THE MORPHO-SYNTACTIC INFLUENCE OF ECLS IN LEARNING KISWAHILI AS L2, A CASE OF NYAKYUSA LANGUAGE IN MBEYA, TANZANIA.

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Abstract
This study examines the morpho- syntactic influence of the Ethnic Community Languages (ECLs) in learning Kiswahili as a second language (L2) since little is still known on how L1's structure affects the acquisition of L2 morpho-syntactically. In this regard Nyakyusa language spoken in Mbeya was taken as a case to represent other ECLs in Tanzania, which are Bantu in origin. The study was conducted in Rungwe district where Nyakyusa natives are dominant. Word lists, questionnaires, interviews and participant observation were the research techniques used in collecting data. The study was descriptive and it employed the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis as the theoretical framework. The findings revealed that, Morpho-syntactically, both Nyakyusa and Kiswahili follow SVO word order, have noun-verb agreement and are similar in changing from singular into plural. These kinds of similarities positively, influence learners in the process of learning Kiswahili as a second language.

Keywords: morpho-syntax, ethnic community languages, Kiswahili, second language, Nyakyusa

1.0 INTRODUCTION
1.1 Background to the Problem
It has been found that some researchers in linguistics show the great role played by the first language in the process of learning a second language. It is argued that with the first language (herein L1) and second language (herein L2) that have some similar structures and patterns, learners of L2 will not face great difficulties as compared to when L1 and L2 are completely different from each other. This is because, with the presence of some similarities in terms of structures and language patterns in L1 and L2, learners of L2 will be transfering experienced knowledge from L1 Thierry (2010).

If children do not fully acquire their first language, they may have difficulty in becoming fully literate and academically proficient in the second language (Collier, 1992, 1995). Thierry (2010) further asserted that the Chinese – English bilinguals' adults who are fluent in English whose first language is Chinese, retrieve their native language when reading in English.

There are many studies on the role of L1 in learning L2. Bada (2001) for instance, investigated Japanese learners who were learning how to pronounce English sounds. His findings revealed that the phoneme **/d/** is normally replaced with **/t/** in word final. Prince (1996), used 48 French University students with English as their L2. His study revealed that half of the group had to learn L2 words with their L1 equivalent translation condition. Lotto and Groot (1998), compared the **L1→L2** word learning strategy with **picture →L2** word learning to Dutch University (non-language) Italy was L1 and Dutch as L2. It was found that students were able to recall the Italian words faster if they used **L1→L2** word learning strategy than if they used the **picture →L2** word learning strategy.

Despite the fact that several studies have been done on the influence of L1 in learning L2, it has been argued that most of them have been done on European languages and to the learners of higher learning level. With evidence from the existing literature, few studies have been done on Bantu languages and specifically on Nyakyusa in learning Kiswahili as an L2. Therefore, this study seeks to cover this gape by focusing on the morpho-syntactic influence of L1 (Nyakyusa) in learning L2 (Kiswahili).

Problem Statement

Observations that have been done reveal that there are similarities in some lexical items and word order between Nyakyusa as L1 and Kiswahili as L2. However, there are errors in the use of some vocabulary and pronunciations of speech sounds that come from Nyakyusa during the process of learning Kiswahili. For instance, some Nyakyusa people fail to pronounce correctly the voiced bilabial fricative sound /v/ instead pronounce it as voiceless bilabial-dental fricative sound /f/ in words like '**v**itu' 'things' it is pronounced as '**f**itu', *v*aa 'wear'pronounced as **f**aa 'reasonable'. Also the voiceless palatoalveolar affricative sound /θ'/ is pronounced as /ky/ in words like *ch*ai 'tea' which is pronounced as *kyai.*.

This kind of study has been done by many scholars focusing on European languages like Dutch, Spanish, Bengali, French and English. However few scholars like Zabron (2012) investigated the challenges experienced by foreigners in learning Kiswahili in higher learning institutions. Zabron (2012) realized that Spanish learners face difficulties in the area of pronunciation of some sounds and in forming plural forms in Kiswahili words. However, little is known on the contribution of morpho-syntax in acquiring the second language since most of the previous studies concentrated on the phonological and syntactic aspects; therefore this study seeks to cover this gap by focusing on the morpho-syntactic influence of the Nyakyusa as one of the Bantu languages, in acquiring Kswahili as L2. The aim of this study therefore, is to examine the way the structure of Nyakyusa language affects the acquisition/learning of Kiswahili morpho- syntactically.

Historical Background of the Nyakyusa Language

Nyakyusa is a Bantu language which is classified as M.31 (Guthrie, 1948, Maho, 2003). Nyakyusa is mainly spoken in three districts of Kyela and Rungwe in Tanzania and Karonga in Malawi where it is called Konde. The native Nyakyusa people live in

permanent villages which are politically recognized areas with administratively known borders or just an area for personal identification.

Nyakyusa Morphological Inventory

Morphology is a discipline that focuses on the study of word –structure at one stage in the life of a language rather than on the evolution of words (Katamba, 1993). Morphological system of Nyakyusa can be found through parts of speech specifically lexical words like nouns, verbs and adjectives.

Nominal Morphology

Felbergy (1996), found that most of the Nyakyusa nouns are made up of a pre-prefix, a prefix and a stem. Nyakyusa pre-prefix has no effect to the noun, but it is only prefix which has effects to noun class as it agrees with the verb.The noun is classified according to its prefix and this makes the basis for agreement with verbs, adjectives and various other word classes. For example:

(a) I   ki   lombe
   pre-prefix prefix maize
    i   fi   lombe
   pre-prefix   prefix maize

(b)   u   lu   seke
   pre-prefix prefix seed
    i   seke
   Prefix seed

The following table shows the noun class in Nyakyusa language.

Table 1: Nyakyusa Noun Class

NC	Sg	Example	Gloss	Pl.	Example	Gloss
1-2	**U-mu**	*Umundu*	Person	**A-ba**	*abandu*	people
3-4	**U-mu**	*Umuuji*	Breath	**I-mi**	*Imiuji*	breath
5-6	**I-li**	*Ililasi*	Bamboo	**A-ma**	*amalasi*	bamboos
7-8	**I-ki**	*Ikilato*	Shoe	**I-fi**	*Ifilato*	shoes
9-10	**iN**	*Indalama*	money	**iN**	*indalama*	money
11-12	**A-ka**	*Akapaango*	Story	**U-tu**	*utupango*	stories
14-14	**U-bu**	*Ubuumi*	Life	**U-bu**	*ubuumi*	life
15	**Uku**	*Ukuluka*	Weaving **uku**		*ukuluka*	weaving
16	**Pa**	*Pakaaja*	At home **pa**		*pakaaja*	at home
17	**Ku**	*Kunyanja*	Beach **ku**		*kunyanja*	beach
18	**Mu**	*Muunda*	Inside the Stomach **mu**		*muunda*	inside the stomach

Source: Field data (2018)

Motivation for Language Learning

In real life, there are several reasons for a person to learn something. For example, language learners learn a language because they want to acquire, use, and communicate with those who speak the target language. Also, perhaps they learn a given language because they want to know their culture and learn about the country where the language is spoken (Nakanishi, 2002).

Motivation determines the extent of effort one exerts to fit into second or foreign language learning. The more motivation one has, the more effort one tends to put into learning the language. Thus, motivation leads to success in the learning of any kind (Mtallo and Rubagumya, 2015).

Gardner & Lambert (1972) proposed that motivation is influenced by two orientations to language learning. An integrative orientation is typical of someone who identifies with and values the target language and community, and who approaches language study with the intention of joining that community. Such an individual is thought to have an internal, more enduring motivation for language study. Instrumentally, motivated learners on the other hand, are more likely to see language learning as enabling them to do other useful things, rather than having no special significance in it. Such learners will be motivated if they see language learning as having beneficial career prospects or something that will enable them to use transactional language with speakers of the second or foreign language. Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that individuals with an integrative orientation would demonstrate greater motivational effect in learning L2, and thus achieve greater L2 competence.

Similarly, Deci and Ryan (1985) claim that learners who are interested in learning tasks and outcomes for their own sake (intrinsic) rather than for rewards (extrinsic) are likely to become more effective learners. More specifically, intrinsic motivation refers to motivation expended in an activity that is enjoyable and satisfying to do. Extrinsically motivated behaviors are those actions carried out to achieve some instrumental end, such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment. This type of motivation does not necessarily imply a lack of self-determination in the behaviors performed. Dickinson (1987), claims that success enhances motivation only in children who are focused on learning goals, that is, who are intrinsically motivated. Research on intrinsic motivation has led to the conclusion that intrinsic motivation will be greatest under conditions that foster feelings of challenge, competence, and self-determination. Linguists also claim that if external events enhance feelings of competence, as when someone is told that she or he has done a certain task very well, intrinsic motivation is likely to increase. By contrast, events that lead to feelings of incompetence are likely to undermine intrinsic motivation.

To have motivation for learning a second language is one thing and the actual learning of the language is another thing, as this involves gaining competence at various linguistic levels. (Mtallo and Rubagumya, 2015).

The Concept of Language Competence

Valdes and Figueroa (1994) posit that knowing a language and knowing how to use it involves a mastery and control of a large number of interdependent components and elements that interact with one another and that are affected by the nature of the situation in which communication takes place. These components are manifested at different levels mainly the Communicative Competence Level as it enables language learners to convey and interpret messages and negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts (Hymes, 1972). Sauvignon (1983) asserts that communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and it depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved. It is not so much an intrapersonal construct as argued by Chomsky in his early writings but rather a dynamic, interpersonal construct that can only be examined by means of the overt performance of two or more individuals in the process of negotiating meaning.

Morpho- syntactic Influences of L1 in Learning L2

According to Katamba (1993), Morphology is concerned with the formation and interpretation of words, whereas syntax is concerned with the formation and interpretation of phrases and sentences. Morphology is the study of how words are formed out of smaller units (traditionally called morphemes). Syntax is concerned with the ways in which words can be combined together to form phrases and sentences. For instance, by saying that words like girl, cat, hand, idea, place, team, belong to the grammatical category noun, it is because they all share certain grammatical properties in common. The commonality of the mentioned words is the morphological property of having plural form (ending in the suffix's'); and the syntactic property of being able to be premodified by '**the'.** A morpho-syntactic property is a grammatical property, a property which is morphologically and syntactically conditioned (Radford, 1997:265).

Meaning is not the only information we can obtain from words, their syntactic and morphological information also provide meaningful information. The pluralisation of adjectives becomes a frequent example of negative transfer due to morphosyntactic reasons among Spanish students learning English as a second language. This is because, with the case of Spanish, adjectives must agree in number with the nouns they modify. However, in English; plural nouns are not modified by adjectives in plural. For example,

> *Frank tiene los ojos azules*
> **Frank has got blues eyes*.
> 'Frank has got blue eyes'

Spanish students usually make this kind of error at some point of their learning process and it is due to their native language influence in the second language (Mingorance, 2008).

The **'s'** genitive to mean possession is another example of negative transfer related to morphology and syntax. Whereas in Spanish the possession is expressed by means of periphrastic expression, in English possession is expressed in a "synthetic" way. The order of elements in the structure that the students do fossilize in Spanish interferes

with the new structure that they are trying to learn, thus they have two completely different structures meaning the same. The genitive phrase (herein GP), has the distribution of a third person determiner. This means that the genitive phrase is placed before the noun and means possession. Besides, it can be replaced by any third person possessive determiner.

In English, the form of the verb varies depending on the person and number of the subject such as *I eat rice* but *He eats rice*. In Bengali, though the form of the verbs varies in relation to the person of the subject; no such variation occurs in relation to the number of the person. That is, in Bengali there is no morphological inflection of verb forms in relation to third person singular number. For example,

a)   *tara bhat khai*
        they rice eat
        'they eat rice'
   b) *she bhat khai*
        he/ she rice eat
        'he/she eats rice'

Similarly, it is the case for the verb **be** that is, there is no need to change form of verbs in Bengali for singular or plural number. For example:

10.a)   *ami cehilam*
        ' I was'
   b)   *amra cchilam*
        'we were'
   c)   *she cchilo*
        'he/she was
   d*)   *tara cchilo*
         'they were'

Since there is no such morphological inflection or change of verb forms for third person singular number, Bengali speakers have to learn this as superset principle while learning English from the input. It happens that even after seventeen years of exposure to such input through class lectures in the form of instruction, reading materials and listening to materials, these Bengali speakers often fail to maintain this
third person singular verb marker in their use of English. Therefore, this error of third person singular number is attributed to the non-existence of such rules in Bengali language. This means that learners use the L1 rule in their use of L2. This influence has taken place in the speech of both higher and lower level English users as shown in the following interview:

a) What **was** the place**s** of that travel?
b) There are many many thing**s**
c) Because **she love** me too much
d) **He give** me huge time

In Spanish, possessive pronouns occupy the same place like the English possessive determiners which are placed right before the noun. This similarity has an easy

application in the teaching of the genitive structure. The students will learn that just like in Spanish. For example:

su casa
'her house'

Besides, *her* can be substituted with any possessor like *Neema's house, My teachers' books,* and *Your car.* The syntactic place does not vary (Mingorance, 2008).

The evidence for indirect access to universal grammar (herein UG) is the effects of L1 parameter settings on the L2, i.e. a version of transfer. Japanese and Spanish learners for example, are influenced by the word order preferences of their L1 in interpreting English sentences (Flynn, 1987). The pro- drop parameter concerning the compulsory presence of subjects in the sentence has been massively studied. French learners of English, with the same non-pro-drop setting in L1 and L2, were much better at saying that *In winter snows a lot in Canada* which was more ungrammatical than Spanish learners who have a pro-drop setting in L1 (White, 1996). Both English and French learners of Spanish had, however, no problems with acquiring the Spanish pro-drop setting despite their different L1 settings (Liceras, 1989).

Similar sequences of syntactic acquisition have been found in L1 and L2 learning. L2 learners, like L1 learners, start by believing that *John* is the subject of *please* in both; *John is easy to please* and *John is eager to please.*

Also with the same word *John,* learners continue to discover that it is the object in '*John is easy to please'* after some time (Cook, 1973 d' Anglejan and Tucker, 1975). L2 learners like L1 children, at first put negative elements at the beginning of the sentence '*No the sun shining'* and then progress to negative within the sentence '*That's no ready'* (Wode 1981).

Zahran (2001), conducted a research on Swedish workers who were learning Kiswahili and observed that they were facing difficulties with the class structure in Kiswahili where, different verbal prefixes and different locatives, possessive pronouns, demonstratives, and other grammatical aspects come with a number of problems. In his observation, he noted that a Swede experienced difficulties in identifying verbal prefixes which agree with their corresponding nouns. Also, such Swede learner experienced difficulties in providing adequate descriptive patterns and efficient rules concerning the usage of locative, possessive pronouns, demonstratives, and other aspects of grammar.

White and Genesee (1996), compared native speakers of English and L2 learners, divided into near-native and non-native groups who were given timed grammaticality judgment tests of questions such as

Which one are you reading a book? and
Who did you meet Tom after you saw?

The results showed that, there were no differences between natives and near-natives in accuracy and speed, with only the exception of sentences such as:*Which movies do the children want to rent?*The conclusion is that "ultimate attainmate in L2 can indeed

be native-like in the UG domain". The balance of the research to date suggests that a small proportion of L2 learners can acquire the same knowledge of a language as native speakers. Just as a small group seem able to acquire a native-like accent.

The first language influence appears to be strongest in complex word order and in word –for-word translations of phrases. Evidence for this generalization comes from several sources. Duskova (1969), for example, studied written errors in the compositions of Czech "postgraduate students" and concluded that interference from mother tongue was plainly obvious in errors of word order and sentence construction, a common example being the placement of the direct object after an adverbial as shown below:
 I met there some Germans.
Also in the compositions there were many word-for –word translations of Czech expressions into English, like,
 *‘another my friend’ instead of
    ‘another friend of mine’.

LoCoco (1975) as cited in Zabron (2012), in a study of American college students learning Spanish and German in the United States (herein US), a foreign language situation, reported that the high incidence of interlingual (L1 interference) errors in German was due to word order errors. Typical examples include:
        Hoffentlich du bist gesund
         Hopefully you are healthy
         Correct: Hoffentlich bist du gesund

First language-based errors in Spanish were less numerous and "pertained primarily to adjective position". The greater word differences between English and German as compared to English and Spanish, account for the differences in frequencies in interference word order errors. Spanish students were more often correct in using English surface structures in utterance initiation due to the greater surface similarity between English and Spanish (Krashen 1982). This also concurs with Chans’ findings (1975) that English to Spanish interference errors occurred mainly "on grammatical categories absent in either the native language (herein NL) or target language (herein TL) and not in word order.

Dulay and Burt (1982) and Gillis and Weber (1976) have demonstrated that first language influence is rare in child second language acquisition. On the other hand, studies reported that a high amount of first language influence is mostly foreign and not the result of second language studies, situations in which natural appropriate intake is scarce and where translations are frequent. In this regard, it is interesting to note that we can find signs of first language influence in immersion bilingual programs where input is often primarily from the teacher and not from the peers. First language-influenced errors here are also in the domain of word order (Selinker,1992).

Kanno (1998), investigated Japanese second language in order to find out if adult learners know the prohibition on quantified and *‘wh* ‘antecedents for overt pronouns. Her task was a conference-judgment task, quite different from the sentences with

quantified and referential main- clause subjects and overt or null embedded pronoun subjects. In this study, learners had to indicate whether or not the embedded pronoun could refer to the subject of the main clause. Kanno further found that native speakers and L2 learners are differentiated in their treatment of overt pronouns depending on the type of antecedent involved (quantified or referential). Native speakers overwhelmingly rejected the interpretation where an overt pronoun took a quantified antecedent, responding instead that the overt pronoun must take a sentence –external referent. This was not due to general prohibition against quantified antecedents as these were accepted in the case of null subjects. Again, it was not due to any general dislike of sentence-internal antecedents since referential antecedents within the same sentence were accepted. The L2 learners showed remarkably similar pattern results; their performance was not significantly different from the controls. Both native speakers and L2 learners then appeared to be following the overt pronoun constraint, disallowing quantified antecedents for overt pronoun.

Rocca (2007) presents evidence that adult second language learners, unlike child second language learners, do not display morphological sensitivity. However, like adult second language learners and unlike first language learners, child second language learners are influenced by language transfer, where language transfer can involve grammatical lexical prototypical links. These studies, which are only the tip of an iceberg, show that the view "the earlier, the better" cannot be taken as absolute.

Zabron (2012) in relation to the morphological aspect, found that Finnish students experienced difficulties in forming plural forms in Kiswahili words. Also, they failed to construct the verb carrying the function of persons and tenses, to indicate the morpheme of an object, the morpheme of reflexive forms, to construct verbs with suffixes showing applicative forms, to construct verbs with suffixes showing reciprocal forms.

Theoretical Framework

This is based on the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Contrastive Analysis is a way of comparing and contrasting various linguistic features of two languages such as sound systems, grammatical structures, vocabulary systems, writing systems and above all cultural aspects of the two languages. The basic assumption of Contrastive Analysis in learning an L2 involves transferring the linguistic forms and meanings of the L1 to an L2 by learning a set of habits. Contrastive Analysts like Lado (1957) and Selinker (1992) argue that some languages are easier to learn than others because of similarity of some language patterns in both languages as the learner transfers experienced knowledge from the first language to the second language. Also where languages differ greatly in structure, the learner will face some difficulties in the process of learning the second language as his/her former knowledge from L1 may hinder the learning of L2 (Lado 1957). Thus, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is based on three main theoretical claims which are:
i) The learner expects to find equivalence between L1 and L2.
ii) Learning L2 requires the learner to learn something which is different from L1.
iii) The learner finds it difficult to learn the new language when structures and patterns in the two languages differ (Selinker, 1992).

Despite the fact that studies have been conducted on the role of the first language in learning the second language, these studies seem to have been done in different countries mostly in European countries. Majority of the researchers used informants of first languages who were in higher learning institutions where the second languages are not used in the daily life environment. According to the existing literature, not much has been done on Bantu languages within the Tanzania context specifically to Nyakyusa as L1. Therefore, this study intended to fill the gap left by previous studies by investigating the morpho- syntactic influence of Nyakyusa in learning Kiswahili as not only a second language but also a medium of instruction in Tanzanian primary school.

2.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
2.1 Research Design

This study employed a qualitative design since researchers investigated the morpho-syntactic influence of Nyakyusa in learning Kiswahili as a second language involving learners in their natural environment. Qualitative analysis helped researchers to study individual performance closely. Researchers examined the presence or absence of morphosyntactic influence of Nyakyusa as a first language in the process of learning Kiswahili as a second language.

 Pilot study was conducted before carrying out the main study. This became useful in testing the variables, instruments of data collection, informants and selected methods of data collection with prepared questions intended to reveal the desired information.

Researchers collected information from the informants who are Nyakyusa in Rungwe district in Kiwira and Nkunga wards.Questionnaires, word lists, interviews and observations were used in collecting relevant information. In-depth interview with open ended questions were administered to the informants who were selected purposively.The collected information was summarized, described in details and the findings were presented in tables.

2.2 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

The study involved a sample of twenty four primary school pupils and eight secondary schools students in lower classes who were selected through convenient sampling technique. Also a sample of eight teachers from four primary schools and two teachers from two secondary schools were selected deliberately.Thus seventeen informants from each ward that is Kiwira and Nkunga wards were selected to represent others. Six teachers teaching Kiswahili as a subject in both primary and secondary schools were selected. That is, in each primary school two teachers teaching Kiswahili as a subject in lower classes were selected. Likewise, in each secondary school, one teacher teaching Kiswahili as a subject in form one was selected for the study.

2.3 Data Collection Techniques

The primary data for this study were collected through questionnaires, word lists, interviews and participant observation since one of the researchers also belongs to this particular speech community.

2.4 Data Analysis Procedure

The raw data from the informants were textual. They were processed into useful information. The researcher derived a set of categories in the data obtained from questionnaires, word lists, interviews and observations. The Data were categorized by looking for commonalities, regularities /patterns across the data variations. These categories were then investigated by cross-referencing to see whether there were relationships that would assist in understanding the morpho-syntactic influence of the Nyakyusa language in learning Kiswahili. Finally, these data were presented descriptively and in terms of tables.

Researchers used triangulation in the process of collecting and analyzing data. Carefull listening and note taking during interview and reading word lists assisted researchers by referring to them during data analysis. Data collected were analyzed the same day after the interview so as to keep memory. Triangulation has been found an important methodology in naturalistic and qualitative approaches to evaluation. This is because it helpes the researcher in controling bias and establishing valid propositions.
Generally , researchers adhered to the three basic ethical principles which are respect for persons, beneficience and justice as suggested by Krysik (2007: 32).

3.0. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
3.1 Morpho- Syntactic Influences of Nyakyusa in Learning Kiswahili as a Second Language

A morpho-syntactic property is a grammatical property that is a property which is morphologically and syntactically conditioned. For example, **case** is a morpho-syntactic property, in that, personal pronouns have different morphological forms and occupy different syntactic positions according to their case. For example, the nominative form of the first person plural **we** and its objective form is **us.** The two occupy different syntactic positions in that, the nominative form occurs as the subject of a finite verb or auxiliary for example,

31.   *we* in ***We** disagree.*
But the objective form occurs as the complement of a transitive verb or preposition, for example,

32.   ***us*** in *She disagrees with **us.***
        Radford, 1997: 265)
The morpho-syntactic influences of Nyakyusa in learning Kiswahili as a second language has been investigated in terms of word order, noun-verb agreement, singular and plural as well as tenses as presented and discussed below.

3.1.1 Word Order

Languages differ in their basic word orders for subject, verb, and object. They may favor subject, verb, and object (herein SVO) or subject, object, and verb (herein SOV); and they display considerable consistency with orders of other elements too. In SVO languages, adjectives usually follow their nouns (exception is an English here), and in SOV languages, like Japanese they precede them. Languages that are consistent in their word basic order play a greater role in variety of constructions. For example, the internal consistencies in a language help speakers keep track of what they are listening to and what they are planning to say themselves. Also it allows predictions about linguistic units. Thus, children who learn L2 whose their L1s and L2 follow either SVO or SOV language are in advantage (Clark 2009:3-4).

Hence, Nyakyusa as an L1 in relation to Kiswahili as L2, has similarities in terms of language system that is SVO; this allows learner associate knowledge from L1 when learning L2.

In collecting data related to morpho syntactic influences, researchers prepared sentences in first language and asked informants to translate them into second language. For example:

	Nyakyusa			*Kiswahili*	
33. (a) *Umama iku pija*		*amatoki*	*mama anapika*		*ndizi*
S	V	O	S	V	O

'Mother is cooking banana'   'mother is cooking banana'

	(b)Amulike akisa	*kusukulu*	*Amulike hajafika*	*shuleni*
S	V	A	S	A

'Amulike has not attended to school' 'Amulike has not attended to school'

The sentences in example 33 above show the similarities in word order from first language to second language. These sentences follow subject, verb, object complement and adverbial pattern (herein SVOCA patterns). When the informants were asked to translate sentences from Nyakyusa into Kiswahili, they responded positively since the arrangement of sentence structures were similar. This is supported by Lardiere (2005) who offers a conceptualization of building L2 grammatical competence starting from the L1 grammar as have similar features and lexical items. Lardiere found that L2 learners whose L1s have the feature linked to lexical items in the L1 in a parallel fashion to the target L2 system, would have an advantage over their peers whose L1s do not have such features.

This study is diferent from Islam (2004), who found the difference between the syntax of Bengali and English that lies in their word order. English is SVO (Subject +Verb +Object) language whereas Bengali is an SOV (Subject + Object +Verb) language resulting in word order that often creates errors of wrong placement of verbs and adverbs in a sentence. In English, adverbs may be placed either before or after the main verb depending on the meaning and context, for example:

    a) It eats slowly

b) She always walks slowly

In Bengali, adverbs always come before the verb and if there is any adjective or noun (as object) preceding the verb, the adverb will appear in between the subject and object. For example,

   a) *ani **jore** durai*
   * *I **fast** run*
   'I run fast'
   b) *ami **khub** phool bhalobashi*
   * *I **very much** flower like*
   'I like flower very much'

3.1.2 Noun –Verb Agreement

Two words (expressions) are said to agree in respect of some grammatical feature (s) if they have the same value for the relevant feature (s). Thus, in the sentences below the verb 'eat' is said to agree with their subjects **sh**e and **we** because the first is third person and the latter is first person plural.

   She **eats** ugali every night.
   We **eat** ugali every night.

Hence agreement refers to a formal relationship between elements whereby a form of one word requires a corresponding form of another. For example in Latin, nouns and their adjectives must correspond to one another in number, gender and case.

A noun refers to a person, place, or things (objects, concepts, ideas, or events). For example, Mr. Hamad, Miss. Nancy, Tanzania, and poverty. Nouns can be used as the subject, direct object, and indirect object of a verb. Also, nouns can be used as the object of a preposition, as an adverb or adjective and in showing possession. A verb is a word that denotes an action like come, go, and eat. Verbs are words or groups of words that express action or a state of being or condition. Verbs provide the power or drive for the sentences (Baugh, 2005). Nouns and verbs are among the basic parts of speech in learning language. For example:

Nyakyusa
37.   a) *U-mwana **i**   ku   lil   a*
       1CL child   SM PRT   cry   FV
             S   V
       'A child is crying'

   b) *A-bhana   **bi**   ku   lil   a*
       2CL children   SM   PRT   cry   FV
         S   **V**
       'Children are crying'

c) I-ghali   **li**   -   gwil   -   e
 5CL car   PRT   overturn   FV
    S   V
 'A car has overturned'

d) **A-ma**ghali   **ga**   gwil   e
 6CL cars   SM   overturn   FV
    S   V
 'Cars have overturned'

Kiswahili
38 a) **M-**toto   **a**   na   li   a
 1CL child   SM   PRT   cry   FV
    S   V
 'A child is crying'

 b) *W-toto*   wa   na   li   a
  2CL children   SM   PRT   cry   FV
     S   *V*
  'Children are crying'

 c) Gari   li   me   anguk   a
  2CL car   SM   PF   overturn   FV
   S   V
  'A car has overturned'

 d) Ma gari   ya   me   anguk   a
  6CL cars   SM   PERF   fall   FV
        S   V

    'Cars have overturned'

From the examples above, data show a noun-verb agreement in both Nyakyusa and Kiswahili. A noun in singular agrees with a verb in singular and noun in plural form agrees with verb in plural form. This kind of similarities help the learner during the learning of Kiswahili as an L2 as she or he may transfer knowledge experienced from her or his L1. In most of the roles of the L1, there is a common theme that L1 provides a familiar and effective way of quickly getting to grips with the meaning and content of what needs to be used in the L2 (Nation, 1978).

Several studies indicate that both negative and positive transfer between the L1 and L2 is important for the development of the interlanguage, the complex system of the learners' L2. Many teachers recognize that the L1 in the classroom is a positive representation of the interlanguage. Data on the interlanguage and language transfer

show that, it is highly probable that L2 learners will always think most often in their L1, even at the advanced level (Mahmoud, 2006:29).

3.1.3 Singular and Plural

Data below show similarities in both Nyakyusa and Kiswahili based on plural forms as both languages involve a change of initial word or prefixes attached to the word.

Table 2: Singular and Plural in Nyakyusa and Kiswahili.

Nyakyusa (L1)		*Kiswahili (L2)*		**Gloss**	
Umoja	*Wingi*	*Umoja*	*Wingi*	**Singular**	**Plural**
Unganga	*abhaghanga*	*mganga*	*waganga*	doctor	doctors
Umundu	*Abhandu*	*Mtu*	*watu*	person	people
Undindwana	*abhalindwana*	*msichana*	*wasichana*	girl	girls
Umpila	*Imipila*	*Mpira*	*mipira*	football	footballs
Ikilato	*Ifilato*	*Kiatu*	*viatu*	shoe	shoes
Ipamba	*amapamba*	*Tofali*	*matofali*	brick	bricks
Ulujajo	*Injajo*	*Unyayo*	*nyayo*	foot	Feet
Ikilombe	*Ifilombe*	*Mhindi*	*mahindi*	maize	Maize

Source: Field data (2018)

From table 2, the informants were able to change words from singular to plural using words that have some similarities to Kiswahili as the second language. In the use of plural number in English, both the determiner and main word (i.e. noun) become plural in form, for example *a worker* but *some workers* and *a man* but *many men*. But in Bengali, the plural marker is used either before the noun as a pre-determiner or after the noun as plural inflection but not both at the same time. For example:

  a) *onek manush*
    'many men'
  b) *onekgulo manush*
    'many men'
   (But never as)
  *onek manushera
  *onekgulo manushera

The examples above show that Bengali language is different from Nyakyusa in terms of forming plurals. With Nyakyusa as a first language in the process of learning Kiswahili as a second language, the researcher found some sort of similarities in

forming plurals. This is because both languages involve changes of determiners from singular to plural form, the reason being that both Nyakyusa and Kiswahili are Bantu languages. Hence learners were able to translate from Nyakyusa into Kiswahili and change word form from singular to plural.

These differences in plural marker between English and Bengali lead to errors like missing one plural marker either at the pre-determiner position or at the end of the head word as inflection. Islam (2004) found that the influence of Bengali as the first language leads to learners of English as a second language producing sentences such as:
  a) What happens on **this days**?
   b) **Some kinds** of **industry**
   c) Some **organization**
   d) Many **tourist**

This kind of differences between Bengali language in learning English as a foreign language leads to errors as learners transfer experienced knowledge from their native language into English as the target language.
Despite the data above showing the word change from singular to plural in both Nyakyusa and Kiswahili; there are some words in Nyakyusa which have plurals but do not form Plural in Kiswahili.

Table 3: Words from Nyakyusa that Differ from Kiswahili in Forming Plural

Umoja	Wingi	Umoja	Wingi	Singular	Plural
unsebho	**imi**sebho	*barabara*	*barabara*	road	Roads
ing'oma	**a**mang'oma	*Ngoma*	*ngoma*	drum	Drums
unkota	**imi**kota	*Dawa*	*Dawa*	medicine	Medicines
umwenda	**imi**enda	*Nguo*	*Nguo*	cloth	Clothes

Source: Field data (2018)

The words in table 3 above show that there are some words in Nyakyusa that change their morphology from singular to plural although in Kiswahili the same words do not change their morphology from singular to plural. This difference is caused by phonetic inventory since every language selects specific sounds even though such languages might be in the same family. This also applies to English and German though both belong to a group of languages called Indo-European languages, however they differ in their word order. Word order in German is freer than in English; and German has movement rules affecting word order arrangements which are without parallel in English. In English, the verb is surrounded by nouns and adverbs while in German the verb stands at the end of the sentence and is often the focus and culmination of the entire clauses. Also, German does not have progressive form, thus,

learners with German background generalize when learning English as a second language, for instance learners may say:

'*When I walked in, she slept'instead of

When I walked in she was sleeping.

The source of error in the example above happens because of generalizing the knowledge of L1 when learning L2. The same applies to some learners of Kiswahili as their L2 who generalize by putting plural morphemes in Kiswahili even to words that do not allow such plural markers. For instance one informant said:

42..* *'mama yangu ana manguo mengi'*

'my mother has many clothes*'*

'mama yangu ana nguo nyingi'.

This kind of error is caused by the knowledge of forming plurals from L1. Thus, sometimes the knowledge of L1 interferes with the process of learning L2. The understanding of the L1's syntactical structure and type of errors made during the learning of L2 influenced by L1, provides efficiency in the teaching and learning process of L2. This is because the teacher will be able to predict possible future errors in the target language and may begin to attribute a cause to an error with some degrees of precision (Bhella, 1999).

3.1.4 Tenses

Comrie (1985) cited in Nurse (2007) defines a tense as a grammaticalised expression of location in time. That is, it is an inflectional category that locates a situation on location, state, or process relative to some point in time, to a deictic center. Tense is a grammatical expression of the time situation described in relation to some time.
Nyakyusa tense markers can appear at the initial or final position of the verb. For example:

a) Utata a-   li-   s-   il-   e mmajolo.
   Father3SG-PT-come-PF-FV yesterday
   'father came yesterday'

(b) Ujuba i-   s-   il-   e lilino
    mother3SG-come-PF-FV today.
   'Mother has came today'

(c) Imbene si-a-li-mo
   goat SM-PT-be-LOC
   'There were goats'

(d) Amasiku ga-kind-il-e
   days   SM-pass-PF-FV
   'The days have passed'

(e) Ugwe gu-   a- job-il- e
    you   2SG-PT-say-PF-FV

'You said'

(f) Uswe tu-   ku-suum-a amisi
     We 1PL-PRES-ask-FV water
    'We are asking for some water'

The examples above show that Nyakyusa has no permanent tense markers rather it depends on the preceding subject and verb itself, which affects the subject marker and the final vowel of the verb. It is different from Kiswahili where every indicative utterance contains a tense or aspect marker as shown below:

Tense/Aspect Morpheme	Meaning
li	past
na/hu	present on-going/habitual
ta	future
ka	narrative/resultative
me	present perfect
ki	conditional
sha	present perfect
nga	hypothetical
ku	infinitival

The differences in tense markers between L1and L2 sometimes lead to Nyakyusa learners of Kiswahili face some difficulties in constructing correct sentences. For example in habitual tenses:

(a) *Tukubuka kusukulu bwila* (L1)
 * *Tunaendaga shuleni kila siku* (L2) instead of
Tunaenda shuleni kila siku
'We go to school every day'
(b*) Tukwimba inyimbo kukuti mundungu* (L1)
 **Tunaimbaga nyimbo kila Jumapili*.(L2) instead of
 Tunaimba nyimbo kila Jumapili
'We sing songs every Sunday'
(c) *Bikulima imigunda iminywamu* (L1)
 * *Wanalimaga mashamba makubwa* (L2) instead of
 Huwa wanalima mashamba makubwa
'They usually dig big farms'

The above examples reflect Ferrer's (2008) who investigated on the role of the mother tongue in instructed second language learning. Her findings determined that a judicious and systematic use of cross linguistic referencing gives the teacher the opportunities for equipping the learners with explicit knowledge of the target language systems.

The Way Theoretical Framework is Related to this Study

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis as the theoretical framework to this study has been fulfilled. This Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is based on three main theoretical claims. These are, the learner expects to find equivalence between the L1 and L2, learning the L2 requires the learner to learn something which is different from the L1, and the learner finds it difficult to learn the new language when structures and patterns in the the two languages differ (Selinker, 1992).

This study involved Nyakyusa as L1 and Kiswahili as L2 and the findings reveal that learners found some equivalence and diffferences between Nyakyusa and Kiswahili. Where there were similarities, the learner learnt L2 without greater difficulties in sharp contrast where there were some differences from L1 to L2. Thus, the learner of L2 required to learn something which was different from L1.

4.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Conclusion

This study examined the morpho-syntactic influence of the Nyakyusa language as L1 in learning Kiswahili as L2. Generally, the findings of this study agree with Zabron (2012:127) who by quoting Selinker (1992) argues, that learners find it easy to learn a language when structures and patterns in the two languages are similar and find it difficult to learn the new language when two languages differ. The study found out that since both languages belong to Bantu language group, there is a high degree of resemblance morpho- syntactically, thus, it becomes easier for the Nyakyusa speakers in Learning Kiswahili as their second language.

Recommendations

The study recommends that, since there is a good relation between Ethnic community languages (ECLs) being the first languages to most of the Tanzanians and Kiswahili as not only the second language but also the national language and the medium of instruction in primary schools; then, parents, teachers and other education stakeholders should not force children to abandon their first languages completely rather they should think on how these languages may be useful in learning Kiswahili as a second language.

For researchers, it is recommended that similar studies may be conducted to a larger area beyond the confines of the current study. This is because, due to limitation of resources in terms of funds and time, this study was conducted in Rungwe district involving only two wards. In addition, similar studies may also be conducted to other Ethnic community languages apart from the Nyakyusa language.

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