ERROR ANALYSIS IN A LEARNER CORPUS: A STUDY OF ERRORS AMONGST GRADE 12 OSHIWAMBO SPEAKING LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN NORTHERN NAMIBIA

By

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Abstract

High failure rates in English as a second language at secondary school level have become a concern in the Namibian education sector. From 2005 until 2013, the overall performance of the grade 12 learners in English as a second language on Ordinary level in the Oshana region was unsatisfactory. In fact, only a minority (18.52%) of the grade 12 learners obtained a grading in the range of A to D in comparison to the majority (81.48%) of learners who obtained a grading of E to U. The poor performance was attributed to: poor sentence structure, syllabification and spelling (Directorate of National Examination and Assessment, 2007-2010). The causes of these low performance rates however, were not scientifically explored in this region. Therefore this study embarked on an investigation in order to identify the reasons behind the low performance rates of the grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners of English and to determine whether the impressionistic results from the Directorate's report correlate with the present study's findings. In order to understand the dynamic linguistic system of the learners, a contrastive analysis of Oshiwambo and English was done in order to investigate the potential origins of some of the errors. An error analysis approach was also used to identify, classify and interpret the non-standard forms produced by the learners in their written work. Based on the results obtained from this study, a more comprehensible assessment rubric was devised to help identify learners' written errors.

A group of 100 learners from five different schools in the Oshana region was asked to write an essay of 150 to 200 words in English. The essays were analysed using Corder's (1967) conceptual framework which outlines the steps that a researcher uses when undertaking an error analysis study. The errors were categorised according to Keshavarz's (2006) linguistic error taxonomy. Based on this taxonomy, the results revealed that learners largely made errors in the following categories: phonology/orthography, morpho-syntax, lexico-semantics, discourse and technique-

punctuation. The study concluded that these errors were most likely due to: first language interference, overgeneralisation, ignorance of rule restriction and carelessness. Other proposed probable causes were context of learning and lack of knowledge of English grammar.

The study makes a significant contribution, in that the findings can be used as a guide for the Namibian Ministry of Education in improving the status quo at schools and informing the line Ministry on various methods of dealing with language difficulties faced by learners. The findings can also empower teachers to help learners with difficulties in English language learning, thereby enabling learners to improve their English language proficiency. The study has proposed methods of intervention in order to facilitate the teaching of English as a second language in the Oshana region. In addition, the study has devised an easily applied assessment rubric that will assist in identifying non-standard forms of language used by learners. The reason for designing a new rubric is because the rubric which is currently being used is believed to be subjective, inconsistent and lacks transparency.

Key terms: Error, Error Analysis, Contrastive Analysis, interlingual, intralingual, error correction, idiosyncrasies, first language interference, first language, second language, language learning, ordinary level, Oshana region, English as a second language, Oshiwambo.

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Statement

I, Annelie Nghikembua, student number g07n5069 declare that this dissertation titled "Error Analysis in a learners corpus: A study of errors amongst grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners of English in northern Namibia" is my work and has never been submitted anywhere for degree purposes. All sources used in this study have been duly acknowledged and fully cited.

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Signature Date

Ms. AN Nghikembua

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF STUDY

1.1 Chapter introduction

Second language learning is a difficult task for adults because one struggles to cope with the new structures of the target language which includes grasping its phonology, syntax, morphology and lexical system (Sercombe, 2000; James, 1998 and Kesharvarz, 1996). During the language learning process, learners make errors as they try to learn the new language. Learners may over-generalise, misapply language rules or ignore the language rules (ibid). One of the methods by which learners' errors are studied, is Error Analysis. According to Kesharvarz (1994), James (1998) and Corder (1971) Error Analysis is a linguistic analysis that attempts to study the errors that learners make in relation to the target language. It aims to collect, identify, describe and explain the probable causes of errors from a collection of language learner data by analysing learner language and comparing it to the target language. Error Analysis plays a significant role in second language learning research. The importance of Error Analysis is stressed by Ellis (1997) and Sercombe (2000) who emphasised that Error Analysis highlights the areas of difficulty that learners have in learning a new language and also decodes the strategies that learners use in learning a language. Error Analysis enables teachers to devise appropriate exercises that help remedy language learning and enable teachers to reflect on their teaching styles.

Error Analysis methodology has been criticised for a number of reasons, all connecting to the fact that it gathers knowledge of the language learning process by examining the learners' interlanguage with the non-target utterances. Error Analysis categories lack precision and specificity, in that, an error may belong to more than one category resulting in double coding (James, 1998; Johnson, 1998 and Cherrington, 2004). Despite these criticisms, Error Analysis remains the only available suitable analytical framework for analysing errors in studies of second language (Sercombe, 2000 and James, 1998). This will be discussed in more depth in chapter 2 section 2.6.

The present study analyses the written errors of grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners in the Oshana region with the aim of helping educators to give comprehensive and effective feedback to learners and eventually help improve learners' language proficiency. The results of this study were

used to devise an assessment rubric that will assist teachers in identifying errors made by learners in their written work. The rubric is designed to identify key language aspects with which the learners have difficulty.

1.2 Background to the problem

When Namibia gained independence in 1990, English was retained as an official language and a medium of instruction at Namibian schools (The Namibian Language Policy for Schools, 1990). The country is divided into 13 political regions, of which the Oshana region in northern Namibia was targeted for this study. In the Oshana region, English is learnt as a second language from grades 4 to 12 (Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, 1990). According to the Namibian Language Policy for Schools (1990), "learners from grade 1 to 3 should be taught in their first language or a predominant local language, and from grade 4 onwards, the medium of instruction shall be English, while the first language plays a supportive role in teaching" (Ministry of Basic Education Sports and Culture, 1990: 4-5). This is the reason why English language proficiency is important in the foundation phase (grade 1-3) so that learners get adequate exposure to the basic English language structure.

From 2005 until 2013, the overall performance in English as a Second Language Ordinary Level in the Oshana region for grade 12 learners was described as unsatisfactory (Directorate of National Examination and Assessment, 2007-2011). Only 18.52% of grade 12 learners achieved a grading of Excellent to Satisfactory (A to D) in comparison to 81.48% of grade 12 learners who achieved a Poor to Ungraded (E to U) ranking (Directorate of National Examination and Assessment, 2007-2011). Causes of low performance were not scientifically explored in this region; however, the Ministry of Education report (2007-2011) attributed the poor results to poor sentence structure, words incorrectly broken up into syllables and spelling. Based on my teaching experience and linguistic training in the field of second language learning, I contended that these could not be considered to be the only causes of low performance. My direct exposure to learners of English as a second language from 2005 to 2011 combined with the low performance in English amongst learners of the region prompted this linguistic research in order to determine whether the, to my mind, impressionistic results from the Ministry of Education report are accurate.

Brown (2000) stated that learners' performance in the second language is affected by the level of exposure to the target language. The more exposure the learners receive, either in spoken or written form, the more proficient they become. Schools in the Oshana region are under resourced in terms of adequate library materials with which learners may enhance their exposure to English. In addition, audio-visual materials such as television and radio with which learners would expose themselves to spoken English by native speakers are not available to learners. Learners, therefore, get exposed only to the spoken English of the teachers and from their peers who are also not native speakers of the English language.

The errors that the learners make affect the overall quality of their written work resulting in poor grades (Brown, 1993). It is therefore important for teachers to know the types of errors that the learners make as well as their probable sources so that remedial exercises may be developed. Richards and Schmidt (2002) point out that in language learning causes of errors are of two types, namely, interlingual and intralingual. Interlingual errors result from the transfer of language elements from the first language to the target language. Intralingual errors, on the other hand, are the errors resulting from partial or faulty learning of the target language.

This study investigated the errors made in the written work of grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners of English in the Oshana region, northern Namibia, in order to identify, describe and classify the non-standard forms of language and provide the probable causes of these errors, with the aim of providing methods of intervention.

1.3 Purpose of the study

In order to understand the dynamic linguistic system, namely the interlanguage[1], of second language learners, it is essential to contrast the learners' first language with the language they are learning (Tarone, 2006, Ellis, 2003, Selinker, 1972). The interlanguage approach remains the best practice that is used in studying learner language (Cherrington, 2004, Ellis, 2003, James 1998). It is against this background that a comparison of the fundamental differences in the phonology, morphology, syntax and semantic segments of Oshiwambo and English was made in order to establish the origin of some of the errors produced by learners in their written work. One pertinent difference between the two languages, for example, is that Oshiwambo has a consistent orthography where a letter or combination of letters always represents the same speech sound while English has a more opaque orthography in that there is less direct correspondence between sounds and letters (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998; Bear et al., 2000) (See chapter 2 section 2.10 for more detail.) An Error Analysis was conducted in order to identify, classify and interpret systematically the non-standard forms produced by the grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners and, most important of all, to establish whether the type of errors concur with the impressionistic account of the errors described in the report by the Namibian Ministry of Education. This study has also critiqued and assessed Error Analysis methodology in order to determine the weaknesses and the strengths of the procedures involved as well as the effect these might have on the results of this study (See chapter 4 section 4.7 for detailed discussion.)

1.4 Research questions

This study asked the following questions:

(a) What types of errors do the learners produce in English and what are their frequencies?

(b) What differences between English and Oshiwambo may influence these errors?

(c) What factors, apart from first language interference, may cause these different types of errors? If it is not possible to identify these factors, what methodological innovations would enable one to identify these factors?

[1] Interlanguage refers to the dynamic linguistic system that has been developed by a learner of a second language who is not yet fully proficient in the target language but approximating the target language and preserving some features of the first language both in writing and in speech (Tarone, 2006, Ellis, 2003, Selinker, 1972).

(d) What are the distribution patterns for these types of errors amongst the surveyed schools?
(e) What correlation is there between these results and the impressionistic reports from the Ministry of Education?
(f) What interventions can be made to address these errors?

To answer these research questions, the following objectives were designed.

1.5 The objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

(a) Identify the written errors amongst the grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners;
(b) Classify these errors into types;
(c) Explain the probable causes of the errors;
(d) Propose possible remedial approaches based on the research findings;
(e) Design a linguistically detailed assessment rubric to help with identifying learners' errors;
(f) Assess and critique Error Analysis methodology.

1.6 Ethical considerations

This study conformed to the norms for ethical research in the humanities. Prior to data collection a letter (Appendix 1) stating my intensions to do research was written to the principals of the target schools. The principals granted me permission to conduct the study and the teachers as well as the learners were informed of the aims and the objectives of the study. Confidentiality, protecting the anonymity of the schools and the research participants, was guaranteed. Learners were informed not to write their names or the school's name on their worksheets. The sampled schools in this study are labeled with letters of the alphabet for confidentiality purposes. Therefore, the schools that took part in this study are anonymous.

1.7 Research methodology and procedure

This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Qualitative approaches, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), are aimed at gathering an in depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons that govern such behaviour. The use of the qualitative method

in this study allowed for a thorough and careful analysis in identifying, categorising and providing probable reasons for the causes of errors in learners' written work.

Quantitative research methods, according to Nunan (2001) and Richards (1992), deal with statistics and controlled measurement in numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods. The use of a quantitative method in this study accounted for the frequency and percentages of the error type in the corpus. Given that this study aimed to identify the written errors made by grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners, classify these errors into types and provide for probable explanations of the causes of the errors made by learners, both quantitative and qualitative methods were chosen to meet the study's aims.

1.7.1 The research procedure

Twenty pieces of writing from grade 12 learners were collected from each of the five senior secondary schools out of eight schools in the Oshana region. This means that 100 pieces of written work were analysed in this study. Learners sampled were those whose first language is Oshiwambo and second language English. Given the fact that Namibia adopted the Cambridge education system since 1990, an essay topic adopted from the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate (2009) was administered amongst the learners. The learners were required to describe an incident at a local swimming pool by describing what they saw, explaining their reaction and stating what happened in the end. The learners were expected to write an essay of 150 to 200 words in English.

The procedure used in this study to analyse learner language was informed by research on Error Analysis (Taylor, 1986; Richard, 1971; Corder, 1967; Selinker, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Kesharvarz, 2006). Firstly, I collected a set of written scripts from the learners. Secondly, I located and described the errors and next I classified the errors into categories based on their nature using the Linguistic Error Taxonomy (Kesharvarz, 2006; Corder, 1967). The categories were:

(1) Phonology/Orthography (spelling and syllables/breaking down words or word boundaries);

(2) Morpho-syntax errors (subcategorised into eleven subtypes of errors ranging from tenses to omission of superlatives);

(3) Lexico-semantic errors (errors relating to incorrect choice of words within the given context);
(4) Discourse errors (subcategorised into various categories ranging from lack of essay topic to omission of concluding paragraphs);
(5) Technique (omission of punctuation marks, misuse of capital letters and the inability to use capital letters where necessary).

After categorising each error, I quantified the frequency of occurrence of different types of errors per school. I then compared the frequency of errors amongst schools and also across categories. Thereafter I compared the errors made by learners to the first language structures in order to identify the transferred elements. It is important to note that when analysing learners' written work two types of errors are made, those that relate to second language issues and those that relate to literacy issues. This study did not, however, make an absolute distinction in the analysis of data between literacy errors and second language errors but rather focused on identifying challenges that learners face in the context in which they are learning English, for the specific purpose of performing well on assessments, which require being able to write well in English.

1.8 Significance of the study

The study of errors using Error Analysis is significant in a number of respects. According to Vahdtinejad (2008), Mitchell and Myles (2004), Ferris (2002) and Candling (2001) error analyses are important for the following reasons:

(a) Evidence for what a learner needs to be taught, that is Error Analysis, provides information about what is lacking in the linguistic competence of the second language learner. Knowing about learners' areas of difficulty will enable teachers to focus attention on these errors and help improve English language proficiency;
(b) The results of Error Analysis also inform the researcher on how language is learned or acquired and the strategies that the learner is using in the discovery of the language and how far they have progressed in their learning;
(c) Identifying errors helps teachers devise remedial exercises to help facilitate second language learning.

In light of this, it is hoped that the findings from this study will empower teachers in the Oshana region to help learners with difficulties in English language learning, thereby improving teaching and learning of English. In addition, teachers will be able to reflect on and adjust their teaching methods, and choose or design materials that will contribute to research on learners' writing and provide a deeper understanding of the probable sources of errors made by the Oshiwambo speaking learners. The outcome could guide the Namibian Ministry of Education in improving the status quo at schools and inform them on various methods in addressing language difficulties faced by learners. Additionally, this study proposes methods of intervention in order to facilitate the teaching of English as a second language in the Oshana region. The study devised an assessment rubric that will assist in identifying and classifying the non-standard forms of language produced by Oshiwambo speaking learners.

1.9 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction and background to the study, research problems, research aims, research questions, addresses the purpose of the study, its significance and outlines the chapters to come. Chapter 2 provides an overview of literature relevant to this study. Chapter 3 presents the research design and methodology. Chapter 4 deals with the analysis of data collected for this research. The results obtained are presented, analysed, interpreted and discussed. Accordingly, chapter 5 summarises the study, provides implications of the findings and proposes suggestions and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter provides the theoretical background and a review of literature relevant to this study. The chapter outlines what is meant by second language acquisition and learning, and the factors that may influence second language learning. The chapter also looks at the Interlingual theory and how it accounts for errors made by the learners. The two methods used in studying learner language, Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis, are also outlined. Furthermore, studies carried out in the field of Error Analysis and their significance for this study are discussed. In addition, the chapter also presents the teaching methods used in teaching a second language, the Oshiwambo and English language structures and the guidelines used in the design of the rubric.

2.2 Second language acquisition and learning

There is an important distinction made by linguists (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, Ellis, 1997 and Krashen, 1982) between language acquisition and language learning. These authors proposed that language acquisition is a subconscious process during which an individual is unaware of grammatical rules. The emphasis is placed on the need to communicate and not on the form of the language. In order to acquire language the learner needs one to one communication. Conversely, language learning is a conscious process of learning an additional language and is a result of direct instruction in the rules of the target language. Attention is focused on the language in its written form and the objective is for the learner to understand the structure and rules of the language (Krashen, 1982). The teaching and learning paradigm are technical and based on the syllabus. In light of this, this study will use the term “second language learning”.

In learning an additional language, learners are faced with new structures of the target language (Ellis, 2008 and Richards, 1970). The differences between the learner’s first language and the second language often pose language learning problems resulting in errors. In order to understand the language errors that learners make in producing their second language, an Error Analysis study needs to be undertaken (Kesharvarz, 2006; James, 1998; Ellis, 1997 and Selinker, 1992). This

conforms to the aim of this study to conduct a study amongst learners of English as a second language.

2.3 Interlingual theory

This theory stipulates that language produced by a learner is a system in its own right and follows its own rules. Learner language is said to be a dynamic system that evolves over time (Mitchell and Myles, 2004).

The Interlingual theory is based on three main premises. Firstly, the learner is said to construct a system of distinct rules which underlie comprehension and production. This system of rules differs among individuals and is referred to as "interlanguage" (Mitchell and Myles, 2004). Secondly, the learner's grammar is flexible or impermanent. In other words, the grammar that the learner builds is incomplete and unstable; therefore it is amenable to penetration by new linguistic forms and rules, which may be derived internally by means of transfer from the first language or through over-generalisation of an interlingual rule or externally through exposure to the target language (Selinker, 1972). Thirdly, the learner's competence is inconstant. This means that at any given stage of development the language produced by learners is said to show systematic variability. This variability mirrors the form which derives from the rules of the learner's grammar at that stage of development. Ortega (2012) adds that interlingual development reflects the operation of cognitive learning strategies. He emphasises that interlanguage highlights the learning strategies learners employ, such as simplification, which is when a learner uses simple forms and constructions instead of more sophisticated forms, or over-generalisation, in which the learner uses words or rules in contexts where they do not apply. These strategies may occur randomly at the phonological, lexical, morphological and discourse level (Ellis, 2008 and Kesharvarz, 1994).

Moreover, Brown (2007) posits that interlanguage reflects the operation of communication strategies which learners use when they are faced with the need to communicate but they do not have the necessary linguistic resources available. In order to compensate for this communication gap, learners resort to a variety of strategies, such as paraphrasing, code-switching and appealing for assistance. These communication strategies are discussed in the next sections of this chapter. The fifth premise of the theory is that interlingual systems may fossilize. Selinker (1972) used the

term “fossilization”, to refer to the tendency of learners to stop learning a language on the basis that they have learnt enough.

The interlingual theory provides explanations as to how both adults and children acquire their second language and the strategies that they use.

2.4 Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis

2.4.1 What is an error?

Richards and Schmidt (2002), Lennon (1991), Corder (1991) and Candling (2001) regard errors as linguistic forms, which in the same context a native speaker would not produce. They further emphasise that errors are deviations from the norm. This results in the speaker resorting to communication strategies such as simplification, code switching, avoidance and paraphrasing.

Brown (2000) and Richards (1974) propose that errors are classified as systematic. These errors seem to occur in cases where learners are consistent in producing the second language and when learners produce incorrect language because they do not know the correct form. They added that systematic errors are governed by rules. In other words, they follow the rules of a learner’s interlanguage. Hence, they reveal a learner’s linguistic system at a given stage of language learning. Therefore errors should not be viewed as bad because they reveal the learner’s understanding of the language or lack of understanding of the language. Unsystematic errors or mistakes, on the other hand, are slips or failure to use known structures correctly, as a result of being tired, careless, anxious or even excited (James, 1998). Since one requires a considerable amount of data to distinguish whether a given language structure is a mistake or an error, this study considered all non-standard forms as errors.

2.4.2 Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis

In order to gain systematic knowledge of the problems faced by learners of a second language, two approaches have been proposed, namely Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis (Ellis, 2003; Richards and Schmidt, 2002; Lado, 1957).

2.4.2.1 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive Analysis is described by Lado (1957: 2) as "a comparison of the learners' first language with their second language in order to identify their structural differences (phonological, lexical, syntactical and semantic level) and the similarities in order to facilitate language learning". The underlying assumption of CA is that second language learners tend to transfer their first language knowledge to the target language (Ellis, 2003).

Keshavarz (1993) states that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning of their first language to the second language. The learner's first language in this regard is viewed as the main obstacle to second language learning (Konig and Gast, 2009).

In light of this assumption, linguists identify the areas that cause difficulty to second language learners; this is done by comparing and contrasting the first language and the second language.

2.4.2.2 Error Analysis

Crystal (2003) and Richards and Schmidt (2002) regard Error Analysis as a method that is used to identify, classify and methodologically interpret the nonstandard forms that are produced by learners. Similarly, Kesharvarz (2012) adds that Error Analysis is a method used by both researchers and teachers, and it involves collecting samples of language, identifying errors, classifying them according to their nature and cause, and then evaluating their seriousness. Both Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis form fundamental tools in this study, since both will provide an insight into the language system operating within the Oshiwambo speaking learners of English as a second language. The section that follows discusses the procedures used in the study of Error Analysis.

2.5 Error Analysis procedures

In studying learner language, Corder (1967) proposed a conceptual framework which is to be used in studies of Error Analysis. This framework consists of independent descriptions that help the researcher to move from one step to the other, thereby allowing for a careful analysis of data and

the identification of the strategies that the learners use in second language learning. The framework is schematised in Figure 1.

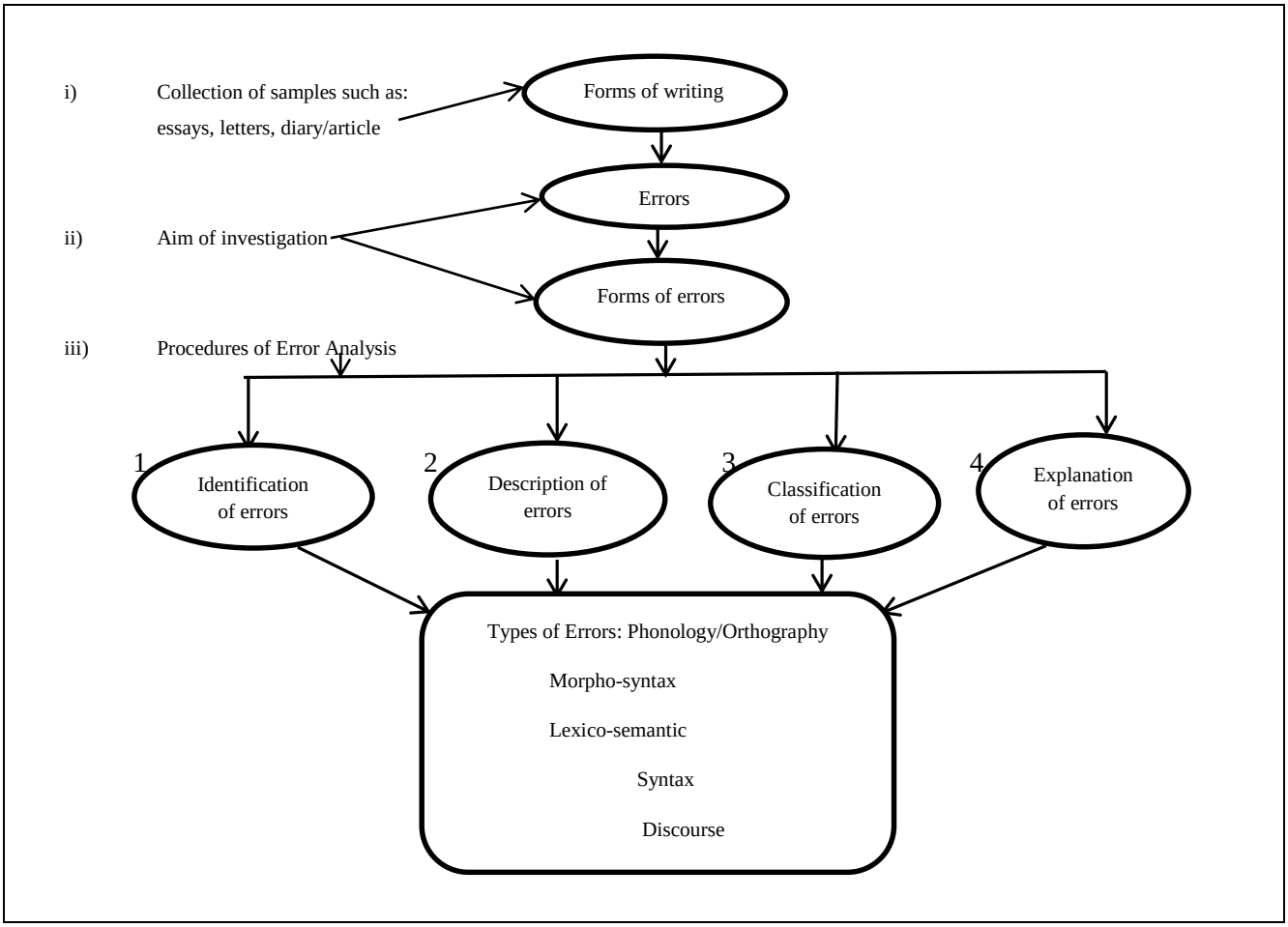

Figure 1 Corder (1967) Conceptual framework

According to this framework, the study of Error Analysis should comprise the following steps:

- Collection of samples
- Identification of errors
- Description of errors
- Classification of errors
- Explanation of errors

2.5.1 Collection of samples

The errors that learners make can be influenced by many factors. Corder (1971) noted that learners might make errors in speaking but not in writing or vice versa. Similarly, learners with one first language would make a particular error which learners with different first languages do not make. This points to the importance of collecting a considerable number of samples of learner language so that clear statements can be made regarding what kinds of errors the learners produce and under what conditions. In considering what form of data one would like to sample, Corder (1971) proposed several factors that a researcher needs to consider. These are shown in Table 1.

FACTORS	**DESCRIPTION**
A LANGUAGE	
Medium	Learner production can be oral/written.
Genre	Learner production may take the form of a conversation, lecture, essay or a letter.
Content	The topic the learner is communicating about.
B LEARNER	
Level	Elementary, intermediate or advanced
First language	The learner's first language
Language learning experience	This may be classroom or naturalistic or mixture of the two

Table 1 Factors influencing the collection of samples (Corder, 1971)

As illustrated in the table, before collecting samples, firstly, there is a need to decide on what best suits the study (that is either spoken or written data). Secondly, one has to consider the level of learners from which data is to be collected. This should correlate with the research aims and

objectives. The present study based on the above factors and on the background to the problem of this study, as discussed in chapter 1, considers written data to be most appropriate in studying and analysing the "learner language" of the Oshiwambo speaking learners in the Oshana region.

2.5.2 Identification and interpretation of errors

Once a corpus of learner language has been collected, the errors in the corpus have to be identified. This involves identifying the error in a sentence or paragraph (James, 1998). Ideally a native speaker or analyst points out the nonstandard forms. Since I am not a native speaker of English, the identification of errors in this study was done by a native speaker of English who is experienced in editing and marking. The errors were marked as errors and the correct form was provided. This was to ensure a thorough identification of all nonstandard forms of the language. After the identification of errors, I then classified the errors into various linguistic categories (chapter 4). The procedures posited by Corder's (1981) model helped during the identification of errors. The arrows in the model help guide the researcher to follow the path that best describes the error identified. The model is presented in Figure 2.

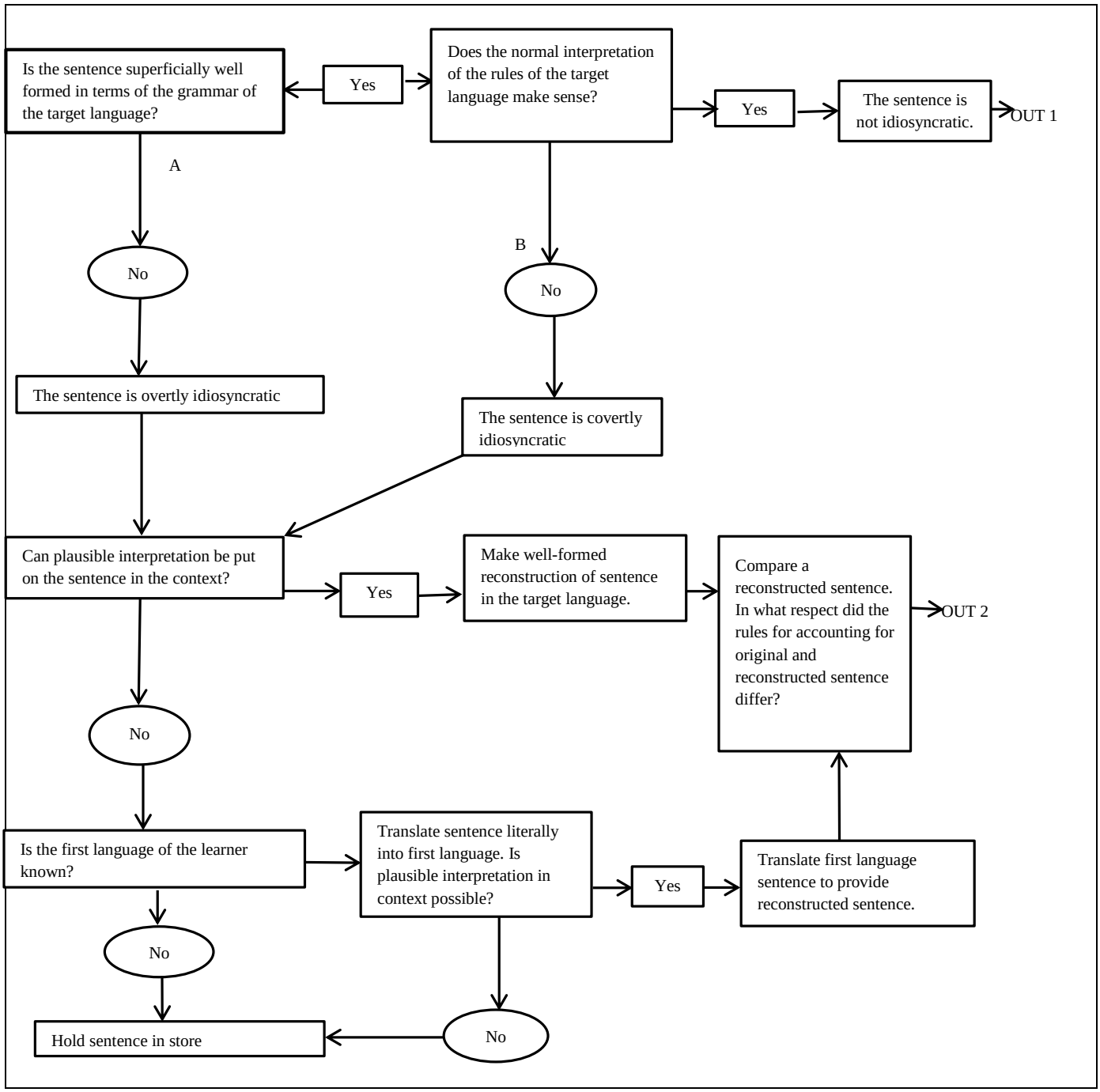

Figure 2 Model for identifying errors (Corder, 1981)

According to this model, any sentence that the learner has written can be transcribed for idiosyncrasies. A distinction is made between "overt" errors, ungrammatical utterances, and "covert" errors - utterances that are well-formed but not interpretable within the context of communication (Corder, 1981). The model advises that if a plausible interpretation can be made of the sentence then one should form a reconstruction of the sentence in the target language and

thereafter compare the reconstruction with the original idiosyncratic sentence and describe the differences. If the first language of the learner is known, the model indicates that the sentences should be translated verbatim into the learner's first language; then the learner's sentence is reconstructed in the target language to determine within the normal context if the sentence is grammatically correct. If the sentence is not grammatically correct, then the differences between the sentences should be described. This form of analysis clearly shows whether the errors made are interlingual or intralingual. If no plausible interpretation is possible as outlined in the model, the researcher is left with no analysis of the error (OUT 1 and OUT 2).

2.5.3 Description of errors

The description of errors involves a comparison of the learner's erroneous sentence with a reconstruction of expressions in the target language (Corder, 1967). In order to describe errors, a linguistic taxonomy is required. This taxonomy is referred to as a "surface strategy taxonomy" (Ellis, 1994: 56). It highlights that surface structures are altered by operations such as:

(a) "Omission, which is the absence of an item that must appear in a well formed utterance;
(b) Addition, the presence of an item that must not appear in a well formed utterance;
(c) Incorrect form, the use of an incorrect morpheme or structure;
(d) Misordering, the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance" (ibid).

2.5.4 Classification

This stage involves placing errors into various categories. Kesharvarz (2012: 106) provides four major categories into which errors may be placed:

(a) "Phonology errors, these are errors that relate to spelling, pronunciation of words or difference in syllable structure of the first language and second language;
(b) Orthography errors, sound or letter mismatch and ignorance of spelling rules;
(c) Lexico-semantic errors, relate to the semantic properties of lexical items and word choice;

(d) Morpho-syntactic errors include the incorrect use of plural morphemes, tenses, word order, prepositions, articles, subject verb agreement, sentence structure, coordination or conjunction use" (ibid).

Similar to Keshavarz's (2006: 2012) error taxonomy is one proposed by Brown (1980) who also suggests that errors may be classified as phonological errors or orthographical errors, lexical errors, syntactic errors or discourse errors. The two scholars differ in one error category, which is the discourse error category. This category includes errors pertaining to the structure of a given piece of work, the register and the logical connection of ideas. In addition to this error category, James (1998), Richards (1974) and Corder (1974) added technique errors, a category that entails errors in the use of punctuation marks. Learners need to know the correct use of the punctuation marks as well as their meanings in order to produce well written pieces of writing that convey messages correctly.

The classification of errors into various categories is beneficial to teachers and curriculum developers as it vividly indicates the language aspects that the learners have problems with, thereby allowing the teaching and learning process to be ordered step by step beginning with small linguistic components such as phoneme or morphemes and building towards complex language structures such as sentence structures (Corder, 1974).

2.5.5 Explanation of errors

After errors have been classified into their respective linguistic categories, the explanation of the probable source of the error follows. According to Richards (1971), the explanation of errors has to do with establishing the source of the error. This stage is crucial for this study as it attempts to explain the probable causes of the errors that learners in the Oshana region make in learning English with the aim of providing remedial methods of intervention that will facilitate the learning of English in schools.

Numerous sources of errors have been identified by researchers in the study of second language learning. Amongst these scholars are Ellis (2007), Kesharvarz (1994) and Richards (1971) who distinguished two main sources, namely interlingual and intralingual. These are discussed below:

(a) Interlingual errors: These are errors that result from language transfer, which are caused by the learner's first language. Interlingual errors may occur at the phonological, lexical, morphological, syntactic, discourse and lexico-semantic levels (Corder, 1971). In the early stages of language learning, the native language is the only previous linguistic system that the individual can draw upon; thus transfer is inevitable (Ellis, 2007).

Two distinctions are made between two types of transfer, that is, first, positive transfer, which occurs when a language item in the first language is also present in the second language. Acquisition of this item, as Ellis (2007) puts it, presents little or no difficulty for the learner. The second form of transfer is referred to as negative transfer. This occurs when there is no concordance between the first and second language, thus acquisition of the new language structure would be difficult and errors reflecting the first language structure would be produced (Powel, 1998).

(b) Intralingual errors/developmental errors: Kesharvarz (1994: 107) defines intralingual and developmental errors as "errors caused by the mutual interference of items in the target language". These types of errors reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as, faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules, context or faulty teaching, fossilisation, inadequate learning, false hypotheses and communication strategies (Ellis, 2008 and Brown, 1980). These are discussed below:

(i) Incomplete application of rules: This occurs when a learner fails to use a structure correctly within a given context despite having been taught the language item several times. A good example of this from my personal experience is the use of tenses. Learners are clearly taught what each tense denotes, for example that the past tense denotes a past event or action, while present continuous denotes events that are in progress at the time of speaking. Although the rules governing tenses are similar in both English and Oshiwambo, learners still fail to consistently and correctly apply the underlying tense rule (See section 2.11 for a discussion on the Oshiwambo and English language structure.)

(ii) Overgeneralisation: "The learner creates a deviation structure on the basis of other structures in the target language" (Ellis, 1996: 710). This occurs when the learner

mistakenly broadens the scope of the rule to a situation where the rule does not apply (Johnson, 2008). For example a learner may say *"He can sings" instead of "He can sing".

(iii) False hypotheses: This may be a result of learners' limited exposure to the target language (Richard, 1970). As a result, the learners are unaware of the difference between the two languages, resulting in a false hypothesis of the target language (Richard, 1970) as in the use of "was" as a marker for the past tense in "One day it was happened".

(iv) Fossilisation: Brown (1980: 181) defines fossilisation as "a relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's second language competence". This means that the second language learner continues making certain errors no matter how much input he/she receives. Fossilisation according to Brown (ibid) can be attributed to four factors:

- Firstly, the effect of the linguistic system of the native language or first language on the utterance that the learner produces in the target language;
- Secondly, incorrect teaching or training which results in some identifiable errors in the learner's utterances;
- Thirdly, the strategies that learners use in learning a foreign language, for example, overgeneralisation;
- Fourthly, learners stop learning the language on the assumption that they have learnt enough of the target language to communicate sufficiently. This results in learners consciously inventing their own syntax in contexts which may not be appropriate for such items (Selinker (1972).

Determining whether learners' errors are a result of fossilisation is quite a difficult process in the short run because the researcher needs to collect samples at more than one time and show that despite continuous exposure no language development has taken place in certain areas of the interlanguage, therefore no conclusions can be made in this study that learners' interlanguage has fossilised.

(v) Context of learning: The context of learning refers to the setting in which a language is learned and this includes the teacher and the materials used (James, 1998 and Brown, 1980). Learners may make false hypotheses due to either a misleading explanation from the teacher or faulty textbook content. The learner will take up this information presented to them thinking it is the right information. James (1998) sums up that errors due to the context of learning comprise three categories, namely, material induced errors, teacher talk errors and exercise based induced errors.

There are other crucial factors that influence second language learning. These factors are categorised as external, that is factors that characterise the particular language learning situation such as social effects (Brown, 1980). Internal factors, on the other hand, are factors like motivation and age which an individual learner brings with him to the particular learning situation (Doman, 2006). These factors are outlined in the next section.

2.5.6 External factors

(a) Social effects: According to Doman (2006) the community's attitudes towards the language being learnt can have a great impact on second language learning. If the community has negative views of the target language and its speakers, then language learning will be difficult because no one is motivated to learn the language. Learners will be demotivated to actively participate in the language activities at school. This view, however, cannot be extrapolated to the Oshana region because, from my observation, many community members in the Oshana region have shown keen interest in learning English, and thus have enrolled voluntarily for English literacy programmes. From experience learners often view English as a language of the classroom and hardly take the initiative to practise or use the language outside the classroom setting. Long (1990) stressed that language learning and acquisition is strongly facilitated by the use of the target language in informal-classroom and formal-classroom settings. The use of language in various contexts helps facilitate a clearer understanding of meaning. Learners should therefore be encouraged to use the language outside of the school setting.

2.5.7 Internal factors

(b) Motivation: Motivation is an important element of second language learning. As Crookes and Schmidt (1991) have pointed out, learners who are highly motivated can achieve greater success in learning their second language. Motivated learners enjoy language learning and take pride in their progress. From personal observation female learners seem to be highly motivated as they participate more in classroom activities and their performance in written tasks is good. Ebel (2002) and Aries (1996) pointed out that girls outperform boys in written tasks because female learners strive for accuracy because they seem to be aware of social prestige when it comes to language. Maynard (2002) attributed this to the fact that boys enjoy non-fiction reading; topics that are not based on these aspects are viewed as boring. Boys also see planning for writing as a waste of time and thus write carelessly without proper planning. Teachers should therefore vary the essay topics so that male learners may choose to write something that they would enjoy writing about. As Kristmanson (2000) outlined all learners should be given opportunities to interact in the target language.

(c) Age: Chiswick and Miller (2008) and Neville and Roder (2004) stipulate that a learner's age is an important factor affecting second language acquisition and learning. Learners who are exposed to the second language at a very young age learn the target language faster and at a certain maturational point second language learning becomes difficult (Penfield and Roberts, 1959).

Lenneberg (1967) supports these propositions by theorising that the acquisition of language is an innate process. Children are able to acquire their second language with ease as their brains have more plasticity than older learners and thus acquire second languages more easily. He added that the critical age period starts around one year of age and ends at puberty, by which time the brain loses its plasticity and the lateralisation of the language function has already taken place making language acquisition or learning post-adolescence difficult.

However, Lamendella (1977) argues that Lenneberg's conclusion regarding the critical hypothesis period is overstated and thus introduced the term "sensitive period" to emphasis that language acquisition might be more efficient during early childhood but is not impossible at later ages.

Experimental research conducted by Asher & Price (1967) gives support to Lamendella's view. In their study, children were evaluated against adults to determine which group acquired a better understanding of English as a foreign language. The findings consistently show that adolescents and adults perform better than young children under controlled conditions. This is evidence that age is not a detriment to language learning. People of all ages can benefit from learning languages as long as they remain healthy, and their intellectual abilities and skills do not decline (Oswald & William, 1985).

Nikolov & Djigunovic (2006) concluded that the age at which second language learning/acquisition commences is also dependent on the implementation variables of:

- Intensity and quality of second language instruction;
- Status of course in the curriculum;
- Students' metalinguistic efficiency.

The claim that there is an age related decline in the success with which individuals master a second language is controversial. Applied linguists seem to differ on a fixed age at which the ability to acquire language accurately declines. For instance, Johnson and Newport (1989) claim that accurate language acquisition declines at fifteen years of age. On the other hand, Lenneberg (1967) proposes twelve years of age, while Krashen (1973) argues that it mainly happens at the age of five. One can therefore conclude by saying that learning ability does not decline with age. Both adults and children can equally learn their second language successfully given the right environment and instruction.

Performance of learners across the different age groups differs. Although there is a lack of large-scale studies on the performance of various age groups, Cananaugh (2002), Ebel (1999) and Aries (1996) found that learners' performance varies amongst the various age groups. This was confirmed by their study which compared the performance of intermediate (16 to 18 years old) and beginner learners (9 to 10) of English as a second language. Texts were gathered from the two age groups. From the errors made in the texts five categories were formed, namely, grammatical, word missing, morpheme, word order and spelling errors. It was found that intermediate learners make fewer errors (153 errors). The beginners made more errors in comparison to the intermediate learners (166 errors). This is summarised in Table 2.

Errors made by the beginner learners and their frequency	Errors made by the intermediate learners and their frequency
Grammar (46)	Grammar (80)
Word missing (36)	Word missing (35)
Morpheme (39)	Morpheme (30)
Word order (7)	Word order (8)
Spelling (38)	-
Total (166)	**Total (153)**

Table 2 Summary of errors made by beginners and intermediate learners (Cananaugh, 2002, Ebel, 1999 and Aries, 1996)

The cause of the difference in the overall performance was attributed to the fact that older learners have had more exposure to the language structure of the target language in comparison to the younger learners (Cananaugh, 2002; Ebel, 1999 and Aries, 1996). The study concluded that the errors declined with the length of exposure to the target language, that is, the older the learners, the fewer errors they produced. This conclusion informed this study to sample learners from various age groups in order to determine whether the same conclusions can be made about the learners in the Oshana region.

This section discussed Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis. Both methods are significant in the study of second language acquisition and learning because not only do they highlight the areas of difficulties that the learners have in learning their second language, they also inform researchers on the strategies that learners use in acquiring language. An analysis of the learners' errors enables teachers to devise appropriate exercises that facilitate language learning. The section also outlined the procedures that are followed in error analyses, the sources of errors as well as the external and internal factors that may influence second language learning. The next section presents criticisms pertaining to the Error Analysis methodology.

2.6 Critiques of Error Analysis

This section will present the four main arguments against using Error Analysis methodology, as posited by scholars such as Cherrington (2004), Ellis (2003), Johnson and Johnson (1998) and James (1998). The criticisms include data collection, classification of errors, providing for the probable sources of errors and distinguishing between mistake and error. Amongst the criticisms is that Error Analysis only focuses on the incorrect output of the learners and ignores the correct output. This form of analysis is said to leave out important sources of information which could be used to describe the acquisition process. The argument behind the focus on non-standard output is that correct output does not show that something has been learnt; also it does not indicate the problem areas that learners have in learning their second language. The aim of considering the incorrect output is for the teachers to provide learners with the correct form so that they may be able to form adequate concepts of rules in the target language thereby improving their language proficiency levels.

Another methodological problem raised concerns the classification of errors into types. The error categories according to Cherrington (2004) lack specificity and precision. This means that there is usually more than one category in which a nonstandard form may be classified. As a result some of the errors recorded in this study were double coded (see chapter 4 for discussion). This means that one error can be classified into various categories (Cherrington, 2004). For instance, errors in the omission of punctuation marks may be classified under the technique and morpho-syntax error categories. As a result some errors in this study have been double coded. The frequency of errors that are double coded in this study assisted in drawing conclusions regarding the validity of the Error Analysis approach.

Apart from interlingual and intralingual sources of errors, other causes of errors are difficult to identify. There is a multitude of possible causes, such as the communication strategies that learners may use, personal factors such as lack of motivation, external and internal factors. Learners may also use an "avoidance strategy", that is, avoiding certain structures of the language because learners are not sure how they may be used (Brown, 1980: 178). Other criticisms of Error Analysis surround the legitimacy of comparing the idiosyncratic dialect of the learner to the dialect of the native speaker. James (1998) argued that it is unfair to compare the learner's interlingual output with the output of the first language speaker because the process of language learning involves making errors so that it would be incorrect to refer to their interlingual output as being erroneous.

James' (ibid) argument goes hand in hand with the premises of the Interlingual theory which states that the language produced by a learner is a system in its own right and follows its own rules, thus it is unique. The fact that there is no other analytical framework that could facilitate the current method of contrast between the learner language and the native speaker's language leaves this form of analysis as the only available method.

The last criticism comes from Cherrington (2004) and Ellis (2003) who outlined that with Error Analysis, it is difficult to determine whether there is an error at all in a given text. The distinction between an error and mistake cannot be easily made, as sometimes a learner has merely made slips and due to time constraints or anxiety he/she could not correct the error. In order to distinguish whether a learner has made a mistake, one needs a fair amount of data. Based on this argument this study did not classify errors and mistakes separately.

2.7 Significance of errors

The constructive criticisms discussed in the previous section do not outweigh the benefits of Error Analysis. Researchers are interested in the study of Error Analysis because errors are believed to be pertinent in second language acquisition and learning. They provide valuable information on the strategies or procedures the learner is using in the discovery of language (Sercombe, 2000 and Kesharvarz, 1994). Similarly, Brown (1980) and Corder (1967) stress that errors are the most important source of information that reflect the learners' interlanguage. Corder (1967) proposes two significant reasons as to why errors should be studied:

(a) Firstly, for the teacher, in that the teacher will be able to determine the progress made by the learners and what remains for the learners to learn. This will enable the teacher to adjust the teaching method and choose or design ideal materials that facilitate second language learning.

(b) Secondly, the errors that the learners make hint at how language is learned and what methods or procedures the learners are using in learning their second language.

James (1998) and Ellis (1990) add that errors are an inevitable part of the learning process because they evidence the language system which underlies learner language. The arguments provided above clearly show that errors are not viewed as 'bad' but rather as fundamental tools that give

insight into language learning. Learners therefore need guidance and support in learning the target language.

The findings obtained in this study not only add to the existing body of knowledge in language learning and acquisition but also highlight the problem areas that the learners in the Oshana region have in learning English, thereby calling upon teachers to reflect on their teaching methods and devise remedial exercises. The results may also be used to inform the Namibian Ministry of Education to devise relevant materials for the schools in the region and design English language proficiency programmes for teachers.

Error Analysis to date remains the only effective analytical framework in studying learner language (Ellis, 2006; Cherrington, 2004 and James, 1998).

2.8 Previous research

This section discusses the studies carried out in the field of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis, both at tertiary level and school level. In all these studies, the focus was on the written errors of learners of English as a second or foreign language.

At tertiary level, Eun-pyo (2002) conducted a study on Korean students of English as a second language. His study was aimed at identifying and classifying errors into types as well as finding the probable sources of these errors. The students were asked to either write a letter or an essay on one of the six topics provided. The study revealed that a quarter of the errors are a result of first language transfer. Other major errors involved the incorrect choice of words (16%), prepositions (15%), articles (14%), sentence structure (22%) and lack of proper conjunction (2.9%). The study concluded that the errors are a result of first language interference and overgeneralisation of language rules.

In a similar study, Srinon (1999) investigated first year Thai students of English as a second language with the aim of finding out error frequency and error types, the sources of errors and interference of the first language. A total of 50 students were given eleven topics and three picture stories. Apart from written data, Srinon (ibid) also carried out an interview to determine the oral errors that these learners made. A total of 47 errors were recorded. These were grouped as tense

errors, determiner errors, preposition errors, verb form errors, punctuation errors, direct translation from first language to English, adverbs, incorrect choice of words, nouns and agreement. The study concluded that the sources of these errors are: first language interference, carelessness, overgeneralisation, ignorance of rule restrictions, false concept hypothesis and incomplete application of rules. This study not only hints at the probable sources of errors but also at the types of errors that second language learners make.

Another study similar to Srinon (1999) is that carried out by Lukanavich (1988) on 256 Thai speaking students of English as a second language. The study analysed the students' essays with the aim of identifying the probable causes of errors. The students were given eight sequential pictures from which they had to write a composition of between 150 and 200 words in sixty minutes. The results of this study revealed that the written errors were grammatical errors, lexical and stylistic errors. The most frequent errors found were grammatical errors, such as: tenses, determiners and agreement. Most of the errors were attributed to: ignorance of rule restrictions, first language interference, incomplete application of rules, overgeneralisation and false concepts hypothesis.

Other studies also carried out at tertiary level are those of Abdulsata (1999), Boon-Long (1998), Keiko (2003) and Khodabandeh (2007). Abdulsata (ibid) and Boon-Long (ibid) both conducted classroom-based studies of written errors made by second year Thai students. The studies focused on the types of errors, their frequency and the probable sources. The findings of the study revealed six main types of errors at the sentence level. These were: agreement, clause, tense, singular/plural, punctuation, fragment and run-on sentence errors. The errors at word level were article, preposition and word choice. The study concluded that the causes of the errors was a result of the difference between the language structure of Thai and English, in that, Thai's grammatical structure differs significantly from that of English. This resulted in learners translating directly. Srinon's (1999) study on Thai learners also concluded that the source of learners' errors was direct translation from Thai to English.

Keiko (2003) studied 32 written tasks of Japanese freshmen students of English as a second language. The students were first required to read a story and then complete four written tasks of 200 to 250 words. These consisted of writing a summary, answering a question, creating an original sequel and writing a critique. Two error patterns were examined, that is the genitive markers "of"

and –"s" to indicate possession as well as the article system "a", "an" "the". The study concluded that the errors in the use of articles and the genitive were caused by the students' insufficient understanding of how the English article system works.

Khodabandeh (2007), on the other hand, carried out a study on Iranian students. In doing so, 58 male and female graduate students were asked to translate 30 Persian headlines into English. The results showed that students had problems with prepositions, articles, auxiliaries and agreement. The study concluded that the errors were caused by first language transfer.

At secondary school level, Wissing (1988) investigated the written work of isiXhosa learners. His study aimed to identify, classify and provide for the probable causes of error. The tasks given to learners were of three types, namely, essay writing, gap filling whereby learners had to fill in lexical items and also they had to summarise sentences in order to reduce their length. The findings revealed the following errors: lexical (18.75%), spelling (12.3%), preposition (7.12%), tense (6.20%), punctuation (6.20%), conjunction (7.25%) and article (1.53%). Wissing (ibid) pointed out that the spelling and lexical errors were the most frequent types of errors made in the study. This is because of the remarkable difference in the phonology and orthography systems of English and isiXhosa. (As already outlined in chapter 1, English has an opaque orthography whereas Oshiwambo has a consistent orthographic system.) The study concluded that the main source of the errors was first language interference. Learners transferred items from isiXhosa to English in order to cope with the new language system. The other causes of errors were carelessness, overgeneralisation, ignorance of rule restriction and lack of knowledge about the English language. The study also suggested ways in which teachers can assist learners learn their second language. These include exposing learners more to the target language and engaging learners in activities that enable them to practise language.

Another study conducted in South Africa is that of Nzama (2010) who investigated the errors of isiZulu speaking learners in both rural and urban schools. The study was aimed at identifying errors and providing probable causes of these errors. In order to achieve the objectives, a two section questionnaire was administered. The first section was designed to ask about resources available at school and the second section was based on the English grammar, whereby learners had to complete short structured exercises. The study concluded that amongst the main factors contributing to errors were the lack of libraries at schools and teaching materials, and lack of

training in English as a subject. The following errors were found: errors in concord, use of auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, plural formation errors, first language interference, past tense errors and infinitive, as well as word reduction whereby letters were omitted from words as in "together-tgthr" or using one letter to denote a word for instance "are-r". One main difference that exists between Nzama's (2010) study and Wissing's (1988) study is that Nzama's study expanded its scope of investigation to include external factors that may influence error production. Although Error Analysis does not consider external factors in its investigation, it is worth highlighting these factors in an education setting in order to eradicate some of the contributing factors to error production. This study is unique given the fact that it explored external factors that may affect second language acquisition and learning.

Simbwa (1987) conducted a study on Ugandan-speaking male and female learners from Kampala. A total of 108 randomly selected essays were sampled from four out of sixteen schools. The results of the study showed that the predominant error types amongst the male learners were: prepositions, pronouns and tense errors, while for the females were prepositions. Lakkis and Malak (2000) also conducted a study on the transfer of Arabic prepositional knowledge to English by Arab learners. Both positive and negative transfer were examined in order to help teachers identify problematic areas for Arab students and help them understand where transfer should be encouraged or avoided. The study concluded that an instructor of English whose native language is Arabic can use the learners' first language for structures that use equivalent prepositions in both languages.

The studies discussed above inform the present study on the methodological procedures used in analysing learner language and also they highlight the problem areas that learners of English as a second language have in learning English, thereby informing me that I am likely to find errors relating to tense, auxiliary, preposition, punctuation, concord, spelling, article and word choices. Remarkably, the study carried out by Wissing (1988) on isiXhosa speaking learners of English as a second language is fundamental to the present study, given the fact there is a lack of adequate literature on the Oshiwambo language, Wissing's (ibid) study will be helpful in providing guidance in the analysis of Southern Bantu language structure. The probable methods of correction provided will help guide this study in proposing ideal methods of intervention. The table below presents a summary of the errors made in the studies discussed above.

Researcher & Language spoken by participants	ERROR TYPES					
	Tense	**Preposition**	**Article**	**Sentence structure**	**Punctuation**	**Word choice**
Simbwa (1987) Luganda	√	√				
Wissing (1988) isiXhosa	√	√	√		√	√
Srinon (1999) Thai	√	√	√	√	√	
Lukanavich (1999) Thai	√		√	√		√
Abdulsata (1999) Thai	√	√		√	√	
Eun-pyo (2002) Korean		√	√			√
Keiko (2003) Japanese	√			√	√	
Khodabandeh (2007)		√	√			
Nzama (2010) isiZulu	√		√	√		
Frequency count	**7**	**6**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**

Table 3 Summary of errors from previous studies

As can be seen, overall learners struggle with the use of tenses, prepositions, articles, punctuation and sentence construction when writing English. Although the number of studies presented per language group is uneven, one can conclude that Thai learners seem to have problems in the use of tenses, prepositions and articles. Konig and Gast (2009) point out that if two languages differ structurally, learners tend to make errors specifically in language aspects that differ from the structure of their own language. These studies concluded that the main cause of the errors recorded in their studies is first language interference. Wissing's (1988) and Nzama's (2010) studies as presented in the table indicate that Bantu learners of English as a second language also struggled with tense use, articles, prepositions and sentence structure. This was attributed to the structural differences between English and Bantu languages (see section 2.11 for details).

The studies discussed in this section are not based in the Namibian context and their results cannot necessarily be extrapolated to the Oshana region. However, these studies enlighten me on their findings. They highlighted the problem areas that learners face as well as the strategies that learners employ in learning their second language. They inform me of the probable language problems that second language learners of English have when writing English. These studies shed light on the strategies that second language learners use and also they provide guidance in the methodological procedures that are employed in the study of Error Analysis.

The next section discusses the teaching methods that are used in teaching English in the Oshana region.

2.9 The teaching approaches to English as a second language

Teaching approaches in the language learning context according to Richards (2006) are the techniques that the teachers use in their classrooms to help facilitate language learning. Educators aim to develop the language proficiency of learners in all four skills, namely speaking, writing, listening and reading through the use of various teaching methods that incorporate the learning needs of the learners. Bishop and Snowling (2004) pointed out that children come to school from various backgrounds with different levels of literacy development; teachers should therefore diversify their teaching styles so that all learners benefit from teaching. The relevance of outlining the teaching methods in this study stems from the argument posited by James (1998) and Brown (1980) that learners' errors may be affected by the teaching approach or materials that the teacher uses. In order to identify if learners' errors were teacher induced or material induced, requires a longitudinal study with classroom observations. This study will therefore not draw conclusions on this aspect.

Although various approaches to language teaching exist, the communicative approach is the best known current approach to language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Richards, 2006 and Hart, 2007). Namibia has adopted the communicative approach to English language teaching in order to meet the global community's demand, that is the need to communicate and function in various contexts such as business or social contexts (Namibia Secondary School Syllabus for English as a Second language, 2010).

The communicative approach, as Richards and Rodgers (2001) mentioned, emphasises learning a language through authentic communication. The assumption is that learning a new language is easier and more enjoyable when it is truly meaningful. The teacher sets up a situation that learners are likely to encounter in real life, for instance interviews, answering calls, giving police reports, a weather report or a radio announcement. This approach's focus is to engage learners in communicative processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction (Hart, 2007). As outlined in the Namibian English syllabus for grade 11 to 12 of 2010, learners should be engaged in activities such as role plays, interviews, games, pair work, group work, listening to dialogues and learning by teaching. The syllabus is designed to cover skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and language usage. All these should be incorporated in communicative lessons. In addition, the curriculum aims to develop learners' ability to use language in formal and informal settings.

There is not much literature pertaining to what is currently being done in schools in Namibia regarding the teaching of English. However, studies carried out by Nyathi (1999; 2001) indicate that teachers still apply traditional teaching methods which involve activities such as controlled exercises, drills and rote learning. Nyathi (ibid) further pointed out that teachers sometimes also make use of the communicative approach but exclusively applied it in language teaching. The general practice to date seems to be that teachers neglect the teaching of grammar as they believe that communicative language teaching says no to grammar teaching.

From personal observation and teaching experience, secondary school teachers of English as a second language in the study area are unable to effectively implement the communicative approach due to the following reasons:

(a) The classrooms are overcrowded, with up to 45 learners per classroom. Activities such as role plays which require lots of discussion and conversation cannot be carried out within the given class periods (45 minutes for single lesson, five classes per week).

(b) It is difficult for teachers to effectively monitor communicative activities in a large classroom. Therefore, learners hardly receive individual feedback on the communicative activities carried out.

(c) The communicative approach neglects reading and writing skills as the emphasis is on listening and speaking skills and does not explicitly focus on the grammatical aspects of language. This is because grammar is said to be discovered through meaningful communicative interaction rather than through direct instruction (Hart, 2007). Hart (ibid) pointed out that the language aspects such as grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary are effective tools in communication and thus learners should have a sound knowledge of these aspects so that they will be able to communicate.

(d) Learners with low English proficiency levels hardly feel like participating in interactive activities because of the inability to express themselves fully. Therefore, this approach is most suitable for learners with a sound knowledge of the English language. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) stressed that learners should be encouraged to actively participate in classroom activities so that they all benefit from teaching.

(e) The school libraries are under resourced with reading materials such as magazines, novels, up-to-date newspapers, comics and short story books which may help facilitate language learning. In addition, audio-visual materials such as television, radio and video recorders, where learners may listen to native speakers of English, are not accessible to learners.

The above mentioned weaknesses were likely to influence the teachers to simply focus more on learners' writing skills. Learners are often given grammar-based exercises which cover aspects such as tenses, prepositions, singular/plural forms, concord and articles. Due to limited supplementary teaching materials, reading activities given to learners are usually extracts taken from previously written exams along with their structured questions. Learners therefore do not get enough exposure to long texts because the given texts are short and have been purposely chosen for the limited examination time. Bishop and Snowling (2004) stressed that teachers need to expose learners to various reading materials so that they get a broader view of the world and develop or expand their vocabulary.

The listening materials currently available in schools in the Oshana region are the past national listening examination cassettes which schools often keep so that they may be used during the April, August and December examinations. Learners therefore get much of their spoken English from their teachers who are non-native speakers of the target language (that is their first language is

Oshiwambo). If teachers' English language proficiency is poor, then they will not be able to transfer the correct forms of the target language nor will they be able to explain concepts to learners (Clegg, 2001). This will negatively affect the learners' language proficiency and in the end result in poor learner performance in English.

Although the Communicative approach is chosen as the best approach to teaching English as a second language in Namibian schools, its successful implementation in the Oshana region requires an incorporation of different methods of teaching English in order to cater for the current learning needs of the learners.

Other methods that may be used to complement the communicative approach are the cognitive code, analogise-rhyming and blending methods (Ehri, 1998; Adam, 1990 and Ur, 1996). The cognitive code method refers to any conscious attempt made to systematise material around a grammatical syllabus while allowing for meaningful practice and use of language (Wilson, 1983). The skills used in listening, reading and writing, for instance sound discrimination or pronunciation, are learned before the learners participate in real communication activities. Lessons are thus structured on the assumption that language is ruled governed. Learners need to be taught the complex structural system of the target language (ibid). In addition, the learners need to apply rules in order to express themselves in communicative situations in and outside the classroom setting. In my view, this method is essential in reducing errors that arise from the misapplication of language rules as well as ignorance in applying the correct language rules. Hence, the language errors recorded in this study (see chapter 4, section 4.2 to 4.4.3 for details) hint that the learners lack adequate grammar knowledge of the English language. Therefore more emphasis should be placed on grammar.

The analogising-rhyming method emphasises the teaching of grapheme correspondence, segmentation and blending (Ehri, 1998). The aim of this method is to teach learners to use known words in order to decode unknown words. For instance, learners look at the rhyming sound which is either a vowel or consonant and then think of a known word that contains that same vowel or consonant pattern. The teacher may give, for example, the word "cat"; then the learners think of words that have the same pattern such as "mat". This strategy not only creates phonological and orthographical awareness (ibid) but the blending method is also similar to the rhyming method. Learners learn how to decode words. They retrieve from their memory the sounds that each letter

has and then blend the sounds into recognisable words (Ur, 1996). In addition, learners should be taught how to break words apart, specifically words with more than one syllable and then assemble words again. This helps learners improve their decoding and spelling skills.

This section has discussed the communicative approach to language teaching and its drawbacks in terms of its effective implementation in schools in the Oshana region. The shortcomings of this approach call upon the Namibian Ministry of Education to devise materials that help facilitate language learning, build more classrooms to lessen the burden on overcrowded classrooms, employ more English teachers in order to balance the teacher and learner ratio per class, and develop training programmes to help teachers in implementing the communicative approach. I have also pointed out three useful methods, namely cognitive, analogizing and blending methods that may be used conjunctively with the communicative approach to help cater for the learning needs of the learners in the Oshana region. These three methods are helpful in teaching English as a second language because they focus on key aspects such as grammar. In addition to the teaching methods, learners need lots of exposure to the target language through various activities that cover listening, reading, speaking and writing. The relevance of outlining the teaching approaches to English as a second language in this section is based on the argument posited by James (1998) and Brown (1980) that learners' errors may be caused by the teaching approach that the teacher uses. Therefore remedial methods should not only focus on learners but on teachers as well. Given the fact that teachers are not native speakers of English, they need to have a sound knowledge of the target language in order to transfer the right knowledge to learners.

2.10 Designing an assessment rubric

Assessment rubrics are commonly used in several language teaching methods. Haken (2006) views assessment rubrics as authentic tools that are used to measure a learner's work. They are useful tools for both teaching and assessment because they highlight areas of difficulty that the learners need to work on or teachers needs to focus on. Haken (ibid) explains that rubrics are integral pieces to assuring that educational institutions achieve their learning goals as well as a crucial means of providing the essential evidence necessary for seeking and maintaining accreditation. Marzano et al. (1993) adds that a rubric seeks to explain learners' performance based on the sum of a full range of criteria rather than a single numerical score. The general characteristic of a rubric is that it is

written on a two dimensional checklist of what is expected in an assessment. The descriptions of how well the learners' written work should be presented are outlined in the assessment rubric.

The literature around the design and use of rubrics describes four elements for a rubric. Huba and Freed (2000), and Allen and Tanner (2006) pointed out that an assessment rubric should consist of a dimension of quality or criteria, which covers competencies that relate to a specific academic discipline, levels of mastery which clarify expectations, organisation that covers multidimensional skills such as group work which involves problem solving skills and various aspects of group dynamics, language aspects, including aspects such as punctuation, phonemic awareness and grammar.

Haken (2006) pointed out that an assessment rubric should exhibit learners' educational needs, what learners are currently acquiring or performing, therefore a rubric should be contextualised. In addition, Haken (ibid) stressed that the rubric must be designed based on data gathered from observation or learning artifacts. In the same vein, Allen and Tanner (2006) add that the rubric designer should keep in mind the context of the learners and their level of proficiency. Thus aspects to be found in the rubric should be based on the learning needs of the learners. This background led me to design a rubric that is based on the needs of the learners in the Oshana region (see chapter 4 section 4.6 for a detailed discussion on the rubric). Moskal (2003), Arter (2000) and Herman and Winters (1992) pointed out that once a rubric has been designed, it should be piloted so that subsequent revision and refinement can be made. Piloting a rubric is a way of checking for reliability and validity; therefore all newly designed rubrics should be tested before being used in schools (ibid).

The previous section discussed the importance of an assessment rubric in the teaching and learning paradigm. In designing a rubric, the designer should consider the context of the learners and their level of proficiency in the target language so that the rubric is a true reflection of the particular given learners. The next section compares and contrasts the basic structure of the Oshiwambo and English language.

2.11 Comparative analysis of Oshiwambo and English basic language structure

This section presents a comparison of the language structure of Oshiwambo and English. Particularly, it discusses the sound systems of both languages, their syllabic structure, the formation of verbs, negative formation, pronouns, possessive construction, proper nouns, preposition, sentence construction and tenses.

Oshiwambo is a Bantu language spoken by about 680,000 people in Namibia and Angola (Zavoni, 1998). Major dialects include Oshikwanyama, which is spoken in northern Namibia and southern Angola, and Oshindonga, which is spoken in northern Namibia. These two dialects have been developed into established written languages. All Oshiwambo dialects are closely related and inter-intelligible (Zimmermann and Hasheela, 1998). Both Oshikwanyama and Oshidonga are taught as subjects in Namibian schools.

2.11.1 The sounds system of Oshiwambo and English

Oshiwambo, just like all other Bantu languages has a transparent orthography where a letter or combination of letters represents the same speech sound. Oshiwambo has only five vowels, of which all are either short or long (Zimmermann and Taapopi, 2004). The short vowels are represented by a single letter and the long vowels are represented by doubling the short vowels, as shown below:

(a) Vowels:

(i) Short vowels: a, e, i, o, u

For example: tala - look

Table 4 (a) indicates the pronunciation of each vowel and the place of articulation.

Place → / Articulation ↓	Front	Central	Back
High	i/I		U
Mid	e/ɛ		o/Ɔ
Low		a	

Table 4 (a) Vowel chart for Oshiwambo (Shroeder, 2010)

(ii) Long vowels:

aa [a:] ee [ɛ:] ii [i:] oo [ɔ:] uu [u:]

For example: (i) dip**aa** - kill; (ii) osh**uu**da - kraal.

(b) Consonant chart:

Place → / Manner ↓	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postal velar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b	t d						k g	
Nasal	m					ɳ		ŋ	
Trill				r [r-ɾ]					
Fricative		f v	θ ð	z s	ʃ ʒ			x	h
Affricative					tʃ dʒ				
Approximant	w						j		
Lateral approximant				l				ʎ	

Table 5 Consonant chart for Oshiwambo (Shroeder, 2010)

(c) Other Oshiwambo consonantal sounds:

(i) ly [ʎ ~lj] velarised (**ly**ange - eat me).

(ii) ndj [ɲdʒ] prenasalised velar (**ndj**oka - that one).

(iii) mp [m^h] prenasalised double stops (**mp**aka - here).

(iv) nk [$ŋ^h$k] palatalised nasal (**nk**elo - last born).

(v) ty [t^j~ʧj] palatalised consonants (**ty**oko - expression of sound made when a stick breaks).

According to Zimmerman and Hasheela (1998) consonants are categorised as:

(1) **Monographs**-voiceless labiodental fricative with voiced bilabial plosive as in:

(a) **B**afula - hit (plosive B) (b) **F**i**f**a - sieve/sift (fricative)

(2) **Digraphs** - a combination of two consonants to represent a single speech sound:

(a) /dj/ as in **dj**ala - put on/wear (b) /mb/ o**mb**abi

(3) **Trigraphs**-three consonants joined together to form one speech sound:

(a) /ndj/ as in **ndj**oboka - jump (b) /ngh/ o**ngh**ambe

(4) **Syllabic nasal** ‘mu’

(a) o**mu**nhu - person (b) o**mu**kwanyama - a kwanyama person

The vowel sound of the syllable “mu” is not pronounced audibly and only the “m” is heard. This results in prolonging the pronunciation of ‘m’ to sound like a double “mm” (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998).

English on the other hand has twelve vowels as can be seen in Table 6.

	Front	Central	Back
High	i (b**ea**t) I (b**i**t)		U (b**oo**t) ʊ (b**oo**k)
Mid	e (b**a**it) ɛ (b**a**t)	ʌ (b**u**t) ə (**a**bout)	O (b**oa**t) Ɔ (p**aw**)
Low	æ (b**a**t)		ɑ (p**o**t)

Table 6 (b) English vowel chart (Schroeder, 2010)

Just like Oshiwambo, English has short and long vowels. However orthography difference lies in the fact that in Oshiwambo vowel length is indicated by doubling similar vowels, while in English the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) stipulates that a single vowel is followed by two dots (Liddell and Scott, 1996). This is shown in the American pronunciation below:

Short vowels /ɪ ɛ æ ʊ ʌ ɝ/

(a) ‘pit’ pɪt ‘put’ pʊt
(b) ‘pet’ pɛt ‘putt’ pʌt
(c) ‘pat’ pæt ‘pert’ pɝt

Long vowels /i (ː), u(ː), ɑ(ː), ɔ(ː)/

(a) ‘beat’ biːt (or bit) ‘boot’ buːt (or but)
(b) ‘(ro)bot’ bɑːt (or bɑt) ‘bought’ bɔːt (or bɔt)

English has eight diphthongs and five triphthongs (Hartono, 2002). A diphthong is a combination of two vowels blended together to produce one sound; the speaker glides from one vowel to the other. A triphthong, on the other hand, is a combination of three vowels in the same syllable. With triphthongs the speaker glides from one vowel to another produced rapidly and without interruption (Hartono, 2002).

Diphthongs are classified into three as indicated below:

(1) Centering diphthong

(a) three ending in 'ə' : ɪə, eə, ʊə

(2) Closing diphthong:

(a) three ending in 'ɪ': eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ

(b) two ending in 'ʊ': əʊ, aʊ

Examples:

• ɪə: beard, weird, fierce;

• eə: aired, cairn, scarce;

• ʊə: moored, tour, lure;

• eɪ : paid, pain, face, shade;

• aɪ: tide, time, nice, buy;

• ɔɪ: void, loin, voice, oil;

• əʊ: load, home, most, bone;

• aʊ: loud, gown, house, cow.

(3) Triphthong: five closing diphthongs with "ə" added at the end. These are:

-eɪ + ə = eɪə, as in layer, player;

- aɪ + ə = aɪə, as in lire, fire;

- ɔɪ + ə = ɔɪə, as in loyal, royal;

- əʊ + ə = əuə, as in lower, mower;

- aʊ + ə = auə, as in power, hour.

Oshiwambo has no dipthongs or triphthongs (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). Regarding consonants, Oshiwambo possesses consonant clusters (see section 2.11) but these are not as numerous and varied as in English. Therefore, errors made in English spelling in the form of omission or a duplication of a consonant cannot necessarily be attributed to language interference. Given that the English orthographic system is unpredictable as outlined in chapter 1, learners are expected to make errors in this regard. Learners must acquire the orthographic rules of the language that are independent of the sound (ibid). Oshiwambo learners will, therefore, probably make a lot of spelling errors as they might write the English sounds as they hear them and assign an orthography and pronunciation which they are used to everyday.

2.11.2 Syllable structure

According to Zimmerman and Hasheela (1994) Oshiwambo words are typically made up of open syllables of CV (consonant - vowel.). In many instances, the morphological shape of the word is CV "ko" (at), VCV "ila" (come), CVCV "penge" (give me) or VCVCV "oshiima" (the thing). The words end in a vowel, because closed syllables, or CVC, are not permissible. This explains why Oshiwambo speaking learners often insert vowels at the end of consonants so that the English word ends in a vowel (example, bookshop**a**). English on the other hand has both closed and open syllables (Wissing, 1988 and Muller, 2001). For instance, the syllable structure of words may take the following forms: CV (go), CVCC (fault), CVC (bag), VCC (egg), CCVCCCC (glimpsed), CCVC (green), CCCVC (street) or CVCC (post). These are just a few examples to highlight how complex the English language is in terms of possible syllable structure in comparison to the Oshiwambo language.

The directorate of National Examination and Assessment (2007-2011) has outlined that the learners incorrectly break down words into syllables. For example, the word "entertainment" might be incorrectly syllabified as "en.tert.ain" instead of "en.ter.tain". Given that "en", "ter" are acceptable potential monosyllabic words of English this division (that is the learners' version) therefore agrees with the broader rule concerning possible syllables of English, in that each syllable must contain a sounded vowel and in cases of digraphs or two consonants that make a single sound (for example, *ch, sh, th, wh, ng, nk, ng, ck*) syllabification cannot occur to separate this consonant cluster (Muller, 2001).

2.11.3 Syntactic differences between English and Oshiwambo

2.11.3.1 Verb formation

Bantu languages in general are "agglutinating" and a lot of information may be kept in a single word (Nurse, 2003: 8), for example in Oshiwambo the verb "likoka" (crawl) may be interpreted as "you must crawl". In addition, Bantu languages with the exception of Oshiwambo have many "verbal affixes" compared to English. Oshiwambo has a small but important and frequently used group of verbs termed "defective" or "deficient" verbs (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). This means that they deviate from all other verbs either in structure or grammatical behaviour, or both. The verbs "li" (be) and "na" (have, possess) are two examples. These verbs do not take the present tense morpheme or marker "ta". As in the example:

(a) Oshimbudi oshi (*not otashi*) li meumbo (The tramp is in the house).

In the case of the verb "na" the final "a" is dropped when prefixed to a word which starts with a vowel (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). As in:

(b) Ondi noimaliwa (<n**a**+oimaliwa).

Other Oshiwambo ordinary verbs always end in "a" in the infinitive or in the imperative. The infinitive is formed by adding the prefix "oku" before the verb stem (ibid). As in the example below:

oku+pula > okupul**a** (to ask)
oku+shanga> okushang**a** (to write)

Based on the syntactic context, the inflected forms of an English verb are 3rd person singular, present tense, past tense, past participle and a form of a verb in "-ing" that serves as a present participle and gerund (Nurse, 2008). An inflectional morpheme is suffixed at the end of the stem of the verb (Eastwood, 2002 and Tulloch, 1990).

Eastwood (2002) points out that English verbs can be further classified as either regular or irregular, that is the past tense and the past participle of these verbs are the same as the simple forms. In other words, they do not follow the general rule for verb forms, unlike the regular verbs

that are inflected with a participle (Tulloch, 1990). Learners of English as a second language often do not distinguish between the rules that govern these verbs; for example they would say *"cutted". The errors that the learners make regarding irregular verbs are not a result of the differences in the system of English and Oshiwambo but rather because of lack of sufficient knowledge about the use of irregular verbs, overgeneralization or incomplete application of language rule (Ellis, 2008 and Johnson, 2008).

2.11.3.2 Negative formation

As pointed out by Zimmerman and Hasheela (1998) the negative form in Oshiwambo is formed by inserting the negative particle "ha" between the infinitive prefix and the verb stem, as in:

(a) Oku**ha**longa (not to work)
(b) Oku**ha**kwena (not to cry)

In English, however, a negative sentence is formed by adding the word "not" after the first auxiliary verb in the positive sentence (Tulloch, 1990). If there is no auxiliary verb in the sentence, it is added, also "do" is inserted as shown in (b) below:

(a) He is sitting outside (He is **not** sitting outside).

(b) They sit on the benches (They **do not** sit on the benches).

Both English and Oshiwambo have a negative formation system, but the placement of the negative marker as demonstrated in this section differs. If learners do not know the distinction between the two systems, they will make errors.

2.11.3.3 Noun derivation (singular & plural forms)

In the present tense, the singular form in Oshiwambo is formed by verb stems ending in the "a" vowel, while in the plural formation; the suffix "eni" is used (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998).

(a) Tal**a** - look (singular) (b) tal**eni** (plural)

Unlike Oshiwambo, English has a number of rules that govern the formation of the plural form. English plural formation follows the following rules (Nurse, 2008; Tulloch, 1990 and Eastwood, 2002). I will provide a few examples on some of the rules for plural formation. For instance -/s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, / ʧ/ or / ʤ/ the plural is formed by adding /ɨz/. As in:

(a) Plural form of most nouns add –*s* at the end of the noun, as in:

- book – books /bʊks/

A plural form –"s" is added when a singular form ends in a voiceless consonant (other than the sibilant) -/p/, /t/, /k/, /f/ (ibid). An example is provided below.

(b) lap – laps /læps/

For words that are ending with a vowel or voiced non-sibilants, the regular plural /z/ which is represented orthographically by –"s" is added. For example:

(c) boy – boy /bɔɪz/

Other rules pertaining to plural formation are, for instance, when nouns end in "o" preceded by a consonant, the plural is spelt by adding –"es" pronounced /z/. As indicated below:

(d) hero – hero /hɪərəʊ/

Lastly, nouns that end with a "y" preceded by a consonant usually drop the "y" and add –"es" pronounced /iz/. As as shown below:

(e) cherry – cherries /ʧeriz/

It is important to note here that not all nouns end in "y" change, for example "day" where a suffix "s" is added to form "day". Some nouns have a different plural form, such as the noun "child" which becomes "children" in irregular plural form. Unlike in English, Oshiwambo plural morphemes such as "aa", "ou", "ova", "ee", "ii" or "oma" are written conjunctively with the noun to form a plural noun. This is demonstrated below:

(a) Singular = omkadhona/okaadona (girl) Plural = **aa**kadona/**ou**kadona (girls)
(b) Singular = ongobe (cattle/cow) Plural = **ee**ngobe (cattle/cows)

(c) Singular = oshikombo (goat) Plural = **ii**kombo (goats)

(d) Singular = eyoka (snake) Plural = **oma**yoka (snakes)

(e) Singular = omati (boy) Plural = **ova**mati (boys)

The different rules that exist in the formation of plural forms in English, often pose difficulties to learners. Learners often generalise and may misapply one rule across all nouns (Eastwood, 2002 and Tulloch, 1990).

2.11.3.4 Pronouns

As in the English language, a pronoun in Oshiwambo is used to replace a noun. Both English and Oshiwambo languages classify pronouns into various categories, for example:

(a) Personal pronouns: "ame" (I), "ye" (him/he/she);

(b) Demonstrative pronoun: "eshi" (this), "shinya" (that);

(c) Possessive pronouns: "shange" (mine), "shoye" (yours);

(d) Interrogative pronouns: "olye" (who), "oshike" (what).

Table 7 below clearly demonstrates some of the Oshiwambo pronouns.

	Singular	**Plural**
1st person	ame (I)	fye (we)
2nd person	ove (you)	nye (you)
3rd person	ye (he/she)	vo (they)

Table 7 Oshiwambo and English pronouns (adopted from Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998)

English and Oshiwambo both have a pronoun system.

2.11.3.5 Possessive construction

The possessive form in English and Oshiwambo differ distinctively. In Oshiwambo the possessive affixes "wa, va, da, sha" are written conjunctively with the possessor noun following them to show the possessive form (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). As shown below:

(a) Omukulukadi **wa**Timo (Timo's wife).

In cases where the conjunction "na" is used, the vowel "a" is elided when prefixed to a word commencing with a vowel.

(b) Omona **wo**hamba (the king's child).

On the other hand, English has a number of rules pertaining to possessive formation (Beason and Mark, 2006; Thomson and Martinet, 1986). Usually an apostrophe and an "s" suffix are used in order to transform most singular nouns into their possessive form (Tulloch, 1990). However, the following rules govern the formation of possessive forms in English:

(a) To form the possessive of a singular noun not ending in an "s" sound, an apostrophe "s" is added;

- The car**'s** front seat.

(b) To form the possessive of a singular noun that ends in an "s" sound, one has to pay attention to the way the word is pronounced. If a new syllable is formed in the pronunciation of the possessive, then an apostrophe and "s" is added;

- Her boss**'s** approval.

(c) If the addition of an extra syllable would make a word ending in "s" hard to pronounce, then only an apostrophe is added;

- Los Angeles**'** freeways.

Learners of English as a second language have to grasp all these language rules, which often is strenuous especially when trying to improve their performance in English. During their attempts very often they make errors. Due to the fact that Oshiwambo does not indicate possessive form with an apostrophe, learners may omit using apostrophes in their written work. However, if they have incorrectly used them, then it may be a result of ignorance of rule restriction, overgeneralisation or simply carelessness (Ellis, 2003).

2.11.3.6 Proper nouns and punctuation

Proper nouns and punctuation marks are universal to all written languages. A proper noun has two distinctive features that is, it names a specific item and it begins with a capital letter no matter where it occurs in a sentence (Heather, 2007; Tulloch, 1990; Thomson and Martinet, 1986). The punctuation marks all serve the same purpose in English and Oshiwambo. Despite this learners still make errors because they do not know how to apply them. This is worth mentioning as this calls for remedial tasks to help learners become better writers. Errors that may be made by the learners in this language aspect cannot be ascribed to first language, but rather idiosyncratic to the learners or a lack of modeling from the teachers.

2.11.3.7 Prepositions/Locatives

Prepositions according to Beason and Mark (2006) and Tulloch (1990) link nouns, pronouns and phrases to other words in a sentence. They indicate a temporal, spatial or logical relationship of the object to the rest of the sentence. Oshiwambo locatives such as “pu” (at) and “mu” (in) are representations of prepositions in English. Locative prefixes are written conjunctively and always appear before nouns. If a noun commences with a vowel, the “u” of the prefix is elided, as in the example below:

(a) **po**mulonga (<**pu**+omulonga) (at the river).
(b) **me**pya (<**mu**+epya) (in the field).

The English language has numerous prepositions (for example: at, in, on, at, towards, above, behind, near, from), prepositional phrases, and expressions unlike in the Oshiwambo language. As Wissing (1988) has outlined, Bantu languages do not possess lexical items with the same distinctions in meaning as prepositions such as “at”, “in”, “by” (in the sense of “at the side of”) “to” and “towards”. The need for prepositions is thus catered for to a large extent by the existence of verbs which incorporate the idea of a preposition in one lexical item (ibid), example of verbs such as “enter”, “come” or “return”). Confusion and under-differentiation involving these prepositions are likely to occur in the written work of the learners. These differences will result in learners making errors

2.11.3.8 Concord

Similar to English, the basic syntactic structure of Oshiwambo sentences is the SVO (Subject+verb+object) word order as demonstrated below:

(a) **Maria** *(subject)* **otai** *(verb)* kostola *(object)*. (Maria is going to the shop).
(b) **Maria** na **Saima otavai** koskola. (Maria and Saima are going to school).

According to Tulloch (1990) the subject and the verb need to have an identical number value; and the person value is also involved in agreement, in particular when the subject is a personal pronoun. For example, "He is the only person I know". The pronoun "he" in this example is singular, therefore, the verb should be in a singular form. In other words, the verb "is" lexically specifies the information about the number as well as person value of the subject that it selects. Errors in agreement are common amongst learners of English as a second language. For instance, studies carried out by Llomaki, (2005), Keiko (2003), Srinon (1999) and Reimo (2000) on Chinese, Korean and Japanese students of English as a second language found that the learners made errors of agreement, specifically subject verb agreement. This was attributed to overgeneralisation. In Bantu languages, "concord, the subject and its number and person in no way affect the form of the tense marker because of the constant reinforcement and repetition of concords which serve to remind one of number" (Wissing, 1988: 67). This can be seen in the example below:

(a) **Ova**mati **ova** ya kofitola. (The boys went to the shop). If this sentence is translated verbatim it will read:
(b) The boys **they** went to the shop. The morpheme "ova" in sentence (a) denotes a plural form. It is affixed to the morpheme "mati" and repeated in the sentence (**ova** ya kofikola) to emphasise the number.

2.12 Tenses

As already outlined in section 2.11.3, Oshiwambo just like other Bantu languages is an "agglutinative" language, with a complex morphology (Nurse, 2003: 8). In other words, Bantu

languages have many verbal affixes and complex [2]tense systems that encode multiple degrees of remoteness (ibid). Most southern Bantu languages are characterized by verb forms which refer to the time and state of circumstances associated with an action, event or process. These verb forms are said to mark tense, aspect and mood (Nurse, 2008). The pre-stem marker "a" is mainly used and has a lot of significance, with the most common being present, near past and far past. The usual categories include the perfect, near past and far past (Nurse, 2003).

In Oshiwambo, the past tense is characterised by:

(1) Dropping the present tense morpheme "ta";
(2) Suffixing the vowel on "a" to the subjectival concord;
(3) Ending the verb on "a"

Example: (a) Fye otwa (<o+tu+a) futa onghela (we have paid yesterday).
(b) Okwa (<o+ku+a) lya (<li+a) ombelela (He/she ate meat).

Wissing (1988) pointed out that the present tense and the future tense pose problems to isiZulu learners of English as a second language because the present tenses are usually aspects rather than tenses, that is they are different representations of the time within the event. The future tense on the other hand is an extension of the present and thus often represented by progressive or habitual aspect. This is demonstrated below:

(a) Otali - she eats.

In this example, "otali" can also be a present continuous tense as it shows that the person is still in the process of eating.

(b) Otafange etanga - He kicks the ball/he is kicking the ball.

The future tense is formed with the aid of the morpheme "ka".

(a) Ota **ka**ya kovenduka (He/she will be going to Windhoek).

[2] Tense represents time in relation to the event, aspect represents the process or state of the event within the given time; and mood is the degree of necessity or obligation (Nurse, 2008 and Dubois, 1973).

Based on morphology, English has only two tenses, present and past. English can refer to present and past time using inflections on the verb. Any other categories of the English tense system, for instance past/present continuous, past/present perfect or future tense are constructed by a combination of one of the two afore mentioned tenses or adding "have". As in:

(a) She was having dinner with John. (present progressive/continuous)
(b) Henry had been sick. (past perfect)
(c) John will be singing tonight. (future progressive)

This section of the chapter has looked at the basic structure of Oshiwambo, a Bantu language of Southern Africa. The complex structure of Bantu languages, in particular Oshiwambo, makes it an interesting language to contrast with English, which is the second language of the learners in the Oshana region. This study has, therefore, looked at the similarities and differences between these two languages, and outlined the areas of language difficulties that the Oshiwambo speaking learners might face in learning English.

2.13 Chapter summary

This chapter has attempted to provide a theoretical background on second language acquisition and learning, Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis, guidelines for designing an assessment rubric as well as the basic structure of Oshiwambo and English. It can be observed that the discussion in this chapter has revealed that when a learner is faced with the new structures of the target language he or she makes errors during the process. This occurs due to differences between the learner's first language and the target language in terms of phonology, morphology, lexical and syntax structure of the language to be learned. In order to compensate for the communication gap, learners draw from their previous linguistic system which is their first language. The chapter also presented the drawbacks of the Error Analysis methodology. Amongst the criticisms is that an error may be classified into more than one category; only the learners' output is considered for analysis and in analysing learner language the first language speaker's dialect used. Although Errors Analysis has been criticised, it is significant in the study of second language learning as it highlights the problem areas that the learners have; this in turn will help teachers devise remedial methods to help learners increase their language proficiency. It helps teachers reflect on their

teaching styles. Error Analysis remains the only analytical framework used in identifying and classifying errors in the study of learner language. The next chapter presents the methodological approach used in this study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the methods and procedures that were used in answering the following research questions:

(a) What types of errors do the learners produce in English and what are their frequencies?
(b) What differences between English and Oshiwambo may influence these errors?
(c) What factors, apart from first language interference, may cause these different types of errors? If it is not possible to identify these factors, what methodological innovations would enable one to identify these factors?
(d) What are the distribution patterns for these types of errors amongst the surveyed schools?
(e) What correlation is there between these results and the impressionistic reports from the Ministry of Education?
(f) What interventions can be made to address these errors?

In addition, this chapter provides a detailed summary of the research methodology. It discusses the research design, sample group and sampling techniques, research instrument, data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research design

This study adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods. The two techniques have been chosen in order to best answer the research questions. Both approaches form a fundamental basis in identifying, classifying and providing explanations for errors (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). Quantitative research, according to Nunan (2001) and Muijs (2004), explains a phenomenon by collecting numerical data which is analysed using mathematically based methods. This approach according to Nunan (ibid) is reliable and objective. The quantitative method in this study was used for the frequency counts and percentages of the error type in the corpus. In addition, it also

provided for the statistical comparison between various groups and the effective translation of data into quantifiable charts and graphs.

A qualitative method on the other hand explores issues with the aim of trying to understand phenomena or underlying reasons (Jane and Jane, 2003; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). The use of a qualitative analysis in this study allowed for a thorough and careful analysis in identifying, categorising and providing for the causes of errors in the written work of the learners sampled. Bogdan and Biklen (ibid) stressed that a qualitative approach is beneficial, in that it explores new areas of research, builds theories and examines complex questions that cannot be answered with quantitative methods. The present study used both Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis approaches in gathering "learner language" of the grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners. The Contrastive Analysis method involves the comparison of Oshiwambo and English, with the objective of identifying transferred elements. Error Analysis, on the other hand, deals with the learners' interlanguage that is the learners' version of the target language (James, 1998). These approaches were deemed as fundamental tools to this study as they evidence how language is learnt, highlight the strategies or procedures that the learners employ in the discovery of language as well as evidence the areas of difficulty that the learners in the Oshana region have in learning their second language.

3.3 Sampling techniques and sample group

This study used random sampling, which is defined as "the process of drawing a subset of individuals from a larger set" (Johnson and Christenson, 2004: 197). The learners were chosen randomly by the teachers, so that each individual had the same probability of being chosen. The use of random sampling in this study was to ensure that the results were not biased but rather representative of the entire population. A total of 100 grade 12 learners out of an overall 1460 learners from five secondary schools were randomly selected from the eight secondary schools in the Oshana region. A sample of 100 scripts was deemed sufficient as a representative sample and fell within the range suggested by Rescoe (1975) as cited in Sakaran (2000: 296) that "a corpus of language larger than 30 and less than 500 (essays) is appropriate for most research."

Out of the 100 learners, there were 49 girls and 51 boys. The learners ranged in age from 15 to 20 years old. Details concerning the sample group have been captured in Table 8 below. Only learners who are taking English as a second language at Ordinary level[3] formed part of this study. A maximum of 20 learners from three different classes taught by different teachers were randomly selected from each school.

Secondary school	Sample per school	Boys	Girls
School A	20	10	10
School B	20	11	9
School C	20	12	8
School D	20	8	12
School E	20	11	9
Total	**100**	**51**	**49**

Table 8 Target schools and size of research group

3.4 The research instrument

In collecting learner responses, an essay topic adapted from the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate (2009) was administered amongst the respondents. Given the fact that Namibia has adopted the Cambridge education system for an extended period of ten years, I found it necessary to conform to Cambridge's education system's standard. A questionnaire was designed and used to capture data from the respondents (Appendix 2). This questionnaire comprised two sections, the first section required information about the learners, such as their age, gender and other languages that the learners speak. This information is essential for considering factors that influence second language learning which are addressed in chapter 4 of this study. The second section consisted of a written task, whereby learners were expected to write an essay of 150 to 200 words describing an incident at a local swimming pool. The learners were expected to

[3] There are two levels offered at the secondary school phase in Namibia, Ordinary level and High level. Although both levels are aimed at developing learners' creative thinking, enquiry and problem solving, they differ in their grading. Learners at Ordinary level are graded from A-G while High level learners' grades range from 1-4 (Ministry of Education, 2007). For a learner to take a subject on High level he/she must have obtained an A symbol in the respective subject.

complete the task in 60 minutes. A total of six pictures and three prompts were provided as guides for writing the essay (see Appendix 2).

The prompts and pictures were given in order to guide learners in their writing. Participants were not restricted to the prompts and pictures as stipulated by the instruction; they were free to use ideas of their own.

3.5 Data collection procedures and data analysis

Data collection for this study was done during the first week of March 2013. Prior to collecting the data, a letter of authorisation (Appendix 1) to collect data was written to the schools' principals in order for them to grant permission for this study to be carried out. After authorisation was granted, class teachers were asked to assist with the random selection of learners for the study as well as with the supervision of the task. The participants completed this task in the classroom. The hand written scripts were collected and then an experienced English lecturer who is a native speaker of English was consulted to assist with the identification of the ungrammatical sentences. This was to enable a thorough and detailed analysis given the fact that I am not an English native speaker and only have six years of experience in language teaching. This process involved underlining the non-standard forms and next to them providing the correct version.

After the errors were identified, I coded them using the marking codes shown in Appendix 4. I then classified the errors into categories as can be seen in chapter 4. The West Virginia assessment rubric (The West Virginia Education Department, 2011) was used in the identification of discourse errors. This rubric was designed by the Education Department of West Virginia with the objective of guiding English language teachers in the development, improvement, and evaluation of learners' writing, in order to provide valuable feedback that will help in language learning. I have chosen this rubric because it comprehensively covers five key language components, aligned to grade level objectives, and evaluates the analytic traits of organisation, development, sentence structure, word choice and grammar usage, and punctuation. From my observation, research on Error Analysis neglects the use of assessment rubrics leaving out a great deal of errors relating to discourse. Having compared this rubric to the Namibian rubric that is currently used in schools, I

felt it is more comprehensive to use for the analysis of the data for this study (see chapter 4, section 4.6).

Numerous studies (Johnson and Johnson, 2008; Kesharvarz, 2006; Ellis, 2003; Cherrington, 2004; Ferris, 2002; James, 1998 and Corder, 1974) on Error Analysis informed the process used to analyse data for this study. These studies provided guidelines with regard to the use of Corder's (1981; 1967) model for Error Analyses, in that the following steps were followed:

Firstly, the 100 written scripts were read. The norm is the target language and any deviation from the norm was viewed as an error (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). A word or sentence was taken as a basic unit of analysis and then erroneous language elements were coded. Corder's (1981; 1967) model (chapter 2, figure 2) for error identification was used in this study. This model advises that the erroneous sentence should be translated verbatim into the learner's first language in order to determine the transferred elements. The sentence is then reconstructed in the target language; where an error was identified, it was coded. Given the fact that I am not a native speaker of English, the error identification and reconstruction of the sentence in the target language was done by an experienced English native speaker. This was to ensure a thorough identification of errors.

Hobson (1999) pointed out that determining a norm is problematic because it depends on the linguistic context and the relation between the speaker and hearer. For instance, covert errors pose difficulties because the analyst tries to identify what the learner intended to say. An example is given below:

(a) I was the first **in** race.

The analyst might assume that the learner wanted to say "I was the first to race", while he/she meant that she/he came first in the race. This shows that future research should consider both written and spoken language so that learners can clarify what they mean.

The next step after the identification of errors was the description and classification of errors into types. The purpose of providing a description of errors, according to James (1998), is to make the errors explicit. It is indispensable for counting errors and it is a basis for creating categories since it reveals which errors are different or the same. The learner's language had to be described in

terms of a language system. The Interlanguage hypothesis suggests that "learner language" is a language in its own right and should not be described in terms of the target language (James, 1998). Despite James's (ibid) argument, a comparative technique is important in tracing whether errors are caused by first language interference. This is to ensure that appropriate remedial methods are designed to help learners learn their second language.

Ellis (1994) and Krashen (1982) proposed that "surface strategy taxonomy" is required to describe errors (see chapter 2.5.3 for definition). The surface structures are altered by means of operations such as:

(a) Omission, the absence of an item that must appear in a well formed sentence (I happy - I **am** happy);
(b) Addition, the presence of an item that must not appear in a well formed sentence (The dog **it** can bark - The dog can bark);
(c) Misordering, the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in a sentence (She is going **not** to the hospital - She is not going to the hospital).

Errors were classified into various categories based on their nature. Kesharvarz's (2006) and Corder's (1967) linguistic error taxonomy was used to categorise errors collected in this study. This taxonomy allows errors to be classified according to the language component or linguistic constituent which is affected by errors. Amongst the language components as highlighted in chapter 2 are phonology/orthography errors, lexico-semantic, morpho-syntax, discourse and technique error categories.

The linguistic error taxonomy is used in the study of Error Analysis as it is found to be useful for organising the collected data (Kesharvarz, 2006; Llomaki, 2005; Mohamed, 2004 and Keiko, 2003). In addition, the classification of errors into various categories is beneficial to teachers and curriculum developers because teaching and learning can be ordered step by step from simple to complex structures of the language. After categorising each error, I quantified the frequency of occurrence of different types of errors. The results were tabulated and are illustrated graphically (chapter 4). The descriptive statistics for the results are provided, including the frequencies of errors, error types and percentages. Some of the erroneous sentences (as will be seen in chapter 4) have been double coded because they consist of more than one error.

The last step was to provide probable explanations as to the causes of errors that the learners made. Corder's (1981) model for error explanation was used in order to determine whether or not the errors are a result of first language interference. This involved making a well formed reconstruction of the learner response in English, comparing the reconstructed sentence with the original idiosyncratic sentence, checking for the difference between the original and reconstructed sentence, translating verbatim the sentence to Oshiwambo to see if it is a plausible interpretation in the given context and then translate the sentence in Oshiwambo back to English in order to provide a reconstructed sentence (see chapter 4 for examples). During this analysis comparisons were made between Oshiwambo and English language structure to determine the transferred language items from Oshiwambo to English. Errors were then labeled as either resulting from first language interference, being interlingual errors or overgeneralisation of the target language rule, or lack of knowledge of the second language, being intralingual errors (Kesharvarz, 2012; Ellis, 2003 and James, 1998). Deciding on whether the error is intralingual or interlingual is a bit problematic because a spelling error may belong to both categories. This is discussed in chapter 4 of this thesis.

3.6 Pilot study

One of the main aims of this study was to design an assessment rubric which is much easier to use, consistent and transparent with regard to evaluating and assessing learners' written work. Ultimately the rubric was designed to help with the identification of the non-standard forms made by learners in writing English. In order to validate the rubric, a pilot study was carried out in the Oshana region among the five schools studied. A total of five teachers, one from each school, were asked to test the rubric against learners' written work (see Appendix 8 for marked samples and comments). The components of the rubric as well as the grading system of the new rubric were explained to the teachers. Thereafter teachers had to mark scripts using the newly designed rubric as well as the current rubric used in schools in order to determine if the new rubric can be applied to meet the learners' learning needs and help promote language learning. A questionnaire was designed to gather teacher responses regarding the use of the current and the design of the new rubric. The results obtained from this exercise are presented in chapter 4 section 4.8.

3.7 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I gave details of the research methodologies used in conducting this study. Justifications on the choice of the methodologies were also given. In addition, the chapter provided detailed information on the selection and description of the instrument used, how the population was selected, what sampling procedures were used and how data was analysed. Consequently, the research methodology was chosen to answer the research questions and meet the objectives of this study. In the next chapter the data collected in this study will be presented, interpreted and discussed.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Chapter introduction

In this chapter, the results of the study are presented and discussed. The findings obtained are presented in two sections. The first section presents the types of errors and their probable sources. The second section reports on the demographic information such as age, gender and other languages spoken by the learners. It also presents information regarding the errors in relation to the age and gender of the learners. The section also provides a justification for designing the assessment rubric, critiques of the Error Analysis methodology and also presents the results obtained from the pilot study.

4.2 Section A: Types and frequency of errors amongst schools

A total of 731 errors were recorded in this study. Table 9 ranks the errors based on the frequency of occurrence:

Type of error	Frequency of occurrence (%)
Spelling	301
Tense	109
Punctuation	68
Word choice	51
Preposition	46
Article	41
Discourse	38
Noun/pronoun	30
Word boundary	13
Subject verb agreement	11
Run on sentence	11
Phrasing	5
Auxiliary verb	4
Conjunction	1
Word form	1
Superlative	1
Total	**731**

Table 9 Summary of error types and frequency of occurrence (The word order errors found in this study were broken down into two categories, namely subject verb agreement errors and phrasing)

It is evident that the most prevalent errors were spelling (301) and the lowest recorded errors were conjunction (1), superlative (1) and word form (1). These results are similar to the findings in the studies conducted by Mohamed (2004), Kieko (2003), Eun-pyo (2002), Srinon (1999), Lukanavich (1988) and Wissing (1988) who also conducted studies on learners' written work in English. All these studies also found errors with tense, articles, word choice and agreement. Other errors highlighted in these studies were those that relate to determiners, conjunctions and nouns. Amongst these studies Wissing (ibid) recorded 18.75% lexical errors, 12.3% spelling errors, 7.12% preposition errors, 6.20% punctuation and 7.25% conjunction errors. These frequencies differ with the findings of this study, in that this study recorded the most errors with spelling (96%), punctuation (68%), tense (41%) and preposition (17.6%). However, conjunction errors were the lowest recorded errors (0.3%) in comparison to the 7.25% of conjunction errors found in Wissing's (1988) study.

On the other hand, Eun-pyo (ibid) recorded 16% tense errors, 15% preposition errors, 14% article use errors, 22% sentence structure/agreement errors and 2.9% conjunction errors. These studies concluded that the errors made by the learners were a result of first language interference, overgeneralisation, incomplete application of rules or simply a result of carelessness. The study carried out by Srinon (1999) differs slightly, in that, in addition to the findings similar to this study, he found verbatim translation errors. Error Analysis studies always yield different frequencies of occurrence because different languages with different language structures are studied and also the contexts of learning are not the same. It is, however, important to consider similar studies as they provide much better guidance on the methodology used. They also provide insight into the study of learner language.

The impressionistic results from the Directorate of National Examination and Assessment (2007-2011) do correlate with this study; however, in addition to the spelling errors, agreement errors and word boundary errors that the report has identified, this study has identified 13 other different types of errors that the learners made. This prompted me to carry out research that uses a more elaborate system of categories which produces a more fine-grained analysis of the data (chapter 2, section 2.5.4). This form of analysis according to Kesharvarz (2006) is beneficial to the teachers because the teaching and learning process will be well sequenced enabling learners to grasp the target language's structures.

4.2.1 Interlingual errors

As outlined in chapter 2 of this thesis, there are two main sources of errors, interlingual and intralingual. The interlingual errors are those that result from first language interference whereas intralingual errors are caused by the mutual interference of items in the target language and reflect the general characteristics such as overgeneralisation, incomplete application of language rules or ignorance of language rules (Ellis, 2008; Johnson, 2008 and Kesharvarz, 1994).

4.2.1.1 Phonology/orthography errors

Errors related to phonology/orthography are presented in Table 10. A total of 314 errors from two main orthographic categories (spelling and word boundary) were observed. Spelling errors were highest, amounting to 96% and word boundary were the lowest with 4%.

In total school B made the most errors (72), followed by school E (69), school A (66) and school D (59). School C recorded fewer errors (48) in comparison to the other four schools. Although these scores were not equal amongst these five schools, there seemed to be a general trend in terms of the type of error made, that is the error categories are similar amongst the schools.[4]

Type of error	**Secondary Schools & Frequency of Error**					**Total**	**Percentage %**
	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E		
Spelling	64	69	46	53	69	301	96%
Word boundary	2	3	2	6	0	13	4%
Total	**66**	**72**	**48**	**59**	**69**	**314**	**100**

Table 10 Phonology/orthography errors

4.2.1.2 (a) Spelling errors

Amongst all five schools, spelling errors were prevalent. The spelling errors were the highest frequent types of errors made in this study. A total of 301 errors were recorded from the overall 731 errors made in this study. As found in the learners' written work, misspelling appeared when:

(i) Learners either doubled consonants (to**mm**orrow - tomorrow, su**pp**rised - surprised, co**mm**ing - coming);
(ii) Added a vowel at the end of a word (cloud**e** - cloud, precious**e** - precious);
(ii) Substitution of a consonant or vowel (bu**z**y - busy, **i**ncourage - encourage, **o**lso - also).

The English phonology and orthography differs from that of Oshiwambo; therefore, learners experience difficulties in writing English though even native speakers do. The Oshiwambo language has a transparent phonetic pronunciation, in that the letter or combination of letters always represents the same speech sound (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). In other terms, the words are spelled in the same way as they are pronounced. For instance the word "card" is "okakalata" which is pronounced as /o-ka-ka-la-ta/ and the

[4] The frequency of errors per subcategory were summed and expressed as overall percentages of each subcategory. The percentage of each subcategory was calculated by dividing the frequency of error type with the total of the main error category, multiplied by 100.

word “powder” is “ufila” pronounced /u-fi-la/. Learners using the first language structure rule are likely to write the word “card” as /kard/ and “powder” as /pauda/ (Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2006). In English the word “card” is pronounced as /kɑː(r)d/ and the word “powder” as /paʊdə(r)/ (ibid). The letter sound “k” is heard in the word “card”, while the word “powder” consists of a centering diphthong “aʊ”. The Bantu languages have no diphthongs (Wissing, 1988; Nurse, 2003). Learners often write the sounds as they hear them using their known phonological route from the first language. This results in learners making spelling errors of transfer.

As the examples given in (i) above show, the doubling of letter “m” in the word “tomorrow” and “coming” indicate the phonological rule that the pronunciation of “m” is prolonged as “mm” in Oshiwambo. For example, the pronunciation of “omunhu” (person/human being) is “o**mm**nhu”. The learners may have carried this speech sound or rule to English. Although learners were not asked to produce words, I conclude that this form of error is a result of first language interference. This shows that learners did not make a distinction between spoken and written language.

In the second example (ii), the learners have added a vowel “e” after the consonant in the words “cloud” and “precious” (cloud**e**, precious**e**). This is because Oshiwambo has an open syllabic structure, which means that words always end with a vowel (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1994). Therefore, the learners have applied the same rule as that of their first language by adding a vowel at the end of the word.

The third example (iii) shows errors of substitution of a fricative “s” and substitution of vowels “a” and “e”. In the word “busy” the learner has opted to use the fricative “z” so that the word reads as it is pronounced /bɪzi/. This error is attributed to first language interference since Oshiwambo words are written as they are pronounced. Powel (1998) terms this form of transfer “negative transfer”, which results when there is no concordance between the first language and the second language; however, the learner applies his or her first language rule to English. The learners have also misspelled the word “also” (olso) and “encourage” (incourage). In English “also” is pronounced as /ɔːlsəʊ/ and encourage /ɪnˈkʌrɪdʒ/ (Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2006). This shows that the learners have written the words as they are pronounced employing the same rule used in Oshiwambo.

4.2.1.3 Word boundaries

The word boundary errors involved the breaking down of a word into phonemes. Learners have separated reflexive pronouns such as “myself”, “yourself”, and “herself” into two separate words “my self”, “your self” and “her self”. The learners did not regard these words as compound words but rather two separate words. Although many or most compound words in English are written as two words. In English, reflexive pronouns appear as compound words whereas in Oshiwambo, reflexive pronouns are written disjunctively (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). This is demonstrated below:

(a) Ohandi shi ningi **ame mwene**. (I will do it **myself**)
(b) Oto shi ningi **ove mwene**. (You will do it **yourself**)
(c) Ote shi ningi **yee mwene**. (He/she will do it **himself/herself**)

In the example above, “ame” denotes “me” or “my”, “ove” means “you” while “yee” refers to “she” or “he” and “mwene” is “self”. Given that the learners have separated the reflexive pronouns into two separate words, shows that learners have transferred their first language rule and applied it in writing English. Therefore one may conclude that these errors are a result of interference from the learners’ first language.

4.2.1.4 Morpho-syntax errors

Table 11 presents the morpho-syntactic errors that were made amongst the five schools.

Type of error	Secondary Schools & Frequency of Error					Total	Percentage %
	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E		
Tense	30	30	15	23	11	109	41.9%
Preposition	17	9	6	12	2	46	17.6%
Article	11	12	8	6	4	41	15.7%
Noun/pronoun	9	2	4	10	5	30	11.5%
Agreement	3	2	0	4	2	11	4.2%
Run on sentence	3	3	3	2	0	11	4.2%
Phrasing	2	2	1	0	0	5	1.9%
Auxiliary	0	2	2	0	0	4	1.5%
Conjunction	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.3%
Word form	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.3%
Superlative	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.3%
Total	**77**	**63**	**39**	**57**	**24**	**260**	**100**

Table 11 Morpho-syntax errors

An overall total of 260 morpho-syntax errors were made in 11 subcategories (Table 11). Analysis revealed that the use of incorrect tenses was common amongst all five schools with a recorded 41.9%. In addition, the learners also had problems with the use of prepositions (17.7%), articles (15.8%) and nouns/pronouns (11.5%). The lowest number of errors recorded was for agreement (4.2%), run on sentences (4.2%), phrasing (1.9%), auxiliary verbs (1.5%), conjunction (0.3%), word form (0.3%) and superlative errors (0.3%). School A recorded the highest number of morpho-syntax errors, followed by school B and school D. The fewest morpho-syntax errors were recorded in school E.

4.2.1.5 (a) Noun/pronoun errors (omission of nouns/pronouns)

This category includes errors in the omission of a pronoun. According to Ellis (2008) omission errors refer to missing language elements in a sentence which are required so that the sentence reads correctly. An example attributed to first language interference is presented below:

(a) He should know that ( ) am here. (He should know that I am here)

In Oshiwambo, the example above would read as:

(a) Neshi shive kutja opo ndili. (He should know that I am here)

The learners have omitted the pronoun "I" in the sentence when it was required to complete the sentence. In the Oshiwambo version, the pronoun "ame" (I) is not used because with or without it the sentence still reads correctly. As in:

(a) Neshi shive kutja **ame** opo ndili. (He should know that I am here)
(b) Neshi shive kutja opo ndili. (He should know that I am here)

A probable explanation for this type of error is first language interference because learners in this context have used the same rule that applies in their first language. The studies conducted by Mohamed (2004), Keiko (2003) and Olsen (1999) also found that learners have problems with the incorrect use of nouns and pronouns. These studies concluded that the causes of the errors that the learners made were first language influenced and also caused by the incomplete application of the language rule.

4.3 Intralingual errors

This section discusses the errors that are caused by the mutual interference of items in the target language. These errors, as Kesharvarz (1994) and Ellis (2008) point out, reflect the general characteristic of rule learning such as overgeneralisation, incomplete application of rules, ignorance of rules and the context of learning.

4.3.1 (b) Spelling errors

The spelling errors made by learners in this study which are not related to interference in the target language were of two forms:

(i) Omission of a vowel or consonant (minu**t**s-minu**t**e**s**, ass**e**bly-asse**m**bly, realy-real**l**y)

(ii) Substitution of a vowel or consonant (s**u**bling-sibling, incred**a**ble-incredibly, inste**r**d-instead)

The omission of the vowel "e" in the word "minutes" and the consonants "m" and "l" in the words "assembly" and "really" in the first example (i) could be attributed to learners' lack of adequate awareness of the English phonology. The substitution of a vowel "i" in the words "sibling" and "incredible" as well as the substitution of the vowel "e" in the word "instead" is quite interesting. While this has no origin in

the Oshiwambo language, one may attribute this to what James (1998) refers to as "teacher induced errors". The errors of this nature may be caused by the way the teacher talks. Learners in the Oshana region do not get adequate direct exposure to native speakers of English; most of the spoken English that they hear is that of their teachers who are not native speakers of English. Spelling is important for second language learners so that they write with accuracy; therefore, learners need lots of exposure to both spoken and written forms of English.

4.3.2 Tense errors

The tense errors in this study appeared in one form, whereby learners failed to use the past tense in the contexts where it is required as in the examples given below:

(a) I **explain** in a shy voice. (I explained in a shy voice)

(b) The boy who **swim** like a fish yesterday. (The boy who swam like a fish)

(c) They **run** but no one **achieve** the requirements. (They ran but no one achieved the requirement)

Since the essay topic required learners to describe an incident that happened at their local swimming pool, it obliged the learners to compose the essay mostly in the past tense. Learners, however, failed to use the past tense and used the present tense instead. Srinon (1999) pointed out that learners are often unaware of the time reference indicated by the context in which the composition should be written; therefore, they often turn to the present tense instead of the past tense. The present tense is the first tense that learners learn and its structure is simple for the learners to apply. Oshiwambo just like English differentiates between past events, present and future. For instance, the past tense in Oshiwambo is marked by the verb suffix –"ile" (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998) as in:

a) Pita (pass) + -ile (pitile) (had passed)

Given that both Oshiwambo and English do differentiate between past events, present and future, the tense errors that the learners have made cannot be attributed to first language interference but rather learners' lack of knowledge to apply the right tense in the given context or failure to consistently apply the past tense formation rule.

4.3.3 Auxiliary verb errors

Learners have omitted auxiliary verbs in sentences as shown in the examples below:

(i) People ( ) moving up and down. (People were moving up and down)
(ii) I ( ) supposed to take part. (I was supposed to take part)

In Oshiwambo these sentences will read:

(i) Ovanhu **ovali** taveendauka. (The people **were** moving up and down)
(ii) **Okwali** ndina oku kufa ombingi. (I **was** supposed to take part)

In the first example the word "ovali" represents the auxiliary verb "were" and "okwali" means "was". In this particular context, the main verb "moving" and "suppose" require an auxiliary verb in order to give further semantic information and to complete the sentence (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). These types of errors, as outlined by Corder (1971b), are a result of the inconsistent application of the language rule, that is, the rule of verb tenses. Keiko (2003), Srinon (1999) and Wissing (1988) on isiXhosa, Korean and Japanese learners differ in their conclusions from the present study as they contended that the tense errors made by the respondents were a result of overgeneralisation, first language interference and a lack of knowledge of the English language. Error Analysis studies, however, do not necessarily reach the same conclusions, because there is usually more than one probable source of error (Hobson, 1999). Factors such as the context of learning (see chapter 2), the level of the exposure to the target language and the different language structures of the languages all contribute to different conclusions. I am of the view that the errors made in this category were a result of the inconsistent application of the language rule.

4.3.4 Prepositional errors

The errors in this subcategory are those of omission, addition and incorrect prepositions used. Examples are given below:

(a) ( ) the second game Mweshipandeka scored. (In the second game Mweshipandeka scored)
(b) The bad childhood memories I caused **to** her. (The bad childhood memories I caused her)
(c) Most of the girls **on** our group played for our team. (Most of the girls in our group played for our team)

These sentences in Oshiwambo will read:

(a) Medingonoko etivali Mweshipandeka okwatulamo okoola. (In the second game Mweshipandeka scored)

(b) Ondemwetela omadiladilo mai kudja kuunona waye. (The bad childhood memories I caused her)

(c) Oukadona vahapu vo**m**ongudu yetu ovadana etanga mospana yetu. (Most of the girls in our group played for our team)

In Oshiwambo, the locatives prefixes appear before nouns and are expressed by means of prefixes such as "mu" (in), "ku" (to, towards), "nu" (with), and "pu" (at). The locative prefixes are written conjunctively with the word that follows. If a noun starts with a vowel, the "u" of the prefix is elided (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). This is shown below:

(i) **Pomulonga** (**pu**+omulonga) (At the river) (ii)

(ii) Ohatu i **meumbo** (**mu**+eumbo) (We are going in the house)

(iii) iii) Ohandi i **kutate** (**ku**+tate) (I am going to my father)

(iv) Otayi **nounona** (**nu**+nona) (He/she is going with the children)

In example (a) and (c) above the preposition "mu" can be seen elided in the word "medingonoko" and "mongudu". In the second example (b) the learner has used the incorrect preposition "on" instead of "in". Oshiwambo differentiates between "on" (po) and "in" (mo). The errors made in this category could not be ascribed to first language interference but rather to a lack of knowledge as to which preposition to insert, thus learners avoid using them. Alexander (1979) pointed out that whenever the learners are uncomfortable with a certain structure of the language they resort to an "avoidance strategy" because they feel it might be incorrect. The incorrect choice of a preposition "on" (po) instead of "in" (mo) may be due to a lack of knowledge about the use of English prepositions.

4.3.5 Article errors

Learners had problems with both definite "the" and indefinite articles "a" and "an". The Oshiwambo language does not have an article system; in other words, there are no equivalents for definite and indefinite articles as in English. The absence of articles in Oshiwambo influences learners to make errors

when using English articles. The forms that are used in Oshiwambo to express what would be articles are not clearly distinguishable and no special forms exist (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998). Therefore learners experienced problems with articles. The examples taken from this study's sample clearly demonstrate this:

(i) ( ) Orange team won the game. (The Orange team won the game)
(ii) Only **an** human could possibly do such a thing. (Only a human could possibly do such a thing)
(iii) I stared at the Dj's tent in **a** total disbelief. (I stared at the Dj's tent in total disbelief)

In the first example (i), an article "the" has been omitted from the sentence. The omission of an article before a noun as indicated may be ascribed to lack of knowledge of the language rule (Ellis, 2008). Learners may have presumed that the definite article "the" is not necessary in this context. The use of an incorrect article in the second example (ii) and the addition of an article in the third example (iii) may be a result of a lack of knowledge of the use of the English articles or failure to consistently apply their knowledge.

4.3.6 (b) Noun/pronoun errors (omission of plural morpheme/pronoun)

These errors included omission of plural morpheme -"s" and omission of pronouns as shown below:

(a) **Many pupil** participated in the event. (Many pupils participated in the event)
(b) Different **kind** of sport **code.** (Different kinds of sport codes)
(c) If ( ) am not mistaken. (If I am not mistaken)
(d) I hope that next time ( ) will be me to win. (I hope that next time it will be me to win)

These sentences translated into Oshiwambo would read:

(a) **Ovanhu vahapu** ovakufa ombinga moshiningwa nima. (**Many pupils** participated in the event)
(b) Ngenge inandi puka. (If I am not mistaken)
(c) Ondinekela kutja oshikando tashuya ame handi findana. (I hope that next time it will be me to win)

The word "ovanhu" is the plural form of "people/pupils" and "vahapu" means "many". Both words need to be in agreement so that the sentence is grammatically correct. The same rule applies in English. The

word “many” refers to more than one entity; in this given context, it quantifies the noun “pupil”. The noun “pupil” should be in agreement with its quantifier “many”. Thus a plural morpheme “s” should be added to the word “pupil” to form “pupils” (Tulloch, 1990). The same applies in the second example, where the words “kind” and “code” require a plural morpheme “s”. The errors made in the omission of a plural morpheme may be attributed to learners’ lack of knowledge of English plural formation or failure to consistently apply their knowledge of the language rule. The errors of omission as shown in (b) and (c) are attributed to incomplete application of a language rule.

4.3.7 Sentence construction and conjunction errors

The learners had problems constructing simple and complex sentences. In most cases, the learners have used lengthy structures which resulted in two or more independent clauses running into each other with a lack of punctuation marks or conjunctions. This is shown in the examples below:

(a) I was not expecting to see Gazza in a local place like that it was just a perfect place to meet someone like him, before the shooting of the video we were asked to fill in some forms with our details on them, I was very happy I was imagining myself on television in the music video of one of the famous artist in the country.

(I was not expecting to see Gazza in a local place like that. It was just a perfect place to meet someone like him. Before the shooting of the video, we were asked to fill in some forms with our details on them. I was very happy. I was imagining myself on television in the music video of one of the famous artist in the country.)

(b) Mr Kutyowa announced the winner and it was my ex-boyfriend he was awarded a trophy and an amount of N$ 5000 cash he was speechless all we were able to see were his tears.

(Mr Kutyowa announced the winner and it was my ex-boyfriend. He was awarded a trophy and an amount of N$ 5000 cash. He was speechless. All we were able to see were his tears.)

(c) The race continued until 8 o’clock in the evening at the end of the race only the best were given awards of medals.

(The race continued until 8 o'clock in the evening. At the end of the race only the best were given awards of medals.)

These errors resulted in the essays not being well structured as the paragraphs lacked topic sentences, supporting sentences and concluding sentences. Wyrick (1999) emphasised that to produce an effective piece of writing, learners should focus on the organisation, that is structuring of sentences and paragraphs in order to produce a well written piece of work. These forms of errors may be due to a lack of proper time management on the learners' side.

The learners have also made conjunction errors; particularly they have omitted the conjunction "and" in the sentences where they are required. Examples are shown below:

(a) The man walked towards the pool ( ) climbed the ladder to the top. (The man walked towards the pool and climbed to the top.)
(b) Some were singing ( ) some were dancing. (Some were singing and some were dancing.)
(c) I was scared to go ( ) congratulate him. (I was scared to go and congratulate him.)

Conjunctions in English are a distinct and separate part of speech. In Oshiwambo the conjunction "na" (and) is written conjunctively with the word that follows it (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1998), as in:

(i) Tate nameme (father and mother)

When "na" appears before nouns or other words beginning with a vowel, elision of the vowel "a" occurs, for example:

(ii) nomulumehu (<na + omulumenhu) (and the man)
(iii) Omusamane okwa enda ayuka kondama **n**dele ta londo omanhi fiyo koxulo. (The man walked towards the pool and climbed to the top.)
(iv) Vamwe okwali tava imbi **n**ovamwe ovali tava imbula. (Some were singing and some were dancing.)
(v) Okwali ndatila ndiye **n**dikemuhalele omayambeko. (I was scared to go and congratulate him.)

The three examples given above clearly show that a conjunction is required in both Oshiwambo and English to complete the sentence and bring ideas together; therefore the errors that the learners have made in this regard may be a result of incomplete application of language rules.

4.3.8 Subject verb agreement errors and phrasing errors

The respondents had problems with the formation of agreement between the subject and the verb. This mainly occurred in contexts where the subject is in plural form requiring a plural verb. An example is provided below:

(a) **My parents was** not feeling well. (My parents were not feeling well.)
(b) **We was** busy swimming and my friend got tired. (We were busy swimming and my friend got tired.)
(c) The **people who is** competing with others were there. (The people who were competing with others were there.)

The agreement between the subject and verb is influenced by the subject form, that is, whether it is singular or plural. If the subject is singular then its verb must be singular, and if the subject is plural then the verb must be in the plural form as well (Cottrel, 2008). This same rule applies in the Oshiwambo language, as can be seen in the example below:

(i) **Ova**kulunhu vange kav**ali** veudite nawa. (My parents were not feeling well)

The prefix ‘ova’ signifies plural form, while ‘ali’ serves as an auxiliary verb “were” for plural form (Zimmerman & Hasheela, 1998). If referring to one parent, it will read as:

(ii) **Omu**kulunhu wange **kali** eudite nawa. (My parent was not feeling well)

In this example, the prefix ‘omu’ is for singular formation while ‘kali’ represents the auxiliary verb ‘was’. This clearly shows that the errors made by the learners are not a result of first language interference but rather lack of knowledge regarding the English concord rule or simply an incomplete application of rules (Johnson, 1998).

The respondents also had phrasing problems as shown below:

i) Anyone who knows and <u>have skills about swimming</u> was invited. (Anyone who knows about and has swimming skills was invited)

This sentence not only has phrasing problems, it also has a subject verb agreement error. For analysis' sake, I will refer to the corrected version "Anyone who knows about and has swimming skills was invited". The preposition "about" was misplaced, for concordance; it should precede the conjunction "and" as well as the object "swimming skills". Relocating the preposition also requires repositioning the word "swimming" because if the sentence reads "skills swimming" it will be ungrammatical.

4.3.9 Superlative errors

The errors made in this category involved the omission of a superlative as indicated in the following sentence:

(i) My ( ) interesting swimming pool event ever. (My most interesting swimming pool event ever)

The English language has numerous ways of expressing extreme degree of comparison. For instance, superlatives are either marked by the suffix "-est" or the word "most" or "least" is used. The Oshiwambo language has a limited number of superlatives in comparison to English. As a result there are other means of description, which is the secondary semantic function of class-prefixes. The adjectival prefixes such as 'wa' (well, good, handsome), 'i' (badly, ugly), 'nene' (most, big/biggest, large/largest) may be used. Examples are given below to illustrate this:

(a) Omulumenhu mu**<u>wa</u>** **<u>unene</u>**. (The cutest guy ever)

(b) Oshinima eshi ndamona shiy**<u>i</u>** unene. (The ugliest thing I have ever seen)

Given that the learners were trying to indicate the degree to which one event, that is the swimming pool event, differed from the past swimming pool event, the superlative "most" is required in the given sentence to indicate this. As indicated in example (i), (a) and (b) of this error category above, both Oshiwambo and English have a system of superlatives. Therefore the errors that the learners made in this category are not influenced by the learners' first language but rather a result of the incomplete application of the language rule.

4.3.10 Word form

The word formation errors made by the learners relate to inflection of morphemes as shown below:

(i) Elia is **jealousy** of me. (Elia is jealous of me.)

The sentence above demonstrates that learners have acquired the inflectional morphology rules of English but failed to use them correctly in the given context or failed to consistently apply their knowledge of the language. The word "jealous" is an adjective, and once an inflectional morpheme "-y" is affixed, it becomes a noun "jealousy". This error shows a lack of distinction between the use of the noun "jealous" and the adjective "jealousy". In Oshiwambo this sentence will read "Elia okuna ondubo name". The word "ondubo" in Oshiwambo means "jealousy" or "jealous". In the Oshiwambo language the word "ondubo" is not inflected. The probable reason why learners made this type of error may be a result of being unable to make a distinction between the context and use of the word "jealousy" and "jealous" or they may have transferred their first language knowledge in writing English.

4.4 Other error categories

This section discusses the errors that are neither interlingual nor intralingual. These include the lexico-semantic errors, technique and discourse errors.

4.4.1 Lexico-semantic errors

Table 12 presents the lexico-semantic errors that were recorded in this study. These are errors that relate to the semantic properties of lexical items (Corder, 1967). The main error type identified was the incorrect choice of words within the given context**.**

Type of error	Secondary Schools & Frequency of Error					Total	Percentage %
	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E		
Word choice	10	11	9	14	7	51	51%
Total	**10**	**11**	**9**	**14**	**7**	**51**	**51%**

Table 12 Lexico-semantic errors

As presented in Table 12, the lexico-semantic errors made up a total of 51 errors recorded amongst the five schools sampled. The most frequent errors were produced by school D (14), school B (11), school A (10) and school C (9), whereas school E recorded the least errors (7) in comparison to the other four schools. Examples of the word choice errors are:

(i) He also encouraged us to **flow** in his **feets**. (He also encouraged us to follow in his footsteps)

(ii) I won a **metal**. (I won a medal.)

The first sentence (i) in Oshiwambo will read "Okwetupa omkumo opo tulandule meemhadi daye". The word "tulandule" is "follow" and "meemhadi" refers to "footsteps". The use of the word "flow" instead of "follow" may be because the learners are unable to differentiate between the pronunciations of the two words and the inability to master the semantic meaning of words. One may conclude that the choice of the word "feets" instead of "footsteps" is a result of the learners' limited vocabulary. In the second example (ii) the learners are unable to distinguish between the uses of the words "metal", a hard substance such as steel and a "medal" which is a token given as an award. The study carried out by Srinon (1999) also found errors in the choice of words to be problematic to the learners. These errors were attributed to the learners' limited vocabulary and learners' accent that may be misleading them. Therefore learners need to read widely to improve and build their vocabulary.

4.4.2 Technique errors

The errors in this category relate to the use of punctuation marks. The table below shows the subcategories of the technique errors and their frequency of occurrence amongst schools.

Type of error	Secondary Schools & Frequency of Error					Total	Percentage %
	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E		
Omission of punctuation marks	4	5	4	4	11	28	41.1%
Misuse of capital letters	2	2	5	3	9	21	29.4%
Capital letters not used	6	2	3	5	3	19	27.9%
Total	**12**	**9**	**12**	**12**	**23**	**68**	**100**

Table 13 Technique errors

The results presented in Table 13 above indicate that 68 technique errors were made. This category made up three categories, namely omission of punctuation marks (41%), misuse of capital letters (29.4%) and capital letters not used where necessary (27.9%). School E recorded the most errors (23) in comparison to school B (9). A similar frequency of occurrence was recorded in school A (12), school C (12) and school D (12) respectively.

The errors in this category were due to the omission of punctuation marks, misuse of capital letters and the failure to apply capital letters where necessary. This is indicated below:

Omission of punctuation marks:

(i) Alex, Billy's enemy ( ) was in a good mood because he thought Billy ( ) his biggest competitor ( ) was not going to show up. (Alex, Billy's enemy, was in a good mood because he thought Billy, his biggest competitor, was not going to show up)

(ii) **Its** very simple. (It's very simple)

Misuse of capital letters:

(i) The **P**roblem was the deep pool. (The problem was the deep pool)

(ii) **AT** the end we all succeeded. (At the end we all succeeded)

Capital letters not used:

(i) It was on a **s**aturday morning when I went to the pool. (It was on a Saturday morning when I went to the pool)

(ii) When **i** arrived, it was all quiet. (When I arrived, it was all quiet)

The rules pertaining to the use of punctuation marks in English are the same as in Oshiwambo. The errors that the learners have made regarding punctuation marks may not be ascribed to the learners' first language interference because both English and Oshiwambo use punctuation marks in the same way. The errors made in this category are related to academic literacy issues. Learners seem to lack awareness about the norms of essay writing.

Discourse errors

The discourse errors in this study involve the structure of the essay and the logical connection of ideas. These are presented in Table 14.

Type of error	**Secondary Schools & Frequency of Error**					**Total**	**Percentage %**
	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E		
Essay has no heading	3	3	2	2	2	12	31.5%
No paragraphs used to separate ideas	3	3	2	2	2	12	31.5%
Lack of logical connection	3	0	2	2	0	7	18.4%
No conclusion	2	0	0	2	0	4	10.5%
No introduction	0	0	0	2	0	2	5.2%
Essay topic not relevant to task	0	0	0	0	1	1	2.6%
Total	**11**	**6**	**6**	**10**	**5**	**38**	**100**

Table 14 Discourse errors

The results presented in the table above show a total of 38 discourse errors made by the learners in the five schools studied. The errors in the structuring of paragraphs (31.5%) and the omission of headings (31.5%) seem to be the most problematic for the learners in this category. The other discourse errors that the learners seem to have problems with include failure to connect ideas between and within paragraphs (18.4%), essays lacking introductory paragraphs (5.2%) and concluding paragraphs (2.6%). Amongst the five schools, school E recorded the most errors in this category and school D recorded the least errors (5).

Although discourse errors are not second language issues, it is an academic literacy issue. It is relevant to this study since it is a contributing factor to the learners' low performance in schools. Results obtained from this study show that there were several essays that did not have headings, paragraphs were poorly structured, no concluding paragraphs or introductory paragraphs, and in some cases, ideas did not flow between paragraphs. An essay according to Cele-Murcia (2001) and Raimes (1983) should consist of an essay topic, introduction, supporting paragraphs and a concluding sentence. In addition to this, the ideas within the paragraphs and between paragraphs should flow logically. However this was not displayed by the learners in their written tasks. These findings are similar to those of Srinon (1999) who also found errors relating to composition structure and the logical connection of ideas between paragraphs. One may conclude that the errors made in this category may be a result of ignorance of academic discourse. Learners are taught Oshiwambo as a subject in school and their syllabus, just like that of English, entails being taught how to produce clear, fluent and well-structured pieces of writing (The Namibia Senior Secondary Certificate for Secondary Schools Syllabus, 2013). This means that learners at secondary school level should be able to demonstrate good writing skills which they have been taught from previous grades. The errors made in this category are either a result of ignorance of the academic discourse or carelessness.

4.4.3 A Summary of the error types and frequency amongst schools

Table 15 provides a summary of the five main categories of errors made by the five schools studied. It sums up the overall total number of errors per school.

Error category	Secondary Schools & Frequency of Error					Total
	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	
Phonology/Orthography	66	72	48	59	69	314
Morpho-syntactic	77	63	39	56	24	259
Technique	13	9	12	12	23	69
Lexico-semantic	10	11	9	14	7	51
Discourse	11	7	6	8	6	38
Total	**177**	**162**	**114**	**149**	**129**	**731**

Table 15 Summary of errors amongst schools

The table indicates the five main linguistic error categories and their frequency per school. All five schools recorded errors; however, their frequencies vary. A total of 731 errors were recorded amongst the five schools studied. Of these errors, the phonology/orthography errors (314) and the morpho-syntax errors (259) were the most frequently made errors. Errors involving technique (68), lexico-semantic (51) and discourse (38) were the least frequently encountered. The schools that recorded the most errors were school A (177) and school B (162). These schools were followed by school D (149) and school E (129). School C, on the other hand, only recorded a total of 114 errors. The probable reasons for this difference were not explored; however, Nzama (2010) points out that the main factors contributing to errors amongst schools is a lack of adequate resources for teaching as well as a lack of libraries at schools. Although there are libraries in the Oshana region, they are under-resourced. Future studies may investigate the contributing factors to this difference in performance amongst schools in the Oshana region.

4.5 Section B: Demographic information, designed rubric and Error Analysis methodology

This section highlights the influence of demographic characteristics, such as the learners' age, gender and other languages spoken by the learners, on the production of errors in English. Although the level of proficiency of the learners in other languages besides English was not investigated, the study mainly focused on the identification of first language in a second language. In this study, the demographic information is important for the following reasons:

(a) It hints at the level of exposure to the language in relation to the errors made by the learners. If learners did not receive adequate exposure to the target language from childhood, then they will have problems with using the structures of the language in adulthood, hence the proposition of the critical period hypothesis (Lenneberg, 1967). As outlined by Penfield and Roberts (1967) second language learners whose exposure to the target language begins in childhood are globally more efficient and successful than older learners.

(b) It provides information regarding the trends across various age groups and gender regarding the production of errors.

4.5.1 Distribution of age and gender amongst learner respondents

As already outlined in chapter 3, a total of five secondary schools participated in this study with a sample size of 100 learners. Of the learners assessed, 51% were male and 49% female. The age distribution ranged from 15 to 20 years, with the highest number falling between 16 to 18 years (Figure 3).

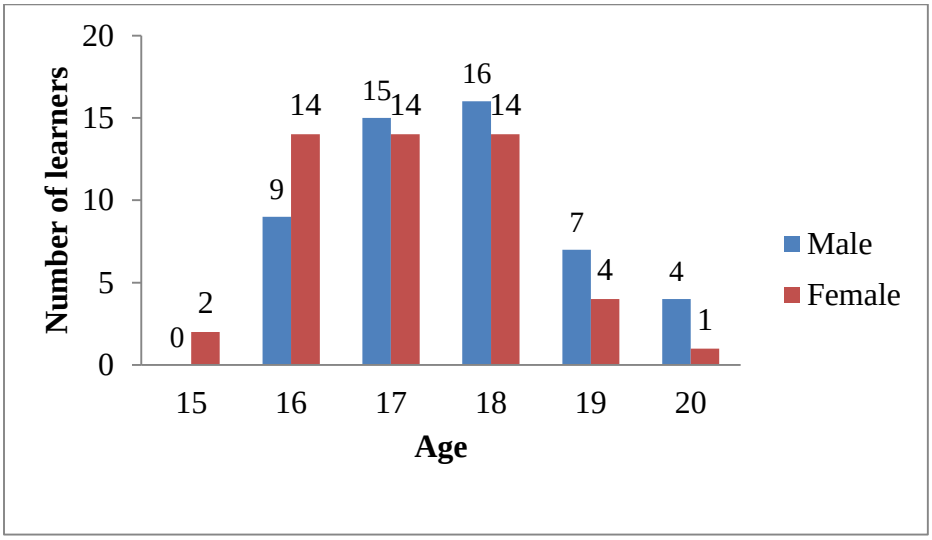

Figure 3 Distribution of age and gender amongst learner respondents

4.5.2 Other languages spoken by learners besides English and Oshiwambo

The data presented in figure 4 show the languages spoken by the respondents other than Oshiwambo and English. As can be seen, four different languages have been recorded, of which Portuguese (44%) is the

most commonly spoken language. This was followed by Afrikaans (41%) and Silozi (10%). The least spoken language was Otjiherero (5%).

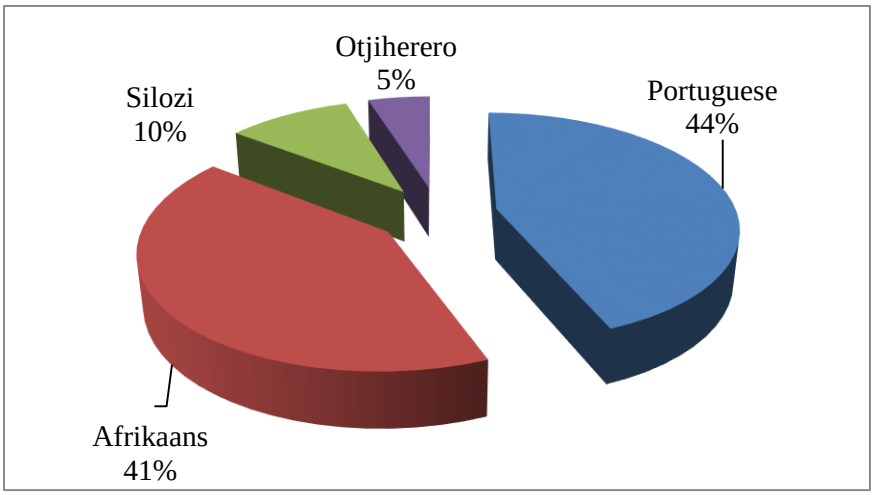

Figure 4 Other languages spoken by learners besides English and Oshiwambo

4.5.3 Summary of the types of errors and their frequency amongst the different age and gender groups

Table 16 presents the error types and their frequencies for the different age and gender groups. The table also indicates the average number of errors per age and gender group. The average was calculated by dividing the overall total number of errors with the number of learners per age group. The male learners made the most errors (498) in comparison to their female counterparts (232). Studies carried out by Cavanaugh (2002, Ebel (1999) and Aries (1996) on language aptitude between boys and girls revealed that girls also made fewer errors in comparison to boys. The girls were deemed to be aware of social prestige when it comes to language and therefore strive for accuracy and standard dialects, unlike boys.

Age	**20**		**19**		**18**		**17**		**16**		**15**		
Gender (number of learners)	**M (4)**	**F (1)**	**M (7)**	**F (4)**	**M (16)**	**F (14)**	**M (15)**	**F (14)**	**M (9)**	**F (14)**	**M (0)**	**F (2)**	**Total**
Spelling	25	15	39	21	39	24	46	25	40	19	0	8	**301**
Tense	2	2	12	9	9	5	33	10	18	7	0	2	**109**
Punctuation	5	0	1	1	1	2	52	1	1	1	0	3	**68**
Word choice	0	0	7	2	7	1	12	7	10	3	0	2	**51**
Preposition	1	1	4	4	3	1	9	7	10	5	0	1	**46**
Article	2	1	3	4	3	2	7	3	9	5	0	2	**41**
Discourse	2	1	10	0	10	2	6	0	5	1	0	1	**38**
Noun/pronoun	1	0	2	3	4	1	9	0	7	3	0	0	**30**
Word boundary	3	0	1	0	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	2	**13**
Concord	0	0	1	0	3	0	3	4	0	0	0	0	**11**
Run on sentence	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	**11**
Phrasing	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	**5**
Auxiliary	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	**4**
Word form	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	**1**
Coordination	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	**1**
Superlative	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	**1**
Total	**42**	**21**	**82**	**45**	**84**	**40**	**188**	**58**	**102**	**46**	**0**	**23**	**731**
Average	**11**	**20**	**12**	**11**	**5**	**3**	**14**	**4**	**11**	**3**	**0**	**12**	

Table 16 Types and frequency of errors made by the learners amongst the various age gender groups sorted by their frequency (see Appendix 7 for detailed summary of errors per learner)

Overall the learners aged 17 made the most errors in this study, in that a grand total of 246 errors were recorded amongst the 29 learners in this age group. This was followed by the age groups 16 (148), 19 (127), 18 (124), 20 (63) and 15 (23). As can be seen in the table, there were no 15 year old males recorded in this age category. The table also shows that spelling and punctuation errors were the most prevalent errors amongst the different age and gender groups. Particularly, the male learners made a total of 189 spelling errors and 58 punctuation errors, whereas the females recorded 112 spelling errors; however, only 8 punctuation errors were produced. The least frequent errors amongst all age groups were phrasing,

auxiliary, word form, and superlative errors. This means that learners did not have difficulties in these language aspects because only one error was recorded in each category. The vertical column shows that the total number of errors seems to increase until 17 years and then there is a decline of error occurrence until the age group 20 (Table 16). Particularly, amongst the respondents aged 15, 16 and 17 recorded 23, 148 and 246 errors respectively. After the age of 17 there is a decline in the frequency of occurrence; the age groups 20, 18 and 19 recorded 63, 124 and 127 errors. This trend was also observed in a study carried out by Ebel (1999) and Aries (1996) who found that learners aged 9 and 10 made more errors (166) in comparison to the learners between the ages of 16 and 18 (153). This could mean that the older learners have grasped the grammar of the target language as they have had more years of exposure in comparison to the younger learners. Also more years of formal education will lead to improved literacy.

The Namibian language policy for schools (1990) stipulates that learners should start learning English as from grade 4 until grade 12. This means that when learners come to secondary school, they have had more exposure to the target language and thus have a sound knowledge of its grammar. Lenneberg (1967) stipulated that age is an important factor affecting second language acquisition; learners whose exposure to the second language begins in childhood are globally more efficient and successful than the older learners. Therefore, early exposure to language is crucial in developing language proficiency in the target language. This proposition goes hand in hand with the critical period hypothesis first proposed by Lenneberg (ibid) which states that a second language, just like a first language, is more easily acquired during early childhood and those learners who acquire a language after a certain period will not develop native-like pronunciation or grammar.

Fossilisation is associated with age, in that, at puberty the language learner's brain loses plasticity such that certain linguistic features of the language cannot be mastered despite the input given (Brown, 1980). Fossilisation may be triggered by inadequate teaching or overgeneralisation of the language rules. Researchers such as Gass and Selinker (2001) believe that any differences between child and adult language acquisition are due to factors such as type of exposure to the language and affective differences, rather than underlying cognitive differences (Gass and Selinker, 2001). The issue of age and language learning, however, remains inconclusive as there is no clear definition of the exact age at which language learning declines. The implication of the issue of age is that teachers in the primary and junior secondary

phases need adequate training in the teaching of the second language, plus learners need lots of exposure to the target language in order to curb fossilisation.

The respondents spoke other languages such as Afrikaans, Portuguese, Otjiherero and isiLozi; these languages may influence each other and also their second language. As Archibald (1998) pointed out, when two or more languages are in contact they influence each other, such that all aspects of the language structure are subject to transfer from one language to another. Learners may transfer grammatical elements from these languages. The implication is that learners may have transferred grammatical elements from these languages in writing English. As outlined by Ellis (2007) and Powel (1998) transfer may be positive or negative. Negative transfer occurs when there is no similar language pattern between the languages under study and as a result multiple errors are made by learners. Positive transfer occurs when the languages under study have the same language structures. Since no errors are made during this process, it is often difficult to determine whether positive transfer has occurred. One may conclude that the errors that were not attributed to Oshiwambo may be a result of transfer from Afrikaans, Otjiherero and isiLozi language structure. This study was aimed at analysing the learners' first language, Oshiwambo and English. The other languages spoken by the learners were not considered for analysis in this study.

4.6 The assessment rubric

Amongst the main objectives of the present study was to devise an assessment rubric (see Appendix 5) that would help teachers in identifying errors in the target language. The main reasons that drove me to devise an assessment rubric were:

(a) To contextualise an assessment rubric because the current rubric used in Namibian schools for paper 1 and paper 2 examinations on Ordinary level (see Appendix 6) was adapted from the Cambridge Education system, and is thus not a true reflection of the educational needs of the Namibian learners but rather of the needs of learners in the United Kingdom because this is where it was developed. An assessment rubric, according to Haken (2006), should address learners' educational needs, what learners are currently acquiring or performing, and therefore a rubric should be contextualised. In addition, Haken (ibid) stressed that the rubric must be designed based on data gathered from observation or learning artifacts of the given learners. Allen and Tanner (2006) have echoed the same sentiments and added that the rubric designer should consider the context of the learners and their level of proficiency. This

background prompted me to devise a rubric that is contextualised and reflects the typical errors of the learners in the target language as has been highlighted by the data gathered in this study.

(b) To use my personal experience as a teacher. Teachers raise complaints during workshops that the current assessment rubric is confusing, incomprehensible and subjective, such that, most of the decision making regarding mark allocation is left to the teachers. The language components are not explicitly outlined; for instance, with regard to grammar the rubric does not clearly outline which aspects of grammar learners have done well on or need improvement in. It is up to the teacher to identify the grammar components. Given that in this study learners have made errors in various grammar aspects, the current rubric based on the research findings outlines the different grammar aspects that learners need improvement on. In addition the discourse components are overlooked; components such as essay structure are not included. The findings obtained in this study show that learners do not know how to structure their essays well. The paragraphs are not well laid out and ideas are not well arranged. Including these aspects in a rubric will lead to improvement in second language performance. The designed rubric has incorporated all the language aspects that the learners need to work on.

As outlined in chapter 3 section 3.6, a pilot study was carried out amongst five grade 11 and 12 teachers of English in the Oshana region. The objective was for teachers to test the rubric and evaluate if it is effective in the identification of learners' errors (see section 4.8 for details). I am of the view that the designed rubric will make subjective measurements objective and clear. The designed rubric will also enable learners to self-evaluate because it is more comprehensible in calculating the scores as it simply requires adding the scores of the five components together and dividing by 5 while in the current rubric used in schools, the scores are in matrix form and the assessor has to look at the levels (example level 1, 2, 3, and 4) and work out the score allocated in each level (see Appendix 6). This is often confusing to the teachers because the scores are not clearly defined. The mark allocation per exercise is in line with the curriculum for grade 11-12. In calculating the final score for the learner, the teacher should add the marks obtained in each of the five components, then divide by five (number of components) to obtain a score (see Appendix 7 for marked samples using the designed rubric). This is illustrated in table 1 below:

Score = (Phonology/Orthography + Morpho-syntax + Lexico-semantic + Discourse + Technique) ÷ 5 (five components of the rubric)

= (14 + 15 + 13 + 16 + 16) ÷5

= 74 ÷5

= 15

Table 1 Calculation of scores

This kind of grading clearly stipulates to the teachers which language aspects learners need to be taught. The rubric is easy to use and it enables learners to be aware of the criteria to be used in providing feedback about their learning through the clearly defined language components. It also defines clear expectations and enables learners to easily self-evaluate. The rubric consists of the following components:

(a) Total marks per exercise: the mark allocation per exercise as outlined in the rubric (see Appendix 5) is based on the current mark allocation per exercise of paper 1 and 2 of the Ordinary level as stipulated by the curriculum. These papers consists of composition writing exercises of 10, 12 and 16 marks per exercise;

(b) Grading: the grading component has various mark ranges whereby teachers may allocate a mark based on the learners' performance;

(c) Language components: this outlines the five key language components that the learners are expected to exhibit in their written work. This includes the phonology/orthography, morpho-syntax, lexico-semantic, technique and discourse (see Appendix 5 for an explanation on these components).

From my personal experience the current rubric uses a more tedious approach in arriving at the final score. This involves firstly determining the level (1, 2, 3 or 4) of the content and style, and language and structure of a written piece. Secondly, the marker has to read the competencies outlined in the content and style, and language and structure, see which best suits the learner's written piece and then allocate a mark. For instance, if content and style is level 3 and language and structure is level 4. Then the learner gets either

4, 5 or 7 marks (see Appendix 5). This approach has been described by teachers as confusing and at times teachers misallocate marks.

I believe the designed assessment rubric will help to promote effective evaluation regarding learners' performance. It is hoped that this new rubric will ease the assessment of the learners' written work and promote second language learning amongst schools in the Oshana region.

4.7 The methodology of Error Analysis

Error Analysis is a fundamental method used to investigate learner's language in the field of second language learning. It serves as a tool for identifying the language areas that the learners have difficulties with, thereby enabling teachers and syllabus designers to devise pedagogical materials and strategies for second language learning (Ellis, 2008; James, 1998). Error Analysis helps with:

(i) Defining the sequence of presentation of target items in textbooks and classrooms, with the difficult items following the easier ones;
(ii) Deciding on the relative degree of emphasis, explanation and practice required in teaching various aspects in the target language;
(iii) Devising remedial lessons and exercises; and
(iv) Choosing items for testing the learner's language proficiency (Sercombe, 2000; Kesharvarz, 1994; Brown, 1980 and Corder, 1967).

Although Error Analysis has many virtues for language learning and teaching, three methodological problems have been identified. Firstly, the classification of errors into types is erratic, because an error may be viewed as resulting from first language interference or for instance due to the ignorance of the language rule, carelessness or a lack of knowledge of the English grammar. For instance, learners have made a spelling error in writing the word "cloud" and wrote it "cloude". This error as discussed in section A could be attributed to first language interference because Oshiwambo has an open syllabic structure, whereby words always end with a vowel (Zimmerman and Hasheela, 1994). Learners have therefore transferred their first language structure to English. This error may also be ascribed to carelessness or learners' own idiosyncrasies, that is, learners' own formulation of the language system.

As the interlingual theory states, the language that the learner produces is a system in its own right and follows its own rules (Mitchell and Myles, 2004). Thus only the learner can really provide a reason as to why he or she has added a vowel "e" to the word "cloude" and not to all other words that end with a consonant in the essay. As mentioned previously, errors may be classified as intralingual or interlingual, errors; for example, spelling errors could be recorded in both interlingual and intralingual categories. A total of 37 errors were double coded in this study. This influenced the frequency count of errors. However, frequency count does not negatively influence the methodology that has been used in this study because the ultimate aim of Error Analysis is to identify learners' areas of language difficulty (Cherrington, 2004 and Ellis, 2003). Hence, out of the 731 errors recorded in this study only 37 were double coded. This is a minimal figure and I feel Error Analysis remains an appropriate approach for learner language studies.

Secondly, Error Analysis is limited in its scope of investigation, in that communicative strategies are not considered (Cherrington, 2004). Communication strategies refer to strategies that are used when a learner is faced with the need to communicate but the linguistic resources available are limited. The learner may bridge the gap by code switching, for instance, bringing in words from the first language because the learner has a limited target language vocabulary, or what Brown (1980: 178) terms as "avoidance". The "avoidance phenomenon" occurs when the learner is avoiding a certain structure which is difficult, because he or she feels he/she might use it incorrectly (ibid). The learner may resort to using simple structures that are grammatically incorrect. For example omission errors, where an element is left out as shown below:

(a) The divers from different categories came close ( ) the winning line. (The divers from different categories came close to the winning line)

The errors of omission of prepositions found in this study were not attributed to Oshiwambo because they could not be traced to first language interference. Therefore the above sentence could be one example of the avoidance phenomenon. The learner avoids preposition use probably because he or she does not know which preposition to insert. This could be the cause of some of the errors in this study. Ellis (2003) stressed that leaving out communicative strategies means leaving out a great deal in the understanding of the causes of some of the learners' errors. This is also because only learner language is studied, leaving out attributes that may have caused learners to make errors.

Thirdly, Error Analysis does not provide a complete picture of the learners' language acquisition process because only a small part of production data, that is the deviant forms of the language, are considered and the rest of the language produced in the composition which is not erroneous is not taken into account for analysis (Ellis, 2003; James, 1998 and Alexander, 1979). To provide a complete picture of the learners' interlanguage, both erroneous and non-erroneous data should be considered so that concrete conclusions regarding learner language are made.

Despite the draw backs in the methodology of Error Analysis, it remains the only analytical framework used in second language studies for understanding the "interlanguage" of second language learners. Studies carried out in the first decade of 2000 by Lee (2001), Keiko (2003), Mohamed (2004), Llomaki (2005) and Khondabandeh (2007) indicate that Error Analysis remains a wide spread practice in studies aimed at understanding learner language. In addition, Error Analysis offers insight into the sequence of acquisition, the patterns of acquisition and the structures which learners find difficult. Therefore, studies of Error Analysis cannot be done away with, as James (1998:196) remarks:

> There is still a great deal to be said and to be done in the field of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis. They are both vital components of the applied linguistic and language teaching enterprise. In English one talks of something being dead as a Dodo, the extinct bird of Mauritius. If Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis is a Dodo, and is alive and well, as recent studies have shown, then she deserves to be studied for her rich plumage.

The findings obtained in this study evidence the areas of difficulty that the learners in the Oshana region have and the progress that they have made in learning English. Knowing what the learners' errors are, helps in devising exercises that are geared towards the learners' learning needs. In addition, the findings will inform the Namibian Ministry of Education to reorient language learning materials on the basis of the learners' current problems. Since there is no universal method of ensuring validity of classification and data collection in the study of Error Analysis, this leaves much room for one to rely on a personal standpoint in identifying errors, describing and classifying errors. It is therefore important that a computer aided programme be developed to help in the analysis of errors of the written English of second language learners.

4.8 Teachers' views regarding the use of the current NSSCO [5] assessment rubric

The table below summarises the views of the teachers regarding the use of the current assessment rubric for the grade 11 to 12 Namibian learners of English as a second language. A total of five teachers were given questionnaires (see Appendix 8 for a sample questionnaire).

[5] NSSCO stands for Namibia Secondary School Certificate for Ordinary level.

Competency/Description No:	Teachers' Opinion & Rating					
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Somewhat agree**	**Somewhat disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
Levels of achievement are clearly stipulated.	3 (60%)[6]	2 (40%)	0	0	0	0
Descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are provided.	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	0	0	0	0
The descriptions distinguish good work from poor work.	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric saves time in the grading process.	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	0	0	0	1 (20%)
The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	4 (80%)	0	1 (20%)	0	0	0
The rubric is easy to use.	3 (60%)	0	0	0	1 (20%)	1 (20%)
Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	2 (40%)	2 (40%)	0	0	1 (20%)	0
The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	0	0	0	1 (20%)
The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	0	4 (80%)	1 (20%)	0	0	0
The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims & objectives.	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric facilitates the teaching of English.	2 (40%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	0	0	0
The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	0	2 (40%)	0	0	1 (20%)	0
The scores are central to performance.	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	0	1 (20%)	0
The rubric can be used for individual/group work.	0	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	0	0	0

Table 17 Teachers' responses regarding the use of current NSSCO assessment rubric

[6] The percentage per category was obtained by dividing the rating with the total number of respondents in the pilot study. The overall total per category was not included in the table because some of the responses are negative and some are positive, thus adding them together will not provide fair and conclusive results.

Of the 5 respondents, 4 (80%) strongly agree and agree that *the descriptions distinguish good work from poor work, the rubric is ideal for identifying learners' learning needs* and *it is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives*. Three (60%) respondents strongly agree that *the current rubric's levels of achievement are clearly stipulated, descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are provided, the rubric saves time in grading, the rubric is easy to use, the rubric provides a consistent grading, it helps teachers identify learners' errors* and *the rubric can be used for individual or group work*. Only 1 (20%) respondent disagreed with these statements.

4.8.1 Teachers' views regarding the use of the newly designed rubric

Table 18 presents information regarding the use of the newly designed assessment rubric for the grade 11 and 12 learners of English as a second language in Namibia.

Competency/Description	Teachers' Opinion & Rating					
	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Levels of achievement are clearly stipulated.	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	0	0	0	0
Descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are provided.	4 (80%)	1(20%)	0	0	0	0
The descriptions distinguish good work from poor work.	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	0	0
The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	2 (40%)	3 (60%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric is easy to use.	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	0	0	0
Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	0	0	0
The rubric is in line with the curriculum' aims & objectives.	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric facilitates the teaching of English.	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	0	0	0	0
The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	0	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	0	1 (20%)	0
The scores are central to performance.	0	4 (80%)	0	0	1 (20%)	0
The rubric can be used for individual/group work.	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	2 (40%)	0	0	0

Table 18 Teachers' responses regarding the use of new assessment rubric

As can be seen in the table, a total of 4 (80%) respondents strongly agree that *the descriptions at each level of achievement are provided and they distinguish good work from poor work, learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate* and *the scores are central to performance,* while 3 (60%) respondents agree that *the current rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs, the rubric saves time in grading, the rubric is easy to use, the rubric provides a consistent grading, facilitates the teaching of English* and *the rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives*.

Overall, only 1 (20%) respondent disagreed that *the rubric saves time in the grading process, the rubric is easy to use, it is ideal for the level of learners, contains instances of ambiguity, it is ideal for group work or individual work and the rubric's scores are central to performance.*

Table 19 clearly shows that most of the respondents have indicated that the new rubric has many advantages in comparison to the current assessment rubric (see table 18 for more details). This is evident in the responses obtained, that is an overall rating of 28(39%) strongly agree, 36(49%) agree and 6 (8%) somewhat agree to the use of the newly designed rubric in comparison to 1(1.4%) who disagrees and 2 (3%) who strongly disagree to the use of the new rubric. Table 20 provides a more comparative summary regarding teachers' views on the use of both rubrics.

Teachers' Opinion	NSSCO Rubric's overall rating	New Rubric's overall rating
Strongly agree	27 (38%)	28 (39%)
Agree	30 (42%)	36 (49%)
Somewhat agree	6 (9%)	6 (8%)
Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (1.4%)
Somewhat disagree	4 (6%)	1(1.4%)
Strongly disagree	3 (4%)	2 (3%)

Table 19 Overall rating on the use of the new rubric

4.8.2 Teachers' responses on the use of the rubrics

This section presents a comparative summary on the views of the teachers regarding the use of the current assessment rubric and the newly designed rubric. The responses were gathered from the open ended questions of Section C of the questionnaire. This section enabled teachers to elaborate on the responses which they had given in the first section of the questionnaire (see Appendix 8 for a sample questionnaire).

Question topic	Response & Rating					
	Easy to use	Clear descriptions	Training needed	Consistent grading	Based on syllabus	Facilitate learning
How the new rubric differs from the old rubric.	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	0	2 (40%)	0	0
Advantages of the new rubric.	2 (40%)	3 (60%)	0	3 (60%)	0	2 (40%)
Advantages of the old rubric.	0	2 (40%)	0	0	3 (60%)	0
Recommendation on the use of the new rubric	0	0	3 (60%)	0	0	2 (40%)

Table 20 A comparative summary of the teachers' responses on the use of the rubrics

As presented in Table 20, it is evident that the views of the respondents regarding both rubrics differ. Of the five respondents studied, a majority of 3 (60%) feel that the new rubric is easy to use, the descriptions are clear and that it offers a more consistent grading in comparison to the current rubric used in the Namibian schools. In addition to this, 2 (40%) of the respondents indicated that the advantages of the new rubric is that it facilitates language learning. Only 1(20%) indicated that the current rubric has clear descriptions. The majority of 4 (80%) recommend the use of the new rubric as they feel it will facilitate language learning in the Oshana region.

The results presented in this section clearly show that the two rubrics conform to set criteria of what constitutes a good assessment rubric. As pointed out by Haken (2006), Allen and Tanner (2006), Huba and Freed (2000), rubrics are essential tools used to measure learners' work and therefore should among others consist of competencies or descriptions of what is expected from the learners. Rubrics should be easy to use for both the learners and teachers, they should be context based, objective so that consistent grading is carried out and they should facilitate language learning. The advantages of the new rubric, however, out weight those of the current rubric (see table 19 and 20 for details). From the five respondents, the majority of 3 (60%) have indicated that the new rubric is much easier to use, the descriptions are

clearer and it offers a more objective grading in comparison to the current rubric, where only 1 (20%) of the five respondents felt that the old rubric is objective, easy to use and the descriptions are clearer.

A total of 4 (80%) respondents have indicated that the new rubric should be used in Namibian schools because it facilitates language learning and it is context based. Haken (2006) stressed that an assessment rubric should exhibit learners' educational needs; therefore, a rubric should be designed based on data gathered from observation or learning artefacts of the given specific learners. It is against this background that I have decided to design a rubric that is based on the needs of the learners in the Oshana region in order to facilitate second language learning. Based on the responses presented in this section and the graded scripts (see Appendix 8), one could conclude that the new assessment rubric ensures more consistent grading and is easy to use, therefore it could be used to grade learners' written work. This should, however, ideally be piloted on a larger group of teachers.

It is apparent that the old rubric is in need of modification. As Moskal (2003), Arter (2000) and Herman and Winter (1992) state, rubrics should continue to evolve over time to suit the new learning needs of the learners as they arise. The new learning needs independently incorporated in the newly designed assessment rubric are word boundary, word choice, register and structure (see Appendix 5 for details). Hopefully this new rubric will be deemed valuable by more teachers and hopefully they, too, will view it as addressing the learning needs of their learners through continuous assessment of learners' written work.

4.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has dealt with the presentation of the data collected from the 100 learner respondents from five schools in the Oshana region. A contrastive approach was used in determining the fundamental differences between English and Oshiwambo. An Error Analysis method was also used in identifying, classifying and categorising errors based on the linguistic error taxonomy. The findings have revealed that a total of 731 errors were made by the learners when writing in English. Of this total, the highest errors were spelling (301), tenses (109), punctuation (68), word choice (51), preposition (46), articles (41) and discourse (38). The least recorded errors were noun/pronoun errors (30), word boundary (13), agreement (11), run on sentences (11), phrasing (5), auxiliary (4), word form (1), coordination (1) and superlative (1). These errors were attributed to first language interference, ignorance of rule restriction, lack of

knowledge of the English language, incomplete application of rules and carelessness. The frequency of occurrence amongst schools varied, with school A and school B recording the highest number of errors made in this study. Future research can thus look into the probable factors contributing to this difference. The male learners have made the most errors in this study, in that a total of 498 errors were recorded in comparison to the females' 232. This was attributed to the fact that female learners aim for fluency and accuracy and therefore make fewer errors (Cavanaugh, 2002; Aries, 1996 and Ebel, 1996). However, this calls for further investigation to determine the causes of this huge difference in performance. The chapter has also discussed the methodological problems of Error Analysis, such as the classification of errors and the oversight of communication strategies. Despite drawbacks in the methodology of Error Analysis, the chapter concluded that this method of research remains an essential tool in the study of second language learning as is confirmed by recent studies in this field. Based on the data, the study has devised an assessment rubric which covers five language aspects, such as phonology, morpho-syntax, lexico-semantic, discourse and techniques. The rubric was piloted amongst five schools in the Oshana region and the results obtained clearly indicate that the new rubric is regarded as objective and easy to use, and will indirectly facilitate second language learning.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, SUGGESTIONS ON METHODS OF INTERVENTION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Summary of the study

This study identified, categorised and described learner errors made by the grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners of English in the Oshana region, northern Namibia. Consequently, the study aimed to answer the following research questions:

(a) What types of errors do the learners produce in English and what are their frequencies?
(b) What differences between English and Oshiwambo may influence these errors?
(c) What factors, apart from first language interference, may cause these different types of errors? If it is not possible to identify these factors, what methodological innovations would enable one to identify these factors?
(d) What are the distribution patterns for these types of errors amongst the surveyed schools?
(e) What correlation is there between these results and the impressionistic reports from the Ministry of Education?
(f) What interventions can be made to address these errors?

This study randomly sampled 100 learners from five secondary schools in the Oshana region. Learner responses were collected by means of a written task which required learners to write an essay based on a given topic. The errors were classified into types and their frequencies were recorded. Particularly, the types and frequency of errors made by the learners can be summarized as follows:

(a) Phonology/orthography errors made by the learners in this study were categorised into two subtypes: spelling and word boundary;

(b) Lexico-semantic errors were those of word choice;

(c) Morpho-syntax errors, the most frequent errors, were tense and the least frequent errors were sentence structure and phrasing;

(d) Discourse errors, included errors that related to academic literacy such as structure of an essay and the logical connection of ideas in the text; and

(e) Technique errors were those of the omission of punctuation marks and misuse of capital letters.

The findings revealed that a total of 731 errors were made by the learners in writing English. Of these errors learners seem to have problems with spelling (301), the use of tenses (109), punctuation marks (68), word choice (51), prepositions (46), articles (41) discourse (38) and noun/pronoun use (30). These findings are similar to the previous studies carried out by Llomaki (2005), Mohamed (2004), Keiko (2003), Eun-pyo (2002), Abdulsata and Boon (1999), Srinon (1999) and Wissing (1988) although the frequencies differed between this study and the previous studies. The differences in frequency may be attributed to varying first languages of learners, the sample size as well as the context of learning. The study carried out by Wissing (1988) and Nzama (2010) share a similar context with my study, in that these studies were carried out on southern Bantu language speakers of English as a second language. The results obtained from both studies reveal that learners mainly had problems with tenses, articles, prepositions, spelling and agreement. The studies concluded that learners lack adequate exposure to the target language, caused by the lack of adequate teaching and learning resources amongst schools. One significant difference between my study and the previous studies is that this study analysed the discourse errors, particularly looking at the organisation of written tasks as well as the logical connection of ideas in a text.

The impressionistic results from the Directorate of the National Examination and Assessment do correlate with this study's findings; however, in addition to the problems with spelling, word boundaries and sentence structure that the report outlined, 14 other types of errors were recorded as can be seen in Table 13 of chapter 4. Of these errors the highest frequency was recorded in the categories of spelling, tenses, word choice, prepositions, articles and discourse. These findings met the objective to carry out scientific research in the Oshana region in order to thoroughly identify areas of language difficulty that learners have.

The study attributed the errors to two sources, namely, interlingual and intralingual errors. In determining the interlingual errors a comparison was made between English and Oshiwambo language structures with the objective of looking at the similarities and differences between the two languages thereby identifying the transferred elements. The study concluded that the causes of the learners' errors were:

(a) A result of first language interference. Learners transferred elements from Oshiwambo in writing English. As outlined in chapter 2 of this thesis, the Oshiwambo language has a consistent phonology and orthography language system unlike English. This difference caused learners to make many spelling errors.

(b) Stemming from the incomplete application of language rules. As stated by (Ellis, 2008) learners often fail to use language structures correctly within the given contexts and thus avoid using them. In this study omission of elements such as auxiliary verbs, conjunctions, punctuation marks, prepositions, nouns and pronouns was observed. The lack of knowledge about the English grammar could also be a contributing factor. As the results show learners seem not to have grasped the rules of the target language in aspects such as tenses, concord, sentence construction and punctuation use. These are components that are taught in the junior secondary phase thus by the time the learners reach grade 12 they should have a sound knowledge of these aspects. Nyathi (2001) pointed out that Namibian teachers of English as a second language tend to exclusively apply the communicative approach and thus neglect the teaching of grammar. This results in learners not having a strong background of the English grammar as they progress to other grades. The communicative approach emphasises the speaking skill and neglects the direct teaching of English grammar, so this leaves room for errors. On the other hand, learners' interlingual grammar may have fossilised. As Brown (1980) stated, learners continue using certain erroneous forms despite the continuous correct input that they receive.

(c) Learners seem to have failed to apply their knowledge of the English language where necessary or simply lack the knowledge of the English language. Learners in this study failed to apply the correct language rules where required. Based on this proposition, this study attributed some of the errors to learners' lack of English knowledge.

In all five schools sampled intralingual errors were prevalent. The frequencies of errors differed amongst schools with school A, school B and school C being the most prone to errors. These differences could be attributed to the learners' level of exposure to the target language, availability of teaching resources, as well as the different teaching styles that teachers may adopt in order to cater for the learning needs of the learners as they arise. This may be the reason why school D performed much better in comparison to schools A, B and C. One may attribute the better performance of school D to a number of factors such as

better primary schooling, well qualified teachers and availability of resources or good language instructions.

This study also revealed that the male learners made the most errors in this study and that the errors increased with age but declined after the age of 17. It is important to note that there were no boys aged 15 documented in this study. Ebel (1999) and Aries (1996) in their study on gender performance attributed the decline in the frequency of errors amongst the adult learners to the fact that older learners have grasped the grammar of the target language over time and thus make fewer errors. The difference in gender focuses more on fluency and accuracy unlike the male learners who seem to be interested in kinesthetic activities and science. I support this argument and feel it may be extrapolated to the difference in performance of the boys and girls in this study.

Based on this study's findings, an assessment rubric was devised to help in the identification of errors. This rubric covers language aspects such as phonology/orthography, morpho-syntax, lexico-semantic, technique and discourse components. This rubric is designed for consistency and transparency when grading learners' written work. The rubric is easy to use; therefore, results will be objective. In addition, the rubric will assist teachers to thoroughly identify the language areas of difficulty faced by the learners in learning English. Consequently, the rubric aims to promote English language proficiency.

The study also critiqued the methodological approach used in Error Analyses. One of the main problems raised was the classification of errors into types as well as providing explanations for these errors (chapter 2). Despite the drawbacks, Error Analysis continues to be the most suitable framework used in the study of learner language (Ellis, 2008; Cherrington, 2004 and James, 1998). It is a useful tool that highlights the language areas that learners have problems with; thereby assisting teachers in planning exercises that will help facilitate second language learning. A report based on this study's findings will be made available to the Namibian Ministry of Education so that the *status quo* at schools can be improved.

5.2 Implications of findings

This study has a number of pedagogical implications particularly for teaching interventions of English as a second language in the Oshana region. Errors should not be viewed negatively but rather as fundamental tools that give insight into language learning. James (1998) and Ellis (1997) maintain that errors are significant since they evidence the interlingual system which underlies learner language. The findings

from the present study highlight the areas of difficulty that the grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners of English as a second language in the Oshana region have. It is hoped that this knowledge will enable teachers to design appropriate classroom activities to remedy learners' errors. In addition, teachers will understand learners' performance and help guide learners in the learning process. Corder (1981) summed up that Error Analysis is significant in the following ways:

(i) Firstly, the teacher will know how far the learner has progressed towards achieving the standard forms of the target language and, consequently, what remains for them to learn. This will enable the teacher to adjust the teaching method to suit the learners' needs and also design appropriate materials that are aimed at improving the language proficiency of learners.

(ii) Secondly, errors provide evidence for the researcher on how language is learnt or acquired and what strategies or procedures the learner has employed in their discovery of the language. This will help in the design of the curriculum for second language learning because the researcher knows the learning needs of the learners.

This study has designed an easily accessible assessment rubric which will help teachers to clearly point out the language aspects that learners struggle with and need assistance for. The rubric is designed to allow for more objective grading. In addition, it is hoped that this rubric will facilitate second language learning and help improve learners' academic writing. The results obtained in this study are also aimed at sensitising the Namibian Ministry of Education regarding learners' poor performance in English. This calls for the Namibian Ministry of Education to plan programmes that will help improve the *status quo* among secondary schools in Namibia.

5.3 Suggestions for methods of intervention

The findings in this study have highlighted the areas of difficulty that the learners in the Oshana region have in writing English. Writing is an important skill. As pointed out by Tribble (1997), becoming a proficient writer is one of the major objectives of many learners especially for those who want to become members of the international business, administrative or academic communities. The Namibian English syllabus for grade 11 and 12 emphasises the teaching of writing skills. This is to enable learners to function academically in the global community. First and second language teachers should therefore teach learners how to produce written texts that are well structured. It is important that the writing processes outlined by

Northedge (2007) and Levin (2004) in chapter 2 of this thesis are reinforced so that learners become better writers. Exposure to the language is a key aspect to language proficiency (Bishop and Snowling, 2004), thus learners need more exposure to exercises which focus on the four language skills, namely, writing, speaking, reading and listening.

Literature pertaining to what is currently being done in schools in Namibia is rare. However, Nyathi (2001; 1999) carried out studies to determine which teaching methods teachers use in teaching English. He found that teachers use traditional methods such as drills and rote learning. These methods restrict learners from being able to think and realise how language works. Learners end up not knowing how to apply and understand the language rules because they have simply memorised the rules. Nyathi (ibid) also pointed out that teachers give learners controlled exercises, that is, exercises that learners have to complete within a restricted period of time. This creates anxiety amongst learners; hence the exercises do not cover all language aspects so that learners can make connections with what they are learning or have learnt. In light of this, the following suggestions are made with the hope of better facilitating language learning in the Oshana region:

- Teachers should incorporate grammar in the communicative approach so that learners get a sound knowledge of English grammar. The results obtained in this study show that learners do not have a strong foundation of the English grammar; therefore, the communicative approach should be combined with methods such as the audio-lingual and the cognitive-code approaches in order to cater for the learning needs of the learners (Ur, 1996). Learners need to be given more grammar based exercises.

- Teachers should engage learners in less controlled writing tasks so that learners can express themselves freely and make meaning of what they are writing. The errors of discourse that the learners made in this study indicate that this skill has not been fully developed. The results show that learners still have difficulty with structuring their essays. Some of the essays lack headings, paragraphs were not well structured and ideas in the texts were not logically arranged. Although teachers do teach this skill, it requires more emphasis. Teachers should provide model essays so that learners get to see for themselves how essays are structured, the use of language and also how ideas are connected in the text. Essay writing is a process with steps (Levin, 2004). Learners therefore need to be allowed time in dealing with this task.

- The teachers should provide more exercises that aim to teach spelling. The English secondary school syllabus for Ordinary level (2010) clearly outlines that learners need to have a sound knowledge of spelling. The fact that spelling errors were the highest recorded errors in this study shows that learners are struggling with the phonology and orthography of English. The teachers should expose learners to more spoken English through the use of recorded programmes; this will expose learners to the English of native speakers and enable learners to know how words are pronounced. The spelling rules need to be emphasised so that learners become more aware of these rules and know that Oshiwambo and English have different phonology and orthographic systems.

- Learners need to be engaged in more reading activities. Clegg (2001) outlines that learners are hardly exposed to reading activities and the only source of material available are their textbooks. From personal experience textbooks are the main source of exposure for the learners in the Oshana region. The content within the English textbooks is limited to activities that learners need to do thus learners can hardly improve their knowledge of the language. Schools therefore need to supplement textbooks with materials that are aimed at facilitating language learning.

- Learners need exposure to spoken English in order to increase their vocabulary. Some of the spelling errors that were made in this study were attributed to the learners' accents misleading them. This may be a result of what Brown (1980) refers to as "teacher induced errors". Many Namibian teachers went through the old system where Afrikaans was the medium of instruction; as a result their English language proficiency is described as being poor and they are thus unable to transfer adequate knowledge of and skills in the English language (Clegg, 2001). Another probable reason is that learners may have applied the Oshiwambo phonological/orthographical rules in writing English. Teachers need to be retrained and programmes need to be created to help improve teachers' language proficiency. Learners need to be taught about the structural differences between English and Oshiwambo.

- There is a need to teach language through games. According to Hart (2007) language learning is easier and more enjoyable when it is taught through games. Games do not only test the learners' level of vocabulary, but develop their vocabulary and increase their problem solving skills. A game such as Pictionary is ideal for secondary school learners. This game tests vocabulary awareness

and enhances the questioning skills of the learners. It also allows for the revision of key vocabulary which learners may have picked up from previous materials read. In this game, points are deducted for incorrect spelling, thus encouraging learners to be more attentive to how the words are spelt. When students are guessing what their partner has drawn they can ask questions that require only a 'yes' or 'no' answer, hence broadening their ability to use interrogatives and present tense verbs. Another activity that may help develop vocabulary is the use of word puzzles. Teachers may provide learners with dictionaries so that learners may look up unfamiliar words.

- Schools in the Oshana region do not have reading and writing clubs. I therefore feel that such clubs should be formed so that learners can share materials, that is, learners collect reading materials either from home or from the community library to come and share with others. Teachers could also bring magazines, newspapers, novels or any other material for the learners to read. This will expose learners to a wide range of print texts which will broaden their knowledge and help build vocabulary. Learners will be able to apply a wide range of strategies to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and appreciate texts. The learners will also understand textual features such as sound-letter correspondence, sentence structure and context in which words are used (Ehri, 1998).

- The Ministry of Education should deploy supplementary reading materials to schools. The school libraries are filled with textbooks and other subject related materials. Learners need to read widely from a variety of texts. Schools should be equipped with up to date newspapers, story books, comics, novels and other materials that enable learners to experiment with the target language. Bishop and Snowing (2004) pointed out that children come to school from various backgrounds with different literacy levels (for instance, from rural schools where there are no libraries and supplementary reading materials are not available). Teachers should, therefore, expose learners to various educative materials to cater for the literacy gap. Schools should inculcate the reading culture amongst learners and teachers should be the models. There is a need for more workshops, so that teachers meet and discuss the difficulties that they are facing with teaching English and also share ideas on ways in which they may help facilitate language learning. The Ministry should also employ more English teachers to reduce the overcrowding of classrooms.

- There is a need to motivate and encourage learners to expose themselves to various materials outside the classroom in order to improve their language skills. Learners view English as a

language to be used in the classroom, thus hardly use it outside the classroom setting. This notion should be discouraged, learners need to be told of the importance of practising the use of the target language. Teachers need to vary narrative topics so that learners have a variety of topics to choose from and become motivated to carry out writing activities. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) state that learners who are motivated become better at the language and always want to learn more. Therefore motivation should be given on a daily basis.

It is hoped that these suggestions will be helpful to the teachers as well as to the Namibian Ministry of Education in helping the learners achieve success in learning English. In addition, the designed rubric will contribute to sound assessment, in other words enable teachers to be objective when grading learners' written work. Ii will help improve and enhance teaching and enable teachers to thoroughly identify learners' errors as they cover all language aspects. The rubric is particularly designed to facilitate second language learning.

5.4 Limitations of this study

Although this study has answered the research questions, there are limitations. The following limitations were identified:

(a) Oshiwambo is spoken in different localities; however, this research only studied learners of English in the Oshana region thus my conclusions should only be applied with caution to other places.

(b) Other language groups such as Portuguese, Afrikaans, isiLozi and Otjiherero that the learners have indicated that they speak were not studied. It could be that some of the transferred elements stemmed from these languages. However, this study aimed to compare and contrast the learners' first language, Oshiwambo, with English.

(c) The study only focused on the errors made by the grade 12 Oshiwambo speaking learners of English in their written work. Expanding the study's scope to include other grades would help determine whether the errors that the learners make are fossilised. The error patterns could be closely studied, so that conclusions could be made regarding the most frequent errors amongst the grades, thereby devising remedial exercises for junior grades.

(d) The methodology of Error Analysis has limitations. There is usually more than one probable explanation for an error and the error categories are not precise, that is, errors may be double coded. This influences the frequency count of errors. This study only recorded 37 out of 731 errors that were double coded. This is a considerably low figure; therefore, it does not influence or discredit the Error Analysis methodology used in this study.

The above mentioned limitations might attract other researchers to investigate and develop this study, taking into consideration the limitations.

5.5 Recommendations for future research

Based on this study, some recommendations for further study are indicated:

(a) This study focused only on errors made by learners in written English and not in speech. Therefore to obtain clear and representative results, the study may be expanded to include errors made during spoken activities. This will enable researchers to determine if similar errors exist in both speaking and writing skills and also help distinguish between literacy problems and second language problems.

(b) Researchers may consider using a "self-correction method" before data is collected for analysis. This approach will help learners pick out the non-systematic errors which result from carelessness.

(c) The study was limited to secondary school learners and to grade 12s. Future studies may expand the research to include junior secondary school learners in order to determine whether the same errors are made. This could shed light on fossilisation and help educators re-evaluate their ways of teaching English or the syllabus.

(d) Research may be expanded to determine the level of proficiency of the learners in Portuguese, Otjiherero, Afrikaans and isiLozi, in order to determine the influence of these languages on the production of errors in written English.

(e) There is a need to devise an Error Analysis computer aided programme that will be able to help non-native speakers of English in identifying errors and classifying them into types.

This study will contribute to the already existing studies of Error Analysis. Studies of this nature have not been carried out in the targeted region, therefore results obtained are essential to teachers in the Oshana region because it shows the areas of language difficulty that the learners in the Oshana region specifically have in learning English as well as the probable sources of these errors. This information is important in planning remedial tasks and for general lesson planning. This study has made suggestions to help in the teaching of English as a second language. The study has devised an assessment rubric that will help in the identification of non-standard forms of English in the written work of learners and help promote effective evaluation. In addition, the rubric is easy to use and will provide relevant information to learners regarding their performance as well enable teachers to plan for appropriate remedial tasks. It is hoped that this study will help improve the *status quo* in schools in the Oshana region.

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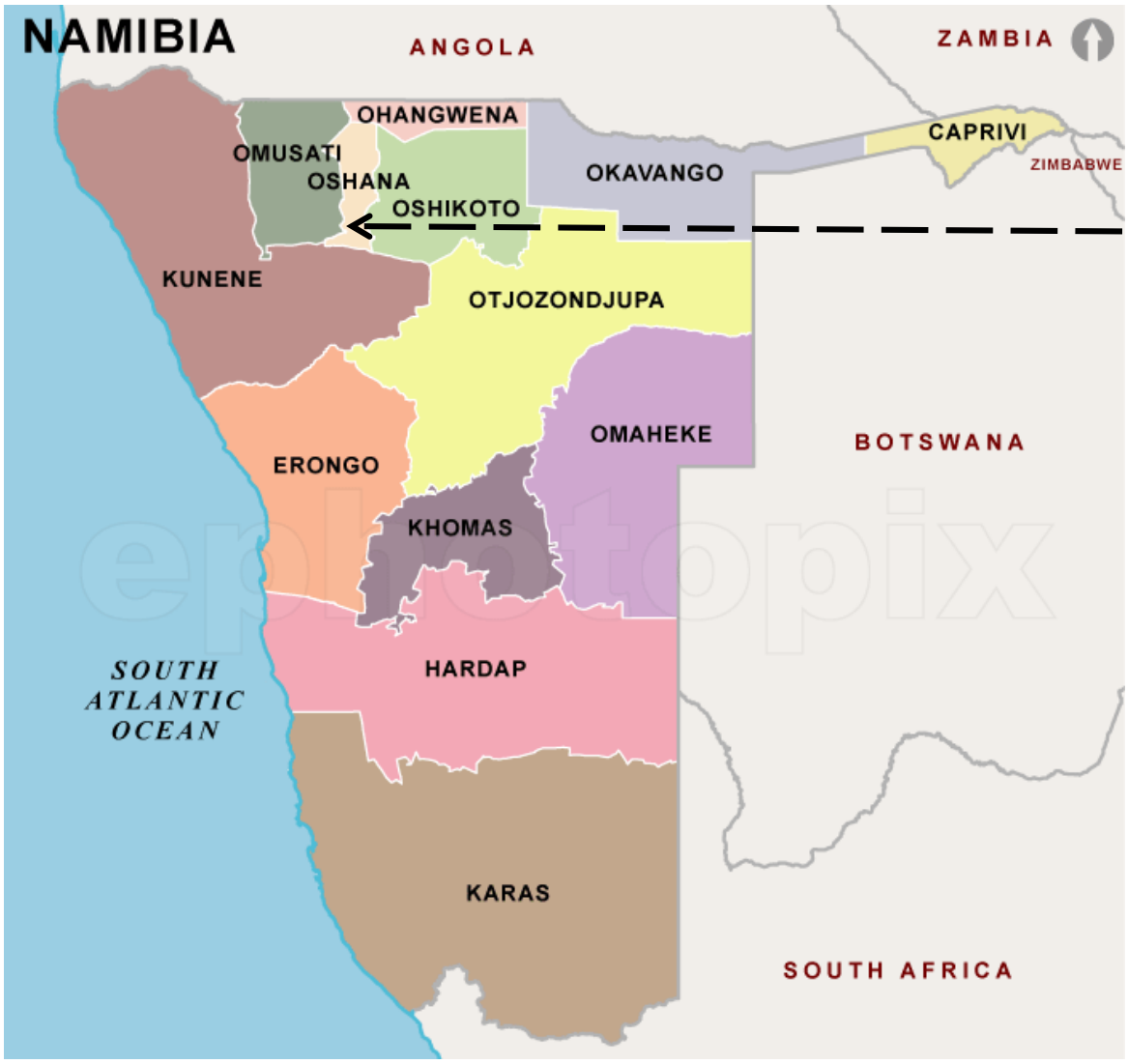
Study area map showing the location of the Oshana region in north central Namibia



http://www.google.com.na/search?site=&source=hp&ei=maps+of+namibian+regions

Appendix 1: Permission letter to conduct research

RHODES UNIVERSITY
Grahamstown • 6140 • South Africa

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS • Tel: (046) 603 8105/6 • Fax: (046) 603 8106 • e-mail: linguistics@r

28 February 2013

To Whom It May Concern

This is to confirm that Annelie Nghikembua is a bona fide post graduate student in the Department of English Language and Linguistics at Rhodes University. She is conducting research for the purposes of obtaining her Master's degree under the supervision of Ms Kristin van der Merwe and Dr Sally Hunt. With this letter we confirm that we have approved the attached data collection exercise and assure you that it conforms to the norms for ethical research in the humanities. If you have any questions, do contact us via the details provided below. We would be very grateful if you could assist Ms Nghikembua in her research, and grant her reasonable access to your learners as research subjects.

Yours faithfully

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Ms Kristin van der Merwe
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Appendix 2: Questionnaire

Complete all sections of this paper. Do not write your name anywhere on this worksheet.

Section A (learner information)

- Gender: ……
- Age:…….

- Other languages you speak besides: Oshiwambo: ……, ……..,

  ……..., ……

Section B (essay writing)

You were at your local swimming pool recently when something interesting happened. Write an essay of 150-200 words long in English describing the incident. In your essay you may choose to include:

- A description of what you saw;
- An explanation of how you reacted;
- What happened in the end?

Any of the pictures above may guide your story but you are free to use your own ideas.

Appendix 3: West Virginia Rubric

	ORGANISATION	DEVELOPMENT	SENTENCE STRUCTURE	WORD CHOICE/GRAMMAR USAGE	MECHANICS
Score of 6	**Exemplary Organisation** • Strategically placed topic sentence • Clear and logical order • Strong introductory paragraph, supporting paragraphs and concluding paragraph • Sophisticated transition within and between sentences, ideas and paragraphs	**Exemplary Development** • Sophisticated development of the topic for narrative and descriptive writing • Sophisticated thesis statement and development of informative and persuasive writing • Well executed progression of ideas • Strong use of examples, evidence or relevant details • Strong use of analogies, illustrations or anecdotes	**Exemplary Sentence Structure** • Sophisticated and well controlled sentences • Sentence variation (simple, compound, complex, compound-complex) • Variation of phrases and clauses (gerund, participial, infinitive; subordinate clauses)	**Exemplary Word Choice/ Grammar Usage** • Vivid, precise,/concise, relevant, Consistent grammar usage ➢ Subject/verb agreement ➢ Singular/plural nouns ➢ Verb (tense and usage) ➢ Pronoun usage ➢ Adjective/Adverb	**Exemplary Mechanics** • May have minor errors ➢ Punctuation ➢ Capitalization ➢ Spelling • Needs little or no editing
Score of 5	**Effective Organisation** • Effectively placed topic sentence • Clear and logical order • Introductory paragraph, supporting paragraphs and concluding paragraph • Purposeful transition within and between sentences, ideas and paragraphs	**Effective Development** • Appropriate development of the topic for narrative and descriptive writing • Appropriate thesis statement and development of informative and persuasive writing • Clear progression of ideas • Clear use of examples, evidence or relevant details • Clear use of analogies, illustrations or anecdotes	**Effective Sentence Structure** • Complete and correct sentences • Sentence variation (simple, compound, complex, compound-complex) • Variation of phrases and clauses (gerund, participial, infinitive; subordinate clauses)	**Effective Word Choice/ Grammar Usage** • Appropriate, precise/concise, clear • Mostly consistent grammar usage ➢ Subject/verb agreement ➢ Singular/plural nouns ➢ Verb (tense and usage) ➢ Pronoun usage ➢ Adjective/Adverb	**Effective Mechanics** • Few errors ➢ Punctuation ➢ Capitalization ➢ Spelling • Needs some editing
Score of 4	**Adequate Organisation** • Clearly stated topic sentence • Evidence of a logical order • Introductory paragraph, supporting paragraphs and concluding paragraph • Appropriate transition within and between sentences, ideas and paragraphs	**Adequate Development** • Sufficient development of the topic for narrative and descriptive writing • Sufficient thesis statement and development of informative and persuasive writing • Progression of ideas • Sufficient use of examples, evidence and/or relevant details • Sufficient use of analogies, illustrations or anecdotes	**Adequate Sentence Structure** • Complete and correct sentences • Sentence variation (simple, compound, complex, compound-complex) (errors in more complex sentence structure do not detract) • Variation of phrases and clauses (gerund, participial, infinitive; subordinate clauses)	**Adequate Word Choice/ Grammar Usage** • Appropriate, specific • Somewhat consistent grammar usage ➢ Subject/verb agreement ➢ Singular/plural nouns ➢ Verb (tense and usage) ➢ Pronoun usage ➢ Adjective/Adverb	**Adequate Mechanics** • Some errors ➢ Punctuation ➢ Capitalization ➢ Spelling • Needs editing but doesn't impede Readability
Score of 3	**Limited Organisation** • Poorly stated topic sentence • Some evidence of organization • Introductory paragraph and concluding paragraph with limited supporting paragraphs • Repetitive use of transition	**Limited Development** • Limited development of the topic for narrative and descriptive writing • Limited thesis statement and development of informative and persuasive writing • Limited progression of ideas • Limited use of examples, evidence and/or relevant details • Limited use of analogies, illustrations or anecdotes	**Limited Sentence Structure** • Minor errors in sentence structure • Limited sentence variation (simple, compound, complex, compound-complex) (errors in more complex sentence structure begin to detract) • Limited use of phrases and clauses (gerund, participial, infinitive; subordinate clauses)	**Limited Word Choice/ Grammar Usage** • Vague, redundant, simplistic • Several inconsistencies in grammar usage ➢ Subject/verb agreement ➢ Singular/plural nouns ➢ Verb (tense and usage) ➢ Pronoun usage ➢ Adjective/Adverb	**Limited Mechanics** • Frequent errors ➢ Punctuation ➢ Capitalization ➢ Spelling • Begins to impede readability
Score of 2	**Minimal Organisation/Minimal Response** • Lack of acceptable topic sentence	**Minimal Development/Minimal Response**	**Minimal Sentence Structure/Minimal Response** • Contains fragments and/or run-ons	**Minimal Word Choice/ Grammar Usage/Minimal Response** • Inadequate, imprecise, repetitive	**Minimal Mechanics/Minimal Response** • Consistent errors ➢ Punctuation ➢ Capitalization

	• Lacks clear organizational pattern, sequencing of ideas and/or paragraphing • May lack introductory paragraph, supporting paragraphs and/or concluding paragraph • Ineffective or overused transition	• Minimal development of the topic for narrative and descriptive writing • Minimal thesis statement and development of informative and persuasive writing • Lacks a logical progression of ideas • Minimal use of examples, and/or relevant details • Minimal use of analogies, illustrations or anecdotes	• Minimal sentence variation (simple, compound, complex, compound-complex) (errors in sentence structure detract) • Minimal use of phrases and clauses (gerund, participial, infinitive; subordinate clauses)	• Frequent inconsistencies in grammar usage ➢ Subject/verb agreement ➢ Singular/plural nouns ➢ Verb (tense and usage) ➢ Pronoun usage ➢ Adjective/Adverb	➢ Spelling • Impedes readability
Score of 1	**Inadequate Organisation** • Lacks stated topic • No logical pattern; difficult to follow • Inadequate paragraphing • Little or no transition	**Inadequate Development** • Little or no development of the topic for narrative and descriptive writing • Unclear thesis statement and development of informative and persuasive writing • Unclear or no focus • Few or no examples, evidence and/or relevant details • Little use of analogies, illustrations or anecdotes	**Inadequate Sentence Structure** • Contains numerous fragments and/or run-ons • Little or no sentence variation (simple, compound, complex, compound-complex) (errors in sentence structure detract) • Little or no use of phrases and clauses (gerund, participial, infinitive; subordinate clauses)	**Inadequate Word Choice/ Grammar Usage** • Rambling, inappropriate, incorrect, unclear • Distracting inconsistencies in grammar usage ➢ Subject/verb agreement ➢ Singular/plural nouns ➢ Verb (tense and usage) ➢ Pronoun usage ➢ Adjective/Adverb	**Inadequate Mechanics** • Serious and consistent errors ➢ Punctuation ➢ Capitalization ➢ Spelling • Impedes understanding/communication

Appendix 4: Marking Codes

The following are short hand codes that were used in marking the learners' written work in this study.

Codes	Description of error
/\	Omission of an item
punc	Punctuation error
prep	Preposition error
par	Paragraphing error (layout of paragraph)
conj	Conjunction error/incorrect conjunction used
cap	Capitalisation error (either capital letter not used/incorrectly used)
T	Tense error
prep	preposition errors (including omission, addition or incorrect preposition used)
frag	Sentence fragment/incomplete sentence
Pp	Poor paragraphing skills
Ro	Run on sentence
pron	Pronoun error
Wc	Incorrect word choice
sva	Subject verb agreement
aux	Auxiliary verb errors (omission of an auxiliary verb or incorrect auxiliary verb used)
Wf	Word form (Incorrect form of word)
add	Additional element inserted
sp	Spelling error
Mc	Misuse of capital letters
art	Article error (a, an, the)

? _	Confusing/illegible
Syll	Syllable errors/breaking down words
NN	Number Noun error
Wo	Word order error
X	Incorrect punctuation mark used

Appendix 5: Designed Rubric for written work (English Paper 1 & 2 Ordinary level)

Total Mark Per Exercise	**Components** → / **Grading** ↓	**Phonology/Orthography:** Spelling & word boundary	**Morpho-syntax**: sentence structure, word order/ grammar usage	**Lexico-semantic**: word choice	**Techniques**: Punctuation	**Discourse:** structure, register & logical connection
16	13-16	-Hardly any spelling errors/none -demonstrate knowledge of the spelling rules -Excellent demonstration of syllable structure -Words well structured	-Tenses are well used & sequenced -Well-structured sentences -Few grammatical errors/none -No agreement error	-Excellent word choice -Words are well placed & used in the right context -Has shown good knowledge of vocabulary	-Punctuation marks correctly used -No reworking needed -Writing is clear	- Essay is logically organised and well structured - Has introduction, body & conclusion - Good critical skills -Instruction well followed
12	10-12					
10	9-10					
16	10-12	-Few spelling errors -Good control of spelling rules -Good knowledge of syllable structure -Words well structured	-Tenses well used & sequenced -Good sentence structure - Some grammar errors -Some agreement errors	-Good choice of words -Demonstrates good understanding of vocabulary -Has varied vocabulary knowledge	-Few punctuation errors -Not much reworking needed -Reading not impeded	-Appropriate development of ideas - Ideas somehow flow - Has introduction, body & conclusion -Has supporting details -Instruction is followed
12	8-9					
10	6-7					
16	7-9	-Minimal occurrence of spelling errors -Some control of spelling rules -Shows ability to control syllable structure	-Some errors with tense sequence & use -Moderate errors in sentence structure -Variation -Many agreement errors	-Has some understanding of word use -Varied word choice -Shows understanding of the use of words	Several punctuation errors -Reworking needed -Reading not much impeded	-Ideas hardly flow in a text -Evidence of introduction, body & conclusion paragraphs -Some supporting details -Instructions somehow adhered to
12	6-7					
10	5-6					
16	4-6	-Many spelling errors -Unable to consistently control syllable structure -Writing is unclear	-Many tense errors -Contains several sentence fragments -Logical flow is impeded -Multiple agreement errors	-Limited word choice -Repetition of words/ideas -Understanding is impeded	-Unable to control the appropriate use of punctuation marks -Much reworking needed -Reading is impeded	-Ideas are disorganised -Unclear relationship between events -No supporting details -Instruction partly adhered to
12	4-5					
10	3-4					
16	1-3	-Numerous spelling errors -Ignorance of spelling rules -Inappropriate use of syllable structure	-Multiple tense errors -Many sentence fragments -Writing is confusing -Multiple agreement errors	-Inappropriate word choice -Vocabulary not varied -Flow of ideas is impeded	-Many punctuation errors -Misuse of punctuation marks -Reading is impeded	No organisation of ideas/paragraphs -Events are confusing -Not well structured -No supporting details -Instruction not followed
12	1-3					
10	1-2					

Score = Phonology/Orthography+ *Morpho-syntax + Lexico-semantic + Discourse + Techniques ÷5 (five components of the rubric)*

Appendix 6: Marking grid for written work on Ordinary level (Paper 1 & 2)

ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE NSSCO Language + Structure Content and Style		1			2			3			4			5		
		• Creative use of vocabulary + idiom • Few grammar and spelling mistakes • Audience met • Interesting paragraphs			• Competence in vocabulary + idiom • Few grammar + spelling mistakes • Some sense of audience • Useful paragraphs			• Appropriate choice of vocabulary • Simple sentences • Mistakes do not impede understanding • Some lack of sense of audience • Paragraphs used			• Many grammar, spelling and punctuation errors • Basic language used • Wrong choice of sense of audience • Flaws in paragraphing			• Density of error obscures meaning • Whole sections impossible to recognise as pieces of English writing • No paragraphing		
	TOTALS	10	12	16	10	12	16	10	12	16	10	12	16	10	12	16
1	• Original, creative spark • Instructions followed • Information correctly interpreted • Quality is sustained; Form complements	9-10	11-12	14-16	8	9-10	12-13	7	8	10-11	6	7	9	5	6	8
2	• Convincingly executed • Instruction and information correctly executed; Suitable form • Mistakes do not affect the text	8	9	12-13	7	8	10-11	6	7	9	5	6	8	4	5	7
3	• Fairly convincing • Some instructions used • Irrelevant information used • Fulfils the task, Form acceptable • Average content	7	8	10-11	6	7	9	5	6	8	4	5	7	3	4	5-6
4	• Content not particularly relevant • Mistakes hamper precision • Most instructions not met • Form inconsistent • There may be repetition	6	7	9	5	6	8	4	5	7	3	4	5-6	2	2-3	3-4
5	• Very little engagement with task • Instructions not followed; Lack of form • Occasional patch of clarity	5	6	8	4	5	7	3	4	5-6	2	2-3	3-4	0-1	0-1	0-2

Example: (If Content and Style = level 3 and Language and Structure = level 4) **Calculation:** Content & Style 3 / Language & Structure 4 } 4 or 5 or 7 → 10 12 16

English as a second language, NIED (2005)

Appendix 7: Summary of errors per learner

Learner	Gender	Age	Spelling	Word boundary	Tense	Preposition	Article	Pronoun/noun	Conjunction	Run on sentence	Discourse	Punctuation	Superlative	Auxiliary	Concord	Word form	Word choice	Word order
D18	F	20	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
D19	F	20	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D20	F	20	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A1	F	19	2	0	5	2	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	1	0	0
E1	F	19	9	0	2	1	2	2	1	0	0	4	0	0	1	3	3	0
A5	F	19	7	0	2	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D2	F	19	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
A13	F	19	1	0	1	2	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
C2	F	19	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
A18	F	19	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E19	F	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E20	F	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C11	F	17	0	1	9	1	1	1	1	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0
C12	F	17	3	0	5	0	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	1	1	0	0	0
C17	F	17	7	0	4	1	2	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
D17	F	17	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E6	F	17	9	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	0
E3	F	17	2	0	3	1	1	2	0	0	0	5	0	0	2	0	0	0
B5	F	17	1	0	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
B10	F	17	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
A8	F	17	8	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E16	F	17	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A17	F	17	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D16	F	17	9	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
A9	F	17	2	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	1
A10	F	17	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
D15	F	17	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
D10	F	17	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0
E13	F	17	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	5	0	0	0	0	2	0
C4	F	16	15	0	5	1	0	2	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0

B16	F	16	4	0	5	0	3	0	0	1	0	5	0	1	0	1	0	0
C14	F	16	2	1	3	1	1	1	0	0	0	4	0	1	0	1	0	0
E10	F	16	4	0	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	5	0
A3	F	16	12	1	2	1	1	3	0	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
C15	F	16	2	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
A4	F	16	6	0	2	2	1	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	2	1
B4	F	16	2	2	1	1	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
E15	F	16	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B8	F	16	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0
D7	F	16	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A15	F	16	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A16	F	16	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D5	F	16	4	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E17	F	16	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D6	F	16	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
D11	F	16	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
A19	F	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A20	F	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E18	F	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E14	F	15	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C10	M	20	4	3	4	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
D4	M	20	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
B13	M	20	6	2	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0
B20	M	19	14	0	7	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
B14	M	19	8	0	4	2	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
B19	M	19	6	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
B9	M	19	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B15	M	19	4	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	0
C13	M	19	1	0	2	2	1	3	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
C16	M	19	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
C18	M	19	4	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
C20	M	19	3	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
B7	M	18	1	0	5	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
C5	M	18	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C8	M	18	6	2	3	0	1	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0
C9	M	18	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	7	0	0	1	0	0	0
E5	M	18	8	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
D13	M	18	4	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
D14	M	18	4	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

B3	M	18	3	0	1	1	2	0	0	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
B6	M	18	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C1	M	18	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	0	0	1	0	1	0
A12	M	18	4	1	0	2	0	1	0	1	2	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
E12	M	18	1	1	0	1	0	0	2	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
D12	M	18	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E11	M	18	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	9	0	0	0	0	4	0
C7	M	17	8	0	9	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	2	0
C19	M	17	12	0	8	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E8	M	17	8	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	4	0
A7	M	17	5	1	4	2	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1
C6	M	17	2	0	3	1	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
B18	M	17	4	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
E9	M	17	2	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	6	0	0	0	1	4	0
A11	M	17	1	0	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0
A6	M	17	0	0	2	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
B17	M	17	3	0	1	0	2	1	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0
E7	M	17	3	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
D3	M	17	0	0	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B11	M	17	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D9	M	17	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D8	M	17	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
B12	M	17	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	0	0
D1	M	16	2	0	5	0	2	2	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
E2	M	16	4	0	4	3	1	2	0	0	0	5	0	3	1	0	4	0
C3	M	16	2	0	4	1	2	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
A14	M	16	2	0	3	2	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
A2	M	16	10	1	2	2	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
B2	M	16	9	1	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
E4	M	16	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	2	0
B1	M	16	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Appendix 8: Questionnaire for Teachers & Sample of marked scripts

Sample Questionnaire for Teachers

This questionnaire is aimed at gathering teachers' views regarding the validity and reliability of assessment rubrics for grade 11 and 12 Namibian learners of English as a second language. I would be grateful if you could please complete all sections of this questionnaire. Please note that you may complete the questionnaire anonymously and that responses will be treated as confidential.

Section A

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the rubric which is **currently** used for grade 11 and 12. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1.	The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	The descriptions distinguishes good work. from poor work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	The rubric is easy to use.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

13. The scores are central to performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section B

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the **newly designed rubric**. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work. from poor work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section C

This section is aimed to obtain teachers' views regarding the current and old rubric. Please write your responses on the dotted lines provided.

1. After using both rubrics, comment on how the new rubric differs from the current rubric.

   ……

   ……

   ……..

   ……

   ……..

2. What are the advantages of the new rubric?

   ……

   ……

   …….

3. What are the advantages of the old rubric?

   ……

   ……

   ……...

4. What changes would you recommend to the new rubric? (If any.)

   ……

   ……

   ……

5. Would you recommend the new rubric to be used in schools? Yes/No. Please provide reason (s) for your answer.

   ……

   ……

   ……

6. General comments (If any.)

……

……

……

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

Questionnaire for Teachers

This questionnaire is aimed at gathering teachers' views regarding the validity and reliability of assessment rubrics for grade 11 and 12 Namibian learners of English as a second language. I would be grateful if you could please complete all sections of this questionnaire. Please note that you may complete the questionnaire anonymously and that responses will be treated as confidential.

Section A

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the rubric which is currently used for grade 11 and 12. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6

Section B

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptors, validity and reliability of the **newly designed rubric**. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work	1	2	(3)	4	5	6

Section C

This section is aimed to obtain teachers' views regarding the current and old rubric. Please write your responses on the dotted lines provided.

1. After using both rubrics, comment on how the new rubric differs from the current rubric.
The new rubric differs from the old one as it is clearly explained through some appearance there are some difficulties when using it

2. What are the advantages of the new rubric?
The advantages are that the rubric is clearly explained of what to do

3. What are the advantages of the old rubric?
The advantages there are that it is clearly described in terms of the content and language usage compared to the new one which seems to be the hard.

4. What changes would you recommend in the new rubric? (If any.)
Should be designed to show both sides in terms of the content/style and language usage/structure.

5. Would you recommend the new rubric to be used in schools? Yes/No. Please provide reason (s) for your answer.
Yes, if it could be designed, see number 4. (two) weeks

6. General comments (If any.)
The new rubric should be studied carefully for it to be put in practice.

Questionnaire for Teachers

This questionnaire is aimed at gathering teachers' views regarding the validity and reliability of assessment rubrics for grade 11 and 12 Namibian learners of English as a second language. I would be grateful if you could please complete all sections of this questionnaire. Please note that you may complete the questionnaire anonymously and that responses will be treated as confidential.

Section A

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the rubric which is currently used for grade 11 and 12. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6

Section B

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the newly designed rubric. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	2	3	(4)	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6

Section C

This section is aimed to obtain teachers' views regarding the current and old rubric. Please write your responses on the dotted lines provided.

1. After using both rubrics, comment on how the new rubric differs from the current rubric.

The current rubric is teacher and learner friendly. The new rubric did not calculate how the content should be assessed and how specifically the five components will be graded.

2. What are the advantages of the new rubric?

It clearly explicits the components to and it is very easy for the learners to understand.

3. What are the advantages of the old rubric?

Both content and language are put into consideration and it clearly shows how the grading should be done.

4. What changes would you recommend to the new rubric? (If any.)

The content must be included also in five components and the grades must be shown specifically for each component.

5. Would you recommend the new rubric to be used in schools? Yes/No. Please provide reason (s) for your answer.

No! now because we do not know how to grade the content and it is easy to grade using previous how the marks will be divided among the five components is not clear

6. General comments (If any.)

It is a good one but clarification on the above issues are required before it can be used in schools.

Questionnaire for Teachers

This questionnaire is aimed at gathering teachers' views regarding the validity and reliability of assessment rubrics for grade 11 and 12 Namibian learners of English as a second language. I would be grateful if you could please complete all sections of this questionnaire. Please note that you may complete the questionnaire anonymously and that responses will be treated as confidential.

Section A

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the rubric which is currently used for grade 11 and 12. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6

Section B

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the newly designed rubric. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1	2	3	(4)	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6

Section C

This section is aimed to obtain teachers' views regarding the current and old rubric. Please write your responses on the dotted lines provided.

1. After using both rubrics, comment on how the new rubric differs from the current rubric.

The New rubric has clearly laid out components, making grading very easy and consistent.

2. What are the advantages of the new rubric?

• It is easy to use.
• Learners are able to see where areas need improvement.
• The teacher knows learners' ...
based on areas of difficulty

3. What are the advantages of the old rubric?

It is based on syllabus

4. What changes would you recommend to the new rubric? (If any.)

None

5. Would you recommend the new rubric to be used in schools? Yes/No. Please provide reason (s) for your answer.

Yes But training is needed

6. General comments (If any.)

It is a way to help assessment

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

(4)

Questionnaire for Teachers

This questionnaire is aimed at gathering teachers' views regarding the validity and reliability of assessment rubrics for grade 11 and 12 Namibian learners of English as a second language. I would be grateful if you could please complete all sections of this questionnaire. Please note that you may complete the questionnaire anonymously and that responses will be treated as confidential.

Section A

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the rubric which is currently used for grade 11 and 12. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	1	2	3	4	5	(6)
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	2	(3)	4	5	6

Section B

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the newly designed rubric. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptions of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
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11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6

Section C

This section is aimed to obtain teachers' views regarding the current and old rubric. Please write your response on the dotted lines provided.

1. After using both rubrics, comment on how the new rubric differs from the current rubric.

   The new rubric has clearly stipulated descriptions which teachers and learners can clearly comprehend. The grading is objective and marks are consistently laid out within. It saves time, reduces laziness. The new rubric does not take up much time in grading / allocating marks.

2. What are the advantages of the new rubric?

   a. Easy to use
   b. Clear descriptions of competencies
   c. Consistent grading is evident

3. What are the advantages of the old rubric?

   Covers syllabus/curriculum
   Stipulates what is expected from learners

4. What changes would you recommend to the new rubric? (If any.)

   Nothing. I feel it is okay.

5. Would you recommend the new rubric to be used in schools? Yes/No. Please provide reason (s) for your answer.

   Yes. It's better than the old one.

6. General comments (If any.)

   None.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

(5)

Questionnaire for Teachers

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Section A

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the rubric which is <u>currently</u> used for grade 11 and 12. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you:

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
2. The descriptors of criteria at each level of achievement are outlined	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
3. The descriptions distinguishes good work from poor work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
4. The rubric saves time in the grading process.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
5. The rubric enables teachers to identify learning needs.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
6. The rubric is easy to use.	1	(2)	3	4	(5)	6
7. Learners can use the rubric to self-evaluate.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
8. The rubric helps teachers to grade papers consistently.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6

Section B

This section of the questionnaire asks questions that cover the competencies, descriptions, validity and reliability of the newly designed rubric. Select the number that best reflects your opinion. Circle the number to indicate whether you

Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. The levels of achievement are clearly stipulated	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
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9. The rubric is ideal for the level of learners.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
10. The rubric is in line with the curriculum's aims and objectives.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
11. The rubric facilitate the teaching of English as a second language.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6
12. The rubric contains instances of ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	(5)	6
13. The scores are central to performance.	1	(2)	3	4	5	6
14. The rubric can be used for individual and group work.	(1)	2	3	4	5	6

Section C

This section is aimed to obtain teachers' views regarding the current and old rubric. Please write your responses on the dotted lines provided.

1. After using both rubrics, comment on how the new rubric differs from the current rubric.

   ...
   ...content specific...
   ...easy to be used by both teachers & learners...
   ...
   ...

2. What are the advantages of the new rubric?

   ...This would be a tool for identifying learners having difficulties...
   ...its objectives...
   ...

3. What are the advantages of the old rubric?

   ...
   ...This would be assessing English written work of second language...
   ...speakers...

4. What changes would you recommend to the new rubric? (If any.)

   ...
   ...None...
   ...

5. Would you recommend the new rubric to be used in schools? Yes/No. Please provide reason (s) for your answer.

   ...
   ...Yes because it's good...
   ...

6. General comments (If any.)

   ...
   ...
   ...

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

SAMPLE SCRIPT (1)
(CURRENT RUBRIC)

The competition was finally here, where we were having a swimming competition against [illegible] [illegible] and [illegible]. I was the best swimmer in our school, thought I would make our school very proud. It was just me and my my friends and 2 friends from [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]. We were going to have fun. [illegible] when we got to the pool, it was crowded, so full of people. I got nervous at first. But my friends were asking if I was okay [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]. I told myself that I can.

It took a while to get used to the feeling that I am now [illegible] going to swim in a place that was full of people. I thought to myself ~~like~~ what if I lost, all these people would be laughing at me. So I stop being nervous and [illegible] into the water. (stopped) When I came out, I was [illegible] it was [illegible] for me. Then we started to swim. My friend [illegible] was in front of me, we [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] to go to the other side and came back, then it [illegible] my [illegible] [illegible] her head on the wall of the pool and we had to call an ambulance. In the end, there was no winner because we were [illegible], so we decided to just forget about the whole competition thing and just enjoy the little time we have [illegible] ~~[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]~~ ~~[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]~~

But it was not that bad [illegible] [illegible] was [illegible] [illegible] the doctor said she would recover in two weeks time and that everything will be okay.

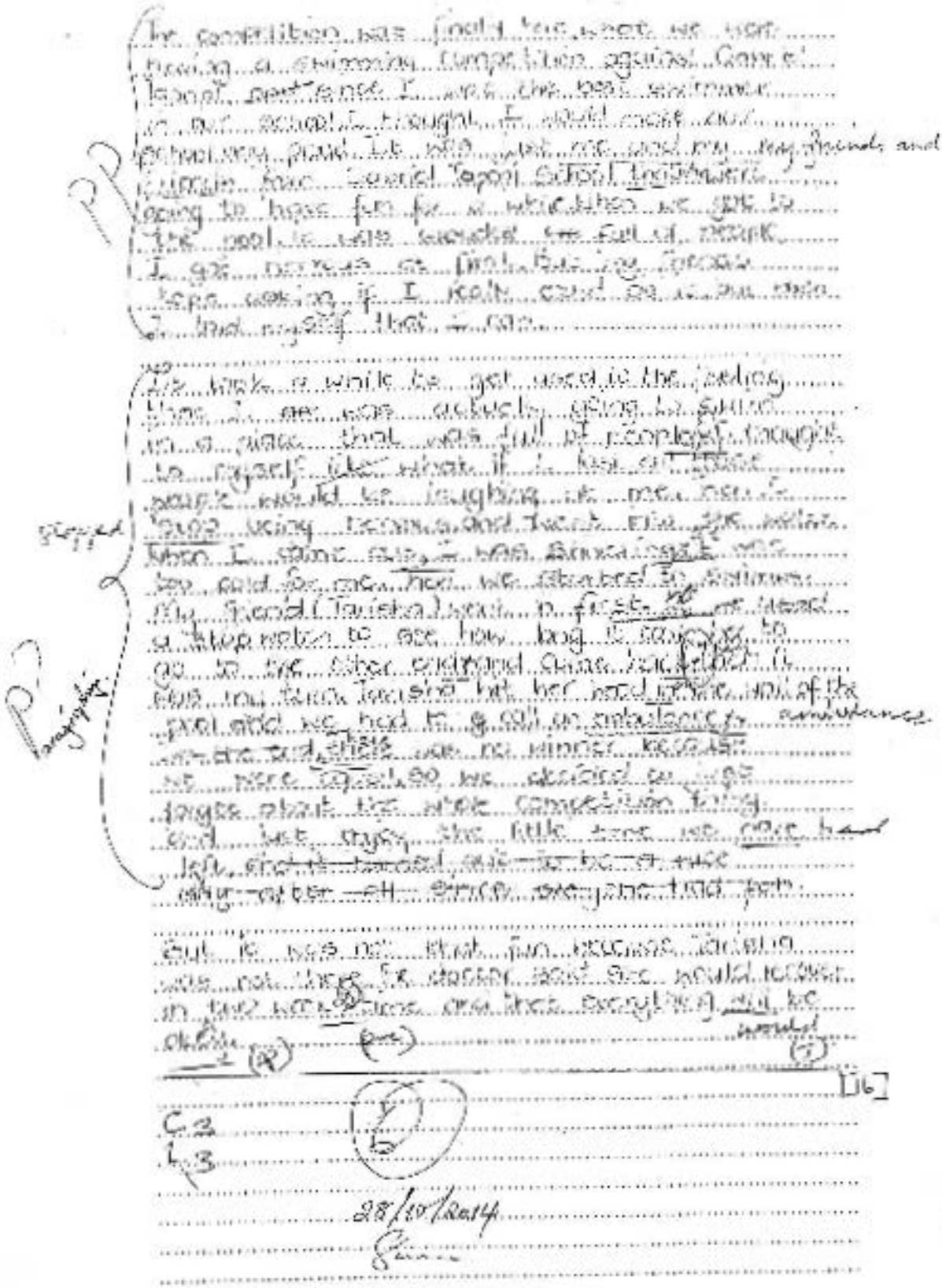
[16]

C 4
L 3
(7)

{4, 3} 7

02/11/14

SAMPLE SCRIPT (2)
(CURRENT RUBRIC)



SAMPLE SCRIPT (3)
(CURRENT RUBRIC)

SAMPLE SCRIPT [illegible]
(NEW RUBRIC)

The competition was finally one, where we were having a swimming competition against Gabriel school and cause I was the best swimmer in our school, I thought I would make our school very proud. It was just me and my friends and I friends from Grade [illegible] [illegible] going. It was fun for a while then we got to the pool it was crowded, so full of people. I got nervous at first but my friends kept calling [illegible] I really could do it and then I told myself that I can.

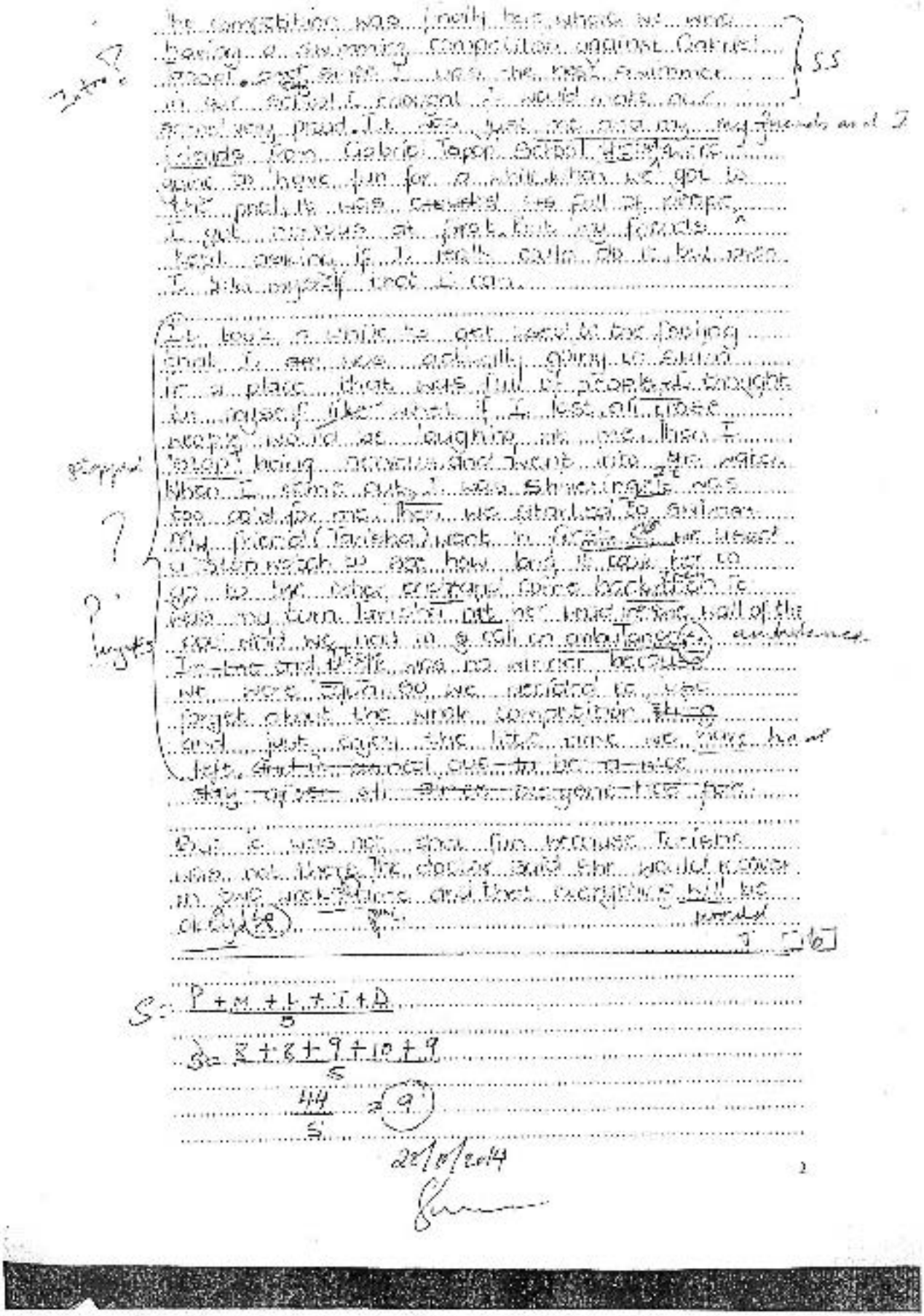
It took a while to get used to the feeling that I am was actually going to swim in a place that was full of people. I thought to myself just what if I lost all those people would be laughing at me. Then I stop (stopped) being nervous and dived into the water. When I came out, I was shivering. It was too cold for me. Then we started to swim. My friend ([illegible]) went in first. We used a stop watch to see how long it took her to go to the other end and come back. When it was my turn [illegible] hit her head on the wall of the pool and we had to call an ambulance (ambulance). [illegible] the [illegible] was no winner because we were [illegible] we decided to just forget about the whole competition thing and just enjoy the little time we have left [illegible] after all [illegible] everyone [illegible].

But it was not that fun because [illegible] was not there. The doctor said she would recover in two weeks time and that everything will (would) be okay.

[16]

9

SAMPLE SCRIPT (2)
(NEW RUBRIC)



S: P + M + L + C + D / 5

Be: 8 + 6 + 9 + 10 + 9 / 5

44 / 5 = (9)

22/10/2014

(NEW RUBRIC)

The competition was finally one where we were having a swimming competition against Gabriel [illegible] and since I was one best swimmer in our school, I thought I would make our [illegible] proud. It was just me and my ~~friends~~ my friends and I friends from Grade [illegible] [illegible]. [illegible] are going to have fun for a [illegible]. We got to the pool, it was covered and full of people. I got nervous at first but my friends kept asking if I really could do it but then I told myself that I can.

It took a while to get used to the feeling that I am now actually going to swim in a place that was full of people. I thought to myself "what if I lost, all these people would be laughing at me." Then I stop (stopped) being nervous and [illegible] into the water. Then I came out, I was [illegible] it was too cold for me. Then we started to [illegible]. My friend [illegible] was in front of me. We used a [illegible] to see how long it took her to go to the other side [illegible] [illegible] it was my turn. [illegible] hit her head on the wall of the pool and we had to call an ambulance. In the end, there was no winner because we were equal, so we decided to just forget about the whole competition thing and just enjoy the little time we have had left, ~~and it turned out to be a nice day after all since everyone had fun.~~

But it was not that fun because [illegible] was not [illegible], the doctor said she would recover in [illegible] weeks' time and that everything will (would) be okay.

$\frac{P+M+L+T+D}{5} = \frac{9+9+8+8+9}{5} = 9/10$

(9)

2/11/2014
KNShgo

2