



**NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

Faculty of Human Sciences
Department of Communication

A Morphosyntactic Interlanguage analysis of grade12 English Second language Learners at
Mafwila Senior Secondary School

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ABSTRACT

The study analyses the morphosyntactic interlanguage of grade12 English Second language learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School. The study is significant for the reason that only a few studies in Namibia had been conducted focusing on the interlanguage of English L2 learners, hence a study on the process of language learning in both the written and oral skill. This thesis brings to light the Morphosyntactic interlanguage practices of English second language learners at Mafwila Senior secondary school, looking at the fact that they all claimed to have Silozi as their first language and having English as their second language. The study therefore covers the influence to interlanguage, the morphosyntactic features, as well as looking at whether these features occur more in written or spoken language.

They were about 110 grade 12 English Second language learners at the school, but only 86 of them were able to participate in the research. Half of the learners took part in the written composition, while the other was involved in the oral test. All the participants claimed that Silozi is their L1, and English is their L2. The study made use of both Qualitative and Quantitative methods. For Qualitative method, the researcher was able to discover the influence of morphosyntactic interlanguage as well as the features of morphosyntactic interlanguage. With Quantitative method, frequent counts of the language mistakes were done from both the oral and written compositions.

The study found that, Interlanguage varies, it may change anyhow over a period of a short time. Secondly, interlanguage is distinct from one learner to the other, even though there may be common routes of development within learners from either different or same language background.

Interlanguage is a process in which each and every L2 learner goes through, it is natural and it helps learners improve in the Target language (TG). Each and every L2 learner have their version of interlanguage depending on different factors, hence it should not be seen as something negative but rather a positive way of learning as it will keep on changing. Interlanguage studies

plays a very big role as it can help everyone involved in the field of language to better understand the overall needs of a Second language learners.



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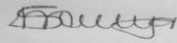
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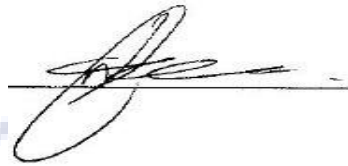
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I would like to appreciate everyone who have played a role in giving me their time to complete this thesis.

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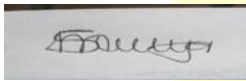
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Acronyms

TL-	Target Language
SL-	Second Language
FL-	First Language
IL-	Interlanguage
EA-	Error Analysis
FL-	Foreign Language
BV-	Basic Variety
SLA-	Second Language Acquisition
LT-	language transfer
MT-	Mother Tongue
NT-	Native Language



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CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

The introduction part looks at the background of this study, statement of the problem, research objectives, and significance of the study, delimitations of the study and definition of technical terms.

1.1 Background of the study

Human beings need language to communicate among themselves, Wardhaugh (2007) mentions that language(s) is what a society speaks. For second language speakers, the learning process of the English language becomes endless. When learners learn a second language, it is obvious they will make errors, these errors are unavoidable in the process of second language learning. In a natural way of second language learning, errors are not seen as an offence, but rather as a process of learning and a way of helping L2 learners by informing them about their faults. Having good skills in writing is an advantage for learners. According to Hourrani (2008, p.67), "writing skill covers a number of sub-skills for example, the general knowledge of the subject as well as the knowledge of translating ideas into grammatical sentences".

Many countries of the African continent have put into use the English language to be their state language for various motivations, for example English is believed to be learned and spoken world wide, it serves unity and it has highlighted significance in the areas of business. Most of the nations have citizens who are multilingual, meaning that they speak more than one language. Yet, originally most citizens of these countries are not using English in their homes and a number of native languages are dominating in use compared to English. With these kind of nations, the phenomena of English vs. mother tongue education and the timing of implementing each language are very pertinent and Namibia is not excluded. The Language policy in Namibia supports the use of Mother tongue as the medium of instruction from grade one to grade three (Republic of Namibia. Ministry of Education & Culture, 1993), up to now it appears to be very difficult for the Ministry of Education to follow up on it.

A number of schools are suffering from an insufficient necessary material and other resources to put to use the mother tongue as the medium of instruction (Wolfaardt, 2005 p.8) and in other schools, it appears that learners found in a class are from different areas and have different mother tongue languages, this makes it difficult for a particular school to make a choice of a language. Always,

languages that are seen to be unifying in a country are chosen to serve as the medium of instruction this is for the reason that, no speakers of a particular language should be left out and feel powerless over others and vice versa. This happens to be the reason as to why English is used in most schools as the MOI even when learners are not having it as their home language. The status of schools in Namibia happens to be multilingual, this leads to the unsuccessful application of the language policy (Republic of Namibia. Ministry of Basic Education Sport & Culture, 2003), whereby the majority of the learners lack a chance to be educated in their local language. This results into the mother tongue being neglected.

Additionally, the neglitation of the use of mother tongue instructions could be one of the reasons leading to lack of good results in reading among schools in Namibia. The East and Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality has given a report saying; abilities to read among the Namibia learners who are in grade-6 are lower (Makuwa, 2004) this is the concern. Just like the studies carried out by Wolfaardt (2005), he discovered that within the Namibian nation, the levels of literacy and numeracy of the grade 9s, is poor and the majority is not achieving the required level.

Other than that, Manzolim and Gumpal (2016) mentions that when a learner commits an error it could be because of the first language interfering, affecting the construction of the English grammar. Other than that, second language learners may compose a target language by using their own linguistic knowledge, or rather a linguistic system known as interlanguage.

This word 'interlanguage', that denotes the language produced by a language learner when trying to acquire another system of communication, originated with Selinker (1972), even though researchers of interlanguage problems had appeared before (Corder 1967). A number of findings have aided the assumption that an interlanguage is a system and is open to be easily influenced by one's mother tongue , it is also believed to be following existing sequences of growth. (Adjémien 1976 p.99).

Additionally, a number of projects researching on the developments of IL have put more focus on the speakers of different languages learning Indo-European languages. There are a number of investigations focusing on English learners, despite that, there are also investigations focusing on students from languages that are different like French and German (e.g. Meisel et al. 1981). The investigations have provided clear vision into acquiring the patterns that can be found in a variety of

places which includes the order of words, formation of questions, inflectional morphemes and the structure of utterances are all factors to consider. The various patterns of acquisition identified in the studies seem to be somewhat universal among learners of these languages, but it is important to remember that the languages are all somewhat similar in terms of language typology.

One of the major results on Second Language Acquisition research(s) is that the interlanguages of early learners have many similar characteristics (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991). In most cases, 'grammatical morphology' gets excluded and there is a dependency on the context, instead of morphology performing a number of functions needed by the learners during communication.

Interlanguage is a continuous sequence of first and second language by which second language learners go through. At some moment in time in company to the continuum, L2 learners' linguistic knowledge is systematised and usual to second language learners. According to Selinker (1972) "the latent psychological structure, which is a key to Foreign Language Learning, include five central processes within its structure namely; transition of languages, transfer of training, second language learning strategies, strategies of second language communication and overgeneralisation". To fully perceive the processes, one has to think carefully about the occurrence 'fossilisation' which is seen by Selinker as the main element for explaining interlanguage. Fossilisation refers to a tendency in which a L2 is learnt by converting features of a specific language into irreversible errors in the way they speak and write the second language (Prada, 1990, p.5).

The use of right vocabulary in texts can enhance oral competence of second language learners (Sajid, 2016). Furthermore, morphology and syntax are the most important in developing a learner's competence in second language. Therefore investigating English interlanguage is worth. Morphology and Syntax are the main elements of grammar in any language. Morphology studies individual words as well as how these words are formed, whereas Syntax is concerned with the study of sentences and how these sentences are formed. Morphosyntax is derived from combining Morphology and Syntax.

1.2 Problem statement

English language has widely put roots in a great number of societies in the world, it is used by local people, and thus it has become more diverse and has developed dialects (Marungudzi, 2016). Dialects, are varieties of languages that indicates where a person is from. This idea is always explained according

to the geographical area, which may be referred to as a regional dialect, and it may also apply in relations to one's occupation referred to as occupational dialect and also social background as a class dialect. For example, Namibia has varieties of native languages and when speakers combine these languages with the English language, they produce an "interesting vernacular that is called Namlish" (Grahl, 2016). Namlish is a Namibia English version that is daily used for communication, and every part of the country have a different version of it, due to the indigenous language used in the area, however people who are local can understand each other, "despite the strange words that foreigners may not understand" (Grahl, 2016).

Lack of proficiency in the morphology and the syntax of second language is somewhat part of problems encountered by second language learners of English in Namibia, specifically at Mafwila Senior Secondary School, resulting into wrong grammar usage, according to Wolfaardt (2005), the general English proficiency of Namibians came into sight that the reading and usage of grammar areas, are the most weak. Wolfaardt (2005) states that "the majority of educators have no issues with pronouncing, vocabulary or giving instructions, the problems are in grammar usage, elicitation techniques and in explaining concepts".

According to Hyltenstam and Abrahamson (2000), individuals who are not first language speakers cannot master everything at same level of proficiency as native speakers, besides that, it is important to increase the opportunities of seeing, hearing and speaking" the English language in order to improve the proficiency of English L2 learners. All second language learners go through a language developmental process known as interlanguage, as a system of getting as far as native speaker proficiency. In order to help second language learners arrive at their goal, it is important to gain a deep understanding about interlanguage fossilisation. Errors are an inseparable stage of the second language process of learning; hence this analysis gives sight to the origin of errors and also has discovered solutions to them.

1.3 Objectives

This reseach primarily looks forward on to analyse the morphosyntactic interlanguage used by second language learners at Mafwila senior secondary school in samples of both the spoken and written language. Its sub objectives were;

- To investigate the influence of Morphosyntactic interlanguage of English second language learners at Mafwila senior secondary school.
- To evaluate morphosyntactic features of English second language learners at Mafwila senior secondary school.
- To explore whether the morphosyntactic interlanguage occurred frequently in the written form or spoken form among English second language learners at Mafwila Senior secondary school.

1.4 Significance

A number of researchers have conducted studies on Interlanguage analysis in ESL learners' written work, however there is a need for further investigations on the same topic with different participants and environment. As a result, to the best of the present researcher's knowledge, the problem addressed in this study has received inadequate attention in Namibia. Meaning, only a few scholars discussed morphosyntactic errors in Namibia, particularly that of the Silozi First language learners. Moreover, only a few used free compositions as a research corpus. As a result of this uniqueness, the current research is important.

This study is significant to second language learners. Nunan (2001) considered that a learner's errors are systematic, and not random, the majority of L2 learners always make similar errors during the process of learning an additional language. It becomes the instructor's duty to take note of the errors that appear frequently and help learners remember these errors so they can work on them. The theory of Interlanguage can help educators balance the process of learning, educators hold a habit to think of students as large buckets into which "we pour information and they absorb it". (Sternberg, 1987, p.44). Learners could be regarded as having wide buckets, but it is important to note that, these buckets have broad strainers which catch lots of data passing through it.

For teachers, it is essential to know that it is not what the learner is taught which the mind will follow, but they are active and can be changed. This study may highlight the significance of teaching second language learners' different structures which are cognitively and developmentally ready to be processed so that the whole teaching practices become beneficial. Otherwise, learners' interlanguage development become stagnate, teaching will not be effective and the valuable classroom time is wasted.

The results of the study may also offer insights into the relative significance of morphology teachings in Second Language. The knowledge of the process underlying the learners' use of morphology could also support the teaching process, since it will clarify on the areas of morphology language teaching which should be concentrated on and it will help determine the best ways of teaching morphology. The area of study will aid to the existing results that was done in the field of vocabulary acquisition. As a number of terms relates through form and meaning, the study of the nature of these different relations leads to the shedding of new light on the process and facts which are applicable to the acquisition of vocabulary. It is worth mentioning that the study of interlanguage can make contributions to general theories on SLA.

The roles of the learners' mother tongue, for example, is part of some factors that plays the main role in the study of L2 morphology and other areas of SLA projects, and the results of the area may be generalised to different fields. Findings in the area of interlanguage can make contributions to model of morphological processing in L1, L2 aswell as models of bilingual mental lexicon.

The study is still significant in a way that it will assist the general public in understanding their proficiency level in English and that of others. Other than that, it will add on to the already existing data in the area.

1.5 Definition of technical terms

Interlanguage - it is the kind of language that is produced by L2 learners as they try to master the TG.

Morphology- is a branch of linguistics that studies word formation.

Syntax- it is a branch of linguistics that studies sentence formation.

Morphosyntax- the analysis of linguistic or grammatical units' morphological and syntactic properties.

Language acquisition- the process whereby children acquire or master their first languages.

Language learning- in contrast to language acquisition, is the process whereby humans learn a language consciously.

Second language- the language that is learned after the first language

First language- it is the language that a person is exposed to first from birth.

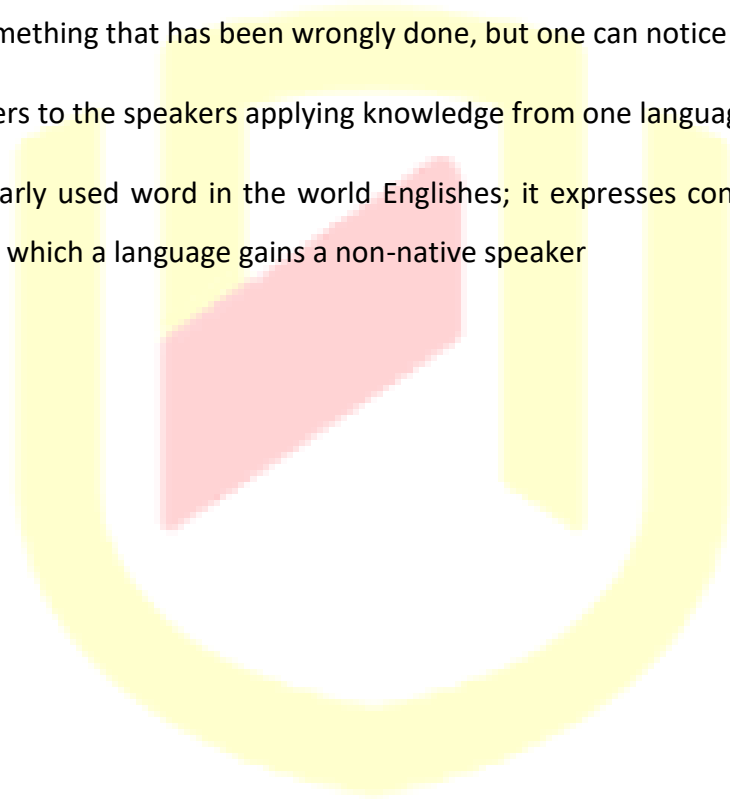
Language proficiency- also known as linguistic proficiency, refers to a person's ability to speak or act in a foreign language.

Errors- the use of language in a way that a native or fluent speaker of the language considers to be defective or inadequate learning

Mistakes- refers to something that has been wrongly done, but one can notice and quickly correct.

Language transfer- refers to the speakers applying knowledge from one language to another language.

Nativisation is a popularly used word in the world Englishes; it expresses concepts that are different and it is the process by which a language gains a non-native speaker



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CHAPTER TWO

1. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter the following will be outlined, the literature review of the morphosyntactic interlanguage of the English language in different environments, focusing mostly on Namibia. It is in this chapter that the researcher will show how other researchers have defined the concept of interlanguage. It will include the definition, background as well as the application of the theory.

2.1 Introduction

In order to explain the English Morphosyntactic interlanguage phenomena in Namibia it was significant to take into consideration the position of English in Namibia. The English language is taken as a L2, and a state language in Namibia. In that case, fluency in both written and oral form of English happens to be the road to be successful and a passport to privileges (Rahman, 2005). The study is therefore important, as it has revealed details about Morphosyntactic interlanguage which can serve a purpose in learning English as a L2 . The study puts focus on both the written and oral morphosyntactic interlanguage of second language at Mafwila senior secondary school.

Morphology and syntax have a very close relationship hence they are combined, forming morphosyntax. "Morphosyntax happens to be a word in the linguistics field, it applies to the grammatical divisions and properties for which both morphology and syntax act as definition criteria. Adebileje (2014). The language of focus in the study was English, having both the elements of morphology and syntax.

The scholarly legacy of interlanguage and more recent findings relating to the Basic Variety inspired this research the most (Perdue 1993). Also the more recent advances in Second language learning theory and data processing do not fully ignore the discipline's origins, and since the research employs a variety of simple concepts and data analysis methods from earlier paradigms, a number of relevant fields will be examined.

Odllin (1990 p.42) has stated that "features of the morphosyntactic phenomena within English L2 learners shows wide variations from different ethnic societies". This remark is applicable in Namibia as

English L2 learners are from different societies, they form varieties of linguistic constructions which does not follow the English language rules. The language distinction between L1 and L2, educational background, including second language input are some of the significant factors liable to learning a second language. This means that speakers from distinct language commit particular syntactic errors when using English. They also exercise dissimilar plans and procedures when learning a second language, considering their first languages.

Nemser (1971) puts emphasis on 'approximative system' this is because he wants Interlanguage to present if the learner processes more and more of the TL scheme, the learner gets closer and closer to the target language and Corder (1967) uses 'transitional competence' which then shows similarities as they both put focus on movements starting with the first then next to the second language. This view of mother tongue to second language movement is contentious, Van Els et al. (1984) mentions that, "this movement must not be viewed as a movement from one language to another but as a progression through more difficult phases .The two words 'approximative system and transitional competence' were not accepted by some scholars, this is because of their connotation of comparisons between Interlanguage and the target language, however Nemser points out that Interlanguage is distinct from the L1 and L2.

Moreover, Nemser (1971) points out another difference as he defines the learners' language systems as a "deviant" form of the target language, which is different from that of Selinker's view. Selinker (1972) heavily denied the point that Interlanguage should be compared to the target language, he insisted "that interlanguage is a self-contained structure" (p.116). "As long as foreign language learners are willing to see and name themselves learners, the presumption that they ought to adapt is certainly a fair one to make," he said again (p.19). "Learners themselves are contrasting their language to the TL, so some sort of comparison is necessary," he believes (p.21). Interlanguage philosophers, on the other hand, are completely opposed to the viewpoint, but it is commonly used in data processing, even where practical methods are used.

Interlanguage as a method seems to be a strong theoretical idea, but actively analysing data in this manner has proven to be difficult. James (1996) states in his findings that the first stage when analysing, is to describe the interlanguage. In the same step, it is necessary to also compare the system; first language, Second language and interlanguage. This should be done for the analyst to get

to the level of explanations desired. Perdue (1993) carried out a good step and was in the correct direction when he was analysing data obtained from his learner language as a framework in and of itself, researched cross-linguistically. Furthermore, he admits to using the descriptive category based on other existing languages, and they were unable to fully resist the "trap" of interlanguage and target language similarities (Klein & Perdue 1997).

To defend that, they state that if someone regards a learner's language as a natural language, then they should not expect to come across a whole new set of category which applies only to learners' languages. Granted, one may discover that a learner does not use the category in an expected manner (e.g. They may have divided the categories in a non-target-like and non-source-like manner as they use the categories for practical purposes, but the core category is still accessible as they study the vocabulary). Rather than trying to explore completely new categories for these languages, researchers could focus on the special function-form match.

Lightbown & Spada (1999, p. 72) believe that until the early 1960s, the majority of the people considered SLL's speech as a wrong version of the TG. That the errors they committed were seen and viewed to be the result mostly of transfers from their mother tongue and that it was contrastive analysis which identified differences between first language and Second language and predictable areas of potential errors. An example of the French language (Lightbown & Spada, 1999) shown, presenting direct translations suits perfectly to the second language learners that are being discussed.

Looking at Lightbown & Spada's example, sentences are to be provided such that it can be explicitly stated are as a result of direct translation (informally known as Namlish for Namibian English) taken from Goverde (2000). Adjectives: adverbs 1. Oshindonga a. Onda nyanyukwa uunene noonkondo b. Miiwike mbi ta yi ka landula 2. NAMLISH (inappropriate) a. I am very much happy b. In the next coming weeks 3. ENGLISH (appropriate) a. I am very happy b. In the next weeks/ In the coming weeks . What might come to mind here is that second language learners seem to use their first language rules into the Second language, making use of the interlanguage experience to facilitate communication. Ellis (2017) has referred and discussed the term interlanguage as the language learners' internal language structures that help learners in the configuration of language rules during acquisition assisted by L1 by internal or external inputs.

Interlanguage is used by second language learners when it is appropriate in second language communication. According to Ellis (2017), a positive transfer occurs when the first language transfer (structure) is compatible with the second language, whereas a negative transfer occurs when the first language transfer (structure) is incompatible with the second language. "Concern over the Caribbean English Creole having been accepted as a local language in education by both educators and the public, showing pessimism that it might negatively affect students' competence in standard English," Siegel continues, quoting Winer (1990, p. 703). While this is not an issue in Namibia, it should be noted that not all errors committed by L2 learners can be explained solely in terms of first language transfer (Lightbown & Spada 1999, p. 72). Various studies have shown that many errors can be better discussed in terms of learners' attempts to discover the structures of the language being learned rather than an attempt to transfer patterns from their first language, according to the two authors.

Fossilisation is defined as "non-progression of learning despite continuous exposure to input, adequate motivation to learn, and sufficient opportunity for practice" in interlanguage (Han 2004 p.13). This phenomenon arises from a combination of cognitive and psychological motivation that can be conscious or unconscious, as in the case of Mafwila grade 12 students. The reasons for fossilisation in this case are both cognitive and sociolinguistic: in addition to the learner's mental inclination toward the second language, learners lack real contact with native speakers of the other language. The target linguistic system is constantly restructured during the language learning process. Surprisingly, in a learners' piece of writing, some mistakes are made and avoided at the same time. As a result, fossilization is more likely to occur in specific language forms, but it is also sporadic, depending on external factors such as concentration and pressure.

2.2 The influence to Morphosyntactic interlanguage

Investigation of the influences that shape the second language learning process first commenced in the early 1970's, when researchers realised that language learners begin to use grammatical features in a distinct order (Cook, 1993). Brown (1973) first asserted that there were three forces controlling this phenomenon: "semantic complexity, syntactic complexity, and input frequency". Following the claim, researchers attempted to discern the degree to which each proposed factor influenced the acquisition process, but conflicting opinions led to substantial disagreement. The influence of grammar from the target language is based on the complexity of itself. According to Francis (2010) who conducted a research on interlanguage, English L2 learners did not have sufficient English Knowledge, hence, they

formed approximate grammar. He further on says, simplifying of the target language system was noticed “when learners omitted copular ‘is’ in the sentence, as in “I like Math because that subject really funny”; “I don’t like physics because that subject really difficult”. Omitting copular ‘is’ in such sentences may be a result of not being able to put in use some minor grammar rules of the target language. “Copular ‘is’ also had no significant semantic contribution to the sentence and left unnoticed by the learners” (Francis, 2010). Similarly, Banda (2011) stated that “the first language's influence on the target language is a reason that learners always encounter in their real life in language-related problem”.

The investigation again shows that most Morphosyntactic errors done by learners are a result of insufficient knowledge in the target language and on the other hand these errors are due to “intralingua and developmental errors”, influenced by “Items in the target language interfering with each other.” In contrast, Chan (2010) found out that most of the learners know the rules of the second language, but they do not have enough practice that is why they use one rule to all, which is called overgeneralisation, hence, findings confirms that the errors of morphosyntax committed were not influenced by the learners’ L1. White (2011) concludes that a recurring finding was the correlation between the frequency of certain forms in the inputs and their appearance in learners' interlanguage, and that the type of input that the learners receive also appears to make a difference in their language development.

According to Hemabati (2016) morphosyntactic interlanguage is influenced by “Developmental errors”. The errors are systematic, which may mark either a transitional stage in the formation of a grammatical law or the end of the speakers' experience (Oller & Richards, 1978). The above errors are said to have been influenced by “incorrect collection”. Following the inquiry of influences such as sentence formation, meaning, and frequency, scholars came across that phonological features of a language has control over language learning.

Saffran, Aslin, and Newport (1996) suggests that an innate system influences how phonological segments are processed. Studies that followed up confirmed this finding, showing that cognitive functions are used to process language based upon discreet phonological characteristics of the input (Pelucchi, Hay, & Saffran, 2009). “Research now suggests that phonological principles like the number of phones, syllables, and degree to which sounds of a feature are sonorant” influence the development

of both language and morphosyntax (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2005). According to Tarone (2001) Interlanguage is mentalist, most of its assumptions are taken from mentalist theories. The rules are kind of mental grammars and they form a learner's interlanguage.

The sort of input received by second language learners also makes differences to the developmental sequence. Larsen-Freeman (1991) in his conclusion, he says that a recurring finding was the relationship of the frequency of some forms in the input and their appearances in the interlanguage of the learners. To add on, Sajavaara (1988) came on with the "difference in the sequence of the acquisition of learners from Finland who were exposed only to formal input". Lightbown (1984, p.246) suggests that "when orders are disturbed only in the instructions it's just the contexts that emerge as a result of reference to a small and skewed form of the TG - so distorted that it might be called a new "target-language". Eubank (1996) and Weinert (1995) also discovered messed-up instructions with twisted feedback and overt instruction as the input. Wode (1981, p.305) argued saying that learners who are in a natural situation follows strict sequences of development, although learners in structured environments have developmental orders that are "characterised by rather loose sequential ordering," learners in unstructured environments have developmental orders that are "characterized by rather loose chronological ordering."

It was not until a number of scholars showed that logical instructions does not have effects on orders that are natural, regardless of whether the L2 learners are in casual or formal situations, and regardless of the learners' first language" (Pienemann 1984; Towell & Hawkins 1994). Felix (1981) concluded that "instructed learners take the same path as naturalistic learners and when the systematic environment requires them to create the framework, they do so, they would focus on the same normal developmental mechanisms and acquisition rules as naturalistic learners do. Krashen (1985) compares a learner's non-interface place vocabulary to that of a learner in a formal and naturalistic setting. Formal orders, according to this belief, have little impact on language acquisition because formal learning and implicit acquisition are not related and the two knowledge representations do not communicate. What is produced by the learner is hence a result of acquisition and not formal instructions. Giving in more clarifications, Allwright (1984) suggested that discussions made in classrooms are not so different when compared to the inputs that are being received in the natural environment" (p.19).

Simple systems and the simplification process are the most controversial issues in interlanguage writings. The minor systems are simple systems. These simple systems are explained as learners learn more about the target language, with the possibility that development is arrested at some point, resulting in fossilisation. To give an explanation of the simplification which have taken place in simple codes, Corder (1983) explains the first view saying that Interlanguage may appear simple for the reason that it is compared to a mother tongue, meaning that interlanguages could be that these fully-fledged languages can be defined in terms of their complexities.

Silva-Corvalán (1991, p.330) agrees with this viewpoint, stating that linguistic simplifications entail "reduction of the inventory of linguistic forms, semantic range, or language functions, and the removal of alternative constructs at some stages." She has often seen it as generalisation or overgeneralisation, which has resulted in the loss of variety in the forms used as a result of the increase of the use of one type at the expense of another. Forms are not lost in SLA; rather, overgeneralisation of a form acts as a starting point for the gradual acquisition of additional forms in systems that are mirror images of expression.

Interlanguage simplification may therefore be the product of universal simplification procedures, which exclude the reference to a specific mother tongue. Another way to think about simplification is to consider that native languages are complicated types of basic codes with language-specific complexification techniques or laws. Baker (1979) states that, from the learnability's perspectives, the ideas of simple codes which is elaborated is a better one.

The insufficient knowledge in morphology is a major characteristic of Interlanguage and Schumann (1982 p.338) describes logical problems of explaining lack of morphology as follows: lack of morphology is the most aspect of simplification that is having problems for the reason that simplification describes owning something and then getting rid of it. When a second language learner does not provide morphology it might be because they do not have enough knowledge about it, not because they chose not to use it. Simplification could be regarded as lack of morphology, because the learner does not process it in the input, and therefore, it is unavailable in what they produce. The lack of morphology is due to a processing restriction, which can result in morphologically clear product level utterances as compared to well-formed target language expression.

In terms of orders and processes, Bybee (1985) explored the acquisition of morphology based on a variety of different languages. Despite the fact that many experiments concentrate on first language learning, VanPatten (1984) discovered that morphological acquisition of both first and second languages is similar. Suzman (1982) demonstrates correlations between L1 and L2 acquisition in his studies of Zulu acquisition. Bybee (1985, p.80) introduced a morpheme hierarchy in the verb that is sorted from most semantically relevant to least semantically relevant, the hierarchy upheld by varieties of projects (e.g. Antinucci & Miller 1976; Kumpf 1984).

According to Nghikembua (2014), age is another factor. Chiswick and Miller (2008) and Neville and Roder (2004) states that second language learners' ages are important as it is a part playing a role in second language acquisition and learning. Learners who are disclosed to L2 from a tender has a chance of learning a language at a more faster pace than the other and at a particular stage in life L2 learning happens to be more difficult (Penfield & Roberts, 2014). Lenneberg (1967) supported the views by saying the acquisition of language is an innate process.

A small child acquires a L2 very easy and faster as their brains have more plasticity than old people, hence they learn the second language faster. He further on says "the crucial age cycle begins around one year of age and ends around puberty, at which time the brain has lost its plasticity and lateralisation of the language system has already occurred, making language comprehension or learning impossible after adolescence" (p.77). However, Lamendella (1977) argued saying that Lenneberg's conclusions concerning the critical hypothesis period is overstated, he then introduced the word "sensitive period" to emphasize that the process of acquiring a language can sometimes be efficient in early childhood but is still possible even at later ages.

Richards (1974) described morphosyntactic errors as (a) interlingual errors, (b) intralingual and developmental errors, and (c) developmental errors. Ming's inept use of first-language skills was demonstrated by his interlingual mistakes (e.g., omission of articles, prepositions, conjunctions), as a consequence, his L1 to L2 transition could have been unfavorable. Negative linguistic information transfer from L1 to L2 has been described as a common source of grammatical errors in written development among Chinese English learners (Zhang, 2007).

While Richard (1974) found mostly interlingual errors in Ming's writing samples, there was also evidence of intralingual and developmental errors, which may be attributed to what Selinker (1972)

explains as a result of the learners' insufficient knowledge of second language grammatical laws—Ming intended to use his basic knowledge of English grammatical principles in writing in English, but his lack of comprehension may have caused him to overgeneralize those rules, resulting in errors such as verb misformation. The learner's extra attention to grammatical rules in his or her L2, especially if they differ from those in his or her L1, could be interpreted as the cause of the overgeneralisation issue (Zheng & Park, 2013). For example, Ming may have known that verb conjugations are required in English in this research, but he was unsure where they were required and where they were not.

Another noted origin of errors by Brown (1987) is the learning context. The context points at the setting, an example could be in the classrooms with teachers including resources. In classrooms the teachers or even the textbooks may lead learners in making faulty hypotheses about languages, what Richards called false concept and what Stenson (1974) termed induced errors. It is believed that learners in most cases commit errors for the reason that they are being misled by their teachers' explanations, or sometimes because of faulty presentations of what is found in the textbooks, or it may be a result of patterns which were rote memorised in a drill but were not well contextualised. More manifestations of language learnt in class environments could be the occasional tendencies based on the learners to render uncontracted and inappropriately formal form of languages.

The environment in which the acquisition of a language takes place produces some kind of mistakes and errors. The sociolinguistics environment of natural, untutored language learning, which can be a cause of mistake in and of itself (Brown, 1987). The expression idiosyncratic dialect, coined by Corder, is appropriate here. The hypothesis that inspired and fed the empirical study is known as interlanguage theory, according to Ellis (1990), after the term coined by Selinker (1972). It is essentially a rapidly changing philosophy that has evolved significantly since its inception. Therefore, Ellis (1990) says that it is not a very easy task when it comes to producing accurate accounts of theories. The viewpoint examines three important topics of interlanguage studies that have piqued the interest of scholars for years: fossilisation, feedback theory, and pidginisation.

Generalisation is another factor, It is a basic learning technique in all fields, not just language learning. It includes situations in which a learner creates a deviant structure dependent on his prior knowledge of other constructs in the target language. (Simotwo, 1992). The learner allocates items to categories and based on these categories; the learner constructs rules, which predict how the different items will

behave. The partial mastery of the target language rules gives rise to items which reflect, not the structure of target language, but generalisations. The learner therefore applies rules of TL to inappropriate forms and contexts. This phenomenon may be evident in phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon (Richard, 1970).

Simotwo (1992) further on discusses overgeneralisation, he says it reduces the necessity of concord, thus relieving the learner of considerable effort of learning the TL rules. This leads to a deviant structure. Most Sheng speakers use a prefix {ma-} to imply plurality in wrong contexts. {ma-} is a class six plural marker morpheme and therefore it should be prefixed on class six nouns. This rule is largely extended to other noun classes by Sheng speakers as demonstrated by their usage in Kiswahili compositions. This is due to wrong assumptions that a noun can always be made plural by adding a Kiswahili plural marker {ma-}.

Joko, (2018) has mentioned that the Target language also has an influence on learners' Interlanguage in the area of lexical and grammatical. In the learners' lexical aspects, the Interlanguage may be taken in the use of false friends, whereas the influences on grammar may be viewed in the usage of pronouns, tense of the verb, including prepositions.

The influences of the target language's lexicals was a result of the learners being confused when it comes to the words in English which are synonymous. For example, the two words high and tall are carrying one meaning in Indonesian, which is tinggi. It is because of that the second language learners of English came up with the sentence "I want to hike in tall mountain". For the other two words operate and walk are translated in Indonesian as menjalankan and the learners were writing "I learnt to walk computer." More influences on lexical from the target language was of the reason that the learners had issues when it comes to the English parts of speech. Learners were confusing the use of verb and adjectives as in the following sentences "To beautiful the decoration, we put some flowers"; "Don't forget to additional sugar in your tea"; "The doctor helped to healthy the patient". "Beautiful", "additional" and "healthy" are under adjectives and they are commonly known first by the learners; so they are and were more recognisable and ready to be used than other verbs which has the similar function or position. The influences of TL grammar on the learners' interlanguage involves the use of verb tense, pronouns, and prepositions.

Siri (2018) says that one's knowledge in personal pronouns in English can serve as an influencing factor to a learner's Interlanguage. For the reason that the gender and number differences are not available in Indonesia, the second language learners produced statements such as "My parents are wonderful. I love they so much."; "Jack is a smart student. She is also diligent" Last, the most problematic category that the students meet in learning English is preposition. There happens to be a number of distinctions between the English and Indonesian system of prepositions. With English the number of English prepositions happens to be more when comparing them to Indonesian. As an example, the prepositions in Indonesian to tell where and when actions happen may have equivalents in English i.e. in, at, on. Confused by the various prepositions to use, they tend to use the prepositions that they are familiar such as in sentence "In Sunday, I go to church"; "We arrived in 5 p.m".

Afiana (2018) in the same way In his research, he shows empirical evidence of mother tongue and second language effects on second language learners' interlanguage development. It is equivalent to Selinker's interlanguage principle and goes hand in hand with it. Learners' vocabulary is vulnerable to permeation not just from learners' NL but also from learners' TL schemes, according to Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005), Gass and Selinker (2008), and Sabelle-Troike (2012). The impact of various types of natural language effects on second language learners is assessed. Interlanguage elucidates the types of NL influences on vocabulary that occurred most frequently, especially on the use of NL words, as well as the types of NL influences on TL grammar that occurred most frequently on the use of tenses. It's safe to say that the most complicated areas for Indonesian students studying English as a foreign language is lexical and grammar.

Other findings presented three sources that have an influence on the interlanguage of second language learners. The First looks at the students' good mastery of native language Second is the limited knowledge of the learners in their Second language and third has to do with the possessions of two language systems in one's mind. The findings are matching the interlanguage theory that was coined by Selinker (1997) and Saville – Troike (2012) is claiming saying that, interlanguage can be influenced simply by one's target language and native language systems. Because of the learners' insufficient knowledge of the target language, an alternative to the linguistic knowledge had been taken, both from the native and target language, resulting into the interlanguage production.

2.3 Morphosyntactic features

There are various scholars trying to describe the features of interlanguage and there have been comparison made between the child language, pidgins and interlanguage, it has been done so for the reason that a number of features had appeared to be the same (Andersen 1983). Kachru (1992) made his own observation, claiming that a variety of characteristics of non-native institutionalised varieties of English can be identified in a learner's tongue, implying that they have their roots in person Second Language Acquisition. Researchers who compared Interlanguage to “reduced” form of languages like that of pidgins and the language spoken by children view it as “varieties of languages which are when opposed to, both formally and communicatively, the kind of language at use by adults and first language speakers” (Faerch and Kasper. 1984, p.271).

Besides that, comparing Interlanguage to some non-native form of languages had been criticised for the reason that some scholars (e.g. Bickerton 1983; Myhill 1991) are of the view that the environment in which each occurs cant be compared, however Adamson (1989) suggested for a mutual bioprogram that will guide developments in the environments which are different. Mitchell & Myles (1998) also concluded by saying that pidgins and interlanguage does not have the same syntactic features and that the systems of pidgins appears to be more stable compared to the majority of Interlanguages. Other than that, Givón (1979) provided frameworks whereby the structures of different forms of languages have been described , in the frameworks he differentiates pragmatic modes of communication that takes place in Languages and syntactic forms of expression that exist in fully formed languages are “reduced.”.

Words flow from the morphological level to the syntactical level to form syntactic constructs, according to Crystal (2009, p.315), and "certain morphological formations have both syntactic and morphological properties." The differentiation of number, concord, verb aspects and moods, passive constructions, compound formations, and so on are some examples (Crystal, 2009, p.315). The syntactic features of English spoken by advanced bilingual Arabs were studied by Atawneh (2014). “Performance issues in the areas of tense agreement, relative clause construction, indirect query, perfective tenses, and use of prepositions” are among his observations. Furthermore, he claims that “levels of deviation in these areas are dependent on both the length of time spent in the United States and the educational level of the individual” (Atawneh, 2004).

Brown's (1973) observational investigation of second language learners revealed a series of action of morphosyntactic developmental process where learners of the English language grasped 15 same morphological properties in a different order. According to Brown (1973) "the present progressive, prepositions (in and on), plural -s, past irregular tenses, and possessive's all emerged early in the language production period, while third-person singular -s and contracted verb forms (the copula and auxiliary) did not. Finite coordinate clauses, finite adverbial clauses, finite complement clauses, relative clauses, and topic-comment constructs are five syntactic features of English interlanguage that were used to investigate the degree to which English interlanguage features of ESL learners may be accounted for from various viewpoints (Zhang, 2005).

Mungungu (2016) is one of the researchers who conducted an analysis in Namibia to define morphosyntactic characteristics such as incorrect verb structure and the use of the present tense rather than the past tense. The sentences "One of the local singers tooked me upon (up on) stage" and "learners were really want to go on (on) the tour" were said to have used the incorrect verb form in her research. According to Mungungu (2016), certain verbs have similar forms for the divisions of Past Tense and Past Participle, such as "speak – spoke – talked." Regular verbs are what they're called. Since the normal verbs pattern extends to most verbs, students adapt it to other forms of verbs, such as irregular verbs like take – took – taken, and learners will try out what they consider is a legitimate target language form. Mungungu (2010) provides additional explanations in her report, such as "Our school has organised a market day which we thoroughly enjoyed" and "The best thing I saw there is..." Since the learner was conscious that past events could be told in the past tense, the first verb in the sentences was told in the past tense. But this learner was not compatible with past tense usage, hence she presented other verbs in present tense, this might be the influence from some of their native language rules.

Scott and Tucker (2007) in their study Showed that the some individuals among the participants had problems "with word order", moreover, it was noticeable that within the same sentences several errors of the same type may be found. The students used an incorrect syntactic order and a weak verb form in the first case. That can be seen in "... and he always felt that he would soon die" instead of "... and he always felt that he would soon die," where frequency adverbs come before the main verb (Scott and Tucker, 2007).

“The participant used the pronoun personal instead of the personal pronoun where the adjective should occur before the word it qualifies,” says the second sentence (Scott & Tucker, 2007). Learners' represent mistakes, according to Ferris (2011), are primarily due to agreement errors, spelling errors, word usage, and semantic errors. “The other grouping is based on a miscellaneous set of errors that contains errors based on adverbs, abbreviations, capitalisation, articles, possessive nouns, and prepositions,” he continues.

According to Ammer (2008), the degree of formality in style was one of the most prominent influences of Spanish language in English academic lexicon. The learners used Latin cognate words in English because of their romance linguistic origins, which culminated in a higher level of formality in their writings. Such Latinised terms used in most of the study's writings included: "distinguish," "memorisation," "advantage," "provide," "invent," "impose," and "substance." Ammer (2008) found additional discursive and syntactic Interlanguage characteristics that were shared by the bulk of the learner samples, including: The determined article ('the') is used often. There is a general lack of undefined posts ('a, an') and Owing to a lack of synonyms, there is a lot of word duplication. There aren't any discursive connections or connecting machines (transition markers and adverbials)

Ammar (2008) goes on to illustrate the various facets of morphosyntax in second languages as it is affected by the learners' first language. According to previous Interlanguage research (Selinker 1979 p.13), word-order was the most frequent mistake, since it was found in a large number of samples: i.e. "let's say words, without any contact intent, since he was alone on the Earth and had no communicative purpose." The word order in romance languages is more free (Kail 1989, p. 82), as shown in the sentences, and learners use this flexibility to stress a basic detail chunk in the English language.

Looking at the pronominal developments, Felix (1981) takes note of the confusions of pronouns in the early stages of learning. He discovered preferences for using proper nouns instead of the pronouns during spontaneous conversations, this is also mentioned by Broeder (1991). Myles et al. (1999) list discoveries of the third-person pronoun based on formulaic chunks that included the first-person

pronoun in their analysis of French pronoun evolution. The chunks were not used properly at first, and the use of *je* (I) was excessive. The chunk is then overextended with the insertion of a lexical NP, which contains *je* (I).

In the same analysis, the pronouns were omitted and replaced by a noun phrase in the third stage, and the third-person pronoun was correctly used in the final stage. Agreement is a morpheme that has no semantic bearing on utterances and is learned late in life. Even if the third-person agreement morpheme is a later mode for English learners, it has been used by Brazilian Portuguese learners on many occasions (Bybee 1991). For learners of Brazilian Portuguese and Polish, additional stages arise when first-person consensus is applied to inflected forms, resulting in double morphological tagging (Bybee 1991).

Makoni (1996) observed that redundancy did not actually prevent learners from using the third-person agreement marker in English as a second language, as some have argued previously. The presence of pronouns that use the agreement marker, rather than zero anaphor, causes the marker to be used more often (Young 1988, also have the same findings).

Learners of Swahili as a first language were overgeneralising a few concords to all types of nouns, according to Bokamba (1977), "because they may be the most active and neutral" (p.9). These trends were also observed in learners with a common first language class system, learners without a similar first language class system, and L1 Bantu language learners (Tsonope cited in Musau 1995). The patterns are defined by Musau (1995) by relating them to Andersen's (1984) One-to-One Principle. One mode was used to accomplish one feature (e.g. agreement) in the interlanguage of learners whose first language was Swahili, with a singular or plural distinction created through the use of classes respectively. The acquisition of adjectival concords follows the same patterns, according to Musau (1995).

Sari (2018) introduces data on interlingual and intralingual errors using two separate types, morphological and syntactical stages, in her study. The four types of interlingual mistakes made by junior secondary school students are divided into four subcategories: : (1) incorrect spellings, which

account for 5 cases (4.20 percent), (2) the use of Indonesian words, which account for 5 cases (4.20 percent), (3) the use of constructs from the first language, which account for 21 cases (17.65 percent), and (4) the absence of BE in nominal past sentences, which account for 5 cases (4.20 percent) (4.20 percent). Interlingual mistakes in Vocation High School are divided into four subcategories: (1) incorrect word spelling (6.51 percent), (2) usage of Indonesian words (9.26 percent), (3) use of L1 structure (15.76 percent), and (4) omission of BE in nominal past statement (9.26 percent), and two subcategories in university, (1) the use of L1 form is represented by 5 cases (6.10 percent), and (2) the absence of BE in Nominal Sentence is represented by 4 cases (4.87 percent).

Intralingual errors made by Junior High school students included: (1) suffix omission, which was recorded in 8 cases (6.78%), (2) using present BE in past event, which was recorded in 12 cases (14.28%), (3) adding BE in past verbal phrase, which was recorded in 15 cases (12.60%), (4) using the present verb in past event, which was recorded in 16 cases (13.44%), and (5) incorrect personal pronounciation, which was recorded in 16 cases (13.44 (4.21 percent)), (6) The use of a present auxiliary pronoun in a historical occurrence was reported in 6 cases (5.05%), (7) the absence of ('s) as a possessive marker was recorded in 7 cases (5.88%), and (8) the addition of S in irregular plural nouns was recorded in 9 cases (7.56 percent). The following intralingual errors is found in Vocation High School for intralingual errors : (1) incorrect word spelling in 5 cases (4.59 percent), (2) use of present BE in past event in 24 cases (22.02 percent), (3) use of present verb in past event in 34 cases (31.19 percent), and (4) absence of s/es in standard plural noun in 7 cases (6.42 percent).

Kafipour and Khojasteh (2012) discovered seven distinct error types, all of which fall under the category of interlanguagel errors. Interlingual errors account for around 16.19 percent of all errors. Learners committed five separate vague errors, accounting for about 20% of all errors. Eight types of errors that may be classified as developmental errors were also found, accounting for around 40% of all learner errors. They can be considered errors that are part of developmental errors. According to Chelli (2013)'s research, interlingual and intralingual mistakes in the usage of prepositions and papers can be distinguished.

Following some records, it was discovered that negative transfer of the Arabic language is responsible for 79.15 percent of prepositional errors and 72.85 percent of article errors. Overgeneralizations and erroneous concepts hypothesized as a result of a lack of experience account for 20,85 percent of prepositions and 27,15 percent of papers. Misusing verbs, omitting the personal and object pronouns, misusing prepositions, overusing posts, and incorrect word order were among the most often observed mistakes, according to Solano (2014). This emphasizes the interference of the first language of EFL learners when writing in English, which is often attributed to linguistic transference from the NL to the TG.

“The absence of Auxiliary Past Tense in Negative Sentences- A negative sentence is a form of sentence that indicates negation or opposition,” Ekawati (2015) writes in his findings. The word "not" must be inserted to indicate negation in the English language. For starters, I did not attend church today. A negative sentence in Indonesian can be constructed by applying the word not (tidak) to a noun, an adjective, a prepositional expression, or a numeral to complement the subject. In Indonesian, the verb "to be" does not exist. In Indonesia, for example, a negative sentence could be: "I didn't go to school yesterday (Saya tidak pergi ke sekolah kemarin). The omission mistake of be as auxiliary past tense indicates that second language learners overlook be as modal auxiliary in the negative past tense form. The students failed to place be (did) in the prior of not + V I by omitting be as a negative past tense marker. In this case, the writer discovered the following errors while analyzing the data: 1) IL: Prince not believe about that. 2) IL: He not kill the dog.

Talosa (2018) discovered that the most common syntax errors made by learners ranged from tenses (35) to Pronoun-antecedent agreement (27), defective parallelism (24), subjectverb agreement (20), fragment (18), fused-sentence (5), and three cases of redundancy (ranked second to seventh). The mistake in verb tense was found to be the most common in the writings of English second language learners.

The learners were observed to have come up with the following sentences on pronoun-antecedent agreements: “Teachers hold dispositions and abilities to treat all facets of his or her job reflectively.” When it came to topic verb agreement mistakes, the second language students came up with the

following; “the outputs and learnings of their students depends on the positivity of their ways of teaching.” “They are a living proof of heroism” and “Teachers are like a candle”. More so, they also used the following sentences in their composition, “Teachers gear towards everything is the persistence they have”.

Hourani (2008), on the other hand, looked at the most frequent grammar errors made by male students in the Emirati. He conducted his study with the support of 106 Emirati students and 21 teachers from five Emirati schools. He discovered that passivisation, verb tense and structure, word order, prepositions, subject-verb agreement, posts, plural forms, and auxiliaries were the most common mistakes. In his conclusion, he advises that tools such as school textbooks be used to increase learners' writing success by covering more open and supervised writing practices.

Kirkgöz investigated the written mistakes of Turkish English Second Language Learners (2010). His concept was to divide the errors into two types: interlingual and intralingual. The information was gathered from 120 essays written by Turkish ESL students at Ukurova University in Turkey. According to the conclusions of the inquiry, the bulk of these students' mistakes are interlingual and are examples of first language intervention.

2.4 Morphosyntactic interlanguage in oral and written English

Learners frequently commit errors; persistent, fossilised and other inevitable errors in communication, it may be in the oral and written English. Global or local, they are still evident and needs attention, Gany (2002). Despite having gone through many years of learning English, learners tend to commit the same mistakes, on the other hand only small numbers of learners are good writers and fluent speakers in communicating their thoughts, Crompto (2011). Previous studies have given a clear evidence that oral and written form of language can be relied on and is also an accurate method of assessing records over time and space, though it is unpreventable for grammatical errors not to appear in the records.

According to Clark and Clark (1977), “speaking continues to be split into two categories of activity- planning and execution” (p. 224). There is a procedure for planning and executing. There are five steps in the process. Firstly, the speakers should make a decision on which of the discourses they are willing

to take. For example, telling a story. Secondly, correct sentences and grammar needs to be carefully selected by the speakers. Third, speakers make decisions on the sentences, the constituent is also scheduled by the speaker. Fourth, sentences are put by the speakers into articulatory program. Then lastly, the speaker executes the contents.

Brown (2001, p.272) addresses micro skills in speech in his article, and they are as follows: produce various lengths of language chunks, orally produce variations between English phonemes and allophonic versions, produce English stress patterns, stressed and unstressed words, rhythmic form, and intonational contours, In order to meet pragmatic targets, create shortened types of words and phrases, and use a sufficient number of lexical units. Produce fluent speech at various transmission speeds, track your own speech and use a variety of techniques (pauses, fillers, self-correction, backtracking) to improve the message's clarity. Using grammatical word groups, structures, and word order to your advantage, produce expression in natural constituents in suitable words, pause groups, breath groups, and sentences-using patterns, rules, and elliptical structures, articulate a specific meaning in various grammatical forms, and use coherent devices in spoken discourse.

Dulay (1982 p. 139) has define errors as flawed side of learners' speech or writing form. He puts emphasis saying that the errors that appears in both the spoken and the written form of language originated from the selected norm in language performances. It highlights that committing errors is also part of leaning a language. When one is learning a language, they cannot put aware errors because they occure naturally in the process of learning. On the other hand; Brown (2000 p.170) keeps mentioning that the errors are a deviation that can be noticeable even from the grammar of a native speaker, it reflects the interlanguage competences of language learners. Learners have varieties of competencies when it comes to learning the English language, hence they commit different errors.

It is however necessary to put into use the grammar that is correct in the spoken form of communication; for the reason that when good grammar is used the speaker is able to extract meaning. Celce-Murcia (1995 p. 249) puts in bold the word grammar, she says it is important about the pattern and the system put to use when selecting wording or when combining them. During

grammar studies; second language learners work on identifying systems known as the foundation of languages. Krishnasamy, Otte and Silbergeld (2015) mentioned that grammar is viewed to be the fundamental element of second language learners of learning a language.

Skills that signifies productive in the process of learning a language are speaking and writing. When one is able to speak a language that is foreign it is considered a priority to the learners of the learners. It is very difficult to be fluent in the skills of speaking a foreign language because it is put to use spontaneously. The writing skill can be a very difficult task to master for the second language learners (Sajid, 2016; Amiri and Puteh, 2017) because the mistakes and errors that are made are not tolerated compared as to when one is speaking. Writing is process that needs planning, most of the time the language learners have plenty of time of reflecting on their knowledge. This is basically the reason as to why they are more errors recorded in the spoken form of language than in the writings. Writing is described as "a medium of communication for transferring messages or thoughts that are generated in written form in a series of sentences in a specific order and related in specific ways" (Syam and Sangkala, 2014). Additionally, Hyland (2003) believed that the performance in the development of a language relays on the improvement in the skill of writing. Hence, it is finalised that the skill of writing can be a relied on indicator of the level of an individual's competence of language.

A factual study was done by Makalela (2004), where he investigated the disparity between "written and spoken proficiencies of English as a second language learners. In his study, Makalela compared and contrasted speeches, samples used during the study revealed a low percentage of morphosyntactic errors of the learners' written compositions and high percentage in their oral presentations. As a result, it was proposed that this disparity could be narrowed by using learners' written inter-language variety as a way of achieving normative writing proficiency. A study that was conducted by Hilary (2018) found that "apostrophe errors have been found in many of the letters that the students have written, it recorded the majority of grammatical errors, however, one can assume that the errors are a result of apostrophes not being put into words, as a result, students compose in the same manner as they say, missing the apostrophes.

Timo (2019) has said that the results by generally looking at the comparisons of oral transcriptions and written tests presents a nonstandard morpho-syntactic forms which are less popular (45.4 percent) in presentations than they are in compositions (52.3 percent). Nonstandard discourse types, on the other hand, were more common in presentations (75.5%) than in compositions (24.4 percent). The less nonstandard morpho-syntactic forms in the presentations, the better, suggested that learners are carrying an underlying grammatical competence which is not seen in the written tests, this has confirmed the general views that writings are the most complex when it comes to acquiring language skills.

With the above, in the EAP course, over emphasis of writing, often to the detriment of other skills, has proved of being insufficient on its own in assisting learners to produce successful writing. Challenges which are encountered by second language lecturers, hence, it relies in their own abilities to assist the second language learners in translating their oral grammatical competences into written proficiency. This means that the spoken ability of the learners will need to be tapped on by the teachers that often draws on skills or expressions from their local languages. Accepting and systematically guiding the second language learners' interlanguage writing can sometimes be a pivotal step in evolving an L2 writing theory that is independent of L1 methods and practices.

Newton (2008), whose research was based on teaching second language, mentions that at this level, most classes rely on the spoken word rather than the written word, which has an impact on their writing when they write according to grammar because they don't know how to spell the word. .

The skills of writing a language are tough to learn or teach, because they are not like mental processes through which we make sense of the world around us; rather, it is considered to be a dynamic mental mechanism that necessitates "careful thought, discipline, and concentration" (Grami, 2010, p. 9). Al Fadda (2012) states that the main problem encountered by English second language learners is comparing written and spoken terms and expressions, updating syntax, including subject-verb agreement, and connecting sentences to form a cohesive paragraph". Coming up and generating views related to the subject matter also obstruct second language learners from improving with the written form of a target language (Al Murshidi, 2014).

Cheng (2007) points out that a second language learners' accession in the oral form of a language is likely to progress slowly than the written form. He proposed attention to be given more on the oral form for the reason that second language proficiency can be attained solitary by an involvement in spoken conversations. Regardless, contemporary investigations presume that it takes a second language learner about five or six years to progress to a full form of "oral proficiency" However, it is dependent on "the learners' age and previous educational level" (Hakuta et al., 2000). (Howard et al., 2003; cited in Cheng, 2007.) In his closing statement Zhanng (2005) mentioned that morpho-syntactic interlanguage occurred more in the written form than oral, his research also reveals that L2 learners' English interlanguage differs in occurrence and style from oral and written English, and that the difference becomes more pronounced as structural properties increase.

General findings indicates that in the majority of investigations the features of syntactic examined took place oftenly, albeit to varying extents, in writings the subjects than in oral form, the biggest distinction occurred in finite complement clauses and relative clauses. The subjects' speech lacked the use of finite complement clauses and relative clauses. In truth, the subjects used finite complement clauses six times more often in their writing than they did in their speeches. More notably, relative clauses appeared 16 times as often in their prose as they did in their voice (Sal, 1998). This demonstrates that in the written form, the use of finite complement and relative clauses dominates the features of cautious forms, while in speaking, it is fair to assume that interlanguage differs in terms of type.

This can also be compared to the idea that expression, which is characteristic of fast on-line processing, is more concerned with meaning than with form, while in written essays, the majority of emphasis is focused on production and, in particular, complex constructs, resulting in a more 'careful' style (Tarone 1983). It's also conceivable that the subjects' spontaneous speech was produced by their 'acquired' systems, while the writings were 'monitored' by their 'learned' systems, which explains why they seemed to be structurally complex (Krashen 1982).

Some investigations have come across that the language that is used in written work is different from that from the oral language in terms of the characteristics. DeVito (1965) compared the writings and spoken form of language of ten speech professors on topics of professional interest. He concluded in his study that their writings were longer in length and they used only a few words that are known to be

common, it was also noted that they used a quit number of words in their writings. Driemann (1962) presented same findings as he analysed the writings and oral speeches of graduate students' painting descriptions. More studies also have mentioned similar sayings by mentioning that writings are less redundant than speeches, there is reapeitition during speaking, either verbatim or in paraphrase.

2.5 Research gap

Enormous scholars have conducted studies on learning English as a second language in Namibia. Different studies have attempted to identify errors in Namibian students' written work, and only a few could stipulate why these errors had occurred, hence this study aimed to fill the gap by revealing the influences to the Morphosyntactic interlanguage of English second language learners. Furthermore, In order to learn about the process of composing in second learners sincerely, it was important to have sight of how learners composed in their first language and second language, which have been so far presented on a smaller scale. The study also filled a gap by balancing the occurrence of interlanguage in both the written and spoken form, which was scarcely looked at previously.

2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.6.1 Background

The theory of Interlanguage was first defined by Larry Selinker, he came up with the theory after coining the two terms "interlanguage" and "fossilisation". Despite Selinker, Uriel Weinreich is also credited for being the first linguist to acknowledge the problem of interlanguage. According to Selinker (1972) "in a given situation, the utterances produced by a learner are different from those that native speakers would produce had they attempted to convey the same meaning".

The contrast advocates for the presence of the "separate linguistic systems". These systems may be noticed while studying statements by learners attempting to communicate something in the second language; it might not be noticeable when these same learners perform tasks that are focused on tasks, like "oral drills in a class" (Alter & Oppenheimer, 2009). Interlanguage varies according to situations, for instance "it may be more accurate, complex and fluent in one domain than in another" (Alter & Oppenheimer, 2009).

The primary conceptualisation in Selinker's (1972) seminal paper included the major ideas in interlanguage: firstly, the view that learners move through a series of intermediate stages from the first language to the second language; secondly, that the learners' goal is to move from the linguistic system of the interlanguage to the second language systems; third, is that the production of the learners is not to be described in terms of the linguistic units of the L1 or the L2; and lastly is that 96% of second language learners do not attain the L2 systems.

Interlanguage is independent, and it is a structured linguistic system which looks at both errors and non-errors produced by learners who try to produce a TL. Interlanguage is idiosyncratic to learners, however, there happens to be common ranges of IL structures and patterns that learners are using with the same L1 and different L1s. Corder's (1971) mentions that, the use of alternative terms for IL, idiosyncratic dialect, emphasize that second language learners do not share the same Interlanguages, even though studies that show commonalities across learners may make it feasible to talk of "mini-dialects" for a group of learners in the same class (James 1998).

2.6.2 Characteristics

Interlanguage is a speech habit that is created by second language learners, it maintains some first language features and may even overgeneralise second language writing and speaking rules. Interlanguage is seen as a developmental process of L2 learning and it may constitute some features of a learner's first language. The two interlanguage principles produces the system's special linguistic organisation. Interlanguage is individually constructed by a learner's experience in the second language. It can "fossilise", and stop evolving at any stage. Interlanguage structures may be built on different factors, they include but are not limited to the first language transfer, strategies of learning, communication strategies, and overgeneralisation of partens. The theory of interlanguage is built on the belief that "there is a dormant psychological framework in the human brain that is activated when one attempts to learn a second language" (McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1983).

According to Selinker (1972) interlanguage has three major principles/tenets. Interlanguage is permeable, within this principle the learners knowledge of rules is not fixed, but may change any time. " This is a characteristic of native languages in general. Permeability exists in all language systems. Only the degree of permeability distinguishes interlanguage from other language structures."

(Selinker, 1972). Secondly, interlanguage is dynamic, it can always change. Even though the interlanguage of a learner does not go through levels or stages, instead it moves on a slow pace when revising “the interim systems to alter recent hypotheses to the TG system” (Selinker, 1972). It is noticed when a second language learner come across new rules of the TG. New rules extends in a way that what it covers slowly spreads over an extent of linguistic contexts. The activity of continual alterations and addition to rules is a function of interlanguage's intrinsic volatility and its built-in proclivity for change (Song, 2012).

Systematicity is the third tenet. It is possible to note "the rule-based structure of the learner's interlanguage" in interlanguage without being influenced by "instability" (Song, 2012). Second language learners do not pick or choose coincidentally from what they know, it rather happens in a predictable way. Despite the three stated principles, Interlanguage can also be said to be variable, meaning that it is not constant or fixed, but it can change. At any level of second language learning, learners may work based on the rules they have established. Tarone (2001) mentions that in interlanguage there is mutual intangibility, he says it is seen as the link between dialects and languages where speakers understand one another without unusual efforts.

Since certain features are identical in IL, child language, and pidgins, a number of studies have attempted to explain Interlanguage features (Andersen 1983). According to Williams (1989), a variety of characteristics of non-native institutionalised varieties of English can be found in learners' languages, implying that they have their origins in individual SLA. When IL is related to “reduced” types of language such as child language and pidgins, scholars describe it as “a variation of language that is both formally and communicatively reduced when compared to languages used as natural languages by adults” (Faerch & Kasper 1984 p.271) . Other than that, some researchers, such as Bickerton (1983) and Myhill (1991), agree that the social contexts in which each occurs are incomparable, despite Adamson (1989) suggesting that a similar bioprogram guides production in these various contexts.

2.6.3 Application

In the course of studying new languages, Selinker's theory of Interlanguage assumes that the "conscious and autonomous learning mind" makes its own generalisations. The theory argues that mistakes created by second language learners in the rules of the target language are deemed "right" by the rules of "interlanguage," the students came up with it as a temporary and workable replacement. The insistence on punishing those "mistakes" has the effect of destroying the learner's ability to plan his or her success in this manner.

Therefore, the interlanguage theory may be applied to second language learning of the sounds, grammar, vocabulary, pragmatics, etc. of the target language. Working within the Interlanguage theoretical framework, the researcher had sufficient information to prove that second language learners' errors originate from a certain point in the process of actively mastering the target language. The researcher recorded conversations and also worked with written information whereby the L2 learners had to concentrate on what was being communicated and not the structure.

Free compositions were used to provide a corpus for analysis of written forms. Samples that were taken from the participants presented at least not less than two occurrences of errors, after the collection of data, it was compiled to discover the influence of morphosyntactic interlanguage, the features of morphosyntactic interlanguage and the frequency of morphosyntactic interlanguage in both written and oral form.

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CHAPTER THREE

1. RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter examines the techniques and resources used to collect data for the current research. The study variables which are targeted by the current study are also stipulated. Kasomo (2006) says that, "research methods are the general strategies to be followed in collecting and analysing data" (p.8). This chapter, therefore, will be discussing the details on the research design, the site of the study, description of the study population, sampling size and sampling techniques, the research instruments, and procedures of data collection. It is following this background that the data will then be analysed. This chapter ends with a discussion of how the data were managed as guided by research ethics and limitations of the study.

3.1 Research design

A mixed method approach had been followed in this research. The use of both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to obtain data from participants. According to Pickell (2019, p.4) "qualitative method looks at answering questions on the reasons why and how people behave in the way that they do, whereas quantitative method seeks to explain a phenomena by putting together statistical data that are analysed with the help of mathematical methods." The qualitative method was used to obtain first hand data from the second language learners, using qualitative method the researcher evaluated the features of morphosyntactic interlanguage, as well as investigating the influence to morphosyntactic interlanguage, whereas the quantitative method was used to quantify the occurrence of morphosyntactic errors in both written and oral form of the target language.

The thesis employs a qualitative approach to data processing; one notable benefit of this process is that it allows the researcher to examine fields such as anatomy, grammar, semantics, and pragmatics "where binary options are not necessarily open for quantitative analysis" (Tarone et al. 1976). In addition, the qualitative approach outperforms the quantitative method when studying SLA processes rather than the commodity (Rutherford 1984). Nonetheless, the qualitative analysis has a number of drawbacks. The most important drawback, according to Tarone (1987), is the lack of generalisability that is possible when conclusions are focused on qualitative research. She advises that data may be

easily misinterpreted, and that in order to prevent this, contextual considerations must be considered, especially when data sets are small.

With Quantitative approach, concerns are based on measurements to answer the questions “how much” or “how many”. The approach emphasizes on objectivity and yields numerical data. The quantitative method is a technique used to gather measurable data that is used in investigating language variation. According to Hocini (2011), this method is considered central to variationist sociolinguistics. Language data are obtained and statistically tested on the number of occurrences of linguistic forms that are subject to variation. These linguistic forms are then correlated with social factors, tables, pie charts, bar graphs etc. are always used to present this method clearly.

In this study, quantitative methods are used to measure the occurrence of morphosyntactic interlanguage in written and spoken English. Hocini (2011) sees the qualitative and quantitative approaches as complementing each other rather than opposing each other. He implies that “the qualitative methods are employed to observe while the quantitative methods are employed to test; the former methods describe while the latter methods count” (p.88).

3.2 Research Setting, Study Population, Sampling and Sample Size

The study was conducted at Mafwila senior secondary school, with a total number of 110 English second language learners of grade 12. These learners have Silozi as their first language, the choice of the setting was based on the fact that the school is situated in the rural area of the Zambezi region, in the Ngoma area, hence there is no chance of the learners having English as their home language, and these learners are totally English second language learners. The reason for selecting the grade 12s was to let the investigation obtain information from a group who had an equal linguistic knowledge. Secondly, these speakers also shared the same first language and had common social cultural practices. From the 110 total population, using Krejcie and Morgan’s model of sampling, only 86 were randomly taken as the sample size and they represented the second language speakers at Mafwila senior secondary school. The researcher used random sampling to give all in the society a fair probability of being chosen.

3.3 Instruments

A written composition constituting instructions from the researcher were developed to establish the quality of L2 learners' written fluency as well the features of the learners' morphosyntactic interlanguage. Secondly, an oral test was also given to the learners, these learners were asked to discuss about a well-known topic and the researcher recorded, observed and took note of the errors as the oral presentation took place. Samples were taken from both the written composition and the oral test to quantifying the occurrence of morphosyntactic interlanguage. Face to face interviews were conducted with the selected participants to find out if there was something during their second language learning that may be accounted for their errors, the interviews with individual were conducted later after obtaining the written and oral data

3.4 Procedure(s)

The participants who were the second language learners, were given the question papers and were verbally instructed to read the questions carefully. Participants were given time to read the instructions and the questions to make sure they understood before they started writing. They were then given time to respond to the questions in a written form. The participants were monitored by their teacher, to maintain confirmability within the learners, the teacher was given the power to respond to any questions raised by the learners.

The oral proficiency test commenced shortly after completing the written test. The participants were given clear instructions before the test. They were advised to raise questions when they did not understand, they were encouraged to speak in a natural way as they always do for accurate results.

The participants were guided on what they were supposed to base their essays on, the length was explained in the guide. With reference to this, Cummings (1995, p.375) have explained saying that "learners receive support through a framework of prompts and definitions, detailed modeling, and in-process assistance..." The part that is positive about this is that all the participants had something to write about. The produced essays were different in their length, the contents aswell as in their linguistic structures, however all respondents adhered to the instructions they were given.

The length of the task was not more than 180 words. The word limit was developed to serve a purpose in this study only. There was counting of words which was involved to all the used essays just to make sure they meet what is required. The words had to be counted also for the reason that a number of essays were too short, and others very long. Both the topics and the participants' subsequent compositions, as well as the control time, were comparable in this study (Celaya & Torras, 2001, p.14). The performance of learners varies depending on the task, according to Lengo (1995, p.3).

For certain activities, learners may have greater influence over linguistic forms, while for others, they may be more vulnerable to errors. According to Krashen's (1981) Monitor Model (cited in Lengo, 1995, p.3), tasks that require learners to concentrate on content are more likely to result in errors than tasks that require them to concentrate on type. According to this argument, the structure of the compositions used in this study are appropriate for interlanguage review because learners are led by material prompts, allowing them to focus solely on linguistic types. As a result, the mistakes made by the learners would be more grammar-based than content-based.

3.5 Data Analysis (Qualitative/ Quantitative/Mixed)

As the study aimed to determine the frequency of the written and oral interlanguage, information was gathered from second language learners' written and oral production, evaluating the features of morphosyntactic interlanguage and investigating the influence to these errors. Quantitative data was used to quantify the frequency of morphosyntactic interlanguage. The researcher provided topics on which data was produced, frequent counts were done to compare interlanguage in written and oral form, and data was then tabulated.

3.6 Ethical Issues

In order to collect data for the study, the researcher obtained a consent form and advance permission to collect data. For the reason that there was recording of the participants' oral language, a consent form was designed and was given to all the participants before the recording. Data was treated confidentially, only the researcher and the supervisor had access to the information. The names of the participants were not written on any scripts, the researcher rather used alphabets to identify the responds.

1.7 Limitations

Even though the research met its objectives, a number of factors limited and influenced the collection of data. Firstly, the outbreak of the Covid19 (Corona virus) which restricted meetings played as a major limitation to effective data. Participants scattered into different locations, making it difficult for the researcher to obtain data timeously. Secondly, a few participants could not be reached as the contacts they provided went unreachable. Even though alternative means were brought in to obtain data, the researcher feels that more effective data was going to be obtained if not for the above noted limitations.

1.8 Validity and Reliability

“Validity is foremost on the minds of those designing metrics, and true quantitative evaluation is foremost in the minds of those seeking results from assessment,” according to Bond (2003, p. 179). (p.81). Validity is regarded as the foundation of some sort of reliable and precise measurement, according to the quoted argument (Bond, 2003, p. 179). Validity is sometimes referred to as the degree at which scientific proof and theoretical rational affirm the adequacy and appropriateness of interpretations and behavior based on test scores, according to Messick (1989, p. 76).

However, according to Costantini et al. (2015), “... a test is accurate for calculating an attribute if (a) the attribute occurs and (b) deviations in the attribute causally cause difference in the measurement” (p.82). They disagree with Messick's understanding of authenticity. Messick's point of view was followed in this research. Validity, which is at the heart of this research, is critical not just for estimation but also for calculation in general. Furthermore, the measurement should be used in a variety of countries and cultures; however, if this is not done, the assessment could be seen as biased. Once the results of tests have been accurately interpreted, validity may determine how orders are changed (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007).

A test is accurate if it can be used by many scholars under controlled conditions with predictable findings with little variation in the results. Consistency and replicability over time are reflected in reliability. Aside from that, reliability is described as the degree to which tests are free of measurement errors, with the number of measurement errors increasing the test's reliability (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Similarly, Ginsburg (1997) wondered if similar experiments

could yield the same findings if given to the same children under the same circumstances. It assists researchers and educators in developing accurate comparisons. The higher the number of faults in one assessment, the more unreliable it is, and vice versa. In evaluations, reliability is rather critical, because it is presented as a factor that contributes to validity rather than as a factor that is opposed to validity. The standard concept of validity was transformed by Messick (1989) from "reliability in contrast to validity" to "reliability being united with validity." Messick (1989) demonstrated support for a single definition of validity that incorporates durability as one of the forms of validity, thus leading to overall construct validity.

As Messick (1989, p. 8) puts it, "Construct validity is a sine qua non in the confirmation not only of test comprehension but also of test usage, in the sense that significance, usefulness, and appropriateness of test use are both dependent on score context." Build validity is important not only for test analysis but also for test usage, according to Messick (1989). The test must be relevant and dependable to be used.

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CHAPTER FOUR

4. FINDINGS

This chapter looks at the found results, where data was captured by using composition writing and oral interviews. Generally, the researcher discovered with full evidence that the phenomena of interlanguage occur on an everyday basis. For the second and third objectives to be responded to, it was important to investigate the influence of Morphosyntactic interlanguage and the results that follows are the manifestation to the occurrence of morphosyntactic interlanguage among grade12 learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School. Other than that, it was also important to evaluate the morphosyntactic features and to also explore whether the morphosyntactic interlanguage occurred frequently in the written form or spoken form.

The Second language process, whether written or oral, present some degree of cross-linguistic influences and transfers. The influence occurs in any direction, as Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) stated “Foreign language writing is a continuous flow of cross-linguistic influences” (p.9). The language and culture transfers may have two purposes: firstly, it is a social identity builder, it brings social, cultural and linguistic issues together; Secondly, linguistic transfers may work as an individual identifier, it establishes psycholinguistics parameters within the writer’s linguistic behaviours. In the case of the grade12 second language learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School, they have developed autonomous English writing system after years of instructions. In the analysis of grade 12 learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary school’s written production, the researcher came across some common Interlanguage features, something that brings to mind some shared universal grammar even regarding second language behaviour.

Interlingual and intralingual errors are the two most common causes of interlanguage errors when learning a second language. Interlingual errors, according to Brown (2007), are caused by intrusion from the first language. The first language in this sense is Silozi, which is the interferer, and English, which is the interfered, is the target language. Intralingual mistakes, on the other hand, arise as language learners use their own imagination to create the language. Another cause of mistake,

according to Richard (1974), is developmental mistakes, which arise as learners want to build their own conclusions about the target language based on their limited understanding and experiences.

4.1 The influence to Morphosyntactic interlanguage

It was noted that as the learners were writing the given composition as well as responding to the oral questions, there were times when a number of them used words and sometimes sentences whose characters did not follow the English grammar rules. It was observed that, when these errors were being committed, the participants were unconscious of their errors hence they did not show concern. The reason why they did not show concern could be that the participants viewed it as normal, as it may be acceptable in their first language. Selinker feels that the fossilisation of interlanguage is a result of second language learners' usage of cognitive processes that are more general, that he called "latent psychological structure," instead of an innate language-specific UG, which he referred to as "language system that is hidden" (Lenneberg, 1967). The latent psychological mechanisms and forms interlanguage linguistic mechanism was said to be composed of five cognitive processes: (1) transmission of native language, (2) overgeneralisation of laws, (3) transfer of instruction, (4) coping techniques, and (5) learning strategies.

Mother Tongue

"Mother tongue" is regarded as a person's native language, which is a language that one learns from birth, it is also referred to as a first language, dominant language, home language, and native tongue. In this study the 'mother tongue' is believed to have contributed to the Morphosyntactic interlanguage of the grade12 English second language learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School, this came into sight when the English Second Language learners applied rules from their first language into the English language, the SVO rule from the English language was not followed by some participants. For example in the sentence "to town we went" instead of "we went to town". The participant used or was influenced by her first language where the sentence could be translated as "kwatolopo neluile", in Silozi language the sentence is considered correct. It occurred frequently in situations or areas where learners did not have sufficient knowledge in the English language, hence, used rules that were peculiar to their first language(Silozi)to the English language.

The influences of the mother tongue in second language learning has been discussed by Schmitt (2010). He stresses that it does not matter how negligible, mother tongue has influence towards learning a second language. He also says, a learner does not embark on a wholesale transfer of entire aspects of their mother tongue to the target language, and that changes may happen in the levels and intensities of interference as learners may be more competent in the second language. The statement, further, buttresses Selinker's views where he mentions that "interlanguage is dynamic and developmental, because learners tend to drop most of the interference as they approximate the target language" (p,123). This has however been opposed by a number of reseachers, claiming that different aspects of language learning do not manifest the same degree of susceptibility to mother tongue interference.

It was brought to light that some parts of the study of language are more vulnerable to mother tongue interference than others. For example, morphology is one of the areas that presents frequent traces of mother tongue interference than all other areas of language learning. Tregidgo (2001) in his study discusses how morphology of West African languages makes incursion into the English language spoken in former British colonies such as Nigeria, Ghana, Gambia and Sierra Leone (and also in Liberia). In the area of word formation, it was noted that because the participants' languages have comparatively fewer words than English, many Second language learners found it chiefly difficult to differentiate and correctly form some English words.

Cognition and psychological complications

According to Krashen's concepts of second language input, the limited quantity and low quality of target language input, as well as a lack of complete understanding of learners' learning needs, all damage learners' enthusiasm for learning and the formation of interlanguage fossilization can occur if too much emphasis is placed on target language input when language production skills are neglected (Littlewood, 1984). Learners who are not fluent English speakers have a psychological aversion to learning a second language.

A second language have four skills which are reading, listening, writing and speaking, learners may feel strange and awkward in mastering a second language equally. The English Second Language Learners

at Mafwila Senior Secondary School were noticed to have had a fear of communication apprehension, these learners however had an individual level of fear and anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with others. In fact general psychological complication includes 'quietness, shyness, and reticence' Xiaoyan Du (2009). This was noted and observed during the oral tests, some learners were totally shy, leading to them making more mistakes because they lacked confidence. It is cited in Tinjacá and Contreras (2008), Jones (2004) describes the apprehension of social humiliation that arises when learners are asked to communicate in the second language in public as a challenge in language learning. Furthermore, "second language learners must be able to communicate with trust in order to conduct all of their most basic transactions. They are often judged by these abilities, and it is through them that they make or lose mates. It serves as a vehicle for social advancement, technical advancement, and business" (Bygate, 1987, p. 1).

Learners often come across different patterns of anxiety in the process of using the second language in public performance, these patterns are Psychological, Methodological, Cognitive and Social. Psychological anxiety may include lack of emotional support, failure, stress, frustrations, lack of self-confidence, hostile environment and teenage complication. Anxieties named exposes psychological complexity. Methodological complexity may include lack of motivation like monotonous classes, dull topic, lack of student participation. Similarly, pedagogical practices include the practices of competition, lack of speaking and evaluations and grades. The Cognitive phase refers to the metacognitive which puts focus on learners' indifferences to learning processes and styles. Cognitive phase also deals with insufficiencies of students' lexis and grammar, long patterned sentences and complex structures and indefinite planning and scattered goals. Social affective factors puts focus upon the judgment of friends and teachers, possibility of risk of embarrassments and feeling of isolation.

In comparison to first language speakers, second language speakers including the participants of this study, experience the suffering from inner complexities and inner unnerving. They seem to lack psychological freedom and feel inner impediment in the use of the target language. "Self-esteem and self-confidence are like a building's foundations: if they aren't strong enough, then the most advanced technologies won't be enough to erect study walls over them. Students would not be able to 'bloom' as learners if they have simple questions about themselves, regardless of how imaginative the teacher's

inspiring concepts are” (Dörnyei, 2002, p. 87). Furthermore, people with a poor sense of self-efficacy see challenging tasks as risks rather than challenges, and in this case, they focus on their personal flaws and difficulties rather than how to complete the tasks successfully” (p.89). As a result, these people are more likely to abandon their activities when they lose confidence in their ability, and a darkness lurks behind them, preventing them from overcoming their vulnerability and fear (Tinjacá and Contreras, 2008).

Cultural difference and social distance

According to Schumann's study on foreigners who are refugees in America, second language learning is often influenced by the language and cultural context in which the learners find themselves. The disparity in cultural contexts creates a cognitive psychological obstacle for second language learners. The greater the gulf between learners and achievement in a second language, the less likely they are to succeed.

According to this theory, the degree to which second language learners embrace a target language's culture, i.e., the degree to which second language learners respond to social and psychological concepts, can decide if second language learners achieve progress and achieve admirable levels. Schoumann believes that since the pidgin language's structure is identical to that of the fossilised interlanguage, the explanations behind it are also similar. As a result, it is the social barrier that limits the use of vocabulary, resulting in the fossilisation of second language (Chen, 1999). Mafwila Senior Secondary school is a school that is situated in the Ngoma area, a notable kilometers away from Katima Mulilo town, with reference to Chen (1999)' statement, the social distance from town maybe another contributing factor to interlanguage, as Mabuku (2018) notes in his research that “ ESL results from the Caprivi senior secondary school are far much better than of Sanjo Senior secondary school” this could be because the Caprivi senior secondary school is situated in town and learners are more exposed to the English language that those found outside town who may only be speaking English at school.

The degree to which these students acculturate to the second language community determines their proficiency in the target language. In this case, social isolation refers to the distance between second language learners and the target language community. The working environments of L2 students also

play a role in their progress. As a result, if they are learning under poor learning environments, such as believing that their language is more dominant than the target language community, they would believe that learning the target language is unnecessary. They would be popular, though, if they are studying in good health and feel there is a need to learn the language. Many variables, such as the equality between L1 and L2 classes, influence social distance.

Input

The kind of inputs that happens to be received by second language learners also plays a role by making differences to the sequences of the development of the language. "Repeated results were the associations between the occurrence of such forms in the input and their presence in learners' ILs," Larsen-Freeman (1991) concludes (p.320). To add on that, Sajavaara (cited in Allwright 1984) came across some distinctions when it comes to the acquisition sequences of learners from Finland.

Wode (1981) however has argued saying, a learner who is in natural situation follows strict sequences of language development, unlike learners who are in an instructed environments who have orders of development "characterised by rather loose chronological ordering" (p.305). Nonetheless, a number of researchers have found that formal orders have little influence on natural order, regardless of whether the learner is in a naturalistic or formal condition, and regardless of the learners' L1 (Lalleman 1996; Meisel et al. 1981; Perkins & Larsen-Freeman 1975; Pienemann 1984; Towell & Hawkins 1994).

Krashen (1985) agrees with his non-interface position on the parallels between learners' vocabulary in formal and naturalistic contexts. Formal orders, in this view, have little effect on language acquisition because formal learning and implicit comprehension are unrelated, and the two-knowledge representations do not communicate. Learners' output is the result of their acquisition rather than formal instructions. Allwright (1984) proposes two possible explanations: the natural syllabus may override what is already in the classroom, or classroom discourse is not significantly different from the input received in natural environments.

4.1.1 Summary

The above findings confirms that interlanguage, particularly in the area of Morphosyntax do not just appear but is rather influenced by some factors. Mother tongue among all was observed to have been

the most influential factor to interlanguage. A number of sentences which recorded errors seemed to have used rules from the mother tongue, this could be that the L2 learners lack sufficient knowledge of the TG language rules. However other factors such as; Cognition and psychological complications, Cultural difference and social distance and input were also part of the contributing factors to the morphosyntactic interlanguage of grade12 learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School.

4.2 Morphosyntactic features

Interlanguage features were analysed and calculated using positivist scientific concepts. The most important Interlanguage ideals have been collected and organized into groups based on their nature and language levels. These linguistic characteristics are divided into two categories: Those that are breaking second language standard grammatical systems, e.g. lack of third person –s and , the ones that violate second-language normative grammatical structures, such as the absence of third-person –s, and those that are caused by first-language cognitive intervention but do not indicate a communication failure. The first is concerned with syntactic characteristics, while the second is concerned with discursive and lexical elements from the first language and that have been incorporated into the second language scheme The eventual effects that a first language has on the target language (in this case, English) should not be seen as a flaw, but rather as the creators of an Interlanguage identity that all second language learners share.

The researcher identified two kinds of errors in the writings and oral language of learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School – morphological and syntactic. The table below shows that their writings and oral communication contain a lot of morphosyntactic interlanguage of different types.

As a result, the table below summarises the various categories of errors contained in the learners' work:

INTERLANGUAGE FEATURESS
1. Wrong Word order
2. Wrong Subject - Verb Agreement rule

3. Wrong Verb Structure
4. Wrong Noun/Adjective Structures
5. Morpheme Addition
6. Morpheme Omission
7. Short Forms

The table above gives a summary of the seven morphosyntactic interlanguage features found in the grade12 English Second language learners' oral and written compositions. The table obviously shows that these learners are facing real problems in both oral and written English. These interlanguage features varies from wrong word order, wrong subject-verb agreement, wrong verb structure, wrong noun/adjective structure, morpheme addition, morpheme omission and short forms. Below are the tables describing these features in detail;

Word Order Errors

Interlanguage feature	Examples	Correct form
Word Order	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I didn't want to went back. 2... the place biutifulu. 3. She presented points very clear. 4. I liked the pulace. 5. He lifted suddenly his shoulders. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I didn't want to go back. 2... the beautiful place. 3. She presented very clear points. 4. I liked the place. 5. He suddenly lifted his shoulders.

Fig. 1

The above table (Fig.1) is showing that participants are facing problems with word order. They lack sufficient knowledge about the rules of English syntax. Other than that, it was also noticeable that within

one same sentence, a number of mistakes could be picked out. The first example highlights wrong usage of the syntactic order and structure of the verb. It is shown in 'I didn't want to went back', Instead of 'I didn't want to go back'. The participants in the second case used '...the place beautiful' rather than "... the beautiful place' while the adjective must come before the noun it quantifies.

The meaning of this mistake is interference, in Silozi, the adjective may come after the noun or before. Similarly, with the other example given, the participant used the adjective and the verb it quantifies are in the incorrect syntactic order. That is, they raised "...very simple things" rather than "...very clear points." Furthermore, it was seen in another instance of Silozi intrusion at the morphology stage of the word "beautiful," where the participant wrote it with a l as in Silozi'biutifulu." As a result, both of the above errors can be attributed to a lack of rule enforcement and Silozi interference.

Another feature identified in both the oral and spoken language of the participants was the wrong subject – verb agreement. The following table precisely demonstrates this:

Subject - Verb Agreement Errors

Interlanguage feature	Examples	Correct Form
Wrong Subject Agreement	1.... where the kids plays. 2. He eat often... 3. The other part show us... 4. One of my friends like to eat Italian food 5. Time seem to go quickly.	1... where the kids play 2. He eats often ... 3. The other part shows us ... 4. One of my friends likes to eat Italian food 5. Time seems to go quickly.

Fig. 2

Some participants made errors at the level of subject verb agreement, as seen in the table above (Fig. 2). It is clear that the students do not understand the rules requiring a verb to agree in person and number with its topic. When the subject is singular, the verb must therefore be singular, and the same is true when the subject is plural. As a result, it is obvious from all of the cases in the table that the

participants did not use the third person singular marker, namely, 's,' as in 'he eat sometimes,' and 'the other part show us,' instead of 'Where the kids play,' and 'the other part show us,' and that these errors can be attributed to a lack of understanding of English laws.'

Verb structure Errors

Error Classification	Examples	Correct form
Verb Structure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We did not found the phone ... 2. ... how she's walked ... 3. ... it will happened... 4. She was already went. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We did not find the phone ... 2. ... how she is walking ... 3. ... it will happen ... 4. She was already gone.

Fig. 3

The table above gives examples of the language mistakes by the grade12 learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary school, the examples were taken from both their oral and written compositions. The presented examples are related to the structure of the verb, looking at tense or verb morphology. In the first instance it clearly illustrates that the participant made a mistake on the verb's form after the auxiliary. This could be the reason of them writing 'we did not found the phone' instead of 'We did not find the phone'. The verb was written in its simple past tense rather than it being written in infinitive form. In addition, looking at the second example it may show that the learner was unable to use the present continuous tense.

To be specific, the participant made use of 'how she's walked' instead of 'how she is walking'. In the third example just like the second one, the participant could not express in the past tense. Different examples given above shows that the participants lack of command of the English tenses. Hence the Incomplete rule enforcement and interlanguage intervention may be to blame for errors. Other than that, noun, adjective, and adverbs also signify to be another problem, this is shown in the table below;

Noun/Adjective/Adverb Structure Errors

Interlanguage feature	Example	Correct form
Noun/Adjective/Adverb Structure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Her short sufferance from ... 2. Her physical sick ... 3. ...she could not be seen clear 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Her short suffering from ... 2. Her physical sickness ... 3. ...she could not be seen clearly

Fig. 4

Fig. 4 is showing that the second language learners are facing problems with adverbs, adjectives and nouns in English. Meaning, they sometimes mix them up. Other than that, they even form unacceptable words, for example “ ‘fiveteen’ where the students merged the word ‘teen’ with ‘five’ in order to get fifteen” (Mabuku, 2018). This can be linked to overgeneralisation of English rules and constructions. Additionally, the second language learners also seem to have been confused between the adjective(s) and the adverb(s). For example, instead of ‘she could not be seen clearly,’ the word ‘simple’ was used as an adverb in ‘she could not be seen clear.’ This may be interpreted as a “false concept hypothesised,” in which the participant incorrectly concluded that both linguistic elements would behave similarly and did not distinguish between them (Richards, 1974, p.178-181). Another problem found has everything to do with morpheme addition. The following table illustrates it in detail:

Morpheme Addition Errors

Interlanguage feature	Example	Correct form
Word/Morpheme Addition	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In the first paragraphu ... 2. ... the place biutifulu. ... 3. After the second trigp... 4. All the childrens were happy 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In the first paragraph ... 2. the beautiful place ... 3. After the second trip... 4. All the children were happy

Fig. 5

The table is showing that the second language learners made mistakes by adding some unusual morphemes include the letter ‘u’ in ‘paragraphu’ and ‘biutifulu,’ as well as the letter ‘g’ in ‘trigp.’ The

most likely explanation for the insertion of the letter 'u' is interlanguage intrusion, participants unconsciously wrote the words in Silozi: 'paragraphu', and 'biutifulu' instead of "paragraph", and 'beautiful'. In contrast, the table below shows that the grade12 learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School tend to omit some morphemes when they write some words;

Morpheme Omission Errors

Interlanguage feature	Example	Correct form
Word/Morpheme Omission	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I enjoyd it ... 2. The wether was good ... 3. ... the two teacher ... 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I enjoyed it... 2. The weather was good ... 3. ... the two teachers ...

Fig. 6

The table above is a reflection of the omission of morphemes found in the participants' compositions. For the first example they omitted the letter 'e' and in the second example, they omitted the letter 'a' for the word 'weather' and the 'e' for the word 'enjoyed'. Additionally, the participants also omitted the plural marker 's'. In the following example: 'the two teacher' instead of 'the two teachers'. Therefore, the mistakes could be seen as incomplete application of English rules. Another flaw in the participants' oral and literary compositions was the use of brief forms of words rather than their complete forms. It's seen in the following table;

Short Form Errors

Interlanguage feature	Example	Correct form
Short Forms	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The boy isn't thankful ... 2. ... and now he's living. 3. ... because she's always happy. 4. I wasn't going to stay. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 The boy is not thankful ... 2. ... and now he is living. 3. ... because she is always happy. 4. I was not going to stay.

Fig. 7

The examples are showing that the participants used short forms and abbreviations in their writing, as well as in speaking. For example, they used the short form of the verb 'to be' in the example that follows: 'The boy isn't thankful' and 'because she's always happy' instead of 'and now he is living' and 'because she is always happy'. Other than that, it is important to remember that a sentence may carry varieties of errors. However, this research is only concentrating on cases that suit the form being addressed.

Some errors which were rarely committed included a selection of wrong pronouns. As the learners' grammar and vocabulary grew, different kinds of pronouns have been used. There are five different types of pronouns in English and they vary depending on their functions, they are; subjective, objective, adjective, possessive, and reflexive pronouns. These pronouns are not seen to be more problematic, but it appeared that the learners seemed to be confusing them. The results stand at it that these learners were incorrectly using these pronouns. It means that the learners' interlanguage systems had been influenced by the TG which is English, as in the examples that follows: (1) The teacher asks we to boil water and to make hot tea. TL: us (2) My mother and me have the same hobby.

The incorrect use of conjunctions was also noted. The process of combining sentences happens to be a very big problem for the second language learners. This problem is based on the choice of conjunction to use when connecting particular phrases and less frequently on whether or not the sentence needs a conjunction. The collected data shows that the interlanguage systems of English L2 learners' interlanguage had been influenced by the English language. The data presents the wrong way of using conjunctions, for example (1) I like the trip and it is fun. TL: because (2) Emmy is my friend also my neighbor.

4.2.1 Summary

The compositions and oral tests of the students revealed a variety of morphosyntactic features. These characteristics differ from one learner to the next. The researcher found a variety of typical Interlanguage features in both written and oral works, which reminds of any mutual universal grammar, even when it comes to second actions. Discursive characteristics of some learners were direct translations from their first language. Others, on the other hand, is the product of a complex combination of mechanisms and factors including both first and second languages, as well as the

learners' individual learning rhythms. Furthermore, the question of linguistic transfers tended to be restricted to particular L1/L2 characteristics, rather than impacting the whole linguistic system.

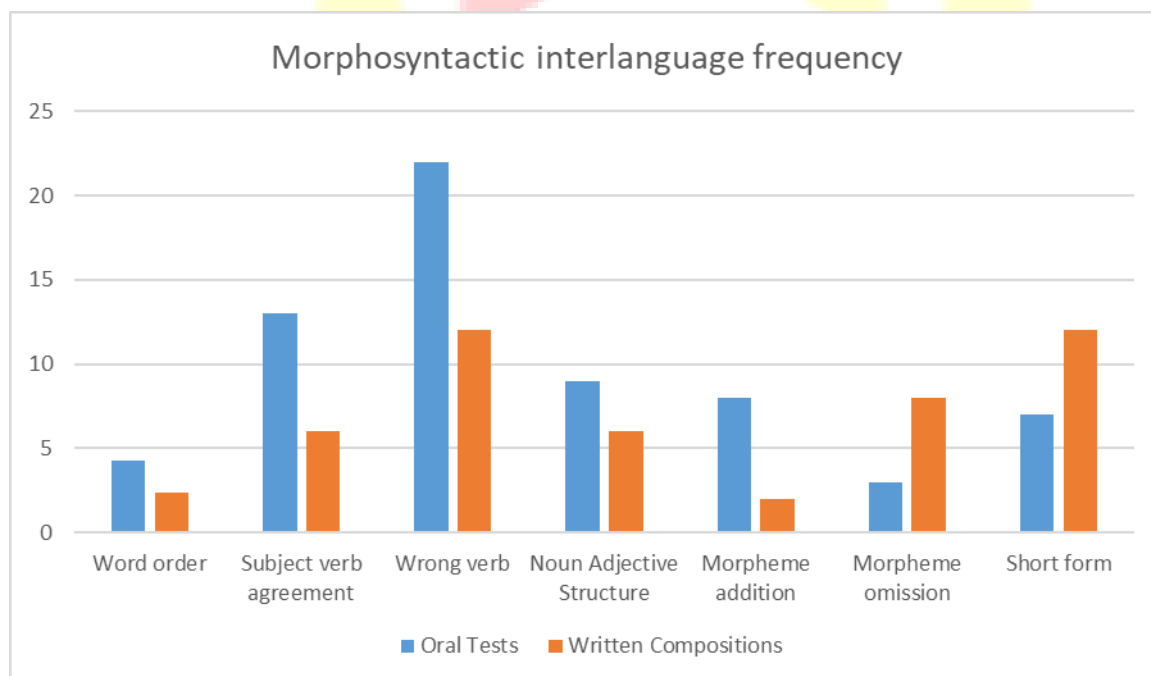
4.3 Morphosyntactic interlanguage in oral and written English

The second language processes of both oral or written form , imply cross-linguistic influences and transfers to some extent as Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) point out, these effects will appear in any direction. This view was published previously by Han and Selinker (1999) and it appears to be relevant and useful after this study. The literary and oral forms of English as a second language are a constant flood of cross-linguistic influences. Language and culture exchanges tend to serve two purposes: first, they help to construct one's social identity by putting sociocultural and sociolinguistic problems together; second, they serve as a human marker by revealing psycholinguistic paraphrases. After several years of teaching, grade 12 students seem to have developed an independent English writing and speaking method. Because of these learners' academic formations –and years of English formal instructions from their teachers–, their current level of English proficiency is acceptable.

Despite the different mistakes presented earlier, their own oral tests and written compositions highlighted that, their levels of proficiency differ from one learner to the other. By examining the distinctions, it is clear that fossilisation occurs in both of them, while various linguistic elements are influenced based on the learner's proficiency level. Many linguistic scholars believe that the speaking and writing skills in a language develop reciprocally and directly affect each other (e.g. Myers, 1987). The main reasons for this assumption, as Shuy (1981) argues, is that "all oral and written languages stem from the same root, which is a person's communicative competence" (p.81).

The other explanation is that writing and speech are both active types of language arts, involving much of the same cognitive abilities (Larson & Jones 1983). According to Magnan (1985, p. 117), "writing is often the only practicable form for 'voice,' and speech is the only feasible form for writing". Another reason is that when writing, talking to oneself is also involved, this is considered one of the characteristics of effective speakers (Klein, 1977).

The speaking skill is very significant, but it is seen to be more difficult than the writing skill of a language. Second language Learners need be aware of how their speech is perceived by the listeners, while listening at the same time, sometimes to multiple participants in a conversation. Hence, there is a lot of mental effort involved in speech. An English second language learner will always experience 'grammatical errors or non-standard grammar forms', it is of importance to know about the types of variations. It's worth noting that grammatical mistakes are much more frequent in formal writing than spoken language, as the speaker can't proof read it, and also that speaking requires other general people skills and life competencies, so speaking can be a much harder task. This is proved by this study as more language mistakes were noted from the oral tests than the written compositions of grade 12 English Second language learners at Mafwila Senior secondary school, the following chart manifests the claim;



The above table shows that more errors occurred with the use of wrong verbs in oral tests, recording more than 20 errors, and morpheme addition in written composition recorded the lowest.

There is an important distinction between the two; written and oral errors since oral errors occur when students are requested to talk orally and, hence, in a fluent way. Because of that, it is advisable not to interrupt the student every time he/she makes an error as this can frustrate and demotivate the learner

(Erdoğan, 2005). Moreover, it is worth considering that while doing oral activities, students barely have a period of preparing what they want to say, so they have to improvise and be spontaneous, and therefore, they are more prone to make mistakes. This could probably be avoided if students had more time to think what to say. Taking this into account, teachers should only correct oral errors when they hinder meaning or when the teacher wants a certain grammar point to be practiced and this structured is misused. However, as far as written errors are concerned, Heydari and Bagheri (2012) argues that written data is very important to instructors since it helps to notice students' difficulties while using the language.

However, while writing errors can be easily avoided as, normally, in written tasks students do not only have more space of thinking on what they will be writing and how to write it but they are usually provided with some extra paper in case they want to write a draft before writing the final version. The fact of having more time to think does make a difference in the quality of language production since students can think of different structures and different ways to express what they want to say before choosing the most accurate way. In order to correct written errors, Erdoğan (2005) suggests to not directly provide the correct form to student's errors but to mark where the error is by using a code such as 'sp' for spelling or 'gr' for grammar. By not providing the correct option directly, the learner is expected to identify what the mistake is and, therefore, correct it. However, although this method is effective in the sense that learners are intended to think twice about what to write, not many teachers put it into practice since some think that its wasting time as learners might ignore them.

4.3.1 Summary

Morphosyntactic interlanguage had been noticed in both oral and spoken English. Learners who are learning L2 happens to undergo particular developmental levels during the process of trying to master the speaking and writing skills of the target language. At the outset, the writing and speaking skills are similar. At a later stage the learners starts differentiating the systems, they will finally be able to integrate the spoken and written forms and are aware of the appropriate use of the respective forms. The above findings reveals that morphosyntactic errors occurs more in the spoken language than in the written form, this is so because with writing, a learner have ample time to go through his work and rectify their mistakes, unlike in the spoken language where a chance of revising what has been said is not available.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1 Conclusion

Through analysing the English Second Language learners' oral and written compositions, it was revealed that Interlanguage analysis is capable of providing complicated, distinctive and abundant linguistics environment where the public can remove the learners' weak parts of second language development. Other than that, the area of Interlanguage provides authentic rules that govern the English language, since it serves as the global language. Looking at a series of statements of 'hybridity and comprehensibility', the difference in Interlanguage among second language learners can be defended and commendable.

When mastering additional languages, mistakes occur. It is something that should be seen as natural, and something that helps language learners in improving their performance in the language, this states the significance of interlanguage analysis. It is only when one knows and when they understand their own mistakes when they can avoid them in future and work on them for improvement in the target language. The above findings have illustrated various mistakes that may take place during second language learning. The process happens differently and idiosyncratically, i.e. each and every learner develop their unique interlanguage when mastering the TG. Interlanguage is explained as a "language that is intermediate between the learner's L1 and an L2" (Faerch, Haastrup & Phillipson, 1984, p. 269). The bulk of the time, it shows features of both the learners' first and second languages. However, sometimes the features may not seem to present either a learner's first language nor second language.

Yule (2006) says that "interlanguage is a variable system, i.e. it changes continually. It has its own rules" (Yule, 2006). "There are processes characteristic of interlanguages, which leads to the interlingual errors" (Selinker, 1972 p.88).

Interlanguage occurrences must be seen as proof of learners' assimilation of the new language into their own realities, as well as an indicator that learning experiences are important to them. However, Interlanguage is more than a quantitative measure of language learning; it is the product of a dynamic internal neural mechanism that happens during the learners' SLA process.

The study gives a suggestion that the morphosyntactic errors found in both the oral and written samples of English second language learners, must not be seen as something that is negative by teachers and everyone, it should rather be viewed as being positive by all, and as confirmation of his

successful constructions and interpretations of a foreign language, as well as his attempts to approximate L2 proficiency. During this time, teachers must concentrate on gaining the awareness and skills required to assist these students in achieving L2 proficiency.

Looking at the outcomes of the research, it is clear that when dealing with these students, it is beneficial to develop a better understanding of their talents, capabilities, and needs in producing in English as a second language, which can be achieved by a review of their writings. Teachers and researchers should look for and find systemic patterns of morphosyntactic errors in these students' writings. They can easily provide more insight and comprehension as they grasp the natures and causes of the mistakes as proof of the learner's IL and knowledge that may be used to guide instructional practice, such as designing and applying responsive pedagogical techniques to aid learners' effective learning of English grammatical rules. Furthermore, the teacher as a person will be best able to identify the systemic ways in which students make morphosyntactic mistakes and consider what he or she already understands and still wants to understand, providing a foundation from which teachers can provide constructive language help.

The teacher will help the learner develop his or her English writing by introducing him or her to proper English grammar, for example, by acting as a language model and attracting the learner's attention to the forms in which he or she is struggling. For example, by intentionally writing sentences down from student dictation and during teacher teaching, the teacher may model correct types. The tutor can also assist the L2 learner in being mindful of his or her grammatical mistakes by pointing them out in prose, stressing the cultural differences in his or her first and second languages, and proposing unique techniques for self-correcting mistakes.

More over, it is necessary for the teachers to give all second language learners an opportunity to put into use the knowledge they have gained when it comes to the English grammatical rules, this can be done in any communication form, either in written or spoken form. Teachers may also bring up colleagues who are well developed in the English language to be role models to the L2 learners, this can be done by presenting the work of these colleagues. Any strategy can be adjusted depending on the ages and the levels of developmental among the learners, aswell as looking at the experiences of these learners in their L1 and L2.

Richards (1971) identified four crucial mistakes in his research: first, overgeneralisation of rules, second, misunderstanding of rule limitations, third, incomplete rule implementations, and fourth, false concepts hypothesised. Brown (1980), on the other hand, found several significant sources of error: interlingualism, learning contexts, and communication techniques. Darus (2009), more recently, attempted to investigate an error analysis study in Malaysia, and the results of the project indicate that the most frequent errors were caused by learners' incorrect verb use. It can be shown that the errors' sources are the same, but their maximum and minimum values are different, which may be due to a variety of factors, such as different circumstances or levels.



Recommendation

The analysed compositions in this study did not look at all areas in interlanguage. After examining various Interlanguages used by ESL students in Mafwila, the researcher concludes that 'discursive proficiency' can be achieved by students with 'well-developed' second language linguistics skills. Hence, the researcher suggests the introduction of 'more discursive items' in instructional environments; it will show positivity when the lexical and the discursive stage are combined, it will help in making the output richer. The researcher recommends more research on the Interlanguage theory as it brings to light by providing a number of comprehensive ways of dealing with second language learners' mistakes. The mistakes must not be seen as something bad, they should be perceived 'as a component of their own learning process'. The researcher suggests further investigations in the fields of interlanguage and discourse analysis in the writing and speaking skills.

This study was mainly focused ESL from the same school and grade, this limits the generalisability of the findings. The results may be generalisable to other grade12 ESL learners from the same background for example, language experienced. To boost the generalisability of the study's findings, It would be useful to examine a wide corpus of both oral and written samples from a different group of English L2 learners. Additionally, a 'longitudinal study' of English second language learners' speaking and writing skills will light up on the changes of the learners' cognitive process aswell as learning strategies, respecting especially the leaners' development of interlanguage.

This study only worked with the morphosyntactic interlanguage of grade12 English Second Language learners who seem to have a similar background. There seem to be a need of investigating morphosyntactic interlanguage in the ESL learners who are from a different area . The current study also examined the influence of the morphosyntactic interlanguage in the English language, looking at Silozi as a consequence of language contact. It is also possible that the English linguistic system may have as well played a role in influencing the linguistic structure of other local languages. Hence a need to carry out a systematic study to look into the effects of the English language on local languages.

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APPENDICES

Research tools

WRITING COMPOSITION: ANNEX ONE

Dear respondent,

Read the questions carefully and choose only one topic to write about. Your article should not have more than 180 words.

1. A market you recently visited

(Your essay should include)

When it was

What you saw

What you did

How you felt

Or

2. A trip to the City

(Your essay should include)

When it was

What you saw

What you did

How you felt

Or

3. The day I met the president

(You should include)

- ☐ When it was
- ☐ What you did
- ☐ How you felt



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ORAL TEST: ANNEX TWO

Dear respondent,

Carefully listen to the instructions below.

Remember

☒ The oral presentations are recorded

Instructions

1. You will be given a topic, and you have 3 minutes to prepare
2. Each participant has 3-4 minutes to talk
3. You are required to be as loud as possible
4. Introduce yourself before the discussion

☒ First language

☒ Where you come from

5. You are advised to speak in your everyday manner
6. When the teacher says “Thank You” it means your time is up

Topic: What do you do in your free time?

Thank you for your time!

Permission Letter: Annex Three

Greenwell Matongo
P.O Box 1625
Ngweze
Namibia

Mafwila Senior Secondary School
Private Bag 1032
Ngweze
Namibia

The Principal

RE: Permission letter to collect data from your school

I Sinte Laty Mwiya student number 215095367, a student at Namibia University of Science and Technology, hereby request for your assistance in allowing me to obtain data from the grade 12 learners at your school for my thesis. I am a student from the Namibia University of Science and Technology, studying towards a Masters Degree in English and Applied Linguistics. My topic is entitled A Morphosyntactic interlanguage analysis of grade12 English Second Language learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School and the objectives are as follows;

- To investigate the influence of Morphosyntactic Interlanguage of English second language learners
- To evaluate Morphosyntactic features of English second language learners
- To explore whether the Morphosyntactic interlanguage occurred frequently in the written form or spoken form of language.

I look forward to hear from you

Sincerely

Sinte Laty Mwiya

0815727317



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FACULTY RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (F-REC)

DECISION: ETHICS APPROVAL

Ref: S003/2020
Student no.: 215095367

Issue Date: 25 February 2020

RESEARCH TOPIC

Title: A morphosyntactic interlanguage analysis of oral and written language of grade 12 English second language learners at Mafwila Senior Secondary School

Researcher: Sinte Laty Mwiya
Tel: 0815727317
E-mail: miyomwiya@gmail.com

Supervisor: Dr Niklaas Fredericks
E-mail: nfredericks@nust.na

Dear Ms Mwiya,

The Faculty of Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee (F-REC) of the Namibia University of Science and Technology reviewed your application for the above-mentioned research. The research as set out in the application has been approved.

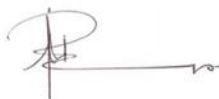
We would like to point out that you, as principal investigator, are obliged to:

- maintain the ethical integrity of your research,
- adhere to the Research policy and ethical guidelines of NUST, and
- remain within the scope of your research proposal and supporting evidence as submitted to the F-REC.

Should any aspect of your research change from the information as presented to the F-REC, which could have an effect on the possibility of harm to any research subject, you are under the obligation to report it immediately to your supervisor or F-REC as applicable in writing. Should there be any uncertainty in this regard, you have to consult with the F-REC.

We wish you success with your research, and trust that it will make a positive contribution to the quest for knowledge at NUST.

Sincerely,



Dr Hennie J Bruyns
Chairperson: FREC
Tel: +264 61 207-2988 / 7
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