the meaning.

1. She runs faster than I do.

I don't _____

2. We were well prepared so we were not afraid to face the other team.

Having _____

3. The History teacher is pretty. The physical science teacher is just as pretty.

Both the _____

4. My father is a doctor so he is often called out at night.

Being a doctor _____

5. She was tired after work, so she decided to buy Kentucky Fried Chicken for dinner.

Being _____

6. Andrew couldn't think of an answer so he simply kept quiet.

Not knowing _____

7. It's very unlikely that they will find the time to visit us.

It's not _____

8. The SABC will broadcast the game this afternoon.

The game _____

9. His laziness sometimes worries me.

I am sometimes _____

10. Will you please help me with this homework? She asked her father.

She asked _____

Question 2

Rewrite the following sentences, joining them appropriately to form single statements.

1. The man did not die. The man was bitten by a snake.

2. Father has a wagon. He uses the wagon on the farm.

3. The bicycle was new. My brother bought the bicycle.

4. This is the dog. It bit me.

5. The cow has died. Father bought the cow last week.

Appendix 2: Letter Requesting Permission



University of Limpopo
School of Education
Department of Language Education
Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa
Tel: (015) 268 2398, Fax: (015) 267 2246, Email: Thembinkosi.Mabila@ul.ac.za

The Principal
Humula Secondary School
PO Box 1213
Malamulele, 0982

02 September 2011

Dear Sir/ Madam

Request for Permission to Conduct Data Collection: Research Study

I write to request for your office to grant me permission to collect data for a research study in our school. I am currently registered with the University of Limpopo where I am studying towards the degree MEd in Language Education. As part of the requirements for the completion of the degree, I am required to conduct research and submit a dissertation.

I intend to conduct a research project titled:

The effects of first language interference on sentence transformation amongst grade 12 English Second Language learners from a Xitsonga Speaking High School Community

This project requires that I collect data through a questionnaire and test during arranged sessions during school hours.

I wish to indicate that, given the permission to access the learners I will ensure that all information is handled in strict confidence in accordance with the research ethics and rules governing research at the University of Limpopo.

Finding solutions for Africa

Attached please find the proposal for the study which has been submitted to the Faculty of Humanities and the Research and Ethics Committee at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus) for approval.

Should a need arise, I also hereby commit to making available and communicate all the results and findings of this study to all stakeholders.


Yours Sincerely

Chauke E

Research Supervisor,

Dr TE Mabila

015 268 2397/8



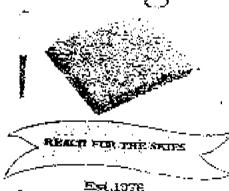

Finding solutions for Africa

Appendix 3: Research Site Approval

FROM :

FAX NO. :

May. 16 2013 04:03PM P2

<h1>Humula High School</h1>		
<p>Enquiries : Maluleke M.J. Contacts : 015 851 0168 Fax : 015 851 0168</p>	 <p>EST. 1976 Emis no: 001136774</p>	<p>P.O. Box 1213 Malamulele, 0982</p>
<p>Dear Mr Chauke</p> <p>Re: Ezekiel Chauke. Student number 200907495; Request for Permission to Conduct Data Collection for your Research Study in Humula High School.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. The above matter has reference.2. I write to inform you that your request for permission to conduct Data Collection for your Research Study is granted.3. The school wishes you all the best in your studies <p>Yours Sincerely Maluleke M.D (Deputy-Principal)</p> 		
<p>02</p>		

Appendix 4: Turfloop Research Committee Clearance Letter

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO
Turfloop Campus



Research Development and Administration

TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Private Bag X1106
SOVENGA
0727
SOUTH AFRICA
Tel.: (015) 2682401
Fax: (015) 268 2306
Int. Tel.: +27 15 268 2401
Int. Fax: +27 15 268 2306
E-mail:
noko.monene@ul.ac.za

MEETING: 29 January 2013

PROJECT NUMBER: TREC/FHM/02/2013: PG

PROJECT:

Title: The effects of first language interference on sentence transformation amongst Grade 12 English second language learners from a High School in a Xitsonga Speaking Community.

Researcher: Mr E Chauke

Supervisor: Dr TE Mabila

Co-Supervisor: Mr TN Manganye

Department: Language Education

School: Education

Degree: Master of Education


PROF TAB MASHEGO
CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Finding Solutions for Africa



Appendix 5: Editor's Confirmation Letter

SOLI DEO GLORIA EDITOR'S CONFIRMATION LETTER TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby state that I have edited the document with regard to English and Afrikaans only. Any other languages used in this dissertation are subject to the care of the student and supervisors. In addition appendices, 1 – 4 were not edited, and appear as student initially inserted them.

**The Effects of First Language Interference on Sentence
Transformation among Grade 12 English Second Language Learners
from a Xitsonga High School Community in Malamulele**

**Dissertation
Submitted in fulfilment for the degree Master of Education (M.Ed.) in
Language Education**

**by
Ezekiel Chauke
200907495**

**IN THE
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES
School of Education
at the
University of Limpopo
Supervisor: Dr T.E. Mabila**

Co-Supervisor: Mr T.N. Manganye

Disclaimer

At time of submission to student, language editing and technical care was attended to as requested by student and supervisor. Any corrections and technical care required after submission is the sole responsibility of the student.

Kind Regards
Dr J P Sammons
D.Litt.et Phil (University of Johannesburg)
SOLI DEO GLORIA
Language Editing
Email: sdgproofed@gmail.com
DATE: 27 May 2013