Table 2 : Noun classes in Chibemba

Class	Prefix	Subject Marker	Object Marker				
SG	PL	SG	PL	SG	PL	SG	PL
1	2	Mu	a	A	a/ba	mu	ba
3	4	mu	mi	U	i	u	i
5	6		ma	Li	a/ba	li	ba
7	8	chi	fi	Chi	fi	chi	fi
9	10			I	fi	i	fi
12	13	ka	tu	Ka	tu	ka	tu
14		u	ma	U	a	u	ba
15		ku	ku	Ku			
16		pa	pa	Pa			
17		ku	ku	Ku			
18		mu	mu	Mu			

Source : (Meisner, 2000: 66)

These classes show part of the range of noun classification that is characteristic of Bemba. The singular forms of the first group above constitute class 1, and its plural counterpart is class 2. These classes tend to be dominated by nouns that denote animate things although not all animate things are in this class. In fact, it also includes some inanimate objects. The next singular class is class 3, and its plural version is class 4. This runs on to classes 5, 6, 7 and 8. There is also class 1a. This class consists of nouns whose agreement patterns are those of class 1 but whose nouns lack the ***m(u)*** prefix found in the class 1 nouns. The plural of such nouns is indicated by prefixing ***ba*** to the word. For instance, the noun ***kalulu*** 'hare' whose plural is ***bakalulu*** typifies this class (Givon, *Ibid.,* 258). Each of these classes has a specific class marker and a specific agreement marker. For instance, in the following senetence :

U-mu-lunshi umo naisa na imifwi ine. *(A hunter has come with four spears).*

1-hunter 1SM-one 1SM-pst-come-fv with 4-spears

2.4.1.1.1.1 .2 Number

Grammatical number is a grammatical category of nouns, pronouns, and adjective and verb agreement that expresses count distinctions (such as "one" or "more than one") (http://en.wikipedia.org/). For most classes, there exists a regular association of pairs to show the singular/plural dichotomy. Plural is indicated by a change of class, with a resulting change of prefix. In addition, there is a concord system for each class where a substantive, on one hand, agrees with its determiners and the verb of which it is the subject on the other (Givon, *Ibid.,* 140). However, there are instances where a noun has zero prefix. In such cases the only criterion for telling the class of the noun is the type of concordial agreement which the noun governs in the sentence. A noun stem may take more than one singular and plural form of prefix. Depending on the prefix used the connotation of the noun varies, for example, the stem *-lumendo* becomes ***mu**lumendo,* boy; ***ba**lumendo,* boys; ***bu**lumendo,* boyhood, ***ka**lumendo,* small boy; ***tu**lumendo,* small boys (Givon, *Ibid.).*

Sometimes nouns in singular form have a plural construction to show politeness or respect, for instance: ***Ba**mayo, **ba**taata (*Givon, *Ibid.*).

2.4.1.1.1.1 .2.3 Gender of Nouns

The feature gender is an inherent lexical feature of Bemba nouns. The feature plurality is an optional feature of the noun, generated by the syntactic base rules. What is traditionally referred to as "*Noun Class*" is really the combination of these two features, namely gender and number

(Givon, 1969: 235). In Bemba language no change is made in the noun to denote sex, and gender plays no part in grammatical construction. To denote sex, they apply adjectives, for instance, in Bemba the adjectives *-umwanakashi,* and *-umukashana* are adjectives used to denote the female sex. For example:

Umwana ***umwanakshi*** *(*daughter).

The traditional practice of dividing the singular and plural forms of Bantu nouns into agreement classes tends to be obscure due to the fact that gender is an inherent feature of nouns, while plurality is an optional feature of nominal phrases (Givon, *Ibid.*) except for mass nouns which are inherently plural.

2.4.1.1.1.1 .2.4 Noun Phrase

A noun phrase (NP) may be a subject or an object. It may also be occupied by a single noun in some instances. Nouns co-occur with qualifiers, possessive determiners, deitic determiners and quantifiers. The modifier must agree with the class of the head noun (Miti, 2006 : 151). However, modifiers are optional members of the NP. Generally, in Bemba language, the noun preceeds the modifier. However, the modifier must agree with the class of the head noun as indicated below (Givon, *Ibid.*).

Umuana ***u mu*** *tali* *(A tall child).*

(Noun) (Mod)

In the sentence above, the head noun of nominal imposes gender, number agreement on all its modifiers, with the exception of nominal modifiers which have an inherent gender of their own gender (Givon, *Ibid.*, 259).

2.4.1.1.2 Verb

In its verbal structure, Bemba is typical of Bantu languages in displaying an elaborate agglutinative structure. The verb comprises a verb root or radical, to which suffixes or extensions are added (Givon, *Ibid.*, 262) to form the verb stem. The extensions affect the number of expressible nominal arguments that the stem can support. In other words, verbal extensions affect the argument structure of the verb *(Ibid)*. For instance, proclitics are added to the verb stem so that they encode syntactically oriented information. This includes the expression of Negation, Tense/Aspect, Subject and Object markers, Modals, Conditional markers, Directional markers, and others (Givon, *Ibid.*, 167). For example in a Bemba verb:

Ala *nwa* *mo* (He/she drinks from there).

Bala *nwa* *mo* (They drink from there).

Tula *nwa* *mo* (We drink from there).

Prefix *stem* *suffix*

From the aforementioned examples, no affix can stand on its own without the stem. Therefore, this demonstrates that affixes are bound morphemes, they are part of the verb. They are not independent constituents (Miti, 2006 : 123). However due to co-occurrence restrictions not all affixes can simultaneously appear on the verb as already demonstrated above.

2.4.1.1.2.1 Verb Phrase

A phrase refers to a group of words functioning as a single unit in the syntax of a sentence. A verb phrase may consist of a verb only or contain other phrasal categories. Every finite verb-form has a pronoun prefix that agrees with it and stands for the subject, for instance **ba** in Bemba

(they) (Givon, *Ibid.*, 288)

Ba alifyuka (They esacaped).

Ba a liiya (They left).

2.4.1.1.2.2 Tense

Grammatical tense refers to a temporal linguistic quality expressing the time at, during, or over which a state or action denoted by a verb occurs. Tense denotes the time to which the assertion denoted by the verb refers. All tenses are obtained by the auxiliary particles. In Bemba the verb remains unchanged in most of the conjugations except in some tenses where the verb form is changed. For instance in Bemba, it is the simple past tense where the verb changes. The simple past is formed by adding different endings to the verb. For instance, in the verb *paya (To kill):* the final *-aya* of the verb is changed to-*eye* in the simple past tense to become *peye* (Givon, 1969 : 167).

2.4.1.1.2.2.1 Number and Person

The verb form undergoes no change for either number or person. The pronouns used with the verb do vary for both, and it is by the pronouns used that we decide those of the verb (Givon, *Ibid.).*

2.4.1.1.3 Word Order

The Bemba basic word order is SVO just like For English and French. However, in sentences where topicalisation is privalent such as those containing object markers (OM), all the six

logically possible arrangements appear to be acceptable. (Miti, 2006 : 126). For example :

Ishilu *lile* *lya* *amataba* (The fool is eating maize).

SUB Aux, PRES (to be, 3rd SG V O (dir).

Amataba *yale* *liiwa* *na* *i shilu* (Maize is being eaten by the fool).

O (ind) Aux,PRES (to be 3rd) V S

Also, word order may vary from speaker to speaker within the same language variety. Further, Bemba language is a **pro-drop language,** which means it allows for the subject position to remain unfilled, for instance :

A – Ka – ly-a – umupunga.

AGR-FUT- eat-FV rice. (someone will eat rice).

The subject agreement prefix such as **A** in the sentence above is obligatory on all tensed verbs.

2.4.1.1.4 Case

Case refers to grammatical function in a greater phrase or clause; such as the role of subject, of direct object, or of possessor. There are 8 cases in Bemba language namely; Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Vocative, Ablative, Dative, Locative and Instrumental.

2.4.1.1.4.1 Nominative.

The nominative case, indicates the subject of a finite verb, for example in the following sentence:

Twa *ya* *ku* *mapepo* (We are going to pray)

SUB V (FIN, PRES) PREP (Loc) OBJ.

As in English and French, a substantive in the nominative is the subject of the sentence. Bemba language differs, however, in the fact that the nominative is always absolute. In every case a pronoun is inserted between the noun and the verb, for example:

Abantu balabomba, not Abantu bomba (Men they work, not Men work).

*Abaume **bala** bomba* (Men they work).

The position of the nominative noun may vary, but in every case the pronoun used comes before the verb, for example:

*Ba chili **balabomba** balya bantu* (They still work those people).

2.4.1.1.4.2 Accusative.

The accusative case indicates the direct object of a verb:

*Nali punka **umwaice***

The noun in the accusative is unchanged, but is always easily recognized in the sentence, for example:

*Abantu **ba** limwene **Inama,*** (People they saw animals)

In addition, the accusative (object) pronouns system is just the same as in French. The object pronoun is always placed between the subject of the sentence and the verb, never after the verb as in English, for instance:

Nali	***mu***	*mona, (I saw him)*
Je	***l'***	*ai vu*
Nali	***Ku***	*mona* (I saw you)
Je	***t'***	*ai vu*

Nali	***Ba***	*mona* (I saw them)
Je	*les*	*ai vu*
SUB (PRO)	OBJ (PRO)	V

2.4.1.1.4.3 Genitive.

The genitive case, indicates the possessor of another noun. This case is applied to a noun from which something else precedes or to which it belongs. In English, it is usually expressed by the preposition "*of,*" but in Bemba language the particle varies with each class of noun used. Every noun prefix has its own genitive particle, for example:

*Umulumendo **wa**kwa Lesa* SG (boy of God).

*Abalumendo **ba**kwa Lesa* PL (boys of God).

2.4.1.1.4.4 Vocative.

The vocative case indicates an addressee, for instance:

***John**, ulifye bwino?* (John, are you alright?).

In Bemba, this case is confined to a few words of Class 1. For instance, in addressing one's father "*Taata*" is used and Grandmother "*Mama*".

2.4.1.1.4.5 The Dative

The dative case indicates the indirect object of a verb:

*Bakalaliki bali **tu** bweseshako umutengo* (The clerk reduced the price for us).

2.4.1.1.4.6 The ablative

The ablative case indicates movement *from* something, and/or *cause*. For instance, in the following sentence:

Umulumendo afumine kuli ifwe elo ayakuli ba shinganga (*The young man went* ***from us*** *to see the doctor).*

2.4.1.1.4.3. 6 The locative

The locative case indicates a location, for example in the following sentence:

Twikala ***ku*** *Mpika* (*we live in Mpika)*

2.4.1.1.4.7 The Instrumental

The instrumental case indicates an object used in performing an action, for example, in the following sentence:

Twacikolopa mu nganda ***na icikolopo*** (*We wiped the floor* ***with a mop).***

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the liguistic situation of Zambia. It has, particularly, highlighted different ethnic groups and their geographical distributions. Further, it has discussed the bantu language syntax, particularly Bemba. It has discussed the noun system and their classification, the phrases, the verb, word order and grammatical case. The next chapter will present the literature review on Second Language Acquisition and Error Analysis.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.0 General

The previous chapter focused on the presentation of the linguistic situation in Zambia. It has, particularly, highlighted different ethnic groups and their geographical distributions. Futher, it has discussed the bantu language syntax, particularly Bemba. It has discussed the noun system and their classification, the phrases, the verb, word order and grammatical case.

However, this particular chapter reviews the different literature on the studies that have been done in Zambia and elsewhere on the questions of SLA and interference. According to Wiersna, "the review of the literature provides the background and context for the research problem. It should establish the need for the research and indicate that the researcher is knowledgeable about the study area" (1995: 406). In the same line, this section presents the approaches as well as the studies.

3.1. Approaches to Literature Review

Information search is critical to the organisation as well as contextualisation of research. There are a number of approaches used in information search. Some of these are Ripple effect, random and guided approaches. Ripple effect refers to the approach whereby the researcher starts with some literature, reviews what the author of the book or paper has listed in the list of references and bibliographies. The author applied this type of approach because he lacked knowledge of authors or researchers who had tackled similar topics. Therefore, he applied this approach using

key words such as *error analysis, second language acquisition, multilingual acquisition, language interference*. Using these key words, the researcher searched for titles and tables of contents. Library catalogues, publication databases and the internet were the major sources of data. These methods were used to make sure that information needed was acquired.

On the other hand, random approach refers to a situation whereby the author uses any document he comes across as long as it is relevant to the topic of study. This technique was appropriate to this study because the author approached the topic with an open mind such that he was open to use any available data related to SLA, multilingual acquisition as well as language interference (Bhela, *Ibid.*).

Finally, guided approach refers to the situation whereby an expert in the field prepares a list of needed documents (http://.en.wikipedia). For this particular study, the author applied this technique by getting a list of suggested documents from the supervisor. This approach suited the study due to the fact that the author needed the input of the supervisor on the way forward.
The author used all the aforementioned approaches to do the literature review. This was aimed at ensuring the acquisition of valid and up to date data on the topic (*Ibid.*).

3.2 Review of Literature on Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Second Language Acquisition refers to the process as well as the study of developing the ability to use a language other than one's mother tongue. Research in this field focuses on the extent to which people learning a second (L2) or third language (L3) develop competence in the language

like that of a native speaker, and the similarity in the process of acquisition with that of the first language. In the case of differences, researchers seek to explain the causes, instances and whether the causes are biological or social (Bhela, *Ibid.*).

In the period between the 1940s -1960s language acquisition was studied on the basis of the contrastive analysis. That means a systematic comparison of languages. This was aimed at describing points of similarity and difference between native and target languages. This was provoked by the great migration to the United States of America. The reality revealed that difficulties to learn American English are not the same for an Italian and a German. This led to the invention of a new method known as the *Interference Method (IM)* (Lott, 1983: 256).

Interference Method refers to the process of 'mapping' one system onto another, with the aim of identifying similarities and differences in order to better understand the potential problems that a learner of the particular **L2** would face (Lott: Ibid). This method has three different but complementary approaches, namely: Contrastive Analysis, Inter-language Analysis and Error Analysis (Lott, *Ibid.).*

3.2.1 Contrastive Analysis Approach (CAA) to SLA

The CAA was deeply rooted in the behaviouristic and structuralist approaches. This approach claimed that the principal barrier to L2 in the interference of L1 system is the L2 system. Therefore, it was assumed that a scientific structural analysis would develop a taxonomy of linguistic constrasts between them to enable the linguist predict the difficulties a learner would encounter (Brown, 2000: 88).

The basic concept behind CAA was that a structural 'picture' of any one language could be constructed which might then be used in direct comparison with the structural 'picture' of another language. Structurally, different areas of the two languages involved would result in interference. This term was used to describe any influence from the **L1** having an effect on the acquisition of the **L2**. This was the origin of the term transfer which will be discussed later. However, distinction was made between positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer occurred where there was concordance between the **L1** and **L2**. In such a situation, acquisition would take place with little or no difficulty. Negative transfer, on the other hand, occurred where there was some sort of dissonance between the **L1** and **L2**. In this case, acquisition of the **L2** would be more difficult and take longer because of the 'newness' and the difficulty of the **L2** structure (Dulay *et al.*, 1982 : 47).

These two concepts of transfer were central to CA and reflected an essentially behaviourist model of language learning, which described the acquisition of language in terms of habit formation, reflecting Skinner's interpretation of laboratory experiments on rats (1957), where positive and negative stimuli induced certain 'learned' behaviours, language acquisition (certainly FLA) was described in the same way (Beardsmore,1982 : 74).

3.2.1.1 Criticism of CAA

The CA hypotheses postulated the existence of positive transfer, as a result of similarity between languages, and negative transfer (or language interference), stemming from difference between languages. However, reality showed that the CA hypothesis was a very limited one in the sense

that it failed to predict some learner errors and predicted errors that did not materialize (Wardaugh, 1970: 143). Nevertheless, the exercise was useful in that it made researchers focus their attention on the explanation of learner errors rather than on their prediction. Precisely, at that time Chomsky proposed the notion of universal grammar (UG) claiming that human learning in general and language acquisition in particular are explainable in terms of an innate human capacity aiding the generation of an infinite number of sentence patterns. Consequently, it turned out that language acquisition is a product of rule formation because learners form hypotheses about target language rules and test them in practice (Brown, 2000: 103).

3.2.2 Language Acquisition Device (LAD)Theory

Challenging Skinner's model of behaviourist learning, Chomsky (1975: 67) proposed a more cognitive approach to language learning which involved the use of a **LAD**. According to Chomsky, this device was reserved exclusively for processing and producing language, and was separate from other cognitive processes. Further, he argued that there are 'language universals' which all babies have access to and which are essentially innate in humans (Chomsky, *Ibid.*).

This idea of 'innateness' claimed that language was not simply a matter of habit formation as argued by the bahaviourists, but rather it has its own natural agenda and its own developmental course. Certain aspects of vocabulary learning may follow behaviourist principles, but reality also manifests that children are able to say things they could not possibly have heard from those around them. For instance, a child learning English may say such words as "*runned*" and "*falled*". This shows, argued Chomsky (1959, *Ibid.*), that children were perceiving regularities

and forming rules for how the language works rather than simply imitating other people. Importantly, language was said to be rule-governed, structure-dependent and fundamentally generative (Chomsky, *Ibid.)*.

3.2.3 Interlanguage Analysis Approach to SLA.

The psychology of second language acquisition (SLA) was also studied from the angle of learner interlanguage. This term was coined by an American Linguist, Larry Selinker (1971: 32) in reference to an immediate grammar, or linguistic system created by learners acquiring an L2. In other words, it refers to a continuum between the native (L1) and the target (L2) language (Selinker, *Ibid.*). Selinker defined it as a "psychological structure" which is hidden in the brain, which is only activated when one attempts to learn a second language" (Selinker, *Ibid.,* 33).

According to Selinker (*Ibid.*), there exists five central processes belonging to this hidden psychological structure which affect second language learning, namely: language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication, and overgeneralization of target language linguistic material. He argued that the mastery of a second language largely depends on the degree of *fossilization* of linguistic items, rules, and subsystems in learner interlanguage.

Although Selinker (1971) coined the term "interlanguage" (IL), it was Corder (1967) who is considered responsible for raising issues which became central to studies of **IL**. Building on ideas already explored by other scholars, Corder (1967 : 143) suggested that there was structure

in learner language, and that certain inferences could be made about the learning process by describing successive states of the learner language, noting the changes and correlating this with the input.

Further, Corder (1967, *Ibid.*) argued that the appearance of errors in a learners' production was evidence that learners were organising the knowledge available to them at a particular point in time. Errors, he stated, were the most important source of information, accounting for the fact that learners have a 'built in syllabus' and that a process of hypothesis formulation and reformulation was continuously occurring (*Ibid.*). Due to Corder's intervention, the value of error-making in language learning was consequently reassessed. It led to a move away from seeing error as a purely negative phenomenon to a valuable tool in the classroom for teachers and researchers. Consequently,various taxonomies were devised to account for certain types of errors (Dulay and Burt, 1974 : 24). Also, it was suggested that spoken and written texts produced different kinds of errors, that there were differences between grammatical and lexical errors, that it was possible to construct a gradation of serious and less serious errors (*Ibid.)*.

In short, language learning began to be seen as a process which involved the construction of an **IL**, a 'transitional competence' reflecting the dynamic nature of the learner's developing system. As a result of the variety of errors and the difficulty associated with interpreting them, Corder proposed a 'general law' for **EA** and **IL**. He suggested that every learner sentence should be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwise (Corder, 1981 : 84). This is an important concept to bear in mind since it emphasises the fact that **IL** is a personal construction and

process. It may be true to say that certain tendencies are typical of certain learners from the same linguistic background, however, it is doubtful to say that all learners from that background have such tendencies. As Lott (1983 : 23) notes, for the analysis of interlanguage processes, group knowledge is, absolutely, of no importance. It is the learner's own autonomous and functional knowledge and his own certainty or uncertainty which determines his interlanguage behaviour.

3.2.4 Error Analysis Approach (EAA) to SLA

According to Corder (1967) error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that looks at the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison between the errors made in the Target Language (TL) and the TL itself. Pit Corder (1967) is considered to be the "founding Father" of EAA. The advent of his article "The significance of Learner Errors" (1967) brought new life to EAA. Before that, errors were considered to be something negative that needed to be eradicated. He presented a completely different point of view. According to him, errors are "important in and of themselves" (Ibid).

It is Chomsky's nativist theory that paved the way for Error Analysis. Thereafter, it became possible for Corder to point out "...that some, at least, of the strategies adopted by the learner of a second language are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired" (Corder, 1953: 259). However, Corder made a distinction between learner mistakes and errors. By mistakes he understood "the selection of the wrong style, dialect or variety" whereas learner

errors "result in unacceptable utterances and appear as violations of the code" (Corder, *Ibid.*).

3.2.4.1 The Objectives of Error Analysis

Error Analysis has two objectives (Corder, 1974: 56) namely: theoretical and applied. The theoretical objective is to explicate what and how a learner learns when he/she studies a second language. The applied objective, conversely, serves to enable the learner learn more efficiently by exploiting the knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes (*Ibid).* However, This particular study is purely theoretical because the applied part is beyond the competence of the author.

Further, the investigation of errors can both be diagnostic and prognostic. It is diagnostic when it reveals the learner's state of the language (Corder : 1967) at a given point during the learning process. It is prognostic when it tells course organizers to reorient language learning on the basis of the learners' current problems (*Ibid.*). However, this dissertation limits itself to the diagnostic perspective.

3.2.4.2 Approaches to Error Analysis

There are two approaches to Error Analysis, namely, etiological and descriptive (Corder, 1971: 221). Etiological approach aims at knowing the source of error. That means, it targets linguistic interference (*Ibid.*), for instance L1-L2 Interference. On the other hand, descriptive approach aims at describing the errors and how they affect the communication proccess (*Ibid.*). Therefore, for the sake of this study, both etiological and descriptive approaches were applied owing to the

fact that it was aimed at knowing the source of errors as well as describing them (*Ibid.*).

3.2.4.3 Description of Errors

The description of errors aims at establishing how an error affects the communication proccess (*Ibid.*). Therefore, errors can be described according to the following themes:

Omission: such type of errors can be committed due to the absence of a word or a morpheme. For instance, « Je n'aime **pas** Kasama » (I do not like Kasama). The omission of the negation "**pas**" could lead to unacceptable utterances.

Addition: Addition errors occur through the application of double grammatical marker. For example, «* Le premier **de** mai ». The first of May. The addition of the preposition **"de"** is an acceptable in such utterances.

Formation: wrong formation of a word. For instance, « Il nous a dit de nous **asseyer** » instead of "**asseoir**"

Distribution: Distribution can be experienced due to disarrangement of elements in a sentence due to linguistic interference. For instance, « Autres deux livres » instead of « Deux autres livres ».

In the sentence, above, the error has been committed due to failure to apply the right word order.

3.2.4.4 Sources of Errors

Learner errors can be categorized according to various criteria. Depending on the source, errors can either be *Interlingual or Intralingual* (*Ibid.*). Interlingual errors are said to occur due to L1

interference. That means they occur due to negative transfer form L1 or L2 structures to the target language (TL) (*Ibid.*). On the other hand, intralingual errors are committed regardless of L1 (Ibid). They are a result of inadequate knowledge of rules of a TL by the learner. These errors are found in all L2 learners regardless of their L1. Intralingual errors can be experienced in overgeneralizastion, simplification and induced errors (*Ibid.*).

One of the objectives of this study was to establish the levels of interference between interlingual and intralingual. Therefore, to arrive at this objective, the study investigated both interlingual and intralingual errors.

3.2.4.5 Categorisation of Errors

Errors can be categorized on the basis of the linguistic levels testifying to their manifestation. Interference can be experience, for instance, at grammatical, discourse, phonological and lexical levels.

Grammatical or morph syntactic errors stress the need for grammatical accuracy in both speech and writing (Lott, 1983: 59). Grammatical errors can also be classified into global and local errors. Local errors refer to individual elements, for instance morphology, or errors by erroneous construction. For example: « *Maison éditorielle* » instead of "*Maison editrice*" (Editorial House). On the other hand, global errors concern sentence structures, for instance, the erroneous choice of connectors. The result is often ambiguous sentences. For example, « J'en veux encore » instead of « J'en reveux » (*Ibid.*).

Additionally, discourse errors are dependable upon the observance of the rules of speaking and writing. They reflect learners' cultural and pragmatic knowledge of language use (*Ibid.*). Further, phonologically-induced errors are manifested in wrong pronunciation and/or intonation. Finally, lexical errors refer to errors committed due to the wrong choice or misuse of words (Beebe, 1988: 43). Although errors can be studied on the basis of different levels of language, this study was only interested in errors at grammatical level.

3.2.4.6 The Model of Error Analysis

Corder (1967 & 1974) identified a model for error analysis which included the following three stages:

Data collection: Recognition of idiosyncracy.

Description: Accounting for idiosyncratic dialect.

Explanation (the ultimate object of error analysis).

In addition, Brown (1994: 207-211) and Ellis (1995: 51-52) refined Corder's model. Particularly, they gave practical advice and clear examples on how to identify and analyze learner errors. They argued that the initial step requires the selection of a corpus of language followed by the identification of errors. Thereafter, errors are classified into categories. The last step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, demands an explanation of different types of errors (*Ibid.*).

Based on the topic under study, this particular study incorporated both Corder's Model of analysis as well as the refined version of Brown and Ellis.

3.2.4.7 Language Interference

Corder defines Linguistic interference as that which the learners carry over to or generalize in their knowledge about their native language (NL) to help them learn to use a target language (TL) (Corder, 1983: 84). Interference has attracted people of different academic backgrounds and led researchers to different interpretations and definitions of the term.

There are two possible ways o describing the term "interference" (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982). One is from a psychological perspective while the other is from a sociolinguistic perspective. The psychological perspective of language interference suggests that there is influence from old habits when new ones are being learned (*Ibid.*). On the other hand, the sociolinguistic perspective of language interference describes the language interactions which occur when two language communities are in contact. Three such examples are borrowing, codeswitching and fossilisation (*Ibid.*). Borrowing essentially means the incorporation of linguistic material from one language into another (*Ibid.*) whereas code switching describes the use of two language systems for communication, usually evidenced by a sudden, brief shift from one to another (*Ibid.*). Fossilisation, on the other hand, refers to relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's second language competence (*Ibid.*).

However, this study is in line with the psychological perspective of language interference because it is aimed at establishing the extent to which the old habits from L1 and L2 are transferable to L3.

3.2.5 « Interference » to Cross-Linguistic Influence (CLI)

There has been debate as to whether 'interference' is a valid concept for use in discussing language acquisition at all. Extremes range from Lado (1957) who proposed that second language learners rely almost entirely on their native language in the process of learning the target language, to Dulay and Burt (1974) who suggested that interference was largely unimportant in the creation of interlanguage.

As a result, Corder (1983) suggested the need for a word other than '*interference*'. He suggested the term '*Mother Tongue Influence'*. However, Sharwood Smith (1986) refined the idea further by suggesting another inclusive term, '*Cross Linguistic Influence'*. Smith argued that the term **CLI** is inclusive in the sense that it takes into account the potential influence of **L2** on **L3** where another learned language, but not the **L1** might have an effect on the learning of the **L3**. Also encompassed within the meaning of **CLI** is the notion of possible **L2** influence on **L1**.

Therefore, based on the context of our study where French is being learned as L3 after English (L2) the study decided to adopt Smiths's CLI in discussing language interference.

3.3 Emprical Studies in L1 and L2 Interference

Empirical studies to sort out the mother tongue influence on the learner's language were initiated by Newser (1971) who reported NL influences in the phonological productions of some immigrant workers in the States. Since then the studies relating to the process of language interference have received considerable attention in the literature both at the international and national scene. However, the debate on the question of language interference is not at all

conclusive. Researchers have held different points of view.

3.3.1 Arguments for L1 and L2 Interference

The proponents of language interference argue that interference can be experienced at all the linguistic levels, namely; phonological, lexical, grammatical and semantic. Following is a brief discussion of some of the studies done on the question of linguistic interference at different levels of language.

3.3.1.1 Phonological Interference

Phonological interference is manifested in speaking and reading and is usually indicated by recourse to word stress, intonation and speech sounds which are foreign to the target language (Lupande, *Ibid.*, 44). Working with phonological and phonetic data in the early 1960s, Nemser (1971) began talking about 'deviant' learner language. He wrote, for example, that learner speech at a given time is the patterned product of a linguistic system distinct from NL and TL and internally structured. He further (Nemser, *Ibid.*, 27) claimed that language learners' interlanguage owe phonological knowledge to L1 rules, L2 (first foreign language) rules, L3 (foreign language being studied) rules, and "interrules", the latter being described as "bridges" (between the already acquired languages and L3). Contributing to the study, Lupande (1994: 1), after discussing the phonological features of French and Bemba languages, argued that phonological interference occurs in the speech productions of Bemba speakers learning French because the phonological structures of the two languages (French and Bemba) are different.

3.3.1.2 Orthographic interference

Orthographic interference is manifested in writing. It involves alteration of the spelling of words under the influence of L1 or L2 (Bhela, *Ibid, 24.*). For instance, Adou (2004: 7), after investigating into Francophones learning English in Côte d'Ivoire, argued that francophones learning English tend to add an extra "-e" at the end of words such as *closenesse* instead of *closeness*, *groupe* instead of *group*, *seniore* instead of *senior*, *Greeke* instead of *Greek*. Additionally, the silent "e" might occur in a post-morphemic position, as in *postegraduate*. Further, the adoption of a French suffix such as *–ique, -eur,* and *–oire*, for example in such words as : *refrigeratoire* and *refrigerateur* instead of *refrigeration* are also experienced.

3.3.1.3 Lexical interference

Lexical interference is manifested in speaking and writing. It is represented by the borrowing of words from L1 or L2 to the target language (TL). Such words may or may not be converted to sound more natural in the target language (Bhela, *Ibid.*, 24). For instance, Diawara (2002: 44), after evaluating learner language in Mali, demonstrated that Francophone learners of English tend to use French words in order to fill in the existing gaps in their knowledge of English vocabulary. This is evidenced in the use of such words as : *Belgique* instead of *Belgium*, *chimie* instead of *chemistry*, *Refrigerateur Engineering* instead of *Refrigeration Engineering*, *physique* instead of *physics*.

Additionally, (Brown, 2000: 54) argues by adding that Danish learners of English resort to filling

gaps in their English vocabularly by using Danish words. For example, *historie* instead of the English word *story*. Another instance of lexical interference is the transfer of function words such as prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, and pronouns, which most often happens unintentionally. The Francophones under study tend to produce *et* instead of *and* and *par* instead of *per* or *for* (Diawara, *Ibid.*).

3.3.1.4 Grammatical interference

Grammatical (morphosyntactic) errors, stress the need for grammatical accuracy in both speech and writing (Bhela, *Ibid.*). For instance, L2 influences L3 in terms of word order, the use of pronouns and determiners, tense and mood. According to Traore (1988: 34), after conducting an investigation into grammatical errors committed by francophones learning English as their L3 argued that there are modifications to word order attributable to the influence of French. Such errors are often illustrated in the placement of adjectives after nouns in noun phrases. In French, most adjectives go after the word they modify. Such word order is not typical of English where few cliched phrases denoting diplomatic ranks feature nouns in the primary position. For instance, *ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary* (a representative of the head of state), *envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary* (a diplomatic representative with plenipotentiary powers ranking below an ambassador"), and *minister resident* ("the lowest rank of full diplomatic mission chief). Another instance is *court-martial* ("a military court for trials of armed forces personnel") (Traore: 36). Examples of unnatural noun-phrase word order in English are *chemistry inorganique* and *chemistry inorganic*, produced instead of *inorganic chemistry*, in the first case the final result being an odd interlanguage variant combining an English noun with

a French adjective (Traore, *Ibid.*).

In addition, Katongo (1981: 24) documented that the learner's NL played a certain role in the formation of second language syntax. Through his comparative study of French and Bemba pronominal systems (1981, *Ibid.*), he demonstrated that there is a firm relationship between L1(Bemba) interference and the emergence of structure in second language acquisition (L2). Therefore, Bemba speakers commit errors in the application of French pronominal systems because the pronominal systems of the two languages (Bemba and French) are different.

To supplement, after conducting Contrasting Analysis of time verbs between Tonga and French as well as an error analysis of Tonga speakers learning French language, Pasi (1978: 147) recorded inter-linguistic errors, with particular reference to the preponderating errors traced to the future and imperfect tenses of Tonga.

Further, Chishiba, (2006: 13) after his research into interference in the written discourse of High School Pupils learning French in Zambia, concluded that previous knowledge of the writing systems interfere with their written production in French. All these findings establish a strong firm ground to be able to understand that prior linguistic knowledge or L1 interferes with the learning of French in Zambia.

3.3.2. Arguments Against L1 Interference

Apparently, there is a concessus on the L2 interference on L3. However, the situation is different

for L1. Although there has been overwelming evidence of L1 interference as demonstrated earlier in the text, others have argued otherwise. For instance, Aito (1985: 24) conducted an Error Analysis of linguistic interference by secondary school students learning French in Esan – West Region in Nigeria. His study revealed that in spite of Esan (L1) being a dominant language in the region, it had no impact on the learning of written French of the learners. He attributed this result to the fact that Esan language had not been linguistically described at the time of the study. Therefore, the majority of errors were attributed to English (L2) (Aito, *Ibid.*).

In addition, Emordi (1985: 76) after the survey on the influence of Nigerian languages on the secondary school pupils learning French in Nigeria, argued that Nigerian languages played a neutral role in shaping learner language. Only English (L2) was found to have a major role in terms of interference. However, this conclusion provoked a number of researchers to doubt the outcome on grounds that the pupils were not proficient in English either. Therefore, their knowledge of English could not have a bearing on their written competence in French (*Ibid.*).

To supplement, Bialystok (1990: 37) after collecting the goofs from around the world concluded that mother tongues have no significant effect on the learners competence in French as they did not find that the majority of syntactic goofs were due to the native language syntax of the learner.

3.4 Summary of Literature

Although there appears to be no compromise in the foregoing discussion, there is enough research to prove that L1 plays a major role in shaping learner language. The native language is a

powerful factor in both second and third language acquisition (Corder, 1983: 148). This is explained by the fact that second language learning has many features in common with L1 acquisition, such as concept formation, acquisition of habits and skills and the working of the memory. Therefore, the single most important factor influencing language is what the learner already knows, namely, L1 (Ausubel, 1968: 40). This view is seconded by Brown (2000: 47) who wrote:

As in every other human learning experience, the L2 learner can make positive use of prior experiences to facilitate the process of learning by retaining that which is valid and valuable for second culture learning and second language learning. It is just the bath-water of interference that needs to be thrown out, not the baby of facilitation.

Therefore, instead of fighting against the mother tongue, one should make it an ally. It is impossible to remove the first language from the brain of the second/foreign language learner. One should just find a way of using it. Further, according to Beebe (1988: 23), in the first two stages of second language acquisition the semantic networks that underlie the cognitive schemeta are almost exclusively first language based. Therefore, consciously using existing knowledge in order to acquire new knowledge should facilitate the learning process, at least in adult language learners who are adept at using their cognitive skills in other areas.

3.5. Gaps in Available Literature

The review has shown that extensive research has been conducted concerning linguistic interferences both nationally and internationally. However, little is known about syntactic

interference from Bemba language in written discourse produced by the Bembas learning French in Lusaka province. Several small homogeneous samples have been studied, but few studies have done contrastive studies between Bemba and English to establish the levels of interference from the two Languages (French and Bemba) on the learners of French. Although similar studies have been conducted in other countries, the author avails of such studies in situating the reflection in the Zambian context.

3.6 Lessons learnt

A number of lessons have been learnt while conducting literature review. Following is a list of some of them :

3.6.1 Methodologies of Related Studies

It was realised during the review that most of the studies related to linguistic interference such as the following applied descriptive designs and error analysis approaches in their investigations:

> « *Une étude des aspets des difficultés phonétiques rencontrées par des elèves de la langue maternelle Bemba apprenant le Français a l'école se*condaire », by Lupande.
>
> «*Etude comparée du temps verbal en Français et en Tonga »,* by Pasi.
>
> "*Problèmes d'apprentissage du français par des étudiants nigérians »,* by Emordi.
>
> "*The problems of number for a Nigerian learner of French*", *Le français au Nigéria*, by Fagbul.

"*L'enseignement du français au Nigéria: contribution à une réflexion sur les finalités et les objectifs*" by Emordi.

"*Problèmes d'apprentissage de l'anglais par des étudiants ivoiriens*", by Adou.

«*Des erreurs grammaticales commises par des elèves Maliens apprenant l'Anglais au college au Mali* », By Traore.

Based on the fact that all the aforemetioned studies applied descriptive designs and Error Analysis in their investigation, the author decided to apply descriptive design as well as Error *Analysis* as demonstrated in chapter 4 of this dissertation.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed a number of studies that have been done, within and outside Zambia, on the question of language interference at different levels of the language, namely : phonological, orthographical , lexical and grammatical. Further, it has presented the summary of the literature and identified gaps in the available literature. It has also, highlighted lessons learnt by the author. The next chapter outlines the methodology that was applied in the study. Particularly, it presents findings based on the on the research questions that were raised at the begining of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.0 General

The previous chapter has reviewed a number of studies that have been done, within and outside Zambia on the question of language interference at different levels of the language, namely : phonological, orthographical, lexical and grammatical. Further, it has presented the summary of the literature and identified gaps in the available literature. It has also, highlighted lessons learnt by the author.

However, this particular chapter focused on the presentation of the methodology that was applied in this study. It presents the research design which was used, the population investigated, the sampling techniques, methods for collection and analyzing of data. Further, it has highlighted, the ethical considerations, the limitations of the study as well as precautions for the rigor of this particular research.

4.1 Research Design

The research design gives direction and systematizes the research (Locke *et al.,* 1987: 43). Therefore, adopting a particular type of research design is a matter of decision based on a number of factors namely; the research topic, the information needed, the feasibility of the study, reliability of the information, ethics as well as the cost. Locke *et al* (1987: 653) define a research design as "the overall plan for collecting and analysing data including specifications for enhancing the external and internal validity of the study".

In this particular study, the researcher applied Descriptive Survey Design. The purpose of descriptive design is to emphasise the description of a specific individual, situation, group interaction, or social objects. The principle is to present an accurate description of what is being studied (Locke *et al.*, 22). Therefore, this design is appropriate to our study because it was aimed at describing syntactic errors of Bemba high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province. Descriptive designs result in a description of the data, whether in words, pictures, charts, or tables, and whether the data analysis shows statistical relationships or is merely descriptive (*Ibid.*, 54). Therefore, this particular design was appropriate to our study because it was aimed at collecting qualitative data (learner errors) and then organise it into patterns through the use of visual aids such as graphs, charts and tables. Thus, no matter what method is chosen to collect the data, all descriptive designs have one thing in common: they provide descriptions of the variables in order to answer the question. There are two types of Descriptive designs, namely, exploratory and descriptive survey designs.

Descriptive survey designs try to answer questions concerning the relationships between or among variables *(Ibid.*, 657). That means the researcher knows what the variables are as well as how to measure them. Further, the variables in question have been studied before, either independently, or with other variables, so that there is sufficient information to ask a question about the relationship between them. Additionally, the researcher is able to relate these variables in his/her study to a concept or conceptual framework so that the study does build on previous work. The major consideration is accuracy in the measurement of the variables (*Ibid.)*.

Therefore, this research design fitted well with this particular study because it was not aimed at exploring variables. They were already known to the author, namely; L1 (Bemba) **L2** (English) and **L3** (French). Therefore, the study was only targeting to establish their relationship in shaping the written French of Bemba high school pupils of French (**L3**) which demanded for a descriptive design. Although this design did not guarantee us the establishment of absolute proof of causality of learner errors resulting from L1and L2 interference, it was assumed that extensive evidence to support causality would be accumulated. By showing that L1 and L2 interference with L3 are two variables preponderant in L3 syntactic errors, support grows for the theory that syntactic errors are caused by L1 and L2 interference.

4.2 Population and Sampling

4.2.1 Population

Locke *et al* (1987: 58) define a population as "the entire aggregation of cases that meet a designated set of criteria". The researcher considerd all high schools offering French language in Lusaka Province as eligible for inclusion in the study. Further, according to Locke *et al* (1987: 254), it is important when identifying a population to be specific about the inclusion criteria in the population. For this study, the participants had to :

- Be Zambians with Bemba Language as mother tongue.
- Know English as second language.
- Have started learning French in the Zambian context.

- Be Zambians studying French in formal instructions acquiring competence in all four skills (speaking, reading, listening and writing).
- Be exposed to French, on average, for 3 years. namely, grades; 10, 11 and 12. This choice was influenced by the assumption that, at these levels, pupils have acquired enough vocabulary to express themselves in every day French.
- Offer voluntary consent to participate in the study.

4.2.2 Sampling

Locke *et al* (1987: 64) refer to sampling as "the procces of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population". In this study, the researcher used Purposive Sampling technique to select respondents. This technique is used when sampling units have no equal chances of being chosen. Also, it is used due to lack of the sampling frame. However, this sampling technique does not give the population equal chances of representation hence does not allow for the generalisation of results.

Participant schools were purposively selected by virtue of ignorance of the sampling frame. This is explained by the fact that not all Schools in Lusaka Province are offering French. Further, some schools offer French that is not examinable. That means French is offered in clubs such as Lady Diana. Such schools are not on the list of schools offering French at the Examinations Council of Zambia. Therefore, the researcher only targeted schools that were judged able to provide the information relevant to this study.

4.3 Sources of Data

First, the written Texts and questionnaires from Bemba high school pupils Learning French in Lusaka Province were the author's major source of primary Data. Second, text books, research papers, the internet, newspapers and journals provided secondary data on the literature related to this study.

4.4 Types of Data

There are two types of data used in research, namely primary and secondary. Locke *et al* (*Ibid.*, 99) submit that "Primary data refer generally to information gathered or generated by the researcher for the purpose of the project at hand. These data are collected for the first time and the responsibility of processing it rests with the original investigator." In other words, primary data are data that have not been generated by anyone else before but the researcher. On the other hand, secondary data refers to data that has already been collected by other people and are readily available in processed form such as articles, reports, books and periodicals (*Ibid*).

Primary data can further be classified into qualitative and quantitative data depending on the approach used. Quantitative data are data that represent a quantity of some sort: how much, how many, and how big. These questions demand numerical responses (*Ibid.*). Quantitative data are in numerical form and can be analysed with ease. Methods of collecting quantitative data usually involve such techniques as: experiments, field measurements and surveys. On the other hand, Qualitative data provides an in-depth look at attitudes and opinions. Data such as these generally

provide answers to the "why" questions *(Ibid.)*. Qualitative data include interviews, focus group discussions and case studies as data collection techniques.

For this study, both primary and secondary data were used. Secondary data did not only provide the required deeper insight on related work but also provided information on gaps in related works, theories and models on the research area. Primary data was the source of the data specific to the project. This was the data that was required to answer the research questions that have been outlined in chapter two.

4.5 Data Collection Techniques

The researcher applied triangulation technique in data collection. Triangulation involves the conscious combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies as a powerful solution to strengthen a research design where the logic is based on the fact that a single method can never adequately solve the problem of rival causal factors (Denzin 1978; Patton 1990; De Vos 1998). This technique is used when a researcher wants to compare and contrast quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings or to validate or expand quantitative results with qualitative data (Morse, 1991: 22). This design was considered appropriate for this study because it was aimed at describing the types of syntactic errors committed by high school pupils as well as explaining their sources. Thus this technique was used to allow the researcher to come up with valid and well substantiated conclusions about the state of French Learners' language in Zambia.

In getting the above identified data, the reasearcher used two sets of data collecting instruments:

Questionnaires and written tests. These instrumensts, once developed were pre-tested and refined to ensure that they generated the required data. Adding to these instruments was desk review technique. The desk review technique was used to gather secondary data. It involved reviewing the number of published and unpublished secondary data for related ideas and contradictions. It also involved reviewing the research methodologies that other researchers have used and identifying gaps in the available literature. On the other hand, a questionnaire was used in the acquisition of primary data. A questionnaire is a list of questions used in a survey or census. This tool was suitable for our study due to the fact that the study required primary data from Bemba High School pupils of Lusaka Province. The questionnaire distributed to high school pupils was to scrutinise participants. They were aimed at determining languages known by individual learners in addition to their mother tongue. They were asked, for example, what languages they speak at home, with friends and languages they are able to write. The questionnaire was self administered in order to be in direct contact with the respondents. Also, to make sure that questions received appropriate responses as well as making sure that the right persons answered them.

However, before the actual research was conducted, a pilot research was conducted at Green Carpet School (Chawama) to test whether the questions were well phrased. Based on the results, readjustments were made particularly the question concerning the first language which was misunderstood by many.

A set of written tests was also conducted, in addition to questionnaires, to gather primary data

on the pupils writing. This was to allow the author to have data on the types of errors committed. The test consisted of two essay topics, namely *Ma famille* and *Ma classe*. Students were free to write on any of the two topics they felt comfortable with. The length of the essay was supposed to be between 50 and 100 words. Essay type of questions were used to give more room to self expression than multiple choice questions can do. Also, this way pupils were able to use their own vocabulary and structure their own sentences. Further, questions were diversified so that a variety of information from different topics was gathered. Written tests were given to them partially in cognizance of Chomsky's (1975: 13) argument that language is the picture of the mind. In this regard, written errors can provide a better understanding of the learners progress and the impact of interference on the learner language.

These texts were written during normal classes and supervised by the regular teachers. After correcting the scripts and categorizing the errors in consultation with the regular high school teachers of French, four broad categories of syntactic errors emerged, namely; agreement, sentence structure, word order and coordination.

4.6 Data Processing and Analysis

Locke *et al* (*Ibid.*,178) refers to data analysis as describing the data in meaningful terms. Data analyis requires researchers to be comfortable with developing categories and making comparisons. Researchers must be open to the possibility of seeing contradictory or alternative explanations.

There are two ways to analyse the data; namely quantitative and qualitative analyses. Quantitative analysis tries to demonstrate numerical relationship between different variables (*Ibid.*). These data are often best presented in the form of graphs, as it is far easier to assimilate this type of information visually. On the other hand, qualitative data can be particularly useful when used in conjunction with the quantitative analysis on the same subject. Qualitative data often provide important insights into why a phenomenon is occurring (*Ibid.)*.

For this particular study, the data was analyzed using triangulation. The standard meaning of triangulation in research is the strengthening of both qualitative and quantitative analyses by combining insights from qualitative and quantitative methods (*Ibid.*). Specifically, the researcher used Descriptive Statistics and Content Analysis. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Together with simple graphics analysis, they form the basis of virtually every quantitative analysis of data. Descriptive Statistics are used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form (*Ibid.*,179). This technique was appropriate to our study due to the fact that this particular study was a comparative one that needed visual presentation of data to easy comparative work. The analysis exercise was done with the help of computer software known as Excel.

Additionally, frequency counts only served as a useful starting point for data analysis by describing the findings. However, in order to establish the connection between variables or relationship between variables, the researcher applied bivariate analysis. Bivariate analysis is

concerned with the relationships between pairs of variables (X, Y) in a data set. The following data analysis situations can be visualized, depending on the measurement levels of variables and whether there is any distinction between dependent and independent variables as demontrated in the fifth chapter of this dissertation. In addition, since the study was on error analysis, frequency count was practiced in line with the three stages of Corder's Model of Error Analysis, namely; Recognition of errors, accounting for errors and explanation of errors.

On the other hand, qualitative data was analysed using content analysis method. Content analysis is a data analysis technique in qualitative research. It is used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts or sets of texts. Thereafter the researcher quantifies and analyzes the presence, meanings and relationships of such words and concepts, then makes inferences about the messages within the texts. Texts can be defined broadly as books, essays, interviews, discussions, newspaper headlines and articles, historical documents, speeches, conversations, advertising, thereafter, informal conversation, or really any occurrence of communicative language (Morse, 1991: 130). This technique was appropriate to our analysis because questionnaires were used to gather qualitative data concerning the background of the respondents, particularly, their linguistic situation.

This triangulation approach was appropriate to this study because the data was equally collected using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Particularly, questionnaires and written texts were used. As the data collected were both qualitative and quantitative, the methods of analysis of these data were, equally, both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data were entered in a

Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet. Data from questionnaires and texts were coded to facilitate the analysis and the results were presented on figures and diagrams. This was used to perform a comparative analysis among different languages and different syntactic errors. Notes from identified errors were organized and counterchecked for emerging themes and then coded using different highlighters. All the coded notes of each category of syntactic error were then arranged by themes and thereafter, a rigorous interpretation was performed by looking at the consistence and discrepancies of notes from all the written texts in each theme. After doing this, the analyst then looked at the levels of interference from different languages.

4.7 Ethical Considerations

According to Wiersma (1995: 38), ethical considerations mean that the reseacher must carry out the research competently, manage resources honestly, acknowledge fairly those who contributed guidance or assistance, communicate results accurately, and consider the consequencies of the research for society.

In this study, the researcher obtained permission from the selected high school authorities and the pupils themselves to conduct the study. The researcher obtained the participants informed consent to voluntarilly participate in the study. The researcher explained the purpose and significance of the study to the participants and assured them of their right to fair treatment, anonymity and confidentiality, protection from disconfort and harm and privacy would be respected.

4.8 Validity

To ensure validity and reliability of the study, the researcher used Wiersma's model for trustworthness (Wiersma, 1995: 235). The model for validity consists of credibility, triangulation, researcher credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability.

According to Wiersma (1995: 235), credibility refers to confidence in the truth of data. This was assured by the researcher's spending considerable time going round the schools to collect data as well as going through the texts several times and giving the regular teachers to go through the texts for a second opinion.

Another technique to enhance credibility is the use of triangulation (Locke *et al.*,1987: 313). This was assured by the application of triangulation methods both in collecting and analysing data, namely, qualitative and quantitative methods. Further, the researcher's credibility also matters in the establishment of confidence in the data. This refers to the faith that can be put in the researcher's experience. This was assured by the preparation of tools in consultation with the researcher's supervisor who has more experience than the researcher himself.

In addition, dependability also enhances validity. Dependability refers to data stability. It involves using the same conditions and same data by independent researchers to repricate the research findings (Locke *et al*: 235). The researcher assured this by not inventing anything new. Particularly, the methodology and the techniques that were used for data collection were those that have been used in other researches and have yielded reliable results.

On the other hand, confirmability is another factor leading to validity. Confirmability refers to the objectivity of the research data such that two or more independent people would agree about data relevance or meaning (*Ibid.,* 235). In this study, the correction of essays was done in collaboration with the regular teachers of the same pupils. In other words, the essays were marked twice, by the teachers and by the researcher himself to confirm the caracteristics of the data.

Finally, transferability adds to validity. This refers to the extent to which findings can be transfered to another setting and generalised (Locke *et al.*, 1987: 235). As mentioned earlier, the generalisation of this study should be done with caution due to the fact that the sampling technique used advises so.

4.9 Limitations of the Study

The study was based on an observation of 80 Bemba high school pupils (Grades 10, 11 and 12) L3 language (French) learners and an analysis of each of their writing tasks in the classroom. As

such, the sample involved was small and there was only one Zambian language, Bemba, representing all the 72 others. Therefore, the fact that the sample was small makes generalisations for all L3 language learners to be made with caution. The value of this study is, paradoxically, its "generalisability" to a similar set of circumstances for the type of learners indentified in the study. It is generalisable to theoretical propositions and not to populations.

Further, lack of sampling frame constituted another limitation. This was due to the fact that some of the schools appearing on the official list at the Provincial Head Quarters of the Ministry of Education as offering French have actually abandoned the programme. For instance, Kabulonga Girls High School has replaced the programme with Civic Education. Therefore, the researcher opted for a samplig technique which could help acquire pertinent information. Thus, purposive sampling, a non probability sampling technique was applied. However, this technique demands generalisations of the study results to be done with caution.

Also, the study did not involve rigorous statistical error analysis to test the full impact of L1 and L2 interference on L3 (French). Instead, the study was limited to syntactic errors and did rely only on the written productions to identify errors. As a result, the study did not attribute, with 100% degree of confidence to all the measured impacts of L1 and L2 interference. This is due to the fact that the errors discovered in the written samples of the pupils cannot represent the real error situation of Bemba high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province. For instance, it was difficult, to capture those errors relating to comprehension competence due to L1 and L2 interference. Therefore, the study would have been holistic had it included errors from other

aspects of the language such as phonology, morphology, and lexicology. However, these were not measured due to limited required to measure them.

Additionally, the fact that the study was limited to Lusaka Province, is another limitation. That means the findings are limited to this particular study. In other words, errors committed by high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province cannot serve a basis to account for all syntactic errors committed by high school pupils countrywide.

Finally, the level of interference from all Zambian languages could not be measured. That means the analysis was limited to one language, namely; Bemba. The reasons for choosing Bemba language as the only language of reference were twofold. First, it is the only language in which the author is competent. Second, the fact that all Zambian Languages are Bantu, there is a high probability that they have a lot of grammatical resemblances with the other languages. Therefore, due to the aforementioned limitations the authors put forward a number of recommendations for the way forward in the last chapter of this particular dissertation.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the research design and methodology which served as a backbone of this particular study. Particularly, it has highlighted the population investigated, the sampling techniques, methods for collection and analyzing of data. Further, it has discussed, the ethical considerations, the limitations of the study and precautions for the rigor of this particular research. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.0 General

The previous chapter has presented the research design and methodology which served as a backbone of this particular study. Particularly, it has highlighted the population investigated, the sampling techniques, methods for collection and analyzing of data. Further, it has discussed, the ethical considerations, the limitations of the study as well as precautions for the rigor of this particular research.

However, this particular chapter presents the findings of the study according to the research questions at the centre of this particular study. That means it changes raw data into meaninful information based on the research questions stated in 1.4 of chapter one of this particular dissertation.

5.1 Specific Findings

A total of 80 pupils with Bemba as their mother tongue participated in the study. These pupils were picked from 10 high schools of Lusaka. The table below shows the details of schools as well as the number of participants.

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5.1 Specific Findings

A total of 80 pupils with Bemba as their mother tongue participated in the study. These pupils were picked from 10 high schools of Lusaka. The table below shows the details of schools as well as the number of participants.

Table 3: List of participating Schools and The Number Of Participants

Name of School	Public/Private	Number of Participants
Namununga	Private	3
Lady Diana	Private	6
Chikweya Trust	Private	7
Matero Girls'	Public	13
Arakan	Public	10
David Kaunda	Public	8
St. Mary's	Private	8
Kabulonga Boys'	Public	10
Munali Boys'	Public	10
Lusaka High School	Public	5

Participants were given a task to write an essay ranging between 50 and 100 words in French on any one of the following topics:

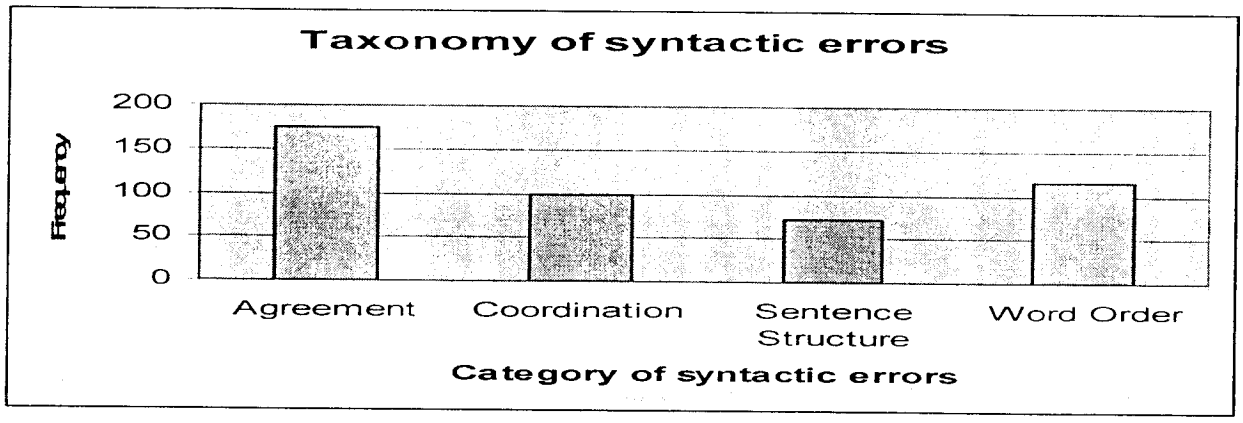
Ma Famille (My Family).

Ma Classe (My Class).

5.1.1 Error Taxonomy

According to Corder (1974: 132), a single word may show more than one error and appear, therefore, in more than one list. Additionally, the appearance of L1-like features in IL does not neccesarily represent proof of L1 influence. Therefore, the interpretations of the sources of errors is approached in an open manner. The total impact of L1-L2 interference on the learners of French in Lusaka Province is very hard to measure, especially in a metropolitan set up like Lusaka. Sources can come from different sources apart from L1 or L2.

Figure 2: Taxonomy of Syntactic Errors and their Frequency

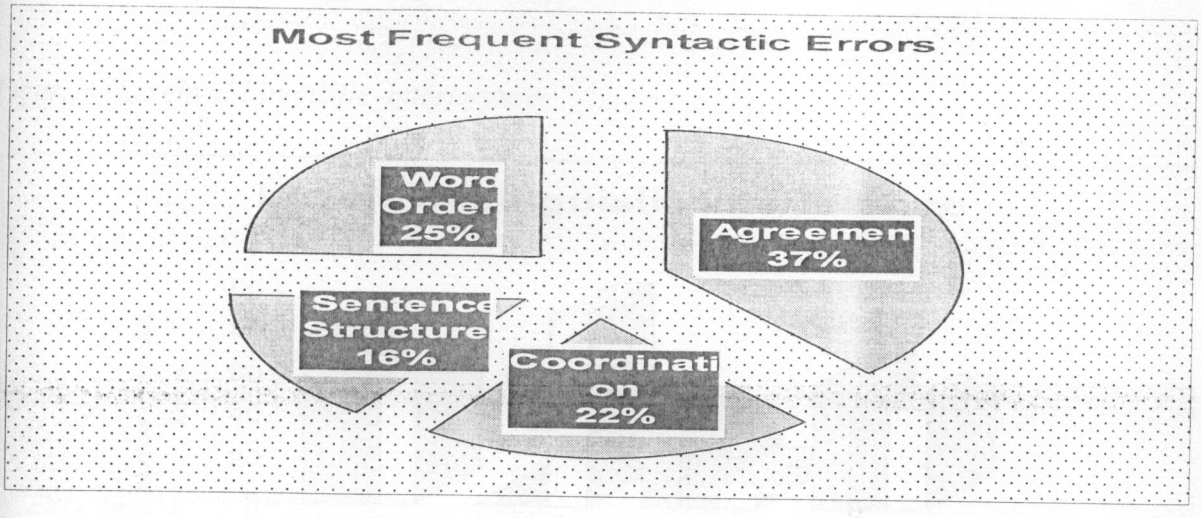


A total of 460 syntactic errors were discovered from 80 scripts. These errors were grouped into four categories namely; (1) Agreement, (2) cordination, (3) sentence structure and (4) word order. According to the graph above, agreement errors were 174 (37%), coordination errors 99 (22%), sentence structure errors 72 (16%), word order 115 (25%). For details please refer to table 2 of the appendices.

5.2 Most Frequent Syntactic Errors

The findings of this particular study have shown that *agreement* errors followed by *word order* errors are the most frequent syntactic errors in the written texts of Bemba speakers learning French in the high schools of Lusaka Province.

Figure 3: Most Frequent Syntactic Errors



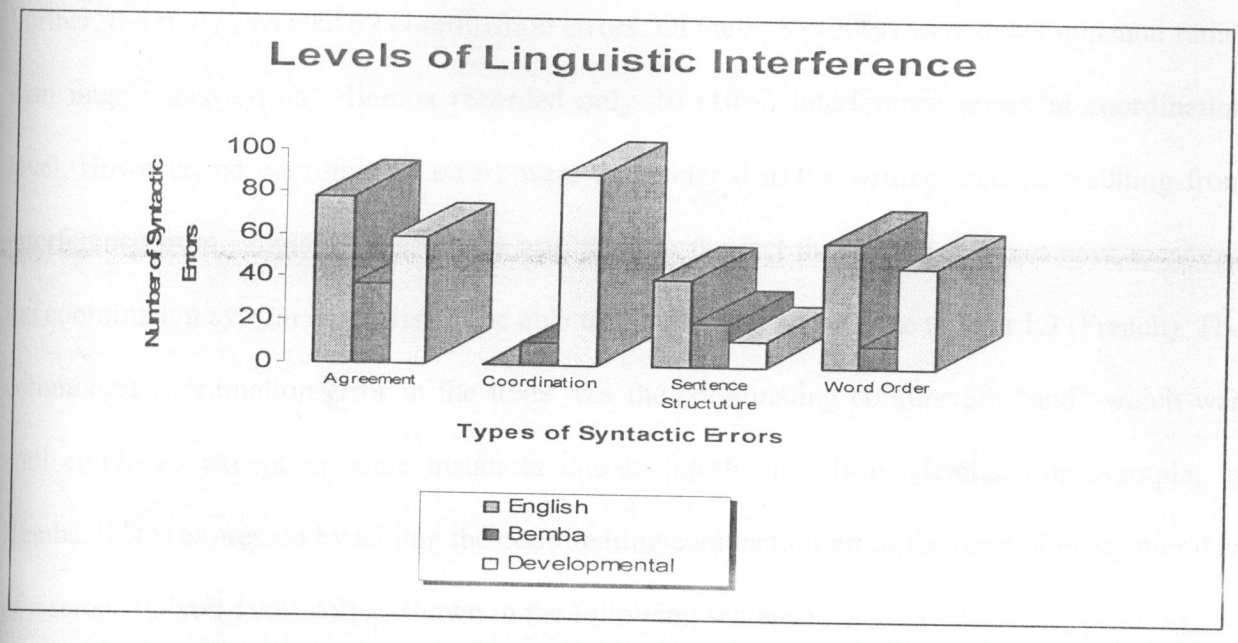
According to the diagram above, *agreement* (37%) were found to be the most frequent errors in the written texts followed by *word order* (29%) whereas *coordination* (22%) and *sentence structure errors* (16%) were found to be less frequent. Agreement errors are found to be the syntactic errors that occur most in the written texts of high school pupils learning French in Lusaka province because of the influence from English and Bemba languages where, for example, the question of agreement in gender, number and person between the noun and the determiner, and between the NP (Subj) and the VP (Predicate) exist only in certain cases. However, in French, the question of aforementioned agreements are obligatory. Otherwise the sentence would be unacceptable (Ivan, 1999: 85).

5.3 Levels of Linguistic Interference

The study has revealed that L3 (French) suffers interference from both languages (L1 and L2). However, the levels of interferences differ from one language to the other. Following is a graph

showing different levels of interference.

Figure 4: Levels of Linguistic interference.



According to the figure above, of the total 460 Syntactic Errors, 200 (44%) were developmental or intralingual rather than interference errors, 173 (38%) resulted from interference from English (L2) alone. Only 87 (18%), errors resulted from interference from Bemba. This demonstrates that English plays a very cardinal role in shaping the learner language.

On the other hand, Bemba Language plays almost a neutral role in the syntactic errors encountered in the written texts of Bemba High School pupils learning French in Lusaka Province. However, within different categories of errors, different languages interfered at different levels. For instance, English recorded the highest level of interference amounting to 78

(44%) at the level of agreement whereas Bemba recorded only 37 (21%). The rest 59 (34%) were developmental rather than interference errors.

Further, the study revealed 99 coordination errors. Of these, 89 (90%) were developmental rather than interference errors. Bemba recorded only 10 (10%) interference errors at coordination level. However, no coordination errors were encountered in the written texts as resulting from interference from English. This may be attributed to the fact that pupils may not have mastered the coordination system in English to be able to transfer that knowledge to their L3 (French). The commonest coordination error in the texts was the coordinating conjunction "and" which was well employed except in some instances due to interference from Bemba. For example, in Bemba, this is expressed by adding the coordinating conjunction ***na*** to the head of every member of a series (Givon,1969: 50) as shown in the following sentence:

Na ciba ***na*** *ba mayo,* ***na****ba yama* ***na****ba taata* **na** *nkashi yandi.* (I was with my mother and my uncle, my father and my sister).

J étais avec ma mère ***et*** *mon oncle* ***et*** *mon père et ma soeur.*

On the contrary, in French and English, the coordination conjunction "and" is placed before the last element in a series. Therefore, the appropriate way would have been as follows:

J étais avec ma mère, mon oncle, mon père et ma soeur.

On the other hand, out of the 72 sentence structure related errors, 12 (15%) were due to intralingual sources rather than interference whereas English recorded 40 (48%). Further, Bemba recorded 30 (37%) only. English, once again, dominated in terms of interference at the level of

sentence construction. This state of affairs can be attributed to the fact that pupils use English more than Bemba in their daily activities. Therefore, it is not surprising that English system of constructing sentences interferes with their written French.

Finally, a total of 115 (17%) errors were related to word order. This category was predominantly interfered with by English where a total of 58 (50%) were revealed to have resulted from its interference. Further, 47 (41%) were developmental while 10 (9%) were due to the interference from Bemba. English has recorded the highest level of interference in terms of word order due to the fact that even though the two languages have the same language structure (SVO), they differ a great deal when it comes to topicalisation and the place of the object pronoun. Thus, a bigger number of interference was recorded from English. However, Bemba recorded the lowest at this level due to the fact that the place of the object pronoun in French and in Bemba is the same. For instance:

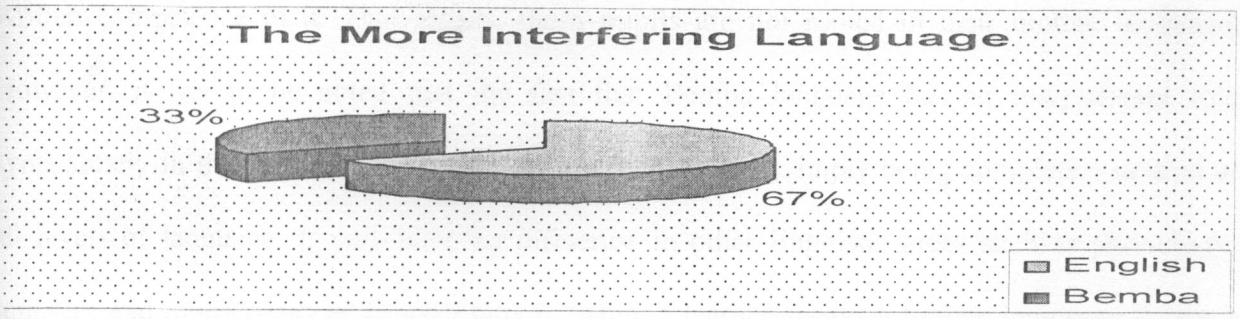
Nali	***ku***	*temwa (Literally: I you love)*
Je	***t'***	*aime (Literally: I you love)*
SUB(PRO)	OBJ (PRO)	V

Based on the similarity of the place of the object pronoun, as aforedemonstrated, possibly, positive transfer may have occurred leading to acceptable constructions (Givon: 56).

5.4. More Interfering language

Studies have revealed that English (L2) is the more interfering Language in the written texts of Bemba Speakers learning French in the high schools of Lusaka Province.

Figure 5: The More Interfering Language



According to the diagram above, of the 260 errors due to interference, 173 (67%) errors were due to interference from English whereas Bemba recorded only 87 (33%). Therefore, compared to the Bemba language, English is the more interfering language in the written texts of high school pupils learnimg French in Lusaka province. Therefore, its role is cardinal in shaping the learner language. This revelation supplements Emordi's findings who, after investigating the influence of nigerian languages on the learners of French, concluded that English, rather than Nigerian languages plays a neutral role in shaping learner language of Nigerians learning French in Nigeria (1986: 89). However, his conclusions were considered to be dubious because of the incompentence of the same learners in English. However, in this particular study, the findings are not surprising because English has long been, for the Zambian population the high status language of education, public life and commerce and therefore opportunity (Ouane, 2003: 123).

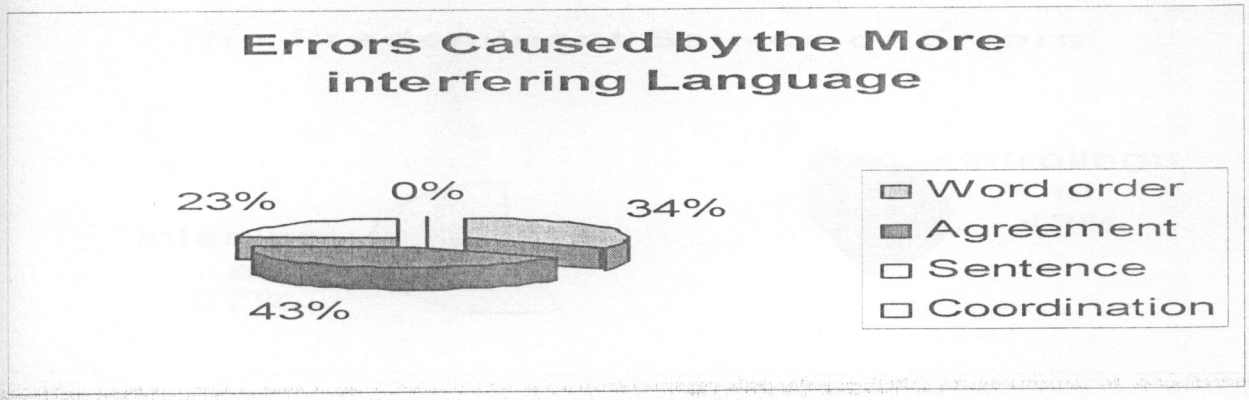
In addition, some families have interchanged languages, English has become as their first language then their mother language as their second language. In other words, they start by learning how to write in English then in their mother language later. In some instances, children learn both the mother language and English concomitantly, making it difficult for a child to

master any language. Therefore, most pupils are able to speak Bemba language but have no written competence in it. That means, these pupils are not rooted in their mother language. However, it has to be noted that the fact that Bemba language has an insignificant role syntactically in the learners of French does not neccessarilly imply being completely neutral at all levels of language. It may have an influence in other linguistic areas such as phonology, sematics and morphology as Emordi puts it "when a learner speaks a foreign language, it is not unexpected that phonetic, phonological, melodic, syntactical and other traits become evident" (1986: 116). On the other hand, the fact that English is the more interfering language in the written tests of Bemba high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province does not necessarily mean that these pupils have a sound proficiency in the English language. One can *make a grammatically well-formed sentence, in English but semantically bizarre (Emordi, Ibid.).*

5.5 Syntactic Errors Caused by interference from English

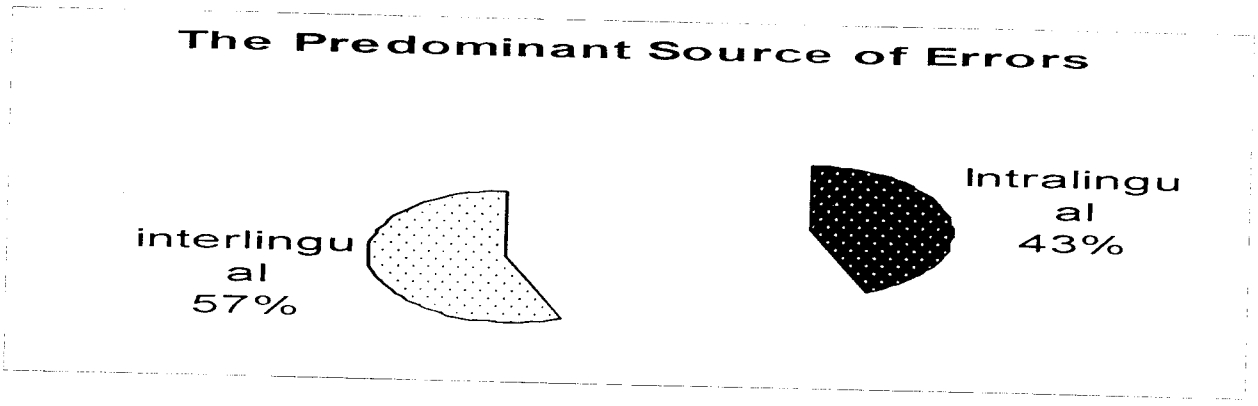
The study has revealed that syntactic errors caused by English as the more interfering language include: agreement, sentence structure and word order errors. However, no syntactic errors were recorded at the level of coordination; this may be due to the fact that pupils have not yet mastered most of the coordinating element in English. The only element found was "et" *(and)* which was well applied in most cases.

Figure 6: Syntactic Errors Caused by English (More interfering language)



The diagram above shows that of the 173 syntactic errors that are caused by English as the more interfering language, agreement errors (43%) were the most prevalent, followed by word order errors (34%) and sentence structure errors (23%). Word order errors were experienced due to transfer of certain English construction on to the target language (French). On the other hand, more agreement errors were recorded due to interference from English where the question of gender agreement does not exist, except for the pronoun of the third person singular. In French,on the contrary, the determiner and the noun have to agree in gender, number and person (Wilson, 1971: 23).

Figure 7: The Predominant Source of Errors



According to the figure above, out of the total of 460 Syntactic Errors that were encounterd in the written texts of Bemba high school pupils, only 200 (43%) errors were considered to be developmental or intralingual rather than interference errors. Therefore, the remaining 260 (57%) errors, both from English and Bemba Languages, were considered to have resulted from interference. This outcome can be attributed to the fact that many pupils learn French just as a subject in the same manner as history and geography not as a language. Language has two interface: Theory and practice. Therefore, the absence of any of the two leads to gaps in the learner's proficience. In fact, none of the participants mentioned anything like using French either at home or with friends, how can they master it? Therefore, the structure of the language they use most (English) is what is transferred on French.

5.6 Interpretation of The Findings

The interpretation offers possible causes of errors that were encountered in the study, namely: agreement, sentence structure, word order and coordination.

5.6.1 Agreemet Errors

These types of errors were manifested in the pupils' inability to master co-occurrence restrictions in French. For instance, certain determiners co-occur only with some nouns of a particular number, person and gender. However, the following constructions have violated this rule in one way or the other (Ivan, 1999: 85).

5.6.1.1 Gender

Grammatical gender is a noun class system, composed of two or three classes, whose nouns that have human male and female referents tend to be in separate classes. Other nouns that are classified in the same way in the language may not be classed by any correlation with natural sex distinctions. If a language distinguishes between masculine and feminine gender, for instance, then each noun belongs to one of those two genders; in order to correctly decline any noun and any modifier or other type of word affecting that noun, one must identify whether the noun is feminine or masculine (Ivan, *Ibid.,* 44).

**Mon* *cousine .*

Det (MAS,SG) *N (FEM).*

The determiner does not agree with the noun in terms of gender

**Ma* *papa*

Det (FEM,SG) (MAS, SG).

The gender of the determiner does not agree with that of the noun

** Mon* *sœur*

Det (MAS, SG) N(FEM,SG).

The determiner (MAS) does not agree with the noun (FEM)

**Un sœur*

Det (MAS,SG) N(FEM,SG).

The determiner does not agree with the noun in terms of Gender

**Tous les personnes dans ma classe*

Det(MAS,PL) N(PL) PREP DET(FEM,SG) N(FEM, SG).

The determiner does not agree with the noun in terms of gender.

**Une table noir*

Det (FEM,SG) N(FEM,SG) ADJ(MAS,SG)

The noun does not agree with the adjective in terms of gender.

**Un dame*

Det (MAS,SG) N(FEM,SG).

The determiner does not agree with the grammatical gender of the noun.

**Beacoup de gens intéressante*

Det(PL) N (MAS Pl) Adj (FEM, SG).

The noun « *gens* » does not agree with the gender of the adjective. *« interessante »*

**Nous sommes de mères differents*

SUB V(FIN,PL) PREP N(FEM, PL) ADJ(MAS,PL).

There is no grammatical gender agreement between the noun(FEM) and the adjective (MAS)

**Nous sommes toutes différents.*

SUB(PL) V(FIN,PL) DET(FEM,PL) ADJ (MAS,PL).

The pronoun « *toutes* » does not agree with the adjective « *differents* » in terms of gender.

All the NP listed above are grammatically correct but unacceptable in French. The problem with the foregoing examples is that they have violated the co-occurrence restrictions. In French, the determiner is supposed to agree with the Head of the NP in gender, person and number (Scarlyn, 1971: 24). These errors can be a result of a number of reasons. First, it may be due to the fact that the pupils have not yet mastered the rules of concordance. Second, the pupil's negligence or interference from English where the grammatical gender, person and number of the determiner does not necessarily need to agree with the gender of the Head of the NP(Ivan and Thomas,1999: 30). English is primarily based on natural gender. English has no live productive gender markers. The English nouns that inflect for gender are a very small minority, typically loanwords from non Germanic languages. For instance, the suffix *ress* in the word *actress* derives from Latin –rix via French-*rice* (Ivan, *Ibid.*). However, the third person singular forms of the personal pronouns are the only modifiers that inflect according to gender.

On the other hand, these errors can also be attributed to Bemba language where the feature of gender and plurality are inherent features of nouns. In fact the feature plurality is an optional feature of the NP generated by the syntactic base rules. What is traditionaly refered to in bantu linguistics as « Noun Class » is the combination of these two features (Givon, 1969: 76).

5.6.1.2 Number

**Beaucoup de personne voudrais être avocat.*

Spec(PL) *N(SG)*

The quantifier «*beacoup de* » is already in plural form. Therefore, it is supposed to agree in number with the noun « *personne* » . This can be attributed to the lack of mastering of the agreement rules.

**Mon* *frères.*

Det (SG) N (PL)

No concord between the determiner "*mon*" (SG) and noun (PL).

**J* *'ai* *un* *frères.*

SUB (SG) V (FIN) DET (SG) N(PL).

The determiner "*un*" (SG) does not agree in numberr with the noun (PL)

**Deux* *sœur.*

DET (PL) N (SG)

The determiner "*deux*" does not agree in number (PL) with the noun (SG).

**Mes* *frère.*

Det (PL) *N(SG)*

The determiner "*mes*" (PL) does not agree with the noun (SG).

5.6.1.3 Subject –Verb Agreement

Such errors expose the learners inability to comprehend French grammar which stipulates that the AGR values of VPs and their subjects must agree in number, person and Gender. However, the following constructions have violated this rule in one way or the other (Ivan, *Ibid.*).

*Ma famille est très amusant.

NP (FEM, SG) VP(FIN, PRE) ADJ (MAS, SG).

There is no gender agreement between the subject (FEM) and the VP (MAS). In English gender agreement between the noun and an adjective does not exist (Ivan, *Ibid.*).

*Je vivre avec mon oncle.

SUB(SG) V(INF) PREP DET(SG,MAS) N (SG,MAS).

The error in this sentence is caused by the verb « *vivre* » which has remained in the infinitive instead of being conjugated to the simple present tense. This can be attributed to the interference from Bemba where only the subject changes but the verb remains in the infinitive except for certain tenses such as the simple past where the ending of the verb changes in accordance with the tense (Pasi :138). For intance, in the folling expressions:

Nji- ***kala*** *naba yama.*(I stay with my uncle).

E- ***kala*** *naba yama.* (He/she stays with my uncle).

Twi- ***kala*** *naba yama.* (We stay with our uncle).

Be- ***kala*** *naba yama.*(They stay with my uncle).

SUB- VEB(INF) PREP OBJ.

The verb ***Kala*** in the present tense is unchanged to suit the gender, person and number. The verb remains unchanged when expressing the simple present tense.

*Ma famille aller à l'Eglise SDA

SUB (FEM,SG) V(INF) PREP N(FEM,SG)

Such types of errors can be attributed to interference from mother language or lack of comprehesion of the rules of conjugation. In Bemba, the present tense is conjugated with the

verb in the infinitive (Givon:Ibid) as in:

*Nous etre six

SUB(PL) V (Inf) OBJ

This type of error can be attributed to Bemba language where the present tense is conjugated with the verb in the infinitive.

*Mes deux sœurs s'appelles.

Spec (PL) N (FEM,PL) VP (SG).

There is no concordance between the subject (NP) and the verb (VP). This can be attributed to lack of mastering of conjugation rules in French.

*Je suis naitre

SUB V(FIN,PRES,SG) N

The error in the sentence above is due to lack of concordance between the subject and the verb. This can be explained, partly by lack of mastering of French conjugation by the learner.

*Il aime vont

SUB V (FIN, 3RD PER,SG) V(FIN,3RD PER, PL)

In the sentence above, there is no agreement between the two verbs "*aime*" and "*vont*". The second verb "*vont*" was supposed to be in the infinitive "*aller*" because, in French, only one conjugated verb is applied in a simple sentence,except in a compound sentence.

However, such types of errors, as noticed in the previous sentence, can either be a developmental or interference error. It can be developmental in the sense that a pupil can commit such an error due to the incomprehesion of the rules of French conjugation. On the other hand, this error can

also be attributed to the interference from the English's continuous tense where the verb following the main verb has to be in the present participle. The interference is in terms of logic rather than construction. For instance:

He likes going.

5.6.2 Coordination

In linguistics, coordination is a complex syntactic structure that links together two or more elements, known as conjuncts or conjoins. The conjuncts generally have similar grammatical features, for instance, syntactic category, and semantic function. The coordinated structure as a whole retains most of the same properties as the individual conjuncts, although it may introduce new features for example plurality (Ivan, *Ibid.*, 36).

Most of the errors encountered at this level were related to the use of the coordinating conjunction « et ». The coodinating conjunction « *et* » coordinates elements that have the same nature or syntactic function.

**Moi j'aime nager à la piscine et vont à la campagne.*

Syntactically, the sentence above contains two sentences at the deep structure. However, they have undergoing some transformation to form one sentence at the surface structure. Further, the two sentences share the same verb, "*aimer.*" That means they are both arguments of the same verb « *aimer* ». Therefore, since "*nager*" *et* "*vont*"are all arguments of the same verb, "*vont*" was supposed to be in the infinitive "*aller.*"

**Je habit avec mon pere et ma mere et un frère et une petite sœur*

When the coordinating conjunction « *et* » coordinates more than one element in a series, it is placed before the last element of the series. Therefore, this error can be attributed to Bemba language where the coordinating conjunction « *et* » "*na*" is placed before every element of the series, as demonstrated below:

Nji-	*kala*	*na*	*bamayo,*	*na*	*bataata*	*na-nkashiyandi*	*na*	*umwaice wandi*
SUBJ-	V(INF)	PREP	N(FEM) –conj		N	-conj N	conj	NP

5.6.3 Word Order

Word order typology refers to the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language, and how different languages can employ different orders. In syntax there are constraints on which words can go together. For instance, some verbs must take an object ; others can never take an object ; still others require both an object and another phrase of a particular kind (Ivan: 47).

**Ma famille*	*aide*	*moi*	*dans*	*mon*	*education.*
SUBJ	V(FIN,PRES) (OM)		PREP	DET(SG,MAS)	N

This error has occurred in the sentence above due to interference from English where the object pronoun (**me**) comes after the verb. For example in "*my family helps **me***". However, in French the object pronoun (**me**) comes before the verb (Wilson :Ibid).

**Nous*	*avons*	*beacoup **les** amis*
SUBJ	V(FIN,PRES)	OBJ

The sentence above is not acceptable in French because it has violated the rules of distribution in French. The error has occurred due to the misuse of the definite article **les.** It shows that a pupil

has not yet masterered the rules of grammar. The adjective of quantity, "*beaucoup*" always goes with the post position « **de** » not the definite article.

5.6.4 Sentence Structure

Sentence structure is the grammatical arrangement of words in sentences.

*C'	est	moi qui	est	le	né.
SM	V(FIN,PRES) (OM) RP		V(FIN,PRES)	DET (MAS, SG)	N(MAS,SG).

The verb *"être"* does not agree with the disjunctive pronoun « *moi* » neither does the relative pronoun "*qui*" agree with the verb "*être*". This can be attributed to the lack of mastering the agreement rules. The verb "être" was supposed to be conjugated in the first person singular "suis"

* *" si tu n'est pas a l'ecole tu* ***seras*** *souffrir dans ton future.*

The sentence above is wrongly constructed due to the wrong use of the "*seras*" which is the future tense of the verb *"être." The error has occurred due to i*nterference from English language where the future tense is constructed by the use of *will* or *shall* as auxilliary verbs. In French the future tense does not allow the addition of auxilliary verbs to the main verb. In addition, the expression was meant to be in the « *future proche* » (Near Future) which also uses only the auxilliary verb « *aller* ». Therefore, the verbe "*aller*" was supposed to be conjugated to the second person singular " *va*"

**Mon pere retraité derniere année.*

The sentence above is unacceptable due to the fact that the auxilliary verb *"avoir"* before the

past particple " *retraité*". The use of an auxilliary verb before the past participle in the construction of the past tense known as "*passé composé*" is obligatory in French. Therefore, its ommission provokes an error. Such types of errors can be attributed to the interference from English language where the construction of the simple past tense does not require any auxilliary verb. For instance, it would have been correct, in English to write: "My father retired last year".

**Tyron completé ecole en 2007*

This error has occured because of the omission of the auxiliary verb « *avoir* » before the past participle "*completé*" to form the « *passé composé* ». Once again, this is also committed due to the interference from English where no auxilliary verb is used to form the simple past tense.

**J'ai autre freres.*

The sentence above is wrong due to the omission of the preposition « *de* » before « *autre* ». This can be accounted for by the Interference from English where a preposition in such constructions is optional. However, in French language it is obligatory otherwise the sentence is considered unacceptable. (For details please refer to the appendices for a detailed description of errors).

5.7 Conclusion

This particular chapter has presented and discussed a number of findings in the survey. Particularly, it has answered the research questions which have been asked in 1.4 of the first chapter of this disseratation.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 General

The previous chapter presented a number of findings that were encountered in the study. Particularly, it has answered the research questions that were raised at the begining of the study. However, this chapter focuses on the implications of the findings as well as recommendations for the way forward.

6.1 Conclusions

6.1.1 The more Interfering Language

The study has revealed that English is the more interfering language in Bemba high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province. Therefore, it can be concluded that English interferes, positively or negatively, with Bemba high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province because it is the language they use in most of their writing than they do in Bemba and French. Therefore, they are more proficient in English, at least, in writing ,than in Bemba, their mother language.

6.1.2 Syntactic Errors Caused by theMore Interfering language.

According to the findings syntactic errors caused by the more interfering language relate to word order and agreement errors. Therefore, it can be concluded that pupils commit word order and agreement errors in French because, although English and French have the same SVO word order, it is not the case in all constructions, for example topicalisation. Thus, pupils transfer

transfer L2 structures to produce wrong constructions in L3 (French).

6.1.3 Most Frequent Syntactic Errors

The study revealed that agreement errors are the errors that occur most frequenly in the written texts of Bemba high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province. Therefore, it can be concluded that pupils have mastered well the agreement rules of English such that they are able to transfer them into French and produce correct or acceptale utterances.

6.1.4 Predominant Source of Errors Between Interlingual or Intralingual.

The study revealed that most of the errors that are found in the written texts of Bemba high school pupils learning French in Lusaka Province are due to interference from both Bemba and English languages rather than intralingual. Therefore, it can be concluded that Bemba high school pupils lack of proficiency in French is largely due to interference from their L1(Bemba) and L2 (English).

6.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusion, the study has provided a number of recommendations for the way forward as follows:

The government of Zambia has to enforce the language policy such as increasing the number of languages of education rather than forcing people to learn the so called "familiar language which, in most cases, just promotes rote learning. Also, Zambian languages learning in primary

schools should be compulsory in all school, private as well as government schools. This would enable schools implement it. This recommendation is based on the fact that research has consistently shown that Learners who first learn reading and writing in their mother language have a better command of a foreign language in its written and oral mode (Goody *et al*: 2001). Such a situation allows for highly profitable forms of interference.

The aforesaid example from Zambian languages demonstrate that mastering of Zambian languages may result in the transfer of elaborate linguistic skills and forms from one language to another such as the transfer of writing skills. Therefore, we propose to the government of Zambia to extend the number of languages designated as official languages for education. This will help avoid a situation whereby people are obliged to learn a familiar language not necessarily their mother tongue, a situation that contributes to rote learning which in turn is transferred on the learning of French.

High schools offering French need to extend the number of hours of French on their time tables per week. At present, there are not many schools allocating enough time to French. If anything, it should have the same number of periods as English. Such a development would award ample time for pupils and teachers to have more time to do written exercises. Further, schools need to create conditions that would help pupils practice their French instead of leaving them alone to do so. This can be enhanced by the enforcement of French clubs in schools.

The French Embassy has a role of motivating people to be attracted to the French

language.Therefore, the embassy needs to be on the forefront in trying to motivate pupils. For instance, by organising annual French writing Competitions where winners could be given awards. The French Embassy needs to promote the publication of French Books, for instance by promoting small investments to support the emergence of a local publishing industry. This could contribute importantly to both the formal education as well as individual development. Researchers need to improve on the dissemination of information. Most research findings do not reach the people concerned. Therefore, the author proposes that the abstract of every dissertation related to French be published in the university journals so that others outside the university can also access the information. Further, this can also be improved by the the creation of a Data Base where anyone needing any information on the situation of French in Zambia can have access.

The culture of presenting findings to various stakeholders, such as The Alliance Francaise, University as well as at various gatherings like the ZAFT Annual General Meeting needs to be reinforced to facilitate the dissemination of information. The cooperation between writers of French Text Books and Researchers needs to be encouraged so that together, they arrive at contextualising French Text Books. That means the writers of French text books need to cooperate with researchers so that they work together to come up with contextualised books suitable for the Zambian scenario.

Finally, this study is considered a preliminary one that just "gives an idea" of Bemba high school pupils' sources of syntactic errors. It should set the pace for other studies which would be much more comprehensive, covering a bigger number of students and a wider range of materials to all

the provinces. Due to the scope and limitations of this study, other categories of additional sources of errors remain for further study. These additional contributions would include:

Extend the research to all provinces and to other aspects of the language to investigate the impact of Interference from all Zambian languages.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Pupils' Survey

NAME OF SCHOOL.....

GRADE.....

What is your mother Language?.....

What other languages do you know apart from your mother Language?.....

Are you able to write in any of the local languages that you speak?

YES ☐

NO ☐

If the answer to question 3 is YES, then which one?.....

What language do you use most at home?.....

What language do you use most with friends.....

For how long have you been learning French?.....

From where did you start learning French?.....

Which particular area of French gives trouble and Why?.....

How do you think you can improve?.....

What area of French do you enjoy most .....

ANY FINAL COMMENTS

Appendix 2: Zambian Languages

Table 1: Ethnic groups and their Language Families

Ethny	Mother Language	Linguistic Affiliation	Population
Ambo	Lala-Bisa	Bantu Family	2 500
Aushi	Aushi	Bantu Family	95 200
Bemba	Bemba	Bantu Family	1700 000
Bisa	Lala-Bisa	Bantu Family	373 600
British	English	Bantu Family	41 400
Bwile	Bwile	Bantu Family	12 400
Chishinga	Bemba	Bantu Family	42 000
Chokwe	Chokwe	Bantu Family	44 200
Ila	Ila	Bantu Family	61 200
Imilangu	Simaa	Bantu Family	15 000
Iwa	Mwanga	Bantu Family	37 000
Kabende	Bemba	Bantu Family	71 000
Kaonde	Kaonde	Bantu Family	207 200
Korekore	Shona	Bantu Family	15 000
Kunda	kunda	Bantu Family	13 000
Kwandi	Luyana	Bantu Family	74 000
Kwanga	Luyana	Bantu Family	73 000
Lala	Lala-Bisa	Bantu Family	130 000
Lamba	Lamba	Bantu Family	190 000
Lenje	Lenje	Bantu Family	156 000
Leya	Leya	Bantu Family	12 000
Lima	Lamba	Bantu Family	29 000
Lozi	Lozi	Bantu Family	610 000
Luano	Lala-Bisa	Bantu Family	7 400
Luapula-Lunda	Bemba	Bantu Family	80 000
Luchazi	Luchazi	Bantu Family	54 400
Lukolwe	Nkoya	Bantu Family	72 000
Lumbu	Ila	Bantu Family	10 000
Lunda	Lunda	Bantu Family	196 800
Lungu	Mambwe-Lungu	Bantu Family	138 000
Luyana	Luyana	Bantu Family	74 800
Lwena	Luvale	Bantu Family	168 000
Makoma	Simaa	Bantu Family	32 000
Mambwe-Lungu	Mambwe-Lungu	Bantu Family	240 800

Mbowe	Mbowe	Bantu Family	2 700
Mbowela	Nkoya	Bantu Family	10 000
Mbukushu	Mbukushu	Bantu Family	5 000
Mbunda	Mbunda	Bantu Family	156 000
Mukulu	Bemba	Bantu Family	17 000
Mwanga	Mwanga	Bantu Family	156 000
Mwenyi	Simaa	Bantu Family	15 000
Ndebele	Ndebele	Bantu Family	5 800
Ndebu	Lunda	Bantu Family	253 000
Ngoni	Nsenga	Bantu Family	290 000
Ng'umbo	Bemba	Bantu Family	126 000
Nkoya	Nkoya	Bantu Family	60 000
Nsenga	Nsenga	Bantu Family	217 400
Nyanja	Nyanja	Bantu Family	802 600
Nyengo	Simaa	Bantu Family	25 000
Nyika	Nyiha	Bantu Family	356 000
Sala	sala	Bantu Family	20 400
Senga	Tumbuka	Bantu Family	51 000
Shasha	Nkoya	Bantu Family	4 400
Shila	Taabwa	Bantu Family	66 000
Shona	Shona	Bantu Family	15 000
Simaa	Simaa	Bantu Family	74 800
Soli	Soli	Bantu Family	54 400
Subiya	Subiya	Bantu Family	5 500
Swahili	Swahili	Bantu Family	19 000
Swaka	Lala-Bisa	Bantu Family	67 000
Tabwa	Taabwa	Bantu Family	66 000
Tambo	Mwanga	Bantu Family	18 000
Toka	Leya	Bantu Family	18 000
Tonga	Leya	Bantu Family	960 000
Totela	Totela	Bantu Family	14 000
Tumbuka	Tumbuka	Bantu Family	426 000
Unga	Bemba	Bantu Family	35 000
Yauma	Yauma	Bantu Family	5 100
Yombe	Tumbuka	Bantu Family	2 600

Source: CSO

Appendix 3: Error Analysis

3.1 Test questions

Write an essay in French on any one of the following topics:

- Ma famille
- Ma classe

The length of the essay should be between 50-100 words.

3.2 Error Taxonomy

Table 2: Error Taxonomy

Error Type	Frequency	Percentage
Agreement	72	16%
Coordination	99	22%
Sentence Structure	115	25%
Word Order	174	37%

Table 3: Levels of Interference

Language	Agreement	Coordination	Sentence structure	Word Order	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
English	78	0	40	58	173	37%
Bemba	37	10	30	10	87	12%
Developmental	59	89	12	47	200	29%

Table 4: More Interfering language

##Language	##Number of Syntactic Errors	#Percentage Level
##English	##173	#67 %
##Bemba	##87	#33%

Appendix 4: Samples of Syntactic Errors

4.1 Agreement Errors

4.1.1 Gender

**Mon cousine* . The determiner (MAS) does not agree with the noun (FEM).

**Un sœur* The determiner (MAS) does not agree with the noun (FEM).

**Tous les [personnes dans ma classe sont fille s (*The determiner (MAS) does not agree with the noun (FEM).

**Une table noir* The adjective "*noir*" (MAS) does not agree with the noun (FEM).

**Beacoup de gens intéressante* (the noun « gens »(MAS) does not agree with the gender of the adjective. « interessante » (FEM).

4.1.1 Number

* *Beaucoup de personne voudrais être avocat.*

The quantifier « *beacoup de* » is already in plural form. Therefore, it is supposed to agree in number with the noun « *personne* » .

**Mon frères*

No concord between the determiner "*mon*" (SG) and noun (PL).

**J 'ai un frères*

The determiner "*un*" (SG) does not agree in numberr with the noun (PL).

**Deux sœur.*

The determiner "*deux*" does not agree in number (PL) with the noun (SG).

**Mes frère.*

Det (PL) N(SG).

The determiner "*mes*" (PL) does not agree with the noun (SG).

4.1.3 Subject –Verb Agreement

**Ma famille est très amusant.*

NP (FEM, SG) VP(FIN, PRES) ADJ (MAS, SG).

**Je vivre avec mon oncle.*

SUB(SG) VP (INF) Prep Det(SG,MAS) N (SG,MAS).

The « *vivre* » which has remained in the infinitive instead of being conjugated to the simple present tense.

**Ma famille aller à l'Eglise SDA*

SUB (FEM,SG) V(INF) PREP N(FEM,SG).

**Nous etre six*

SUB(PL) V (INF) OBJ

**Mes deux sœurs s'appelles.*

SPEC (PL) N (FEM,PL) VP (SG).

There is no concordance between the subject (NP) and the verb (VP).

**Je suis naitre*

SUBJ V(FIN,PRES,SG) N

Lack of concordance between the subject and the verb.

**Il aime vont*

SUB V (FIN, 3RD PER,SG) V(FIN,3RD PER, PL).

4.2 Coordination

**Moi j'aime nager à la piscine et vont à la campagne.*

Je habit avec mon pere et ma mere et un frère et une petite sœur* (ADD of **et)

4.3 Word Order

Nous avons beacoup* ***les* *amis* (DIS).

Mon père travail pour nation unis* (OM of the definite article **les).

Mon père, il travail a la pharmacie*(ADD of **il).

Je suis un zambien* (*ADD of* ***un).*

**il aime écoute* (DIS).

**Mon pere retraité dernière année* (SS).

**Notre préféré joueur sont messi kaka et Robinhio*(DIS).

**Ma mère ne pas travailler* (DIS).

Mon père a trois les femmes* (ADD of **Les).

**J aime le* (DIS).

Nous avons mauvais moments auss* (OM of **de).

Ma mère est une medicin* (ADD of **une).

Mon père est un professeur à UNZA(ADD of* ***un).*

Il travail a CIMA come un comptable(ADD of* ***un).*

**Mon grand frère complété éducation* (SS).

Nous avons un grand chien s appelle* (*OM of* ***qui).*

**Mes sœurs sont fini leur éducation* (SS).

Mon grand frere sont a l'université (DIS).

La quatrieme enfant est deux ans (DIS).

Natasha et chisala est à l'ecole en grade neuf et sept (DIS) .

(3 PER,PL) and the the verb (3RD PER,SG).

*La **vie** est **bon*** (DIS).

Ma famille est tres petit(DIS).

*Ma **mere** est **mort** cette annee* (DIS).

*Nous visitons **lui*** (DIS).

***Ma famille sont** tres bien* (DIS) .

***Il** done **moi** beacoup d'amour* (DIS) .

*Ma **mere** est tres **amusant** et **interessant**(* no concord between the noun and the adjective).

*Mes **tantes habite à** living stone* (DIS).

Que ce que vous mangent?(DIS)

*Les **filles fait** le bruit en classe.*

4.4 Sentence structure

Hier nous visité le nouveaux musée (SS).

Les filles faitent du bruit en class (SS).

Vous aime beacoup activites (SS).

Mes soeurs et moi aiment la musique (SS) .

J'habites avondale (OM of **à**).

J'aime bien regarde la television (SS).

*Je parle **le** francais* (ADD of **le**).

J'habite au Zambie (DIS).

Nous ne pas avons animaux (DIS).

Mes parents habitons à Kabana avec mon grand mere (No AGR the subject and the VP.

On ecrit les testes chaque apres deux semain.

« *apres* » after « *chaque* » is an indication of Interference from English where we have such expression.

Les matieres que nous apprennons est.

Moi j amour ma classe tres beacoup (AGR).

J adore ma famille *beacoup parce qu'**ils** sont tres amusant* (AGR).

*Nous parlons **l anglais et le** Bemba* (ADD of **le**).

*Ma famille sont tres bien parcqu'**ll** donne* moi beacoup d'amour (AGR).

Ma famille est tres petit(AGR).

Ma petite soeur est tres intelligent(AGR).

Ma classe est bon (AGR).

Quand nous sommes à l'ecole nous sommes toutes le meme (AGR) .

Ma famille aimes sortir (AGR).

No agreement between the subject and the verb, interference from English

*Mes parents sont **appeler** monsieur et madame Banda (*SS).

The verb was supposed to be in the past participle. This is due to lack of mastering of grammar.

Hier Musonda perdu son stylo (OM of the verb avoir).

« avoir » to form « passé composé.

**Mardi passe on bu du vin* (OM of the verb avoir).

**L'ainé terminé ses etudes a l'université en 2001.* (OM of the auxilliary verb« avoir » to form the passée composée has caused the error. This is due to the influence from English language

**Ma soeur aime ecoute la Jazz music* (DIS).

In French there is only one conjugated verb in a simple sentence unless in a compound sentence. Therefore, since this a simple sentence, after the finite verb « *aimer* » the next verb was supposed to be in the infinitif « *ecouter* » Similar with some bantu languages like Bemba : N-*kashi yandi a-li-temwa* ***ukumfwa*** *Jazz music.*

Ma* ***mere* *est mon* ***mieux*** *ami.*

**Je suis vingt ans .*

**Pierre bois de la biere.*

The expression « *Pierre bois de la biere* » can either be wrong or correct depending on the context in which it is expressed. However, the inclusion of the partitive article « de » is not appropriate here because this is a general statement as opposed to a particular one. Had it been used in a particular situtation, this construction would have been acceptable. Therefore, the construction is unacceptable owing to the fact that it was meant to expresse a general statement of what Pierre has does.

**J ai une zambienne famille* (SS).

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