

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**THE EFFECTS OF L1-L2 TRANSFER AMONG STUDENTS: A CASE
STUDY OF AKATSI NO.2 JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL**



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MASTER OF EDUCATION

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**A dissertation in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Foreign
Languages Education and Communication submitted to the
School of Graduate Studies, in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the award of the degree of
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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Patience Yaa Duho, declare that this dissertation is a result of my original research except for references to other people's works which have been duly acknowledged and it has neither in whole nor in part been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Signature:

Date:

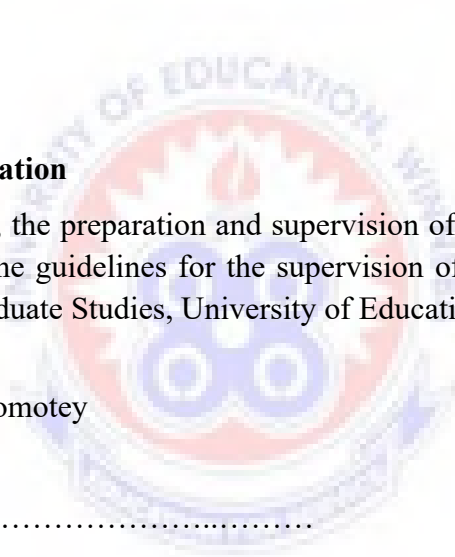
Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that, the preparation and supervision of this research work was done in accordance with the guidelines for the supervision of research work as laid down by the School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba.

Dr. Charlotte Fofu Lomotey

Signature:

Date:



DEDICATION

I dedicate this research project to my husband, my siblings and my children for their support and love.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to the Almighty God, for granting me the strength grace and favour in my quest for professional development. I attribute the success of this dissertation to my supervisor, Dr. Charlotte Fofu Lomotey. I also express my gratitude to Mr. Obed Acquah for typing my work. I cannot end without appreciating the generous gesture of my lecturers, Dr. Fofu Lomotey, Dr. Kwaku Ofori, Dr. Sefa Owusu and others, I say thank you for sharpening my skills in research writing and teaching. Finally, I wish to express my profound gratitude to my staff members, Ken, and all who in diverse ways contributed to the success of this project. May God bless you all.



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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of transfer of L1-L2 among students of Akatsi No.2 JHS. The target population was 75 students and 5 teachers. The study employed a qualitative approach through observation, interview and questionnaire. Data collected was analyzed using simple frequency tables and figures. The findings suggest that, students transfer knowledge from their L1 thus, Ewe to L2, which is English. It was realized that certain factors aid that transfer. Though transfer was not perfect, it seems to influence the maintenance of the mother tongue and the acquisition of the second languages among learners.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Ghana is a multilingual country but none of its numerous indigenous languages plays the role of an official language. The English language has taken up that role since the days of colonialism as it is used in governance, trade, law, education and as a *lingua franca* (Sey, 1973; Sackey, 2007; Adjaye, 2015). This can be attributed to the fact that Ghana is made up of so many ethnic groups so English has become a neutral language for communication. Agbedor (1994) talks about the start of formal (Western) education in Ghana thus, the castle schools in the 15th Century. Most of these schools were established by the European settlers to provide education for their Mulatto children and the children of wealthy Africans. The medium of instruction in those schools was English. When the Missionaries arrived in the Gold Coast, they also established schools to help in the propagation of the gospel. In those schools, the medium of instruction varied between English and the indigenous language of the area in which they found themselves. The Wesleyan Mission followed the steps of the then government by using English as the medium of instruction at the lower primary level (Sackey, 1997). However, the use of the indigenous Ghanaian language in a particular community as medium of instruction in schools was encouraged by the Basel and the Bremen Missions.

In multilingual societies, the issue of language of education has always been very complex and a source of worry to educators and educational planners because of the multi-ethnic and multilingual situation (Ouedraogo, 2000). When the official language of the nation is different from the indigenous languages, the situation becomes worse. It is, however, believed that the use of the mother tongue in education

cannot be downplayed because it serves as a medium through which conceptualization is built. The child, therefore, understands instruction better in the L1 as they prepare for progression to the second language. The mother tongue is the medium through which the culture of the people is better expressed for the child. To this end and as a way to showcase the importance of the mother tongue education in early childhood education, on 21st and 22nd February, of every year, International Mother Tongue Day is marked across the world (Abidogun & Adebule, 2013). According to Simpson (2017), the British Council believes in a mother-tongue based multilingual educational approach in low and middle-income countries. The Council posits that when students of these countries are taught in their mother-tongue or a familiar language, their understanding is enhanced and they are academically more successful.

The school curriculum should be accessible to students in their own language and English taught as a subject. The current language policy of education states that the medium of instruction for kindergarten and lower primary schools will be a Ghanaian language and English where necessary. English will, however, take over as medium of instruction from Primary Four (MOE, 2007). The process of successfully acquiring a second language requires a language learner to develop competence in the phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and lexicon of a non-native tongue. Particularly in the beginning stages of acquisition, language learners tend to rely on the structures of their native language (L1) when writing and speaking in the target language (L2).

The complexity of language transfer (LT) or cross-linguistic influence (CLI) partially explains the controversy that (Odlin, 2003) has complained on and consequently, its effects have been widely documented in SLA (Cook, 2003). The

study of transfer has enjoyed a central role in SLA research (Ortega, 2009) and attracted the interest of researchers over the last five decades (Cuza, 2012). Since the seminal work of Weinreich (1953), scholars in the fields of L2 acquisition (Gass & Selinker, 1992; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Liceras, 1989; Montrul & Slabakova, 2003; Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994) have been interested not only in examining what gets transferred but also in how the process works.

Firstly, during the early period of CAH, transfer indicated the psychological phenomenon that leads to transfer of structure from the mother tongue to the foreign language, due to the conditioning of previous habits on new habits. There are, therefore, several variations in the history of the concept of transfer, ranging from considering it an essential factor in the process of interlanguage (IL) construction of the L2 student (Lado, 1957), to the idea that transfer did not have much participation in the development of the IL (Dulay & Burt, 1974). IL studies showed that not all the errors were the result of linguistic interference, since in order to confidently talk of interference, the form produced in L2 must contain features of the L1 or another L2 previously studied. Additionally, factors such as overcorrection, incomplete application of the rules of the L2, or overgeneralization also accounted for a significant proportion of errors (VanPatten & Benati, 2010).

Andersen's (1983) proposal of 'transfer to somewhere' is one of the studies that tried to explain the conditions under which transfer might occur amongst students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School. According to him, transfer occurs when the element of L1 is compatible with the natural principles of acquisition and when the element of L2 leads to L1 generalizations. In the case of Ewe for instance, there is the SV and SVO structure among others in grammar as in English language. So, in this case, transfer of knowledge from L1-L2 will not be a problem to the learners.

Kellerman (1995) sees Andersen's proposal as incomplete, since it takes into account only those elements which are similar between L1 and L2. To complete it, he proposes his theory of 'transfer to nowhere', which stated that "there may be transfer that has nothing to do with the similarities with the L2 and where the operation of the L2 is not taken into account, that is, transfer to nowhere" (Kellerman, 1995, p. 137).

More so, in the field of applied linguistics, transfer is seen as a strategy of L2 learning in which students use prior L1 linguistic knowledge and apply it to their L2 language learning. This strategy can be an advantage, if the two languages have corresponding aspects, since there is the possibility of a direct transfer of the elements of the L1 to the IL of the student as seen earlier, resulting in what is commonly called positive transfer. However, cases of negative transfer are also given when the patterns of the two languages do not coincide (Arabiski, 2006) and the students transferred elements or structures of the L1 which do not correspond to the ones of the L2. To add to Arabiskis' view, (Ortega, 2009) affirm that more misleading similarities between L1 and L2 are the cause of learning difficulty.

Vázquez (1991), in the other hand agreed that relating similarity with easiness and difference with difficulty means adopting a simple attitude towards the complex process of learning L2. Also, (Galindo, 2004, p. 19) has indicated that not all errors were due to the negative transfer of elements and structures of the L1, but there are other factors that affect the learning of L2 like the mother tongue. Ellis (2008) supports the view that no learning theory can dismiss the action of transfer from the L1- L2. (Gabriele, 2010) research into language transfer and has seen the importance of L2 learners overcoming the effect of L1 that is an interference of the learners' mother tongue on the target learning.

The cognitive approach proved that, language transfer is the responsibility of the learner to decide what to transfer and what not to transfer into the L2 learning (Gass, 2000). In the same way, scholars have noticed the L1-L2 transfer as a strategy that the L2 learner uses in L2 acquisition (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Mahmoud, 2000; Mu & Carrington, 2007; Wolfersberger, 2003). Therefore, Schachter (1983) pointed out that transfer is a strategy, with the learner playing a constructive role in the whole process. A means by which he, the learner can easily adapt to rules and learn the second language with ease.

As Mahmoud (2000) pointed out, when L2 learners attempt to compose a written piece, they might use transfer as a tool to learn or as a means to convey their meaning; they may use it to formulate ideas about target language and to test those ideas. Many of the composing strategies are the same in the L1 and the L2, and thus, L2 learners may be able to transfer those from their L1 to the L2 writing. For example, learners who have already learned how to plan, develop ideas, revise, and edit their writing in their L1 may use the same strategies when they are composing in their L2 (Cumming, 1990; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989). Of course, for such composing strategies to be successfully carried over to the L2, L2 learners are required to have an adequate level of proficiency in the target language. The researcher has noticed that students' who are above average academically, easily employed all the structural features as well as the knowledge of the L1 into the L2 usage with ease which is a sign of positive transfer but those who are not academically inclined even in the L1 display the negative transfer of knowledge. This research deemed it necessary to identify all the factors that come to play in the L1-L2 transfer.

1.2 Statement of the problem

This study focuses on transfer of L1-L2 with specific reference to Ewe as (L1) and English as (L2). This study seeks to find out the components of the L1 that the students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School use interchangeably in their daily writing of L2, namely English. It further seeks to find out what factors leads to this transfer. The research hopes to seek further understanding regarding the theoretical debate on inter-language influence. I decided to embark on this study as a language teacher in this school; thus, English and Ewe. Through my interaction with students, I found that these students always had the tendency to answer English questions in Ewe orally before trying to say or write it in English. As they tried to answer in English, they usually resorted to using the direct translation method. I observed that whenever they did this, their answers were heavily influenced by their mother tongue, both phonologically and grammatically.

These are the questions that this study sorts to find and make the necessary recommendation to minimize it. There is no single way in which learners can acquire knowledge of a second language (L2). There are many factors that contribute to SLA. Different learners in different situations learn L2 in different ways. Second language acquisition refers to all the aspects of language that the language learner needs to master. However, the focus for example has been on how L2 learners acquire knowledge in the L2 without any transfer; and if any, what effect will it have on the learner performance in the L2? Ewe language has a great deal in common to English language which enables us to transfer and translate from one language to another without much difficulty. Nevertheless, there are some dissimilarities too which may lead to interference with the second language.

1.3 Research objectives

This study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To establish the means by which Akatsi No. 2 JHS students use L2.
2. To explore the challenges faced by students of Akatsi No.2 JHS in L1-L2 transfer.
3. To establish ways of minimizing student difficulties in L1 - L2 transfer.

1.4 Research questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the ways in which students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School students use the L2?
2. What are the challenges faced by the students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School in L1-L2 transfer?
3. In what ways can the difficulties faced by students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School in L1- L2 transfer be minimized?

1.5 Significance of the study

There is a wider concern of parents, teachers, stakeholders in education, government and students at large about proficiency in the English language as a lingua franca in dealing with day to day interactions. As a nation, we have to accept the significance of L1 in L2 acquisition in order to forge ahead. The result of this study aims to assist all those who have interest in the teaching and learning of English language to identify the effects of L1-L2 transfer so as to use the right approaches in teaching the English language. Teachers of English, especially those in the basic school will benefit more from this study since their students are in the formative stages of development and teaching them to overcome language deficiency will be

easy. Findings will also help teachers adopt the right methods of teaching that would improve student's performance and proficiency in the language. Curriculum planners will be able to get a clearer picture of the scenario that takes place in the teaching of L2 in Ghanaian schools and adapt the curriculum accordingly.

1.6 Assumptions of the study

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) assert that an assumption is what one takes as true without proof. The researcher had the following assumptions: It was assumed that students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School transfer L1 knowledge into L2 language learning. Also, the researcher assumed that, there is a structural similarity between the students L1 and L2 and other factors which is aiding the transfer. Furthermore, the researcher assumed that, the L1-L2 transfer has an underlining cause and effect on the students' performance in the English language as L2. The researcher again assumed there could be away to minimize any negative influence of transfer on students' language learning. Finally, the researcher assumed that all the respondents to the study would cooperate and provide reliable responses.

1.7 Limitations

This study has been designed to cater for Akatsi No.2 Junior High School students on language transfer. A lot of factors were identified as causes of L1-L2 transfer amongst students. Some of these are; the native language interference, the environment and their poor linguistic competencies. This study was limited in scope as a result of limited opportunities to practice for perfection in L2 learning among the students. It would have been ideal to cover at least one-half of Junior High Schools in the Akatsi South District to ascertain the trend of L1-L2 transfer but due to time factor, it could not be so. Time factor was another constraint for this study as the

researcher has to carry out this research alongside the professional work and other responsibilities.

1.8 Delimitation

The scope of this work is the students of Akatsi No.2 JHS in the Akatsi North District Assembly. The rationale for restricting herself to this school was that for some students, Junior High School serves as a terminal point in their formal education, despite the public campaign on education. Some may leave after the three years to continue their education at the secondary levels while others would learn a trade or a vocation. This means this stage is very crucial and needs proper attention. The research also covered that aspect of English language study since transfer plays a vital role in the communication of an individual. There are many aspects of the English Language but the focus of this work is on language transfer. The other aspects include; essay, literature, and oral skills. The researcher also narrowed it to one aspect because of the unfavorable and general comments of the Chief Examiners of West African Examination Council on difficulty in lexis and structure as well as transliterations in the writing of BECE Candidates.

1.9 Organization of the study

The reset of the study is organized as follows: Chapter 2 looks at the related literature of the study; factors contributing to L1-L2 transfer and types of transfer. Chapter 3 is on methodology. It looks at the procedures adopted in collecting data. Data presentation, results and analysis are dealt with in Chapter 4. The final chapter, Chapter 5, provides summary, recommendations and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the historical review and related literature on language transfer. Thus, L1 to L2 transfer amongst learners of English as a second language. The literature review seeks to identify what scholars say about the possible factors leading to language transfer and types of language transfer.

2.1 Historical review and current understanding of language transfer

Language is a process rather than a product, and it is the most important of all symbolic tools. As all tools, language is used to create thought but is also transformed to create sources of learning (Ortega 2009). Sociocultural approach to SLA indicates that, L2 acquisition is not something that people make happen through intentional social interaction and co-construction but it is based upon a reflected knowledge. Language itself is considered a complex social practice through which relationships are defined, negotiated and build. Consequently, (Lado, 1957) states that individuals tend to transfer the form of meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak or write the language and to act in the culture; and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives.

2.1.1 Factors leading to language transfer

In the field of applied linguistics, transfer refers to a strategy of L2 learning in which students use prior L1 linguistic knowledge and apply it to the language they are learning. This strategy can be an advantage if the two languages have common

corresponding aspect, since there is the possibility of a direct transfer of elements of L1 to the interlanguage of the student, which is L2 resulting in what is commonly known as positive transfer. However, cases of negative transfer can occur when the patterns of the languages coincide and the student transferred elements of L1 do not correspond to that of the L2 (Arabski, 2006). Notwithstanding, it was assumed that the greater the structural differences between languages (L1 and L2), the greater the difficulty in the acquisition process since possibility of positive transfer is lower (Fernandez Gonzalez, 1995). Also, (Ortega, 2009) affirms that, not only differences, but more often misleading similarities between L1 and L2 are the root of confirmed learning difficulties.

Contrary, Vazquez (1991) indicates that relating similarity with easiness and difference with difficulty implies adopting a simple attitude towards the complex process of learning. It was also proven that, many errors that emanate from interference were similar to those that children commit in the acquisition of the mother tongue indicating that not all errors were due to the negative transfer of elements and structures of the L1, that is, there are other factors that affect the learning of L2 (Galindo, 2004). Furthermore, some scholars disagree on the influence of L1 on L2 learning. This was a move to do away with the behaviorist theory of learning that considered interference as a key element to explain the interlanguage (Liceras, 1991). However, that notion has changed and the focus of researchers once more rests on the role of the L1 in learning L2 based on studies which confirmed that students used their knowledge in L1 as well as any previous language knowledge in an attempt to facilitate the L2 learning process (Ringbom, 1987).

In a similar view, Ellis (2008) states that no learning theory can dismiss the action of transfer from L1 to L2. Nevertheless, it has been noted that the old

behaviorist concept of transfer as negative interference of acquired habits from the L1 on L2 learning has moved to a broader conception of cross-linguistic influence, which includes both negative aspects (interference) and positive indicators. Also, it was proven that L2 student resorted not only to the L1, but also to other languages that had been previously studied in an attempt to facilitate the process of language learning (Sharwood Smith & Kellerman, 1986).

More so, (Corder, 1971, 1981; Ellis, 1985; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Odlin, 1989; Richards, 1974) agreed that any feature of the L1 can be transferred to the language to be learnt, and thus the transfer can occur at all the linguistic levels: phonological, lexical, syntactical and semantic. Nonetheless, in trying to define transfer (Amaral & Roeper, 2014) agreed that it is a complex phenomenon with different ramification. Transfer refers not only to the negative influence on L2 learning interference but also to its positive facilitation (Cuza, 2012). Language transfer is best regarded as a term for a whole class of behavior processes and constraints which has to do with cross-linguistic influence. Thus influence and use of prior linguistic knowledge, usually but not only L1 knowledge (Selinker, 1992). Again, Odlin (1989, p. 27) gave a vivid description of language transfer as “the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target and any other language that has been previously and imperfectly acquired.

2.1.1.1 Mother tongue influence

Gabriele (2010) is of the view that the influence of learners' L1 is one of the main factors to consider in second language acquisition. Thus, language transfer is how L2 learners overcome the effect of L1 influence. In the last two decades, researchers have taken different views about the role of L1 in second language acquisition (Butler & Hakuta, 2006). It was believed that L1 had initial influence over

L2 acquisition. According to (Ringbom & Jarvis, 2009) learners of L2 tend to transfer the similarities of the L1 and other language learnt previously to the new language learning. Also, more focus is laid on the differences and similarities between languages. Montrul (2010) affirms that L2 learners completely transfer their knowledge of L1 in grammar to the L2 acquisition task which is a fact especially in the case where the grammatical structure and rules of the learner L1 is the same or almost similar to the target language which is English in the case of this study.

It is however believed that, the use of the mother tongue in education cannot be downplayed because it serves as a medium through which conceptualization is built. The child, therefore, understands instruction better in the L1 as he or she prepares for progression to the second language. The mother tongue is the medium through which the culture of the people is better expressed for the child. To this end and as a way to showcase the importance of the mother tongue education in early childhood education, February 21st to 22nd of every year is used to mark the International Mother Tongue Day across the world (Abidogun & Adebule, 2013).

According to Simpson (2017), the British Council believes in a mother tongue based multilingual educational approach in low and middle-income countries which Ghana is one. The Council posits that when students of these countries are taught in their mother-tongue or a familiar language, their understanding is enhanced and they are academically more successful. So, to internalize this advice by the British council, the school curriculum should be accessible to students in their own language and English taught as a subject. To the British Council, the use of English at the primary schools in low or middle-income countries does not yield any good result. Based on this vision, the current educational policy in Ghana is to use Ghanaian language as a medium of instruction from kindergarten to Lower Primary where English will be

taught as a subject. Then, from Upper Primary to the tertiary level, English is used as a medium of instruction; with this policy, in fact, pupils at the lower primary were able to read and write in the Ghanaian language. In this case, knowledge acquired from the scratch can easily be transferred to any second language acquisition because conceptualization of language has taken firm root in the learner.

In other views about language transfer, some L2 constructions are easier while others seem more difficult to acquire when compared with L1. L1-L2 transfer help in L2 acquisition in some cases. This depends on the structure of the languages. For instance, an L2 study that is particularly difficult to learn is grammatical gender also called noun classes; a lexical property of nouns (Sabourin, Stowe & de Haan, 2004). In this case, knowledge of the L1 especially Ewe in regard to this study can often have a positive impact on the learning of L2 since they have similar structures that can help the learner (Ortega, 2009). As (Bennet & Progovac, 1998; Cook, 1990; Finer & Broselow, 1986; Hirakawa, 1990; Lakshmanan & Teranishi, 1994; Thomas, 1993) pointed out, the significant effect of L1 on the construction of L2 grammar has a little effect. The reason for the conflicting ideas may be that not all learners transfer L1 information to their studies. For instance, Cook (1990) provides evidence of L1 from Japanese learners and did not find much evidence of language transfer from Norwegian learners. Another possible reason for the inconclusive result is that L1 occurs mostly with less proficient learners.

However, Ellis (1997; p.51) refers to interference as transfer of L1 which the learner exerts over the acquisition of L2. He argues that transfer controlled by the learners' perception about what is transferable at that stage of development of L2 learning is, the learner constructs his own interim rules with the use of his L1 knowledge when he realized it will help him in learning task and he becomes

sufficiently perfect in the L2 for possible transfer (Ellis, 1997; Seliger, 1988; Selinker, 1972). A study by Jarvis (2000) investigated the use of the English article system. A study conducted in Finland with finish-dominated and Swedish dominant students learning English Language revealed that L1 influence from Swedish aided the Finland swedes with a total advantage in accuracy of the use of “the” and “ zero” article over Finish speaking learners. This advantage of proficiency was noticed after some years of study in L2 instruction. The rule and the use of “the and zero” article in English language perfectly apply in Ewe as well, but in case of common nouns, the position changes. In Ewe, “the-a” occurs at the end of the noun it is qualifying. Example; *Atia-the tree*; so, the learners easily make transfer of the L1 knowledge into the acquisition of the L2 with ease.

However, studies on competences concluded that students with low competence tend to transfer more elements of their L1 to the target language than more advanced students (Celaya, M.L. 2007; Celaya & Toras, 2001; Woodall, 2002). But another school of thought indicates that, the influence of the L1 increases throughout the development of the interlanguage. That is to say, the more competent the students are the more transfer they made regarding especially the number of borrowing (Sanz, 2000). With these, one may ask if transfer increases or decreases. But some says the process of language transfer fluctuates towards a specific direction (Engber, 1995, Jarvis, 1998). With all these contradictory results, Jarvis (2000) questioned whether all these studies are assessing the same phenomena and suggest that specific methodological approaches for the study of lexical transfer need to be established.

In the domain of morphology, Navaro & Nicladis (2005) investigated the extent at which L1 transfer occurs in oral narrations of learners of Spanish with

English. The analysis focused on the types of verbs the participant used and the results showed that the students followed the pattern of their L1 in various aspects of the verb usage. Also, the study by (Phillips, 2007) had similar results regarding the use of types of verbs. From the above investigation, learners of Ewe and English use the types of verbs in their L1 in oral narration; be it transitive or intransitive with ease. Ellis (1985) describes the importance that L1 has in acquiring a foreign language and mentioned that the learners' L1 is an important determinant of second language acquisition but the extent at which it is used cannot be identified as there may be other contributing factors.

For decades, the phenomenon of language transfer has been a focus of second language acquisition. Historically, the study of language transfer has experienced three stages: the first stage is from 1950s to 1960s, when the study of language transfer was strongly influenced by behaviorism. At that time, version of contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) asserted that through careful comparison of the native language (NL) and target language (TL), the difficulties in TL acquisition could be predicted. The strong version of CAH was proved to be unable to fulfill what it had claimed to do. However, with the growing criticism of behaviorism, CAH received strong caution especially from mentalists during the late 1960s. Afterwards, the study of language transfer entered into the second stage up to 1970s. During that period, under the influence of Chomsky's UG (universal grammar) theory, and with the revolutionary studies conducted by Dulay and Burt, the role of language transfer in the process of L2 (second language) acquisition was considered to be trivial. The third period of language transfer study, from 1980s up to date, is marked by the introduction of multidisciplinary perspectives into the field of SLA (second language

acquisition) research. Consequently, the understanding toward the language transfer phenomenon has been deepened.

Now, as pointed out by Selinker (1992), the consensus view of language transfer is that it is not an “all or nothing” phenomenon. Actually, transfer has been regarded as a very broad concept of cross-linguistic influence not confined within the scope of L1 and L2. Odlin (1989) has proposed a working definition of transfer. He said, transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously and perhaps imperfectly acquired. Similarly, Selinker (1992) has concluded that language transfer is best thought of as a cover term for a whole class of behaviors, processes and constraints, each of which has to do with CLI (cross linguistic influence), the influence and use of prior linguistic knowledge, usually but not exclusively NL (native language) knowledge. This knowledge intersects with input from the TL (target language) and with universal properties of various sorts in a selective way to help build IL (interlanguage). Besides the mother tongue influence on L1-L2 transfer, there are other factors that lead to L1-L2 transfer. These factors may be seen as follows:

2.1.1.2 The age factor

Every age in language learning has its advantages and disadvantages. While young children learning second language may find it easier than teenagers and adults, the latter learners can make use of other learning strategies and approach the task of learning a language in a different way. There is this fallacy that, older second language learners are less successful due to developmental changes taking place in the brain. Based on this assertion, Lenneberg (1967) states that there is a biologically significant difference between young and adult learners of second language. He

further argues that “foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty”, a claim which has been tested and supported many times since then. But whether pronunciation is the only factor subject to a critical period is more uncertain even though many people learn second languages in adulthood. Scovel (2000) reviews literature on the critical period for SLA and concludes that, there is no agreement on whether or not morphology and syntax are also affected by the age factor. Nevertheless, the idea that age affects all areas of SLA is prevalent in the media, thus giving rise to the slogan, “the younger the better” view (Lightbown & Spada 1999, p.67). So, Scovel (2000) Critical Period Hypothesis of applied linguistics has influenced language teaching methods especially, planning of language teaching in many countries to cater for any deficiency the learner may face as a result of age factor.

2.1.1.3 Learning environment

There are many ways to come into contact with a second language. Some people learn it because they move to another community, town or country and associate with people of a different cultural background, thereby gradually beginning to understand and be able to use an extra language. In that case, they learn this extra or new language in a natural setting. However, in the case of English as a second language, most of us learn it in the classroom. Pertaining to this research, the classroom is the immediate environment that most students learn English as a second language because, the home and the community at large is dominated of the learners L1.

The English as a second language in this community can be rated as just 2%. So, most influence is in the classroom. In view of this, Hawkins (2001) questions whether the language acquisition setting really makes any difference in the long run.

He further argues that the difference in types of input from the environment has little effect on how the learner's language develops (Hawkins 2001, p.18-24). Hawkins (2001) refers to studies asserting showing that learners of German acquire word-order patterns in the same order regardless of whether they learn it in or out of the classroom. Hawkins (2001, p.24) has however suggests that, enhanced input in classroom situations may speed up the process of acquisition and, as one might expect, and it will in turn affect performance as measured in grammar tests and other metalinguistic tasks because transfer from naturalistic environment cannot affect classroom studies.

However, Ellis (1990, p. 2) defines the difference between the two learning situations socio-linguistically in terms of domains affected by factors of location, participants, topics and purposes. As a result of these factors, the input available to the learner in the two situations is most likely different. Learning in a naturalistic environment entails listening to all sorts of language samples often from native speakers of the language. On the one hand, this input will be varied in terms of vocabulary and structures, as the learner will hear many different people speak about many different topics. On the other hand, this input will naturally include slips of tongue, unfinished sentences, non-standard language use among others.

On the basis of this unstructured input, the learner will then draw their own conclusions without explicitly being taught what is right and wrong. Meanwhile, the learner in a classroom is likely to be exposed to language which is somewhat simplified or modified by the teacher, as they will often try to start from scratch with very simple syntactic constructions. Furthermore, the learner will most often receive lots of explicit instruction on the sounds, word formation principles and syntactic structures of the language. The instruction often focuses on the conscious learning of

the language in the form of various exercises, drills, translations and many more to avert any ungrammatical construction that the learner might be exposed to in the natural setting. How much emphasis is placed on this explicit and conscious focus on form depends on the language teaching approach underlying the activities in the classroom. The input available to the learner in the classroom certainly will not be faultless since other learners are likely to produce language with all sorts of errors that would hardly be found in a naturalistic setting. The learner in a classroom setting is exposed to the language only for short periods of time, while in a naturalistic setting the learner will often be exposed to language input for hours a day. The opinion is widespread that learning in a naturalistic setting is better than learning in the classroom (Lightbown & Spada 1999, p. 91).

2.1.1.4 Linguistic factors

2.1.1.4.1 Language distance

It has long been noted that the linguistic differences between L1 and L2 will bring difficulties in the acquisition of L2. Lado (1957) has proposed the CAH (contrastive analysis hypothesis) in which the predicted positive transfer and negative transfer in L2 learning process are solely based on the structural relationship between the languages in comparison. Yet numerous facts indicating that the difficulties predicted by the CAH do not prove to be difficulties at all has aroused strong criticism on CAH. Today, there have been an objective view toward the difference between two languages, as Ellis (1994, p.338) has noted, “language distance can affect L2 learning both positively and negatively”. Scholars have detected the different manifestations of the result of L1 transfer, with some of them very glaring and some hard to identify.

For instance, Ringbom (1978) and Sjöholm (1995) have concluded that the acquisition of lexis appears to be facilitated if the L1 and L2 are related languages.

Another example came from Schachter (1974), who has found that Chinese and Japanese learners of L2 English made fewer errors in their use of relative clauses than Persian or Arabic learners because they produced far fewer clauses overall thus L1 transfer is manifested in terms of communication or learning strategies adopted by L2 learners. All these evidence indicate that a native-target language comparison is nonetheless an important preliminary step to understand language transfer. That is, if the features of the L1 are not of a much difference to the L2 of the learner, transfer become positive but where the structure difference is great, then negative transfer will occur.

2.1.1.1.2 Language universal: markedness

Ellis (1994) suggests that the transferability of different features of a language depends on their intensity of markedness. Markedness, according to Ellis, refers to the idea that some linguistic structures are “special” or “less natural” or “less basic” than others. There are basically two approaches to the definition of markedness. One is derived from Chomsky’s UG (universal grammar theory), the other is originated from the study of typology initiated by Greenberg. Chomsky distinguishes core rules of a language from those that are peripheral. According to him, core rules are those that can be arrived at through the application of general, abstract principles of language structures, which he believes to be innate; peripheral rules are those not governed by universal principles, they are unique in a specific language. While the core rules are unmarked, the peripheral rules are marked.

Empirical studies of L2 acquisition based on the definition of markedness within the UG framework have generated divergent results. Ellis attributes such separating results to the lack of consensus about the details of the theory, and suggests

that it is premature to reach any conclusion as to whether markedness, as defined by the theory of UG, is a relevant factor in L2 acquisition.

Another definition of markedness, which has been widely used by scholars to explain L1 transfer phenomenon, comes from the study of language typology. According to Ellis (1994) the broad claim of the definition is that those features that are universal to appear in most language are unmarked; they are generally accepted, while those that are specific to a particular language or found only in a few languages are marked. Such an understanding of markedness indicates that markedness is better to be understood as a relative concept. There may be few absolute universal, but universal tendencies may be more common.

For instance, the second person singular pronoun “he/she” is unmarked in English as a second language as it shows gender, and it is generally accepted; but in Ewe, ‘e’ which is a second person singular is marked such that it may refer to a female or male. There is no distinction in its use unless in sentence. In this situation, the learner knowing this difference will apply it accordingly. The markedness theory is useful for the understanding of L1 transfer phenomenon. But it is not a perfect theory free of deficiency. One of the problems of the theory, as pointed out by Ellis is the vagueness of the concept which sometimes makes it difficult to determine which features are marked in relation to others. Ellis goes on to suggest that the concept could be more precise if it is defined with reference to native speakers’ own perception of the structure. As indicated by Kasper and Faerch (1987), language transfer starts in the minds of the learner. Hence, psychological and social-psychological dimensions will be taken into consideration as factors affecting language transfer.

2.1.1.4.3 Psycholinguistic factors

While commenting on CAH, Long and Sato (1984) have pointed out that the scholars of CAH have attempted to yield meaningful insight into a psycholinguistic process, that is L2 learning based solely on an analysis of product. This comment indicates that the language transfer is more of a psychological problem than of a linguistic one. As Ellis has suggested, current definitions of the term “transfer” allow psycholinguistic L1 effects, thus any discussion of L1 transfer without addressing the psychological aspect of it as incomplete. Here we will focus on the two psycholinguistic factors: Prototypicality and Psychotypology. Kellerman is among the first to address the psychological aspect of L1 transfer phenomenon. In a series of studies, he demonstrated that native speakers’ intuition about semantic space can be used to predict transferability. He proposed the term “prototypicality” to refer to the perceptions that learners have regarding the structure of their own languages: A feature is marked if it is perceived as infrequent, irregular, semantically or structurally opaque, or in any other ways exceptional. Such perceptions will in turn lead them to treat some structures as transferable and others as non-transferable. Based on this, a hierarchy of psychological “markedness” is possible. Actually, as indicated by Kasper and Faerch (1987), the degree of markedness of an L1 feature is an important factor in determining whether this feature is considered transferable.

Though the conclusion of Kellerman seems to be persuasive, the weakness of this approach is obvious, as pointed out by Ellis (1994; p.327). Following this approach, one cannot tell learners’ judgments about what can be done accurately reflect what they actually do when using the L1 on L2 or not. That is to say, “translatability” does not necessarily equal to “transferability. Later, Kellerman (1979) proposed the concept of psychotypology, claiming that learners’ perception of

the distance between their native language and the target language could be a crucial factor in determining whether they transfer or not. Kellerman (1979) argues that learners' psychotypology is not fixed; rather, it is revised as they obtain more information about the target language.

2.1.1.4.4 Sociolinguistic factors

In as much as we have discussed linguistic and psycholinguistic factors that are conducive or prohibitive to the phenomenon of language transfer, a discussion could never be sufficient so long as transfer manifests in communicative interaction. It has been argued that interlanguage is characterized by viability, and that viability is systematic, corresponding to contextually determined variability in the native language. If that is true, then the question followed would be how different interlanguage varieties are activated in different contexts. Tarone suggests that L2 learners' performance constitutes a continuum in accordance with different contexts with the "vernacular" at one hand of the continuum and the "careful" style at the other. Her study indicates that, learners' performance tends to converge to target language norms when the "careful" style is adopted and their performance tend to deviate from TL norms when the "vernacular" style is adopted.

Research conducted by Odlin (1989) and Tarone (1983) suggest that L1 transfer is connected with different contexts, thus relating to different IL varieties. However, their conclusions seem to be the same with each other as to suggest under what contexts to which extent transfer would occur. Odlin (1989) has argued that native transfer is less likely in focused contexts, where there is concern to maintain the standard of languages than in unfocused contexts. For example, he suggests that negative transfer is more likely to occur off class than in class. While he approaches the sociolinguistic factor on transfer from a macro-sociolinguistic perspective, that is,

how external environments exert different demands on language learners in terms of “standard”, Tarone (1983) takes micro-sociolinguistic ideas, that is, how learners adapt their performance to fulfill different communication tasks in accordance with different external environments. She argues that L1 transfer is likely to be more evident in learners’ careful style than in their vernacular style because, they are more likely to make use of all their potential resources, including L1 knowledge.

Obviously, Odlin’s position is in contradiction to that of Tarone’s. Ellis has pointed out the danger of discussing the influence that sociolinguistic factors have on language transfer in terms of solely micro or solely macro ideas. Instead, he suggests that it is necessary to take into account of both internal and external norms that learners need to conform in various context. But, Ellis comment is a pertinent one, it does not seem to be a very practical one – the relative weight perceived by individuals may differ from one person to another, and also from one context to another. Further, it may also involve other factors such as social-psychological consideration which will be discussed below, or personality orientation, thus making the analysis of L1 transfer fairly complex. Investigation to the interplay of different factors determining L1 transfer is thus in need.

2.1.1.4.5 Social-psychological factors

The term social-psychological is different from the term social-linguistic, although the two are clearly related to each other. Social-psychological factors in many cases are value-laden; therefore, it operates at a deeper level than socio-linguistic factors. The manifestations of the influences of socio-psychological factors on L2 speakers’ behavior are strategic in nature. In this sense, it could be said that some of the socio-psychological factors are strategic factors, which incorporate both learning and communication aspects. From the discussion above, social-psychological

factors are more than strategic factors. Kasper and Faerch (1987) has proposed three social-psychological factors which lead L2 speakers not to produce as correct a variety of their IL as cognitively and linguistically possible in a given situation. In fact, the social-psychological factors proposed by Kasper and Faerch is better to be understood as an enlarged and deepened discussion of what Tarone has labeled as micro-sociolinguistic perspective. The three factors are: group solidarity, foreigner role, and marking origin.

The group solidity - A strong sense of group solidity in L2 speech community would lead L2 speakers to retain in their IL features of their social or ethnic identity. Group solidity results in divergent behavior because of a desire to distance oneself from ones' interlocutor. The second type of factor is foreigner role. While the maintenance of group solidarity is meant to protect L2 speakers' own values from being questioned in the TL community, the assumption of the foreigner role is meant to protect themselves from being judged on the basis of native-speaker norms and expectations, and therefore creating a positive learning environment for L2 acquisition and L2 communication as well. The third type of factors is marking origin. As indicated by Kasper and Faerch, this is rather a special case of L1 transfer within a socio-psychological perspective because, it occurs when commodities in a broadest possible sense of the term originating in one culture are being transposed to a different culture. It is interesting to note from the above discussion that L2 speakers influenced by socio-psychological factors tend to transfer in a conscious manner, while under the influence of other factors discussed before such as language universal and psychotypology, L2 speakers are inclined to transfer in a subconscious manner.

2.1.1.4.6 Individual differences

The preceding discussion of L1 transfer is carried out at the collective level rather than at the individual level, that is, we have focused on the behavior of a group, instead of single L2 speakers. Many scholars have noticed individual differences in L2 acquisition. However, Odlin has reminded us of the fact that the manifestation of transfer can vary from one learner to the next, even if some kinds of transfer is likely to show in the second language performance of most learners. Thus, any discussion of L1 transfer will not be sufficient without giving any consideration to individual differences. Odlin acknowledges that some, if not all, personality difference tend to increase or decrease the likelihood of transfer. He summarizes, based on studies of Schachter, Kleinmann, and Guiora (1972), that anxiety and empathy are two personality characteristics that seem to interact with transfer. It has been observed that those who are more sensitive to anxiety tend to avoid unfamiliar structures of the TL, thus, they may resort more to their native language than their counterparts who are less susceptible to anxiety.

While the difference in the susceptibility of anxiety could explain whether individual L2 speakers would use a specific TL structure, the varied degree of empathy among L2 learners may account for the varying degrees of success that individuals have in approximating native-like proficiency. Results of Guiora's (1972) study of the L2 pronunciation has suggested that, individual differences in the ability to approximate native-like pronunciation should reflect individual differences in the flexibility of psychic processes, or more specifically, in the empathetic capacity. It is likely to follow Kellermans' characterization that if learners are more aware of their own cultures and linguistic norms, they would allow or retain more transfer from their native language to their IL than learners who have less awareness of their own

cultural and linguistic norms, and vice versa. It is thus possible the less an individual learner can feel emotionally inside the target language speech community, the more likely they would manifest L1 transfer.

2.1.1.4.7 Developmental factors

Corder (1978) considers the acquisition of L2 as a restructuring process with features gradually replacing that of L1. It follows that negative transfer is more evident at the beginning stage, and such a position is supported by the studies of Major (1992) concerning L2 phonology acquisition. However, as Ellis (1994) has noted, not all errors in early interlanguage are traceable for transfer. Many are intra-lingual and resemble those found in L1 acquisition. Also, some error traceable to L1 influence only comes out at later stages of development. Further, it is not necessary that transfer errors which appear at an early stage of development are subsequently eliminated. Whereas some researchers have suggested that transfer is more associated with early stages of L2 acquisition, others have argued that learners may need to reach a certain stage of development before transfer of some L1 properties become possible. Ellis (1997) has found it clearly evident in the way learners acquire speech acts like requests, apologies, and refusals. Learners do not first transfer their L1 speech-act strategies but, instead, rely on a few simple formulas. Later, however, as learners' L2 proficiency develops, they try to find ways of performing speech acts that goes with L1 forms.

There is growing evidence suggesting that the L1 and developmental factor work together in determining the course of interlanguage or, as Zobl (1980) has noted, transfer is selective along the developmental axis. Ellis (1994) indicates the selectivity is evident in three ways:

1. the effect of the L1 only become evident when the learner has reached a stage of development that makes transfer possible
2. development may be retarded when a universal transitional structure arising naturally in early interlanguage corresponds to an L1 structure
3. development may be accelerated when an early transitional structure is not reinforced by the corresponding L2 structure

It is clear that transfer interacts with natural principle of L2 acquisition, sometimes occurring early or late, can retard or accelerate natural development.

2.1.1.4.8 Frequency of input

Research has proven that the frequency use of L2 relate to its acquisition. Thus, the frequency hypothesis states that the order of L2 acquisition is determined by the frequency with which different linguistic items occur in the input. As noted by Ellis (1994), the frequency hypothesis is meant to deal with the relationship between input and accuracy, and the justification of the hypothesis is based on the assumption that the order of accuracy equals to that of acquisition. While the underlying assumption of the frequency has been subjected to question on one hand, results of researches conducted under the theoretical framework have also indicated divergent results. As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) has noted, there exist preliminary data supporting a frequency effect. Ellis (1994, p.271) holds the similar view and further suggests that “it is possible that frequency may be more important at some stages of acquisition for example, elementary, than others, but no clear conclusion is possible on the basis of these divergent studies”.

Another newly developed theory, which is fundamentally different from the frequency hypothesis, the PDP (Parallel Distributed Processing) model, or the connectionist theory, based on probabilistic patterns, has offered us a new perspective

to understand the role of input frequency in L2 learning. Scholars of the connectionist theory assert that the brains of human beings are endowed with the inclination of searching and establishing connections between different things. The nerve fibers inside the brain are connected with each other to form a network. The connections between the nerve fibers will gradually be strengthened if it receives incessant activation, weakened if little activation is assigned to that connection. The learning process is the one in which the weight of the connections between the network is gradually altered; learning process is not the one that is abstract but rules are gradually established.

According to the connectionist theory, language learners will notice the regularities in the TL input, that is, they will notice that some elements or phenomena occur more frequently than others. After this, language learners will be able to abstract probabilistic patterns from TL input. The probabilistic patterns will gradually be strengthened for repeated activation, thereby making language acquisition made possible. With such an idea, it seems to be true that the so called rules or principles of a language are actually operating on the basis of probability. The more frequent a feature occurs in TL input, the easier it is to be acquired. Following the connectionist theory, it seems to be safe to conclude that L1 constitutes one of the major difficulties of L2 acquisition. Further, L1 transfer could thus be viewed as a consequence of the activation of L1 probabilistic patterns triggered by L2 input.

2.2 Classification of transfer

Ideally, detailed classification of language transfer will be presented in this section taking into account several factors such as positive and negative transfer, directionality of transfer, effects of transfer and levels of language at which the transfer occurs.

2.2.1 Directionality

First and foremost, directionality emphasized that cross-linguistic influence does not limit the study of the impact of L1 on L2 only since it seems too narrow to assume that it is only L1 which influences L2 (Moattarian, 2013). As a result, a distinction was made by (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008) as follows:

- ✓ Forward transfer (L1 - L2); thus L1 having some kind of effect on L2 that was later learnt (Jarvis, 2002).

As noted earlier, it has been suggested that an important requirement for the success of L1-based strategies in the L2 is having enough L2 proficiency. Recently, a number of studies have investigated this issue to find out what effects language proficiency has on the use of L1-based strategies in L2 writing. Wang and Wen's (2002) study is one of those, which investigated how ESL and EFL students use their L1 while composing in their L2 and how such L1 use is affected by L2 proficiency and writing tasks.

Wolfersberger (2003) investigated the degree to which low-level L2 proficiency writers transferred their composing processes and strategies from L1 writing to L2 writing. Participants were 3 native Japanese speakers from an intensive English program in the U.S. The researchers collected six think-aloud protocols while the subjects composed essays in Japanese and, then, in English. In two composing sessions, individual participants wrote an essay while thinking aloud. In the first session, participants wrote a Japanese essay and in the second session they wrote an English essay. The sessions were video and audio taped. It was found that, while some L1 strategies were transferred to the L2 writing processes, the learners struggled in utilizing all strategies that could have helped them in their writing process in the L2.

- ✓ Reverse transfer; that is if the influence occurs in the opposite direction like L2 - L1 (Andrews, 1999; cook, 2003; Kecskes & Papp, 2000; Major, 1992; Pavlenko, 2000; Pavlenko & Jarvis, 2002)
- ✓ Lateral transfer (L2 - L3); thus transfer between two L2s of two L1 as first documented by Ringbom (1987).

2.2.2 L2 Proficiency and L1 transfer

From the above directionality, it can be seen that L1 was considered a static entity compared to the changing L2. In recent years, there has been a growing interest in research that focused on different forms of directionality as presented in the above categories. Also, short-term studies analyzing a particular phenomenon indicate that the dynamic nature of multilingual system can be complicated (Gabrys-Barker & Wojtaszek, 2014). Actually, cross-linguistic interaction is dynamic and unpredictable especially interference, because transfer is more regular and its source is often difficult to establish (Grosjean, 2012; Herdian & Jessner, 2002).

Consequently, cross-linguistic influence is often bidirectional or even multidirectional (Wlosowicz, 2012), and some errors can occur due to double supported interference like L1 and L2 into L3. Also, influences beyond L2 in context of a third, fourth or additional languages go by the name multilingual transfer (Robinson, 2012). Secondly, language transfer classification can be seen by the effects it has on the target language. This brings us to positive transfer and negative transfer as a way of classification. To begin with, positive transfer is declared as a process of learning easier and may occur when both the native language thus L1 and the target language, L2 have the same form. The similarity in forms helps in second language acquisition and contributes to the development of the target language which

is the L2. When learners transfer similar items, limitations in the L2 are compensated through learning and communication strategy.

According to Odlin (1989), the effect of positive transfer is only determinable through comparisons of the success of groups with different native languages. Such comparisons often show that cross-linguistic similarities can produce positive transfer in many ways. For example, similarities between L1 and L2 vocabularies can reduce the time needed to develop good reading comprehension. However, according to Yip and Tang (1998) result on study made positive transfer remains a logical possibility but there is a little empirical evidence to back it as the mentioned result does not support the hypothesis. Negative transfer on the other hand is realized. Negative transfer as stated by Richard et al (2014) refers to the use of native language pattern which leads to an error in the target language. Likewise, (Weinreich ,1953) has seen negative transfer as the deviation from the norms of languages which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. Since negative transfer involves deviation from the norms in target language, it is often seen as relatively easy to identify.

Although negative transfer tends to be compared to error production, there are other ways in which individual's second language performance may differ from the behavior of native speaker (Odlin, 1989, 1996). Nevertheless, the result is not always an error but it can obstruct the development of the target language in certain stages of the learning process. In view of the above, one can say that negative transfer brings interference or hinders the development of the target language while the positive transfer has a facilitating role of learning. This literature review would also look at the different dimensions of language transfer from L1 to L2 as phonological and orthographic, lexical and semantics, syntactic and morphological.

Phonological transfer is generally used to refer to the ways in which a person's knowledge of the sound system of one language can affect that person's perception and production of speech sounds in another language (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). Correspondingly, as Brière, (1968) cited in Odlin, (1989), cross-linguistic comparison of sounds of two languages should include descriptions of the phonetics as well as the phonology of the native language and the target language. There is an evidence of transfer of phonetic and phonological rules (Broselow, 1994). Pronunciation errors both in the receiving and production processes can lead to difficulties of decoding the message. L2 learners often categorized sounds according to the phonemic inventory of the L1 or other language they know well. In this regard, Odlin (1989) stated that there was little doubt that L1 phonetics and phonology were powerful influences on L2 pronunciation. Even more, the importance of transfer is evident in studies of specific pronunciation contrasts and also in research comparing the overall pronunciation accuracy of speakers of different native languages. While any resemblance between sounds creates the potential for identifications, the judgments of equivalence that learners make are affected by much more than just the acoustic properties of sounds in the native and target languages.

The similarity of cognate forms, for example, may induce learners to establish correspondences between sounds that are phonetically very different. On the other hand, although the term generally employed is orthographic transfer, it must be stated that various scholars considered that the concept of writing system transfer would be more appropriate (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008) to refer to the phenomenon in question and a distinction between the two is necessary. In this sense, Cook and Bassetti (2005; p.29) have pointed out that: Because of the distinction between language and writing system, it is not so much aspects of the language itself that may be carried over as the

attributes of a particular writing system. It is not Ewe per se that is transferred by Ewe learners to the English writing but the feature of the Ewe morphemic writing system. Research on orthographic transfer in reading showed that a person's L1 writing system can have an important effect on how that person processes written words in an L2, especially during the early stages of L2 literacy development (Wade-Woolley, 1999).

Further, lexical transfer concerns the effect of vocabulary knowledge of one language on the acquisition and use of vocabulary in another language. It can be positive when learner's L1 vocabulary facilitates the acquisition and use of L2 or negative if it hinders it (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). Ringbom (1987) also strongly affirm to Jarvis & Pavlenko's idea and defined it as applying learning hypotheses that consider lexical items as translated equivalents, or that have the same semantic characteristics as the items from the student's L1 or another language he or she knows well. Likewise, according to Kellerman (1995), evidence of the influence of the L1 lexicon has been identified in the IL of L2 learners because they use the lexical transfer as compensation strategy, and partly because the vocabulary is one of the more permeable linguistic aspects.

Other researchers have contributed to a better understanding of lexical transfer. Many empirical studies have shown the importance of L1 in the L2 lexicon (Ard & Homburg, 1983). As in lexical, cognates also talk about words in two languages that are similar in meaning, spelling and pronunciation. Another idea also said cognate do not need to have the same form but can be similar in meaning. For example, *father* in English and *papa* in Ewe, *mother* in English and *mutter* in German. If a learner has this simple concept about the language, transfer is possibly assumed. In general, lexical similarities promote learning, as revealed in several studies (Ard &

Homburg, 1983; Cenoz, 2001). In this case, Ard and Homburg (1983) compared the performances of students of English as an L2 speaking to different native languages, Arabic and Spanish. The speakers of the language having more lexical similarities with English (in this case, Spanish) were considerably more successful on vocabulary questions.

In contrast, lexicosemantic transfer is most evident in the use of an authentic target language word with a meaning that reflects influence from the semantic range of a corresponding word in another language. In this sense, Ringbom (2001) lexicosemantic transfer points out an example utterance by a Finnish learner of English, who said ‘He bit himself in the language’ meaning to say ‘He bit himself in the tongue’. This can be explained by the multiple meanings of the Finnish word *kieli*, which is used both for *tongue* and *language*. This phenomenon is known as semantic extension and occurs when semantic properties are extended to the target language word. For example, in Ewe, a learner may say “I pass” instead of “I pound” simply because the word “*to*”, which is used for; pass, out or pound, has been used.

Additionally, in another situation where semantic transfer occurs in the use of calques in the target language, it reflects the way a multi-word unit is mapped to meaning in another language. Likewise, Ringbom found that the source of semantic transfer is not just any previously acquired language, but the L1 of the learner. This is presumably because L1 meanings tend to underlie L2 words until the learner have become highly proficient in the L2 (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). However, influence can originate from an L2 in cases where the learner is highly advanced in the L2. Lastly, studies in the field revealed that formal transfer tends to originate from a source language that the learner perceives as being closely related to the recipient language, whereas semantic transfer tends to come from a language in which the

learner is highly proficient in (Biskup, 1992; Ringbom, 1987, 2001). In this sense, becoming aware of semantic differences is no easy task given that differences in meaning are far more difficult to recognize than differences in form.

A considerable evidence has also been found for syntactic transfer for both positive transfer and negative transfer in studies focusing on specific syntactic aspects; word order, pronouns, relative clauses, tenses, negation, (Odlin, 1989), and morphological transfer in both reception and production (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). This was due in part to an overly narrow understanding of the ways in which cross-linguistic influence effects can be manifested, and has likewise arisen from a failure to recognize cross-linguistic influence effects obscured through their interaction with other variables, such as simplification and overgeneralization (Jarvis & Odlin, 2000). Bliss, (2006) admits that learners L1 is transferred to an intended language-L2 grammar but properties of the L1 which is been transferred and the effect that the transfer has on the L2 cannot be identified. Additional studies discussed by Odlin (2005) present convincing evidence of morphological transfer in the areas of causation, grammatical gender, and topic. Topic wise, explorations of morphosyntax have begun to consider CLI in the use of phrasal verbs (Sjöholm, 1995), causative constructions (Helms-Park, 2001), gender assignment (Dewaele & Veronique, 2001), and linguistic framing (Pavlenko, 2003; Pavlenko & Driagina, 2007; Pavlenko & Jarvis, 2002; Slobin, 1996; Vermeulen & Kellerman, 1999).

2.2.3 L1 translation as a strategy

A number of studies have investigated the role of translation into L1 and the use of it as a facilitative strategy in L2 writing (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Mahmoud, 2000; Uzawa, 1996). These studies have shown that translation into L1 brings about some benefits in terms of organization and

also the complexity of the target language essay, especially for students at lower levels of L2 proficiency. Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992), for example, examined whether students compose directly in the L2 or compose first in their L1 and then translate into the L2 and brings the review to L2 proficiency on L1 transfer.

As noted earlier, it has been suggested that an important requirement for the success of L1-based strategies in the L2 is having enough L2 proficiency. Recently, a number of studies have investigated this issue to find out what effects language proficiency has on the use of L1-based strategies in L2 writing. Wang and Wen's (2002) study is one of those, which investigated how ESL and EFL students use their L1 while composing in the L2 and how such L1 use is affected by L2 proficiency and writing tasks. Wolfersberger (2003) investigated the extent to which low-level L2 proficiency writers transferred their composing processes and strategies from L1 writing to L2 writing. Participants were 3 native Japanese speakers from an intensive English program in the U.S. The researchers collected six think-aloud protocols while the subjects composed essays in Japanese and, then, in English. In two composing sessions, individual participants wrote an essay while thinking aloud. In the first session, participants wrote a Japanese essay and in the second session they wrote an English essay. The sessions were video and audio taped. It was found that, while some L1 strategies were transferred to the L2 writing processes, the learners struggled in utilizing all strategies that could have helped them in their writing process in the L2.

2.3 L1 Transfer in communication

Ellis has pointed out the necessity of distinguishing two types of transfer, namely, communication transfer and learning transfer, as they represent different approaches in studying L1 transfer phenomena but Corder (1983) attempt to explain

L1 transfer in terms of solely communication. Corder denies the idea that learners directly transfer into their interlanguage system L1 elements. Corder used the term “borrowing” to label L1 transfer, indicating that communication transfer is mainly a communication strategy. He believes that “nothing is being transferred from anywhere to nowhere”. However, such a view of transfer is questionable as indicated by Ellis in the sense that particular transfer errors occur in whole populations sharing the same L1. It seems to be inappropriate to suggest that all these learners engaged persistently in borrowing and as a result learnt the L1 structure. Further, it is also unclear how communication transfer can explain the fossilization of certain L1 influenced structures in learners IL of the kind that Kellerman have identified in advanced Dutch learners of English.

Therefore, it is not appropriate to study transfer from the communicative perspective only. The need to recognize a more direct role of L1 in L2 acquisition is proposed by Schachter, who offered a new account of transfer, suggesting the regularity of the occurrence of learning transfer, as well as the need to understand the leaning transfer from a cognitive perspective rather than from a behaviorist perspective. She regards transfer as the set of constraints that one’s previous knowledge imposes on the domains from which to select hypotheses about the new data. She uses the term “universe” to refer to “the set of constraints” and suggested that a learner’s universe is dynamic in nature, that it expands or contracts with the accumulation of learner’s experience with L2. Because learner’s L1 knowledge is part of his “previous knowledge”, it thus constitutes a very important source of knowledge from which a learner could draw upon in forming and testing new hypotheses about L2 along its development course. Thus, the role of L1 in L2 acquisition should be approached from the viewpoint of both communication and learning. Ellis has offered

a framework for explaining first language transfer in second language learning and communication.

Within the model, Ellis has proposed the following points:

1. The L1 system is utilized by both comprehension and production mechanisms. In both cases, there are constraints that govern when transfer takes place.
2. The interlanguage system is also utilized in the process of comprehending and receiving messages.
3. The L1 system is utilized in the hypothesis construction responsible for interlanguage development. Again, constraints exist when transfer takes place.
4. Comprehensible input, including that input which has been made comprehensible with the help of L1 knowledge, serves as a major source of information for hypothesis construction.
5. L2 output, including that output which has been made comprehensible with the help of L1 knowledge, may be used for hypothesis construction.

2.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has reviewed literature on factors that tend to result in L1 transfer to L2 learning in terms of mother tongue interference, age of the learner, and the learning environment. It also looked at Linguistic factors, Psycholinguistic factors, Sociolinguistic factors, Socio-psychological factors, Individual difference. Developmental factors, and frequency of input. It again looks at the types of transfer that occur in language transfer. It should be noticed, however that, L1-L2 transfer is empirical whether positively done or negatively. The idea behind the transfer by the learner is to accomplish a task by acquiring knowledge or expressing an idea to a life situation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the methodology used by the researcher to investigate learners' transfer of L1 to L2 in learning English as a second language. The following sub topics were considered in this chapter of the report: Research approach and design, population, sampling technique, instrumentation, validation, data collection procedure and analysis.

3.1 Research approach and design

Research approach is a procedure for collecting and analyzing data which will be relevant to the researcher. It is the program that guides the researcher in the process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting data. It also defines the domain of generalization; that is, it indicates whether the obtained interpretation can be generalized to different situations of research study or not (Amoani, 2005). The researcher adopted the qualitative approach. According to Creswell (2008, p. 92), qualitative research is a research design that begins with assumptions, a worldview of theoretical lens and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning and importance of assumptions. Kusi (2012) refers to qualitative research as a research that takes place at the socio-cultural context of the participants of the study, thereby involving an interaction between the researcher and the researched.

The research design used in the study is a case study. According to Avoke (2005), case studies are designed to focus on specific population to predict accurately the characteristics of particular individuals, situations, or groups. Case studies sample population in order to discover the incidence of, and the interrelations among

sociological, psychological and educational variables. Its purposes are to identify present conditions and to point to current needs. It is used as needs assessment tool to provide information on which to base sound decisions and to prepare the background for more constructive program of educational research. It also serves as a foundation for more vigorous and precise investigation. The data gathered in case studies are usually responses to predetermined questions that are asked of respondents. The idea behind this study is to identify the effects of L1 to L2 transfer on students.

3.2 Population

Population is defined as a group of institutions, individuals or people with similar characteristics the researcher is interested in (Saunders 2018). According to Kusi (2012; p.80), population is a group of individuals that the researcher used to generalize his or her findings. The population of this study comprises all 150 students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School. The total number of students from Junior High School forms 1 through to 3, is one hundred and fifty (150) with twelve teachers.

3.3 Sampling technique and sample size

According to Osuala (2005), sampling involves taking a portion of the whole population. It is the element chosen to represent the whole participant. It is a standard way of selecting a group of people out of the whole to generalize research findings, Mark (2001, p. 42). In order to ensure that the findings of the research are effectively generalized, the researcher chose a sample representative of 50% of the students as the sample. This ensured that a total of seventy-five students and five teachers were selected to participate in the study. These were members of the various classes and members of staff from the selected school, Akatsi No.2 Junior High School in the Akatsi South District of the Volta Region. The researcher used the simple random sampling technique to select the sample for the study among students and the staff.

For the selection of the students, the researcher wrote ‘YES’ and ‘NO’ of equal numbers to the number of students in each class on pieces of papers. The students were asked to pick these papers and those who picked YES were included in the study while those who picked NO were excluded. This technique was used by the researcher to avoid being bias in the sample selection. Information about participant gender, age of second language onset, and language spoken are presented in Tables 3.3.1 to 3.3.3.

Table 3.3.1: Gender of respondents

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	44	58.67
Male	31	41.33
Total	75	100.00

Table 3.3.2: Age at which participants started speaking second language

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
5 – 6 years	7	9.33
7 – 8 years	24	36.00
9 – 10 years	39	52.00
11 – 12 years	5	2.67
Total	75	100.00

Table 3.3.3: The native language of participants

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Ewe	71	94.67
Twi / Akan	4	5.33
Total	75	100.00

3.4 Instrumentation

Research instrument refers to the various instruments used by researchers to collect data to help in understanding a phenomenon or achieving the objectives set out (Ansah, 2015). The methods used in this study to gather data were a set of questionnaire, observation and interview.

3.4.1 Observation

Observation as a tool for data collection was chosen by the researcher based on the crucial role that it plays. According to Dörnyei (2012), observation gives direct information about learners' attitude or response rather than self-report account. Observation gives direct sense of accessibility to phenomena without having intervention. It aids classroom learning environment. It generally supports professional growth of teachers in the process of school development (Hopkins, 2014). As the research focused on learners transfer of L1 to L2 in learning English as a second language, semi-structured classroom observation has been conducted to collect data directly on the learners which would be authentic and reliable indicating the degree at which transfer takes place.

On the structured observation sheet, data was collected using tally system that is a situation whereby the observer puts down a tally or tick anytime a particular event occurs as the system does not allow entering lengthy open-ended comments. In all, ten (10) lessons were conducted and observed by the researcher to find out the various situations or learning areas that learners frequently and easily make transfer of knowledge of L1 to L2. The learners were not briefed beforehand about the observation so that they can naturally exhibit their learning attitudes. Another observation was made during the learners' playing times severally to ascertain how

frequent the transfer of L1 to L2 is made as determined by sociolinguistic factor as (Odlin 1989) notes, negative transfer is more likely to occur off class than in class.

3.4.1 Interview

Interview can be explained as an interaction between two or more people on a view or topic of mutual interest. Interview is not entirely subjective or objective but rather allowing a participant to describe a situation peculiar to the subject relating to him (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). According to Frankel and Norman (1996), interviewing is an important way for a researcher to check the accuracy of ideas, verify or refute the impressions he or she has gained through observations. Therefore, after the observation, the learners were interviewed about the interrelatedness or the possibility of transfers of L1 to L2, thus the English language. Learners were interviewed on the learning areas that are likely to be the same in the Ewe language as L1 and English language as L2 structures which might aid easy transfer of knowledge of L1 to L2. It was a structured interview with a set of questions prepared and all learners, that is the sample population answered them. These questions were prepared to serve as a guide to the learner and the researcher in identifying areas that transfer mostly occur in languages. These same structured questions were used as questionnaire for the learners.

The interview was conducted for the learners three times on the same question. The first interview was done to open learners' mind to the whole study of transfer of knowledge from L1 to L2 and to create rapport between the learners and the researcher. The second interview followed after few days to obtain facts on the level or degree at which learners transfer knowledge from their native language thus L1 to the second language thus L2. A mop-up interview was conducted to clarify ideas and views about language transfer. This strategy was adopted from the views of

Polkinghorne (2005) in Dornye (2012; p.134) who argues that, one-shot interview is rarely able to produce the full and rich descriptions necessary for worthwhile findings. Drawing on Seidman's work, he recommends that researcher administer sequence of three interviews with the same participant to obtain sufficient depth and breadth of information on a study.

3.4.3 Questionnaire

Questionnaire is a set of printed questions with a choice of answers, devised for the purpose of a survey or statistical study. Also, according to McLeod (2003), questionnaire is a set of uniform questions, known as items that follow a static structure for the purpose of gathering individual data on one or more particular areas. Also, questionnaire is a research instrument used to gather information from respondents in many ways. Often, questionnaire can use open-ended or closed-ended type of questions (McLeod, 2018). The researcher adopted both the close-ended and open ended questionnaire types in order to obtain data just within the study. The few specific open questions were asked to elicit concrete pieces of information from learners. The questionnaire for this research contains a list of 15 questions in English language which is the respondent's L2. The purpose of this questionnaire was to identify the structural areas at which learners easily make transfer of knowledge, thus from L1 to L2 as observed by the researcher.

The learners were taken through the questions for clarity to ensure that they provide true answers as much as practicable. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher. The learners were given 30 minutes to answer all the questions. The researcher assisted learners who had difficulty in attempting the questionnaire. Some of the questions in the questionnaire were first used as interview guide questions; therefore the learners were familiar with the trend of the questions. The researcher

used the questionnaire as an instrument to obtain data on responses that the learners might not provide during interview. The close-ended questions, which included the dichotomous, multiple choice and rating scales has the advantage of being easier to administer to a large group of respondents and therefore saves time. It is easier to score, tabulate and analyze and it is more objectively and reliably scored. A major disadvantage is that it does not provide detail information about the problem and fails to yield information of sufficient depth. The opposite is true of open-ended questions (Robson, 2003). The researcher used both close-ended and open ended items to collect the required data. In this technique the respondents were to tick the correct option and to provide other responses on open-ended questions.

3.5 Reliability

Reliability was tested using Cronbach's alpha. The overall reliability on the 15 items on the questionnaire was 0.840. Items were used to measure the transfer of L1 to L2 among students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School. The reliability score of 0.840 means that the test items are very reliable. Rickart et al (2014) assert that for good results, Cronbach's alpha should be above 0.65. The current study is above the minimum score described.

3.6 Data collection procedure

The research employed observations, structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to solicit information from the students and teachers respectively. Questionnaire was administered by the researcher to the respondents who completed them during school hours. The students and teachers were the participants for the study. A sample size of eighty was chosen from the students and

teachers of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School. The responses of the participants were voluntary for all respondents and confidentiality of responses was assured.

3.7 Data analysis

Data analysis is a process of gathering and interpreting data into useful information to solve a problem. After the administration of the questionnaire and the various responses gathered, the data was cleaned, edited for consistency and coded for reducing the answer to a series of code numbers to facilitate tabulation. The analysis of the data was based on simple percentages which were converted into charts and tables using simple frequencies. The various objectives form the basis of the analysis.

3.8 Ethical considerations

According to King and Churchill (2000), “ethical issues in research include codes of conduct that are concerned with the protection of the researched from physical and mental harm, including anonymity of the researched and confidentiality of the responses”. The importance of ethical issues was highlighted by Robson (2006, p. 66) who argues that “control over what people do obviously has a moral dimension. Ethical dilemmas lurk in any research involving people. Research participant were assured of their confidentiality and anonymity. Research participants were further made aware that their responses were purely for educational purposes. The participants were further informed that their participation in the current study is optional and it is not compulsory in any way. The participants were accorded the right to withdraw from the study as a norm for the conduct of research. In addition, the participants’ data was treated confidentially and anonymously.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents data analysis, presentation of results and interpretation of results obtained from the research questions on the effects of transfer of L1-L2 on students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School in the Akatsi South District of the Volta Region. The results presented are derived from the quantitative and qualitative data analyzed.

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the ways in which students of Akatsi No.2 JHS use L2?
2. What are the challenges faced by the students of Akatsi No.2 JHS in L1-L2 transfer?
3. In what ways can the difficulties in L1-L2 transfer be minimized?

4.1 Ways in which students of Akatsi No. 2 JHS use L2

From the participant characteristics, it was observed that 52% of them started speaking the second language at the ages between 9 and 10. In the Ghanaian educational system, a child of 10 years should be in class 4, a transitional stage where English is to be used as medium of instruction, and as a subject to be studied. It therefore suggests that many of these children will have challenges understanding the various subjects of study in school. This agrees with the literature by Montrul (2010) who affirmed that children who begin speaking of their L2 after 8 years have difficulties in transfer of their knowledge from L1 in grammar to the L2 acquisition task. So, if the difficulty of concept is not addressed earlier, the learner takes it through the stages of education.

4.1.1 Domain of Language use

Table 4.1.1.1: Domains of language use

Language	Frequency	Percentage (%)
English	6	8.00
Ewe	65	86.67
Twi	4	5.33
Total	75	100.00

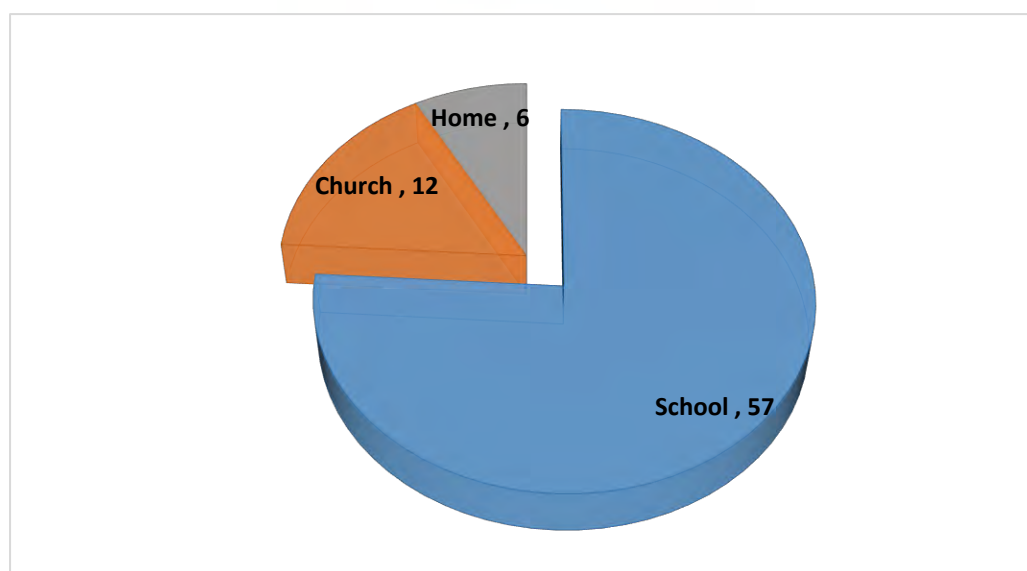


Figure 4.1.1.1. Domains of language use

From Figure 4.1.1.1, the domain where the use of L2 occurs is the school where 57 respondents representing 76% use the L2. Only 12 students representing 16% use the L2 in church while the remaining 6 students use the L2 at home. This means that the use of L2 among the students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School is predominantly in school where it serves as the medium of instruction, general communication and at play during school hours.

In attempt to find out the rate of use of the L2, respondents were asked to indicate which language they use at home. This is important as more hours of the respondents are spent at home rather than in school or church. Table 4.1.1.1 shows that Ewe (L1) is the language used at home for almost all of them. This notwithstanding however, eight (8) percent of the respondents representing 6 students of the Akatsi No. 2 JHS indicated that they speak English at home. Another confirmation is that the transfer of knowledge for these respondents will occur from the Ewe (L1). From Table 4.1.1.2, it shows that 54 respondents representing 72% said they learned the L2 as a result of formal education and interaction with people while 21 of them representing 28% chose formal education only as the only source of learning the second language. This suggests that this 28% of the students hardly apply the second language in their daily lives apart from using it at the school setting. This further increases their level of transfer of knowledge from L1 to L2.

Table 4.1.1.2: Place of environment of second language learning

Place	Frequency	Percentage
Formal education (only)	21	28.00
Formal Education and Interaction with People	54	72.00
Total	75	100

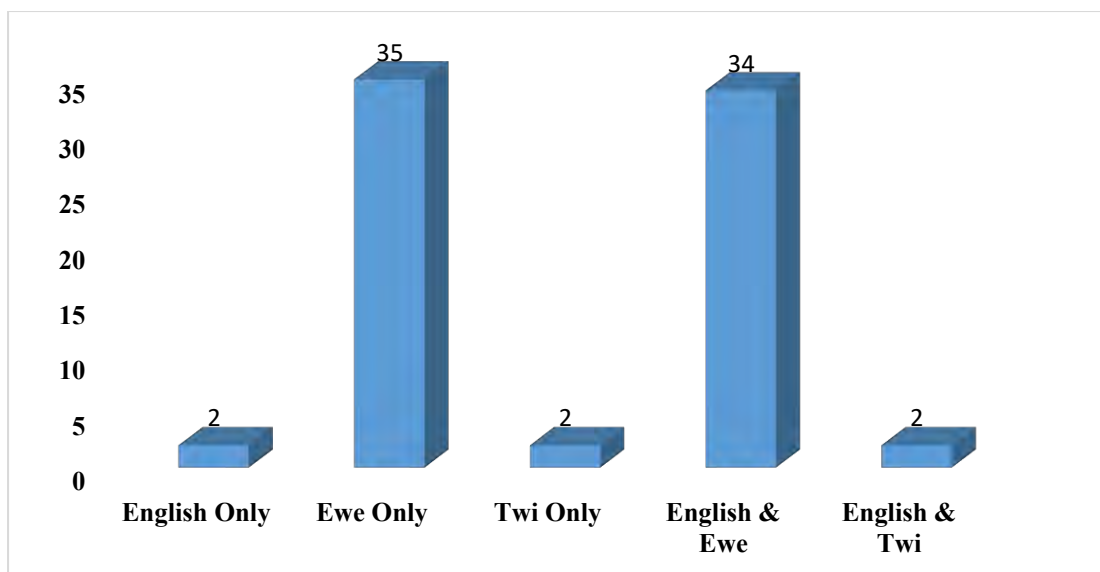


Figure 4.1.1.2. Language used at home

Figure 4.1.1.2 depicts the languages used at home by the students. From the graph either Ewe only or Ewe and English are the two combinations of languages used at home. A striking feature is that as many people used the L1 and L2 combination at home as does those with only the L1 use. This supports Anderson's (1983) research that concluded that the continuous use of L1 and L2 in formal and informal periods increase the L2 acquisition and reduces the challenges associated with the transfer of knowledge when the element of L1 is compatible with the natural principles of acquisition and when the element of L2 leads to L1 generalization. It further corroborate what Kellerman (1995) assert to that, the similarities between L1 and L2 which states that "there may be transfer of knowledge unknowingly, has nothing to do with the similarities with the L2 but where the operation of L2 is regularly used interspersed with the L1. That is, the frequency of L2 input or usage is related to its acquisition and mastery. Thus, the frequency hypothesis states that the order of L2 acquisition is determined by the frequency with which different linguistic items occur in the input. It means that the relationship between input and accuracy of

L2 production are positively related and that an increase in input or usage of L2 results in proper acquisition and transfer.

4.2 Identification of difficulties in L1 to L2 transfer

All the respondents recognized the various structures in both L1 and L2 through which language is transferred. The various structures tested were; Oral Skills, Grammar - nouns, articles, prepositions, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verb tenses, as well as subject verb agreement. Others are reading intonation, writing composition and literature. On which of the structures the respondents find difficult to understand, three structures were dominant; subject-verb agreement, writing composition and literature. This suggests that though they are able to identify these structures they find it difficult to understand and apply them accordingly. This was evidenced in a writing composition and literature test answered.

The results revealed that the formation of sentences to logically present their thoughts were difficult. Varying degrees of errors of subject verb agreement were made; for example, *'Neither the MP or the DCE visits the community'* This should have been *'Neither the MP nor the DCE visits the community'*. The use of articles and verb tenses were also a challenge as one respondent in the test wrote *'that day is a very painful for us'*, another wrote *'we are not seeing it on the pool again'* these statements should rather be *'that day was a very painful day for us'* and *'we were not seeing it on the pool again'*. From the foregoing, it is clear that most of the students have difficulties in using appropriately the various structures in writing.

This confirms the research of Sabourin, concerning language transfer which states that, some L2 constructions are easier while others seem more difficult to acquire when compared with L1 since the transfer from L1 can help in L2 acquisition

in some cases. This depends on the structure of L1. For instance, an L2 study that is particularly difficult to learn is grammatical gender also called noun classes, which is a lexical property of noun (Sabourin, Stowe & de Haan, 2004). In this regard, knowledge of the L1 can often have a positive impact on the rate of L2 learning (Ortega, 2009).

Table 4.2.1: Language usage in various places

Place of Use	English	Ewe	Twi	Total
At Home	3	68	4	75
In School	65	10	-	75
At Play	12	63	-	75
In the Community	-	75	-	75

From the table, the preferred language used at home is L1. The respondents indicated that when they are in school, they prefer to speak or use English and at play they will normally use L1. Within the community however, the respondents' preference of language use was L1. It was assumed that the greater the structural differences between languages (L1 and L2), the greater the difficulty in the acquisition process since possibility of positive transfer is lower. Fernandez Gonzalez (1995) and Ortega (2009) affirm that not only differences, but more often misleading similarities between L1 and L2 are at the root of attested L2 learning difficulties. This indicates that relating similarity with easiness and difference with difficulty implies adopting a simple attitude towards the complex process of learning. This emanates from interference similar to those that children commit in the acquisition of the mother tongue indicating that not all errors were due to the negative transfer of elements and structures of the L1, that is, there are other factors that affect the

learning of L2. Any feature of the L1 can be transferred to the language to be learnt, and thus the transfer can occur at all the linguistic levels: phonological, lexical, syntactical and semantic. The various levels of identification, difficulty, understanding and transfer are presented in the table below.

Table 4.2.2: Difficulty, understanding and transfer

Structure	Structure		Structure	
	Understanding		Transfer	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Oral Skills	54	21	75	-
Grammar	23	72	75	-
Nouns	63	12	75	-
Articles	27	48	75	-
Prepositions	53	22	75	-
Pronouns	58	17	75	-
Adjectives	69	6	75	-
Adverbs	67	8	75	-
Subject Verb Agreement	13	62	75	-
Reading Intonation	36	39	75	-
Writing Composition	15	60	75	-
Literature	24	51	75	-

From the table, it was realized that L1 had influence over L2 acquisition. This affirms the works of Ringbom and Jarvis (2009) that learners of L2 tend to transfer the similarities of the L1 and other language they learnt previously to the new language, L2. The reason for the conflicting ideas may be that not all learners transfer

L1 information to their studies and this agrees with Cook (1990) that provides evidence of L1 from and concluded that language transfer occur among learners. The respondents also indicated that they all do transfer of knowledge from L1 to L2. This agrees to the fact that the respondents largely articulated the Ewe as the language in which they better understand the structures of the L1 and L2. On the question ‘Do you find any relationship in scope of English and Ewe?’ The answer was an emphatic ‘yes’.

The summary is provided based on the various research questions.

(i) What are the ways in which students of Akatsi No. 2 JHS students use the L2?

The L2 usage occurs in School where 57 respondents representing 76% majority use the L2. Only 12 students representing 16% use the L2 in church while the remaining 6 students use the L2 at home. This means that the use of L2 among the students of Akatsi No 2 Junior High School is predominantly in school where it serves as the medium of instruction for academic purposes and a subject of study, general communication and at play during school hours.

(ii) What are the challenges faced by the students of Akatsi No. 2 JHS in transferring knowledge from L1 to L2? The students find it difficult to understand and apply the structures from the L1 to L2. This was evidenced in a writing composition and literature test. Another problem is the difficulty of L2 constructions which seem more difficult to acquire when compared with L1 since the transfer from L1 can help in L2 acquisition in some cases. The structure of the L1 makes it a bit difficult. For instance, an L2 study that is particularly difficult to learn can often have a positive impact on the rate of L2 learning as (Ortega, 2009) posits that language is a tool. As all tools, it is used to create thought but it is also transformed to create sources of learning.

(iii) What relationship exists between the L1 and L2?

There is a positive relationship between L1 and L2 as the L1 facilitates to a large extent easy acquisition of L2.

(iv) And in what ways can the difficulties faced by students of Akatsi No. 2 JHS in transferring from L1 to L2 be minimized? Expose the children to the learning of L2 early on in life both at home and in school.

4.3 Analysis of Teachers Questionnaire

Table 4.3: Demographic information about respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	2	40
Female	3	60
Total	5	100
Age of Respondents		
30-40	4	80
41-50	1	20
Total	5	100

The Demographic table above indicates the gender and age range of the teachers used in this study. 2 representing 40% are male teachers and 3 representing 60% are female teachers. 4 representing 80% of the teachers are aged between 30-40 years whilst 1 representing 20% is aged between 41-50 years.

Table 4.4: Native language of Respondent

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Ewe	5	100

Table 4.4 above indicates the native language of the teachers and it can be clearly attested that 5 teachers representing 100% speak Ewe. on the number of years spent in active service, 2 teachers representing 40% have taught between 5-10 years whilst 3 representing 60% have taught between 11-20 years.

Table 4.5: Number of Years Taught by Respondent

Range	Frequency	Percentage%
5-10	2	40
11-20	3	60
Total	5	100

4.4 Common linguistic structures and transfer in the L1 -L2

Table 4.6: Structure Similarity and Transfer for Respondents

Structure	Structure Similarity		Structure Transfer	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Grammar				
Nouns	5	-	5	-
Articles	5	-	5	-
Prepositions	5	-	5	-
Pronouns	5	-	5	-
Adjectives	5	-	5	-
Adverbs	5	-	5	-
Subject Verb Agreement	5	-	5	-
Oral skills				
Reading Intonation	5	-	5	-
Writing Composition	5	-	5	-
Literature	5	-	5	-

All the respondents agreed that the L1 and L2 of the learners have similar linguistic structures such as grammar- nouns, verbs, articles, pronouns, adverbs, adjectives, verb tense. Others are oral skills, composition structures, reading intonation and literature. Also, 100% of the respondents attested to the fact that because of the similarities in the language structure, the students usually make transfer of knowledge from the L1 - L2 in all angles whether negatively or positively. That is, be it grammar, oral skills or composition.

Table 4.7: Language use in English Lesson

Language	Frequency	Percentage%
L1 only	-	-
L2 only	1	20
L1 and L2	4	80
Total	5	100

From the above table, it has been recognized that four teachers representing 80% use both L1 and L2 during teaching in the classroom. This is a confirmation that as students are exposed to the L1 and L2 usage at the same time by their teachers, the influence at transfer would be great. As argued by Hawkins (2001) that the language acquisition setting has little influence on learner, that, the type of inputs from the environment has little effect on how the learners' language is developed, the researcher does not ascent to that. Because, students learn what their teachers do quietly and quickly as compared to what they say (theory). The classroom which is the immediate environment for some or majority of the students in L2 acquisition would take the L1 transfer as normal. However, a teacher representing 20% uses only

L2 in L2 class to adhere strictly to the traditional grammar theory that L2 should be taught using L2 as well as the educational policy of the country which argues L2 to be used as medium of instruction (MOE, 2007).

Again, the analysis of the questionnaire revealed the respondents' affirmation that, the students transfer L1- L2 as a result of mother tongue influence, linguistic structures of the L1 and L2, the learning environment, age of the learner, as well as the psychological factor of the students. More so, 3 respondents representing 60% attested to the fact that, the students do not often speak or answer questions in the English Language whilst 2 representing 40% said, they use the language in speech and in writing. Further analysis was based on what kind of mistakes students commit whilst writing English and the 5 respondents representing 100% agreed that the learners commit errors in the area of lexical, syntax, semantics and morphology. Example, instead of a student writing; *Kofi eats akple*; the learner will write: *Kofi eat akple*. Here, the subject-verb agreement is problematic. They are transferring direct from the L1-L2 without taking any grammatical roles into account. This is because, in the L1, the verb does not carry any suffix to indicate present perfect. So, the student was displaying what Lightbown and Nina (2006) has stated in their research that learner from a variety of linguistics background display similar acquisition patterns with an equally important process of "creative construction alongside any mechanisms of L2 habit formation.

4.5 Interview for Students

Results Related to Research Questions 1, 2 & 3

1. What are the ways in which students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School students use the L2?
2. What relationship exists between the L1 and L2?

3. What are the challenges faced by the students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School in L1-L2 transfer?

In order to further explore the L1-L2 transfer, participants were made to respond to a ten item interview questions. Results from Question 1 on the native language of participants revealed that 71 students representing 94.67% speak Ewe. Other dialect of the respondents' area was Twi and 4 representing 5.33% use it. This indeed shows that majority of the participants are Ewes by birth, or had acquired knowledge in the language through a reflective interaction. This agrees with the findings of Lightbown and Spade (1999, p.91) who postulates that the environment or vicinity provide a means for one to acquire language.

The researcher wanted to find out from the students their second language. From the interview, it was revealed that all seventy-five students representing 100% speak English language as their L2. On language and communication with peers, 50 of the students representing 66.67 % confirmed they speak Ewe with their friends and peers whilst 25 of them representing 33.33 % on the other hand prefer speaking English with friends. This probably might be in different circumstances which called for the use of the L2 instead of the L1.

It was also realized from the interview conducted by the researcher that students often spoke their second language in three areas. These are at school, church and the home. Results from the interview revealed that 57 of the students representing 76% spoke their L2 at school, 12 representing 16% at church and 6 representing 8% spoke English Language at home. The use of the L2 at home, church or school shows areas where such students can exhibit their communicative competence and skills in their L2. Since the school environment serves as the best place to express oneself in English language because of its use as a medium of instruction, students probably had

no alternative to interact often with their peers using the L2. Hawkins (2001, p. 24) has however suggested that, enhanced input in classroom situations may speed up the process of acquisition and, as one might expect, it will in turn affect performance.

The researcher also decided to find out four aspects of the L1, Ewe which is similar to the English Language. On this, 50 students representing 66.67% mentioned grammar, literature, composition, listening and speaking. 15 students representing 20% mentioned grammar, listening, composition whilst 10 of them representing 13.33% stated composition, literature and grammar. This shows a strong correlation between L2 and L1. This reveals why scholars and linguists posit a thorough knowledge of L1 for improvement in competency in the L2. Hence there is the need for the use of L1 in lower classes in the various lower primary sections of our educational sectors in the country (MOE, 2007).

On a comparative analysis between Ewe and English, the research participants had this to say; 40 of them representing 53.33% affirmed that English is interesting but full of rules just like the Ewe language. 30 of the students representing 40% on the other hand saw English as a difficult subject just like Ewe. According to the 30 students, rules of grammar, lexis and structure as well as punctuations make the English Language more difficult than Ewe. 5 of the students representing 6.67 % were of the view that Ewe is more difficult than English Language. They cited rules, pronunciation and orthography as difficulties which made Ewe a difficult language as compared to English. One of the interviewees had this to say “Ewe, my own language is too difficult to learn”. I prefer English.

In expressing thought in L1 before communicating in L2, Al-khreshehi (2013) posited that, in learning a foreign language, the learner automatically brings with him the knowledge of L1 which should be taken into consideration when teaching L2. The

psychological implication here is that, the learner takes the L1 as prior knowledge in learning and substituting it into the L2 for future learning experiences. On the preference of use of language in school, at play and the home, the following statistics were revealed. 68 of the students thus 90.67% preferred using Ewe at home, 3, representing 4% preferred using English at home whilst 4, representing 5.33% use Twi at home. Here, the researcher concludes that majority of the students prefer using Ewe at home instead of school and at play.

At school, 70 of the students representing 93.33% preferred using English whilst 5 of them representing 6.67 % prefer using Ewe. At play, 12 of the students representing 16% prefer using English whilst 63 representing 84 % would prefer using Ewe at play probably due to the fact that it is their mother tongue or the most common language spoken in the study area. To further deepen understanding of L1-L2 transfer through the interview, the researcher wanted to know the major language of communication used at home with parents by the research participants. Data gathered revealed that 68 of the students representing 90.67% communicated in Ewe with their parents whilst 4, representing 5.33% communicated in English with their parents. 3 of the participants representing 4% were found to have been communicating with their parents in Akan. A conclusion can be drawn to the fact that such participants are native Akan speakers.

Table 4.8: Interview for Teachers

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
First Degree	3	60
Second Degree	2	40
Total	5	100

Table 4.9: Number of Years Taught by Teachers

Years	Frequency	Percentage
5-10	2	40
11-20	3	60
Total	5	100

As seen in Table 4.9, teachers representing 60% out of the language teachers in the school have First Degree whilst 2 representing 40% have Second Degrees. From the table, it is clear that 5 teachers obtained First Degree which is a prerequisite for employment in the Ghana Education Service (2019). This further indicates that the teachers of the languages Department have good background and are expected to possess the competence and skills one needs in the field of language teaching at that level.

Table 4.9 also shows the duration of teaching in the service. 2 teachers representing 40% have taught between 5-10 years, whilst 3 teachers representing 60% have been teaching between 11-20 years. This shows that this school has very experienced teachers who can effectively handle language and language lessons in the school. A further analysis of the questionnaire reveals that all teachers in the Language Department are Ewe's and with this such teachers should have a basic knowledge about the negative transfer of pupils L1-L2 languages. The researcher also wanted to know from teachers if they find a trace of L1 in L2. 5 of the teachers representing 100% emphatically affirmed that there are traces of L1 elements in L2. They see a resemblance and link between students L1 in L2 transfer.

The follow up question sought to identify the language structures that are seen in the learners L1 to L2 and the responses revealed that, grammar, oral skills,

composition, lexis and structures and many others are present. From the data, 2 teachers representing 40% confirmed they find grammar, comprehension and oral skills traces of L1 in L2. 2 teachers representing 40% also confirmed that traces of phonetics, grammar and syntax are found in Ewe whilst 1 teacher representing 20% revealed that almost all aspects of the English Language have traces in Ewe, the L1 under review.

On performance of students between L2 and L1 in the study area; 3 teachers representing 60% confirmed that students in the study area perform better in Ewe than in English, whilst 2 teachers representing 40% also confirm that performance in both Ewe and English at the school is average. It is attitude towards the language which leads to average performance in both Ewe and English. If so, then the teachers must therefore understand how attitudes of the students are formed so as to adopt the necessary approach to address issues relating to behavior and conduct of learning. A complement of the teacher's effort with the right attitude may promote academic excellence. Teachers must use their knowledge in psychology to know the students well. Further, teachers should emphasize on the application of the right motivational theory and the right attitude of students towards studies will surely promote improvement in academic work.

The researcher also wanted to know the factors responsible for the L1 – L2 transfer. From the data, 3 teachers representing 60% said it was mother tongue interference, 1 representing 20% was of the view that the environment and peer influence was responsible for the L1 – L2 transfer. 1 teacher representing 20% on his part also confirm similarities in L2 – L1 as the major causes of L1 – L2 transfer among students in the study area. From the data, it could be inferred that the mother tongue is a contributory factor that promotes L1 – L2 transfer in languages. According

to Aboagye (2010), language is a social convention within the framework of culturally and linguistically circumscribed possibilities.

He further posits that, there is evidence of underachievement on the part of the students who have to acquire their education through the medium of second language. In Ghanaian societies, children are taught morals and values in their native dialects. Since the characteristics being studied fall within such brackets or age groups, there is the possibility that they may fumble and commit mistakes in attempt to express themselves. The vowel sound /a:/ and /ɜ:/ look similar but they are totally distinct in terms of function. Students in the study area who have only spoken their native dialect for a long time will find it difficult in pronouncing them and this may lead to L1 – L2 negative transfer.

On suggestions on how L1 – L2 transfer can be minimized by the students, 2 teachers representing 40% suggested that the language should not be taught in isolation. Here, it behooves on the teacher to use communicative language approach during lessons. The teacher should always make the lesson student-centered and he, the teacher should serve as a facilitator. Teachers should always incorporate and integrate topics in one another. The students' capacity on listening must be built, then to speaking, followed by reading and when these steps are followed, effective writing would be produced by the students, thereby avoiding negative transfer from L1-L2. The 2 are of the view that, students should not be punished for any negative transfer in that, the two languages have lots of structure in common so the teachers should capitalize on the similar elements and guide the students to identify the distinction among the L1 and the L2 to aid positive learning. 2 teachers also suggested frequent teacher feedback on students' assignment as a way of dealing with challenges in L1 – L2 transfer. Teachers can determine these difficulties by looking at the errors students

make and use such errors in future studies and lesson to avoid such errors and improve performance and general competence in the language.

1 teacher out of the 5, representing 20% suggested adequate supply of textbooks for the learning and teaching of Ghanaian language will improve tremendously with the availability of textbooks which will serve as effective teaching and learning resource. According to Bedu Addo (2014), textbooks are the basic resource for every teacher. He further posits that, an investment in an educational resource is equally an important investment in an education enterprise. It is therefore necessary for students in the study area to be provided with adequate current and reliable textbooks to help them improve in their language proficiency to avoid negative transfer from L1 – L2.

Observation

Observation was used as one of the instruments to gather data on how students use L1 and L2 in class and at play, and if there were traces of L1-L2 transfer. The table below shows instances where L1 and L2 was used in class.

Table 4.10: Situations of L1 and L2 use in class by students

SITUATION	FREQUENCY		PERCENTAGE %	
	L2 Only	L1&L2	L2 Only	L1&L2
1.Answering recall question	75	-	100	-
2.Answering inference question	15	60	20%	80
3.Explaining simple process	66	9	88	12
4.Explaining complex ideas	13	62	17.33	82.67
5.Asking simple questions	71	4	94.67	5.33

Answering Recall Questions

From the table, it was observed that 75 students which constitute 100% of the sample population for this research use L2 in answering simple recall questions especially on comprehension. It was observed also that, in analyzing sentences that call for identification of the subject, verb and object, students easily used the L2 as those level are low level hypothesis so they recall facts without L1 interference. The researcher has also observed that those features or elements of the L2 was present in the respondents L1 therefore, transferring the idea caused them no error. This assumption was backed by Ellis Language universal markedness which states that, the transferability of different features of a language depends on their intensity of markedness. According to Ellis, markedness refers to the idea that some linguistic structures are “special” or “less natural” or “less basic” than others, Ellis (1994). Therefore, the recall was a basic feature in the L1 and L2 of the respondents.

Answering inference questions

Another observation was made where students were to answer inference question. From the data gathered, 60 respondents representing 80% use both L1 and L2 whilst 15 students representing 20% use L2 only. Observation revealed that, since inferred questions demand in depth knowledge, the respondents finds it difficult to express themselves fully in the L2 therefore, they result to the use of the L1 and L2. This was an indication that the students L2 frequency input is low. Thus, the frequency with which different linguistic items occur in the input will enable the learner to reproduce knowledge acquired efficiently.

Explaining simple process

In observing respondents in explaining simple process like “how I wash the dish”, 66 respondents representing 88% use L2 whilst 9 representing 12% use both L1 and L2 concurrently. The observation indicates that those who used the L2 only are at average in the use of the L2.

Explaining complex ideas

In observing how to explain complex ideas, data collected revealed that 13 respondents representing 17.33% use L2 only in composing ideas whilst 62, representing 82.67% use both L1 and L2. The observation shows that the students have difficulty composing ideas in the L2 due to inadequacy of vocabulary in the language as well as lack of competence in the L2. In that case, the majority tends to transfer similar ideas from the L1 to the L2 as postulated by Ringbom & Jarvis (2009). Also, Montrul (2010) affirms that L2 learners completely transfer their knowledge of L1 in grammar to the L2 acquisition task which is a fact especially in the case where the grammatical structure and rules of the learner L1 is the same or almost similar to the target language which is English in the case of this study.

Asking simple questions

Another area of observation was the use of L1 or L2 in asking simple question. From the table, 71 students representing 94.67% use L2 only whilst 4 representing 5.33% use L1 and L2 in asking questions. Simple question like, “Can I go” etc are structural therefore the learner can recall them easily. Besides the classroom observation, another observation was carried outside the classroom while students were at play. It was observed that 92% of the respondents use L1 at play with mates whilst the 8% use both L1 and L2 alongside. Observation revealed that those

who tried to use the L2 also make petty errors and this can be backed by Odlin (1989) assertion that, negative transfer is more likely to occur off class than in class; that is, how external environments exert different demands on language learners in terms of “standard”. From the observation, it was realized that students use the L2 in school but with linguistic challenges.

4.6 Conclusion

Based on the data collected from the questionnaire, interviews and observation, it is possible to draw up the following conclusions about how students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School uses L2; how they transfer knowledge from L1-L2 and challenges faced in transferring elements from L1-L2. It was observed that students use their L1 in every setting of their life, therefore, perfection in the L2 was a challenge to them. It was recognized that students use the L1 and the L2 mostly at a situation where they deem it necessary. For instance, when at home, the L1 dominate their speech and when at school, the L2 dominate their speech. The linguistic items such as syntactical rulings, pattern, capitalization and failure to use the verb-to-be are influenced by the L1 in the writing of students L2. With this, negative transfer dominates whereby the grammatical rules of L1 that are not found in L2 are used wrongly in the writing of L2. The students should be exposed to some kind of contrastive studies in order to help them understand the differences between L1 and L2. Students should be directly or indirectly taught about the differences of the linguistic items between the L1 and L2. The research results also show that there is no evidence of positive transfer from the L1 in the writing of L2 among the students even though, there exist greater similarities of structures between the two languages.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

The main objective of this study was to focus on transfer of L1-L2 with specific reference to Ewe as (L1) and English as (L2). This study sought to find out the components of the L1 that the students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School use interchangeably in their daily writing of L2, namely English. It further sought to find out what factors lead to this transfer. The researcher hopes to seek further understanding regarding the theoretical debate on inter-language influence and deduce means to minimize its transfer if any. In this chapter, the researcher aims to conclude the findings of the study. The various insights that have emerged in the course of this study will be dealt with in the light of the research questions as follows:

1. What are the ways in which students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School students use the L2?
2. What relationship exists between the L1 and L2?
3. What are the challenges faced by the students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School in L1-L2 transfer?
4. In what ways can the difficulties faced by students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School in L1- L2 transfer be minimized?

5.1 Summary of findings

The first research question sought to identify ways by which students of Akatsi No.2 Junior High School use the L2. English being the official language of communication, a medium of instruction and a subject of study in our schools, learners always struggle to use it as and when necessary. As Ghana is a multilingual society, the issue of language of education has always been very complex and a

source of worry to educators and educational planners because of the multi-ethnic and multilingual situation (Ouedraogo, 2000). The research result has it that 100% of the respondents used English as their L2. To find out where the L2 is used, majority of the respondents use the L2 in school. About 57 respondents representing 76% majority use the L2 in school. Only 12 students representing 16% use the L2 in church while the remaining 6 students use the L2 at home. This means that the use of L2 among the students of Akatsi No 2 Junior High School is predominantly in school where it serves as the medium of instruction for academic purposes and a subject of study. At school, the L2 was used for academic work and also at play by the respondents. The research discovered that the participants acquired the L2 through formal education and interaction with people.

The second research question looked at the relationship that exists between the L1 and L2. From the research findings, it was realized that, there are structural similarities between the L1 and the L2 which resulted in appositive relationship between L1 and L2 as the L1 facilitates to a large extent easy acquisition of L2. From this, Vazquez (1991) indicates that, relating similarity with easiness and difference with difficulty implies adopting a simple attitude towards the complex process of learning. That is, the learners saw relationship of concept in both the L1 and the L2 that aids their language learning.

The third research question looked at the challenges faced by the students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School in transferring knowledge from L1 to L2 and it has been found through the research that, the students find it difficult to understand and apply the structures from the L1 to L2. This was evidenced in a written composition and literature test. Another problem was the difficulty of L2 constructions which seemed more difficult to acquire when compared with L1 since the transfer from L1

can help in L2 acquisition in some cases. The structure of the L1 makes it a bit difficult. For instance, an L2 study that is particularly difficult to learn can often have a positive impact on the rate of L2 learning as (Ortega, 2009) posits that language is a tool and as all tools, it is used to create thought but is also transformed to create sources of learning. The research has also shown that the respondents only look at the surface of the structural similarity without taking the rules of grammar for instance into account Example. Instead of “*John jumps over the wall*”, respondents write, “*John jump over the wall*”

The fourth research question tried to find out ways that the difficulties faced by students of Akatsi No. 2 Junior High School in transferring from L1 to L2 be minimized. From the findings, the following suggestions were made;

- Expose the children to the learning of L2 early in life both at home and in school.
- Motivate the students to learn by applying the right motivational theory and the right attitude of students towards studies will surely promote improvement in academic work.
- A finding from the teachers in the research revealed that the language should not be taught in isolation. Here, it behooves on the teacher to use communicative language approach during lessons. The teacher should always make the lesson student-centered and he, the teacher should serve as a facilitator. Teachers should always incorporate and integrate topics in one another. The students’ capacity on listening must be built, then to speaking, followed by reading and when these steps are followed, effective writing would be produced by the students, thereby avoiding negative transfer from L1-L2.

- Another view from the finding was that, students should not be punished for any negative transfer in that, the two languages have lots of structure in common so the teachers should capitalize on the similar elements and guide the students to identify the distinction among the L1 and the L2 to aid positive learning.
- Also, there should be frequent teacher feedback on students' assignment as a way of dealing with challenges in L1 – L2 transfer. Teachers can determine these difficulties by looking at the errors students make and use such errors in future studies and lesson to avoid such errors and improve performance and general competence in the language.
- Another way that difficulty in L1-L2 transfer be minimized as found by the research was to provide textbooks for the teaching and learning of Ghanaian language and English. According to Bedu Addo (2014), textbooks are the basic resource for every teacher. He further posits that, an investment in an educational resource is equally an important investment in an education enterprise. It is therefore necessary for students in the study area to be provided with adequate current and reliable textbooks to help them improve in their language proficiency to avoid negative transfer from L1 – L2.

5.2 Recommendations

The researcher gave these recommendations out of the finding made from this research to aid further research into the L1-L2 transfer as follows:

- Students should be made aware of the similarities and differences in their native language and the English language by the teachers so that they avoid errors in transferring ideas.

- The L1 and L2 should be used simultaneously in teaching the languages for students to identify the positive relations and use them accordingly.
- Students should be encouraged to read more English books to acquire more vocabulary that will enable them avoid literary translations.
- Teachers should give feedback on students work and motivate them to do well and not punish them for wrong transfer made.
- Teachers should use language drills and a lot of teaching and learning materials to enhance students' proficiency in the English language.

5.3 Suggestions for future research

The study makes the following suggestions for further research

1. Contrastive analysis in L1-L2 transfer
2. Teachers knowledge of content in L1-L2 transfer
3. The role of the teacher in L1-L2 transfer
4. The relationship between English grammar and L1-L2 transfer.
5. The positive impact of L1-L2 transfer

5.4 Conclusion

This research has revealed the ways students use the L2, thus, English and their native language thus, L1. It also looks at the various factors that contribute to L1-L2 transfer among students as a result of similarities observed between the Ewe language and the English language and the possibility of transfer. Moreover, views were sought to minimize negative transfer among students. The researcher is of the view that, if language markedness and other factors aiding L1-L2 transfer are minimized and the rule of the orthography, semantics and syntax spelt out for students

in the use of English and Ewe, the students would make a head way in the use of the languages without unnecessary interference.



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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

1. What is your native language?
2. Name the second language that you speak.
3. At what age did you start speaking the second language?
4. Where do you often speak the second language?
5. What language do you speak at home?
6. How did you learn your second language? (tick one)
 - a. Through formal Education []
 - b. Through interaction with people []
 - c. Both []
7. Can you find these structures in both your L1 and L2? (tick where applicable)
 - a. Oral skills Yes [] No []

Grammar	Yes []	No []
Nouns	Yes []	No []
Articles	Yes []	No []
Prepositions	Yes []	No []
Pronouns	Yes []	No []
Adjectives	Yes []	No []
Adverbs	Yes []	No []
Verb tenses	Yes []	No []
Subject verb agreement	Yes []	No []
 - b. Reading intonation Yes [] No []
 - c. Writing composition Yes [] No []
 - d. Literature Yes [] No []

8. Which of these structures do you find difficult to understand? (tick where applicable)

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a. Oral skills | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| b. Grammar | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Nouns | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Articles | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Prepositions | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Pronouns | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Adjectives | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Adverbs | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Verb tenses | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Subject verb agreement | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| c. Reading intonation | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| d. Writing composition | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| e. Literature /Parts of speech | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |

9. In which language do you find understanding of the above structures more easily? (tick one)

- | | | |
|------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| English Language | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Ewe language | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |

10. Do you find any relationship in scope of Ewe and English? Yes [] No []

11. Do you do transfer of knowledge from your L1 to L2? Yes [] No []

12. Which of the following areas do you do transfer of knowledge at?

- | | | |
|-------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Oral skills | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |
| Grammar | Yes [<input type="checkbox"/>] | No [<input type="checkbox"/>] |

Nouns	Yes []	No []
Articles	Yes []	No []
Prepositions	Yes []	No []
Pronouns	Yes []	No []
Adjectives	Yes []	No []
Adverbs	Yes []	No []
Verb tenses	Yes []	No []
Subject verb agreement	Yes []	No []
Reading intonation	Yes []	No []
Writing composition	Yes []	No []
Literature	Yes []	No []

13. Which of the languages would you prefer to use in the following places?

- a. At home
- b. In school
- c. At play
- d. In the community

14. In which language do you communicate with your friends?

15. In communicating in L2, do you first think in L1? Yes [] No []

APPENDIX B

TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Please provide appropriate respond to the questions

You are assured of confidentiality and anonymity of your responses

Sex.....

Age.....

Number of years you are teaching language

1. What is your native language?
2. What linguistic structures are common in your students L1 and L2?
 - a. Grammar.....
 - Nouns.....
 - Verbs.....
 - Articles.....
 - Pronouns.....
 - Adverbs.....
 - Adjectives.....
 - Verb tense.....
 - b. Oral skills.....
 - c. Composition.....
 - d. Reading intonation.....
 - e. Literature.....
3. Do your students transfer knowledge in their L1 to the L2?.....
4. What are the linguistic items that have been transferred from L1 to L2 by your students?
 - a. Grammar.....

Nouns.....

Verbs.....

Articles.....

Pronouns.....

Adverbs.....

Adjectives.....

Verb tense.....

b. Oral skills.....

5. In which language do you often communicate with your students during lesson?

6. Which of the following can be identified as the factors leading to your students transfer of L1-L2 in both speech and writing?

- Mother tongue influence.....
- Linguistic structure of the languages.....
- Learning environment.....
- Age of the students.....
- Psychological factors.....

7. Do your students speak or answer questions in English in the classroom?

a. Yes.....

b. No.....

8. What kind of mistakes do your students make in writing English?

9. How do you agree to the influence of the environment on your student language acquisition?

a. Agree

b. Strongly agree

c. Disagree

d. Strongly disagree

10. At what degree do you use the students L1 in your L2 lesson?

a. Very often

b. Often

c. Scarcely



APPENDIX C

STUDENTS INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. What is your native language?
2. Name the second language that you speak.
3. Where do you often speak the second language?
4. What language do you communicate in with your friends?
5. How did you learn your second language?
6. Mention four aspects of the Ewe and English languages that are similar.
7. How do you find learning English as compare to Ewe?
8. In communicating in L2, do you first think in L1?
9. Which language would you prefer to use in the following situations?
 - a. At home
 - b. In school
 - c. At play
10. In which language do you communicate with your parents at home?

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

1. What is your native language?
2. How long have you been teaching languages?
3. How long have you been teaching in this school?
4. Are you a trained language teacher?
5. How do your students perform in the English language as compared to Ewe?
6. Do you recognize any trace of L1 transfer on the students writing of L2?
7. What language structures are common in the transfer of L1-L2?
8. What do you think could be the factors leading to the transfer of L1-L2?
9. Suggest possible solutions to adopt to minimize the transfer L1-L2?
.....
.....
10. What language do you use mostly in communicating with the students at school and why?

APPENDIX E

OBSERVATION GUIDE OF STUDENTS

1. Answering recall questions
2. Answering inference questions
3. Explaining simple process
4. Explaining complex ideas
5. Asking simple questions

