

**PATTERNS OF INTERFERENCE IN ENGLISH TENSES AMONG HAUSA/  
ENGLISH BILINGUALS IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN  
JIGAWA STATE, NIGERIA**

**BY**

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PG/Ph.D/11/58859**

**DEPARTMENT OF ARTS EDUCATION,  
FACULTY OF EDUCATION,  
UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA**

**OCTOBER, 2018**

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**A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ARTS EDUCATION,  
FACULTY OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA,  
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**APPROVAL PAGE**

This thesis has been approved for the Department of Arts Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

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## **CERTIFICATION**

**HABU, Galadi Dauda**, a postgraduate student of the Department of Arts Education, with Registration Number PG/Ph.D/11/58859 has satisfactorily completed the requirements for the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Arts Education. The work embodied in this thesis is original and has not been submitted in part or full for any other diploma or degree of this or any other university.

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**Professor G. C. Offorma**  
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## **DEDICATION**

This study is dedicated to my deceased parents; Habu Galadi and Maimuna Habu, and my family; Almajira Dauda, Barira, Magajiya, Murjanatu, Habsiya, Makasiyya. Aminu, Zainab, Umar, Firdausi, Fatima and numerous of my friends for their support, prayers and patience throughout the period of my study.

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## ABSTRACT

The study investigated the patterns of interference in English tenses among Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria. Nine research questions and eight hypotheses tested at 0.05 levels of significance guided the study. Descriptive survey and ex-post facto research designs were adopted. The population of the study comprised all the 2876 National Certificate in Education (N.C.E.II) and National Diploma (ND II) students in 2016/2017 academic session offering English and Communication Skills in the Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel, Hussaini Adamu Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure and Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse. Intact classes were used, 476 respondents were drawn and used for the study. Two instruments were used for data collection. They are English- Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) and English Verb-Tense Achievement Test (EVTAT). The instruments were face and content validated by five experts in Language Education and Educational Measurement and Evaluation units from University of Nigeria, Nsukka and Bayero University, Kano. Kuder-Richardson (K-R 20) method was used to test the internal consistency of the English Verb-Tense Achievement Test (EVTAT) and the reliability Coefficient of 0.89 was obtained. The reliability of English Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) was determined using different reliability estimates. Sections one and two were determined through test re-test method and estimate of temporal stability computed using Pearson Product Moment Coefficient. The reliability indices for the two sections were found to be 0.84 and 0.73 respectively. The reliability of section three of EHEAT consisting of 3 essay topics was determined through inter-raters using Kendal Coefficient of Concordance. The reliability indices of the three essay topics were found to be 0.78, 0.71 and 0.74 respectively. The data collected were analysed using frequency counts, percentages, means and standard deviations for answering research questions while the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance using t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The findings of the study revealed that gender had influence on the interference errors made by male and female students in English verb-tenses. There was a significant difference in the mean interference errors committed by male and female students in English verb-tenses ( $t\text{-val.} = 5.15, P < 0.05$ ); Location had influence on the interference errors committed by urban and rural students in English verb tenses. However, there was no significant difference in the mean interference errors committed by urban and rural students in English verb tenses ( $t\text{-val.} = -1.44, P > 0.05$ ). Proprietorship of schools had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb- tenses. There was a significant difference in the mean interference errors committed by students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses; ( $t\text{-val.} = -5.00, P > 0.00$ ). Female Hausa learners of English had a slightly higher mean achievement scores in English verb tenses than their male counterparts. There was a significant difference in the mean achievements scores of male and female Hausa/English bilinguals in English verb tenses ( $t\text{-val.} = -6.16, P < 0.00$ ), amongst many other findings of this study. The educational implications of the findings were examined. Some recommendations among others were made that; Teachers/lecturers should identify areas of difficulties and interference errors common to Hausa learners of English and provide useful remedial drills and exercises to reduce these errors thereby promoting academic achievements of students in English Language. Textbooks Writers and Curriculum Planners should incorporate ideas and materials that would promote effective teaching of English verb tenses. Government should adequately equip institutions in both urban and rural locations so that students could perform alike.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### **Background of the Study**

English is one of the major languages of the world today. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (2013) maintain that English has been accepted as a lingua franca in the global world. According to Dianam (2011), over a quarter of the world's population, live in countries where English has some official status or is one of the native languages, if not the dominant native language. According to Crystal (2003b: 69) recent estimates produce a grand total of 1.5 billion speakers from all sources: approximately 750 million first and second language speakers, and an equivalent number of speakers of English as a foreign language in the world. However, Ethnologue (2015, 18<sup>th</sup> ed.) puts the figure of English speakers at 2.4 billion (consisting of about 400 million native speakers and 2 billion second and foreign speakers). This figure is on the high side and appears as they add up together estimates from different dates and sources, language information is not collected on most national censuses. English is used for active communication in countries where it is the second language (L2). Nigeria falls into this category of users.

In Nigeria, English has come to play a significant role in all fields of human endeavour. English language in Nigeria enjoys a prestigious status (Fakeye, 2012). It is the language of literary arts, scholarship, administration, trade, commerce, international communication, information gathering and dissemination. Ayodele (2004) has succinctly summarized the role of English in Nigeria as the language of governance and administration, the language of the judiciary, and the language in which most of the newspapers and magazines are written. English has had a major influence on Nigerians since its introduction during the colonial period. It has served both the function of a national language and of an official language, and would continue for a long time to do so

(Jowitt, 2009, Fakeye, 2010). The position English occupies in the lives of average Nigerians and in the affairs of the nation has fully been recognized by the 1999 constitution (as amended 2011) where it stipulates that "the business of the National Assembly shall be conducted in English, and in Hausas, Igbo and Yoruba when adequate arrangements have been made therefore" (Section 55:52) (Echezona,2013).

The role of English as a lingua franca and as a unifying force can be emphasized. Nigeria is a multilingual and multicultural nation (Fakeye, 2006). Given the diversity of mother tongues and the multiplicity of ethnic groups: three hundred and ninety five (395) (Hansford, Bendor-Samuel and Stanford, 1976), four hundred (400) (Bamgbose, 1992), four hundred and fifty (450) (Akinjobi, 2004) and five hundred and twenty-six (526) (Simons and Lewis, 2018) the need for a common language of communication becomes absolutely necessary. As a result, English language assumes the status of de facto and de jure official language especially since no local language enjoys the wider acceptance enjoyed by the language among the different nationalities in Nigeria. The need to fit into different spheres of national life on the one hand, and to be able to interact with other people of the world through effective communication on the other, makes the mastery of the English language both in the written or spoken forms imperative (Kolawole, 1998, Kolawole and Adeyanju, 2002, Makinde, 2007). This justifies the entrenchment of English as a dominant language in Nigeria (Oluwole, 2008)

English is the medium of instruction right from the fourth year of primary education to the university. The National Policy on Education (FRN, 2013:11-12) recognised the role of English in education when it stipulates that "the medium of instruction in the primary school shall be the language of immediate environment for the first three years" From the fourth year English, shall progressively be used as a medium of instruction" This was probably because of the importance of English language in education, and because



classrooms have become too heterogeneous to allow for any mother tongue beyond manageable level.

Hausa, for instance, is one of the widely spoken languages in West Africa. It is classified as a member of the Chadic group of the Afro-asiatic family of languages (DøAniello, 2004). Recently, its relationship to Cushitic, Berber and Semitic (i.e Arabic and Hebrew) languages was widely recognized (DøAniello, 2004, Amfani, 2007b). Presently, it is believed to be spoken as first language (L1) and second language (L2) by approximately 40 to 50 million people in Nigeria, Niger Republic, Ghana, Northern Togo, Sudan, Cameroon, Chad, Benin Republic, Burkina Faso and many of the major cities in the North, West and Equatorial Africa (Utoh, 2003, Lawal, 2008, Bello, 2015). Even though the dialectical situation of Hausa is yet to be described in detail, Hausa linguists generally distinguish four blocks of dialects each consisting of sub-dialects; òWestern Dialectö (e.g Sokoto/ Gobir dialects), òNorthern Dialectö (Katsina, Daura and Damagaram dialects), òEastern Dialectö (Gundiri and Hadejia dialects) and òStandard Dialectö which is generally considered to be based on Kano Hausa (Ahmed & Daura, 2007, Bello, 2015). Hausa is both used as a native language (first language) and as a second language in Nigeria.

In order to facilitate the reading and understanding of this study, it is pertinent to make some clarifications. In Hausa orthography every consonant letter represents a single phoneme. This is not true of the vowel sounds. There are both long and short vowel sounds, but the distinction between ðlongø and ðshortø vowels is not represented in the orthography, neither are the tones. It often happens, therefore that words which are phonetically different in spoken Hausa are written as if they are homonyms (Adeyanju, 1997a). However, three different tone patterns (òhighö, òfallingö and ðlowö tones) exist and two vowel lengths (ðshortö and ðlongø) are identified in Hausa. While the òhighø and ðlowö tones occur on syllables of any shape, the òfallingö tone occurs only on Consonant-Vowel-

Consonant (CVC) syllables or on Consonant-Vowel (CV) syllables in which the Vowel (V) is a long syllable or diphthong. Wong, Szeto, and Wong (2007) affirm that, in well over half the languages of the world, it is possible to change the meaning of a word simply by changing the pitch level at which it is spoken. Languages that allow this, such as Hausa and Igbo, are known as tonal languages.

English and Hausa languages enjoy wider international acceptability. Each of them has a large number of L2 speakers. There is the need for Hausa learners of English to strive to effectively use the target language. This could only be possible if the learners are well versed not only in the grammar of each relevant language but also in its appropriate usage (Widdowson, 2007). In the present study, appropriateness in the use of English and Hausa verb-tenses and aspects is the major focus. The study is interested in helping teachers identify basic areas of observed difficulties between the two languages. This will guide teachers to identify areas where emphasis is needed in designing a syllabus.

In Hausa speaking milieu, bilingualism is a common pattern of language use. Ordinarily, the term *öbilingualö* refers to a person who speaks two or more languages (Giussani, Roux, Lubrano, Gaini & Bello, 2007). The simplest definition of a bilingual is a person who has some functional ability in a second language. This may vary from a limited ability in one or more domains, to very strong command of both languages which is sometimes called balanced bilingualism (Spolsky 1998). In a bilingual situation, what is important is to be able to identify each of the languages, that is, which varieties of the languages are involved. Secondly, it is important to identify the way each of the languages is acquired. It is useful to distinguish between mother (or native) tongue learning and second or foreign language learning.

A *öbilingual learnerö* is in its broad sense (and as used in the context of this study) a person who uses his/ her first language ( $L_1$ ) at home in the community and is learning

through a second language (L<sub>2</sub>), for example English at school. The person may be learning all subjects except his native language through the L<sub>2</sub>, many scholars use bilingual learners instead of second language learners to highlight the value of the two languages (Cambridge Assessment International Education, 2017). However, others use 'bilingual learners' to refer only to students on bilingual education programmes. Cambridge Assessment International Education, (2017), further uses 'bilingual education' to refer to the use of two or more languages as medium of instruction for content subjects such as Science or History.

In Jigawa State, the study area, the bilingual situation shows that children (learners) grow up at home, at playground, and in the community speaking their mother tongue (Hausa Language) but are confronted with English as their second language in schools. Once a learner acquires his mother tongue, it is likely his verbal skills might be weak in the second language. This is because he has to think in his mother tongue before rendering or transferring his thoughts into the target language. It is also likely that the learner may develop apathy for the new language because of ignorance or hatred for the language and its accompanying cultures. This may result in low proficiency in the language. There is also the suggestion that for a bilingual to speak the target language, he has to suppress the influence of his first language structures on the second language. The foregoing scenario depicts the actual situation of bilingual students in Jigawa State. Hence, this is one of the main reasons for conducting such a study in Jigawa state.

In all social, cultural, commercial and some other formal gatherings, in Jigawa State, Hausa is commonly used, while English is only used at official functions, even though some functions are partially conducted in Hausa. At the primary school level, Hausa is used at the initial stage, and at a later stage Hausa and English are used, but outside the classroom, all activities are conducted in Hausa. At the secondary school level, English is

used across all levels as the medium of instruction, that is, English is used to teach all other subjects in the school curriculum except Hausa. In addition, it is being taught as one of the subjects offered in the school curriculum. The Hausa language has been reduced to writing with a standard orthography and a lot of literature written and several researches have been conducted in it. For instance, most of these research studies have their theoretical bases on the influence of Mother Tongue (MT) or First Language (L1) in the learning of the Target Language (TL) or Second Language (L2), a process that is known as linguistic transfer.

Transfer is a traditional term from psychology of learning which means imposition of previously learned patterns onto a new learning situations (Isurin, 2005). The phenomenon of linguistic transfer or cross-linguistic influence occurs when an individual is acquiring a second language (L2) and the influence of the first language (L1) interacts (interferes) in the same way with the acquisition of L2. According to Garcia (2009) the child (learner) can transfer to a new language the system of meaning he/ she already possesses on his/ her own. That is, what is learned in one language does not have to be re-learned in another (Calderon, 2014). Therefore, transfer from the mother tongue was, thus, considered as a form of influence of L1 habits on L2 learning.

In a second language acquisition, transfer is a major factor in the process of language learning. Its importance in L2 learning has been re-evaluated by researchers, linguists and classroom teachers time and again. There is growing evidence on the overwhelming influence of mother tongue on the target language. There exist situations where English sounds are mixed up as a result of negative effect of transfer from the mother tongue. These instances abound across all aspects of the learners' interlanguage, that is at; discourse, lexical, semantic, syntactic, morphological, phonetics and phonology levels.

Linguists, in overall, are concerned with the static structures within a given language system. Based on this, the target language rules contain native language based linguistic transfer which results in linguistic errors. It therefore goes, without saying, that a native language can either facilitate or hinder the acquisition of the target language. In this way, native language based linguistic transfer is divided into two broad types: positive and negative transfers. Positive transfer (facilitation) occurs when the two language systems' structures align well with each other and provide an ease of transfer (Sharp, 2018), for words from different languages that are related in spelling and/or meaning. Positive transfer accelerates learning since conceptual knowledge will be transferred; it is just the linguistic levels that have to be taught (Garcia, 2009). Therefore, classroom that use levels and visuals assist students in assigning words to concepts thereby accelerating language learning process.

Negative transfer (inhibition) exist when the language systems do not match well in structure and meaning, and the ability to draw upon one system for the understanding of the other is not readily available (Sharp, 2018). The ability to acquire quickly a second language system can be predicted by the ease of learning the L2. According to Isurin (2005) the knowledge of the native language can indeed have a facilitating or inhibiting effect on the learners' progress in mastering a new language. The point is that learning a L2 is based on prior knowledge of the L1 (MT). This means that learners of a new language will be influenced by their mother tongue (MT). That is why most of the research studies have their theoretical bases on the language learning theories in the 1950s and 1960s.

A lot of the language learning theories in 1950s and 1960s were based on the behaviorists' and structuralists' tenet which saw learning as the process of imitation and reinforcement (i.e habit formation/language use). As a result, the concept of Contrastive Analysis (CA) was formulated by Fries (1945) and developed by Lado (1957). The

ultimate aim of CA is to compare the phonological and the morphological systems, syntactic and lexical meanings of two or more languages (Abushibah, El-Omari and Tobat, 2011). Contrastive Analysis is based on the premise that languages are different, and that because of these differences the Second language (L<sub>2</sub>) learner encounters difficulties while learning the second language (Lado 1957, Crystal, 2003, Ellis, 2008). Contrastive Analysis (CA) or Cross Linguistic Transfer (CLT) refers to the identification of structural differences on linguistic forms; phonological (segmental and supra-segmental), syntactic (choice of given grammatical categories e.g number, gender, tense and sentence types), and morphological (canonical patterns i.e ways and sources combine to form words) between languages, seen as points of potential learning difficulties (Crystal, 2003a).

Contrastive analysis is a systematic study of two (or more) languages with a view to identifying their structural similarities and differences. The comparison between the two languages, that is, first language (L<sub>1</sub>) and second language (L<sub>2</sub>) is based on the assumption that similarities in linguistics structures of the two languages will facilitate learning of the second language (positive transfer) while differences will inhibit or hinder learning (negative transfer/interference).

Traditionally, contrastive analysis is defined as a method which helps the analyst to ascertain in which aspects the two languages are alike or differ, which include two main purposes; description and comparison (James, 1980, Chestermn, 2006, Kurtes 2006, Gast, 2013). According to Dost and Bohloulzadeh (2017), "Contrastive hypothesis" refers to the theory while "Contrastive analysis" focuses on the method of implementation of the hypothesis. On the other hand, "Contrastive analysis hypothesis" emphasizes both the theory and the method simultaneously.

In contrastive analysis (CA), it is important to note the influence of the mother tongue (first language) on the learning of the second language. CA holds that second

language will be affected by first language. Therefore, contrastive analysis as one of the theories of learners' errors is relevant in the present study. The present study investigates patterns of interference which result from the influence of Hausa verbal structures on English verb tenses with a view to identifying the areas of similarities and differences.

The underlying assumption of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) is based on three hypotheses; strong, weak and moderate. The strong hypothesis claims that one can predict the error of a language learner on the basis of comparison in the description of L1 and L2. The weak emphasizes what Brown (2007) calls a posteriori explanation of sources of errors in language learning, whose major tenet is that differences between languages do not predict difficulty (Ringbom, 1987, 2007). Lastly, the moderate hypothesis represents the middle position between the two. This hypothesis, according to Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) focused on the nature of human learning and postulates the categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences as the basis for learning. Therefore, wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result. These hypotheses are essentially assumptions about how the knowledge of the first language affects the learning and the use of the second language (Onuigbo and Eyesi, 2009). The second theory of learners' errors which is central to this study is Error Analysis,

Error analysis is a careful study of large corpus of errors made by speakers of first language (L1) or mother tongue attempting to express themselves in the target language. Error analysis (EA) rather than predicting errors, as is done in contrastive analysis (CA), focuses on actual errors produced by second language (L2) learners. EA sets out to collect, analyze and correct errors. EA helps to discover problems in L2 learning and it is a process of providing to the teacher evidence of how language is learned and what strategies or

procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the target language (Ngudda and Nwoke, 2014)

Error analysis, according Crystal (2003a), is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language using any principles or procedures provided by linguistics. Error analysis is a branch of applied linguistics which is concerned with compilation, study and analysis of errors made by second language learners.

Error Analysis is an activity to reveal errors found in writing and speaking. Error Analysis is conducted in order to (a) find out how well someone knows a language (b) find out how a person learns a language and (C) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in the teaching or preparation of teaching materials. This definition stresses the function of error analysis (Hasyim, 2002). The concept of error was defined by Brown (2007) as the process to observe, analyse and classify the deviation of the rules of the second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learners.

Several definitions of the term 'error' have been given by some scholars. Most of them have the same things in common. That is why the researcher puts forward two basic definitions of error in this research. The two definitions are (1) errors are systematic deviations, when a learner has not learnt something and consistently 'gets it wrong' and (2) an error is systematic deviation from the standard and they reveal the learner's current mastery of the target language (Hasyim 2002, Crystal, 2003a, Lennon, 2008, Ellis, 2008). It seems that the phrase 'systematic deviation' in these definitions is a key phrase which can be interpreted as the deviation which happens repeatedly.

Furthermore, it is necessary to differentiate between 'error' and 'mistake'. A mistake is also a deviation of the norms of the language but is not systematic. It means that the use of the norms of the language in sentences sometimes gets it right and sometimes



wrong (Hasyim 2002). According to Richards, Pratt and Pratt(1992) it was assumed that a mistake is made by a learner when writing or speaking which is caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness or other aspects of performance. From the preceding, it could be concluded that a mistake is made by a learner because he/ she does not apply the rule(s) that he/ she actually knows. In other words, a mistake is a non-systematic deviation from the norms of the language. This study will mainly concentrate on systematic errors, there is no point trying to analyse random errors or mistakes.

The present study is interested in investigating students' errors because it is on the basis of those errors that occur regularly that syllabuses are designed and remedial programmes are put in place to address the observed areas of students' weaknesses. Error analysis is an indispensable diagnostic tool in the teaching ó learning process. It provides insight into the nature of the learning process, methodology to be used, the materials to be designed to reflect the actual problems of the learners, and the remedial programmes to be put in place to address the actual learning needs of the learners. It is based on these reasons that error analysis is adopted in this study. Mistakes can be self-corrected by any relatively good secondary school students how much less students in higher education institutions in Nigeria.

Higher education refers to all organised learning activities provided at the tertiary level of education, that is, a post-secondary school education. The National Policy on Education NPE (2013) defines tertiary education as the education given after post basic education in institutions such as universities and inter-university centres such as the Nigeria French Language Village, Nigeria Arabic Language Village, National Institute of Nigerian Languages, institutions such as Innovation Enterprise Institutions (IEIs) and colleges of education, and monotechnics, polytechnics, and other specialized institutions such as colleges of agriculture, schools of health and technology, and the National Teachers

Institutes (NTI). The establishment of institutions of higher learning was to train different categories of people based on the needs and aspirations of the nation. Policies and regulations are drawn up by government to guide and direct the smooth operation of these institutions. Higher education laws are formulated to guide the type of buildings, facilities, equipment required in the institutions, the curricula, the entry qualification of students, rules guiding the movement of students, the qualification of teachers, their workloads and condition of service, process of certification and graduation.

There is both internal and external quality control mechanism put in place. The National Universities Commission (NUC) regulates the operation and quality of university education. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) is saddled with responsibility of controlling the operation and quality of Colleges of Education in Nigeria. While the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) is responsible for the control of polytechnics and monotechnics education in the country. It is the responsibility of these quality control bodies to formulate a curriculum for their respective institutions. These types of institutions could either be owned by federal or state governments or even by private organisation(s) or individual(s). Each state of the federation has all of or some of these types of institutions. Jigawa State has all of these types of higher education institutions except a federal college of education. These institutions are expected to offer admission to students who have completed their secondary school education successfully.

It is expected that students who have completed their secondary school education could converse freely and proficiently with any educated person, understand any piece of presentation whether spoken or written, and would be able to write in a relatively good English. This expectation is even greater at the tertiary level of education. However, in reality this is not the case. People still hear and read about all kinds of poor quality, substandard, uneducated and unintelligible versions of English, not only at the post-

primary school level, but most unexpectedly at the tertiary level of education: the colleges of education, the polytechnics and the universities that affect performance and achievement of students.

The overall poor performance in English has always been a national phenomenon. An analysis of the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) English examinations results nation-wide, for eleven years running (2007 to 2017) reveals a very low performance. For example in 2007, only 29.94% passed with credit, the remaining 70.06% failed or could not pass out at a credit level in English. In 2008, only 23.78% passed at credit level, the remaining 76.22% either failed or had no credit pass in English. In 2009, only 25.99% passed with credit, the remaining 74.01% failed or had no credit pass. In 2010, 33.38% passed with credit, the remaining 66.62% failed or had no credit pass. However, in 2011 an impressive performance of 55.34% credit pass was recorded. However, in 2012, 38.81% passed with credit, while the remaining 61.19% failed or had no credit pass in English. In 2013, 36.57% had credit pass; the remaining 63.43% failed or had no credit pass in English. In 2014, only 31.28% passed with credit, the remaining 68.72% failed or had failed to make a credit in English. However, in 2016 an impressive performance of 52.97% credit pass was recorded and in 2017 a little more impressive performance of 59.22% credit pass was recorded. (Source WAEC Chief Examiners' Annual Report, 2007-2017). In addition to the analysis above, the Chief Examiners for English, WAEC May/June 2007-2017 report that; the low level of performance in English language (24% -59%) over the eleven-year period calls for a review of the strategies for the teaching of the subject.

The situation at the tertiary level of education is not anything better. The poor academic achievement being witnessed at the secondary school level is negatively affecting students' achievements at the higher education level. A careful analysis of the English and

Communication Skills results from 2007 to 2017 reveal that only between averagely 45% to 50% of students who offered the course obtained the requisite pass mark in it (Source: G. S. E Results File, 2007 to date). A careful perusal at the Jigawa State College of Education External Moderators Report for English from 2008 to 2017 reveals that performance of the students was extremely poor particularly in the area of language use. Across the three proficiency levels being moderated, the moderator consistently made some comments on the different course units examined. At the Pre-National Certificate in Education (Henceforth, Pre-N.C.E) level, the moderator observed that students' written English is extremely poor. At the National Certificate in Education (Henceforth N.C.E 11), the moderator observed that this mirrors the poor language use observed in all other language courses being offered in the college. Lastly, at the N.C.E 111, the moderator was even more concerned about the linguistic competence of the students, when he observed that the language of the students is extremely horrible and concluded that the language use of the students was not commensurate with their level of education (Department of English Moderator's Report File, 2008 to 2017).

In recent years, researchers have extended the scope of their inquiry into the problem of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The motivation is two folds: first, it provides an added perspective on human language, and second, interest in second language teaching and bilingual education has resulted in a greater need to understand the mechanism underlying second language acquisition (Hakuta, & Cancino, 2012). Studies have found that L2 learners seem to rely on their L1 grammar to some extent. This is shown by the kind of errors L2 learners make, which often involve the transfer of grammatical rules from their (L1) (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyamas, 2011:363). This is particularly shown through their accent.

There is much evidence from other studies that second language learners are influenced by their native language in the acquisition of the target language, a process known as transfer (Odlin, 1989, 2005b, Ellis, 2008 and Odlin, 2012,). Transfer can be described as a process of making use of perceived and/or assumed cross-linguistic similarities, and the effect may be either positive or negative (Ringbom, 2007). That is, similarities in linguistic structures in two languages will result in positive transfer, while differences will create an interference which is known as negative transfer (Isurin, 2005). Interference has been described by psychologists as the influence the learning of subsequent list has on the retention of the originally learnt list. When the influence is on the language one learnt first, it is retroactive interference. The detrimental effect of the retention of subsequent learnt list resulting from prior learning is called proactive interference.

Interference phenomenon is those instances of deviation from the norms of either languages which occur in the speech or writing of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language (Odlin, 1989, 2005b, 2012, Tyler 2001, 2011). Common mother tongue interference among Hausa higher education students is the proactive or inhibitory interference, which occurs as a result of information previously stored in their memory. Based on this, Hausa learners of English find it difficult to effectively use aspects of English verb-tenses. This is one of the concerns of the present study.

Tense is a grammatical term that refers to how a verb shows the time of an action in the sentence. Siyal and Jindal (2008) define tense as the change that takes place in the form of the verb to indicate time. Tense is a grammatical category that is realized by verb inflections (Quirk and Greenbaum, 2004 & 2013). Tense shows how or when an action is performed. To show the completeness or incompleteness of an action, tense relates with the grammatical concept of aspect.

Aspect, on the other hand, is not concerned with relating a situation to any other time point but rather with internal temporal constituency of the one situation (Yusif, 2010, Yusif, 2011). Like tense, aspect is a way that verbs represent time. Tense relates to the time of referent to some other time, commonly the speech event, while aspect conveys other temporal information, such as duration, completion or frequency, as it relates to the time of the action. Tense is more concerned with past time versus present time and is based on *morphological* form (e.g. write, writes, and wrote).

Aspect is concerned with duration, and in English it is a matter of syntax, using parts of *ōto beō* to form the progressive and *ōhaveō* to form the perfective (Chalker and Weiner, 2014). Therefore, aspect of a verb indicates whether the expressed action is completed (perfective) or continuous (progressive). There may be also the combination of the perfective and progressive aspects to produce the perfective progressive aspects. Tense and aspect in English and Hausa have received considerable attention of scholars. Both tense and aspect are connected to time although they differ in various ways.

In English, there are four aspects according to which the tenses can be conveniently arranged;

- a. The Progressive Aspect (Continuous) views the action in the process of happening, being in the middle of things and not having been completed. e.g. *I am eating dinner at the moment* (He is still eating and has not finished).
- b. The Perfective Aspect views the action as having been completed before another point in time. The action is completed but may influence what follows e.g. *I have (already) eaten my dinner*.
- c. The Perfective Progressive Aspect combines the qualities of the two aspects above and describes the action as an on-going one that has been going on until a certain point in time. e.g. *I had been eating dinner when my mother came in*.

- d. The Simple (or Zero) Aspect does not relate to the flow of time and merely states whether or not the action occurs. e.g. *The sun rises in the east and sets in the west* (simple factual statement).

The teacher, who teaches, especially, verb-tense and aspect, is faced with many challenges. One of the challenges is that Hausa learners of English exhibit high degree of mother tongue interference, especially in their speech; for instance learners encounter problems while pronouncing some words with consonant sounds such as /P/ as in ðpoolö and /F/ as in öfoolö . Secondly, the attitude of the Hausa milieu towards English in general and the nature of group dynamics in the language classroom is detrimental to the learners. Community attitude towards the language being learned can also have a profound impact on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) where the community has a broadly negative view of the target language and its speakers or a negative view of its relation to them, learning is typically much more difficult (David's English Language Teaching World, 2006), ([www.eltworld.net](http://www.eltworld.net), 2006).

The main concern of this study therefore, is to determine the structural differences and similarities that exist in the tense and aspect systems of English and Hausa Languages. Similarly, the use of several aspects of English verb-tense by Hausa educated learners were analyzed to determine how they constituted interference in English verbal-tense. The study also intended to determine whether gender, location and school proprietorship (school ownership) had any significant effect on the academic achievements of students in English verb-tense.

Gender refers to the sum total of cultural values, attitudes, roles, practices and characteristics based on sex. According to Offorma (2004, 2016), gender is a learned, socially constructed conditions ascribed to males and females. The generalisation that female students do better than their male counterparts do in English and the arts, which

require verbal skills and that male students better than their female counterparts in mathematics and the natural sciences which require dexterity and high order cognitive thinking is empirically unresolved. This kind of stereotype may further stigmatise the situation and further affect the performance of the genders both ways. Studies abound as to whether males perform better than females or vice-versa. The differences in the scholastic achievement of boys and girls are generally attributed to biological causes and or to cultural stereotypes (Klein, 2004, Okoh, 2010). However, there still remains a contestable terrain for researchers and scholars worldwide. This study is expected to add further insights towards resolving the existing controversy. The study is interested in finding out whether female students use the English tense and aspect more proficiently than their male counterparts, and what could be the reasons for these differences.

Location refers to a place, a point or an area on the earth's surface or elsewhere where people live and strive for their survival (Gersmehl, 2008). Location simply refers to urban and rural areas. Schools may be located either in urban or rural areas. According to Bersnes (2002) urban are those schools in municipalities or schools found within the towns and rural schools are located in the villages or semi-urban areas. On whether location has any significant effect on the academic achievements of students, Leleji (2009) observes that rural schools are poorly staffed, mainly by unqualified poorly motivated teachers, ill-equipped, poor attendance, dropout and failure rates high and inadequate basic amenities are destabilising for the teachers and students.

On the other hand, urban schools relatively have funds, equipment, higher quality buildings, qualified teachers and congenial environments. The implication of these assertions for the present study is that, the result of this study should prove the efficacy of this statement or otherwise. The study may enrich the understanding of the problem which



Nigerian students face with verb-tense and aspect thereby enhancing the confidence and successes recorded by students and teachers nationwide.

In Nigeria, school proprietorship or school type is one factor that affects the learning activities which in turn affects the performance of students. School ownership can either be public or private. A public school is any school controlled and/or supported by the state or federal government. A private school on the other hand, is a school supported and controlled by religious/social organizations or other private groups or individuals (Oke and Maliki, 2009). There is a widely-held view that students who attend private schools perform better than those that attend public schools in different parts of the world. Both Adomako (2005) and Asante (2005) noted that performance of private schools in Ghana has continued to be far better than that of the public schools at the basic level. Sato (2005) argued that there is more chance of a better academic achievement in private schools in Japan, just as Dalmia (2005) was of the view that public schools in the present day India were simply not up to the mark. In addition, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, USA, 2004) has provided evidence on school in the United State of America (USA) up till 2002 to support the view. Among the reasons adduced for the relatively low performance in public schools are ineffective supervision, poor parental support and differences in the school climate such as indiscipline and insecurity. Others are differences in infrastructural facilities, motivation of teachers, enrollment size and student-teacher ratio.

The general opinion in Nigeria is that private schools are better in terms of the availability of human and physical facilities and consequently students perform better in private schools. Ajayi (2004) found out that school type made a difference on students' performance. Similarly, Philius and Wanjobi (2011) reiterated that school type (single sex or mixed, private or public) had effect on the academic performance of students. This

situation, experience has shown, made many parents to enroll their children in private secondary schools. School type or school ownership may also relate to whether the proprietorship is federal or state in case of public schools. This study is interested in finding out whether students in federal institutions of higher learning perform better than those in state-owned institutions of higher learning via Patterns of Interference in English Tenses among Hausa/English Bilinguals in Institutions of Higher learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria.

Based on the background so far presented, the main aim of this study therefore, is to determine the structural differences and similarities that exist in the tense and aspect systems of English and Hausa Languages. Similarly, the use of several aspects of English verb-tenses was analyzed to identify problems encountered by Hausa/English bilingual learners attempting to learn and use the English verbal-tenses correctly. The study also intends to determine whether variables such as gender, location, school proprietorship (school ownership) and school types have any significant effect on the academic achievements of students.

### **Statement of the Problem**

English and Hausa languages enjoy wider international acceptability. Each of them has a large number of L2 speakers who are learners in higher education levels and should be well versed in communication using appropriate English tenses in both spoken and written forms.

However, most students admitted into institutions of higher learning in the country, are ill-prepared for their communication roles in these institutions. Many Hausa learners of English experience many problems in the formation and correct usage of English tenses. The poor academic achievement being witnessed at the secondary school level is negatively affecting students' achievement at the higher education level. Recently, the

overall poor performance in English which was between 24% to 59%, in the eleven years, from 2007 to 2017, is becoming a national problem. Many of the students find it difficult to construct correct sentences, without mixing tenses, in their spoken or written communications. It has been observed, over the years, that most of the errors in English occur because of the inability of students to handle sequence of tenses properly in their spoken or written communications. This results in the students' abysmal poor academic performance. The researcher has also observed that, even at the higher education levels, there is high degree of mother tongue interference in the spoken and written English of students which invariably affects their academic performance. This led to high degree of NCE and ND dropouts which cut across gender, location and proprietorship of schools in tertiary institutions of Jigawa state. Therefore, the problem of this study put in question form is: what is the Patterns of Interference in English Tenses among Hausa/English Bilingual students in Institutions of Higher Learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria?

### **Purpose of the Study**

The main purpose of the study was to investigate Patterns of interference in English tenses among Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria, in order to identify the problems encountered by Hausa learners of English in English verb tense. Specifically the study sought to:

- 1 Identify the types of interference errors in English verb-tenses made by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning.
- 2 Find out the influence of gender on the interference errors in English verb-tenses made by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning.
- 3 Determine the influence of location on the interference errors in English verb-tenses made by Hausa English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning.

- 4 Find out the influence of proprietorship of schools on the interference errors in English verb-tenses made by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning.
- 5 Determine the influence of different types of institutions of higher learning on the interference errors in English verb-tenses made by Hausa learners of English.
- 6 Identify the achievement of male and female Hausa learners of English in English verb-tenses in institutions of Higher Learning.
- 7 Determine the influence of location on the achievement of Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
- 8 Determine the influence of proprietorship of schools on the achievements of Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb-tenses.
- 9 Identify the influence of different types of institutions of higher learning on the achievement of Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses.

### **Significance of the Study**

The study is theoretically and practically significant. Theoretically, the study is anchored on the theory of language transfer based on the Behaviourists, Cognitivists (Mentalists) and the Connectionists perspectives. The major proponents of Behaviourists theory include John B .Watson, Ivan Pavlov, Edward L. Thorndike and B. F. Skinner. The basic tenet of the Behaviourists theory is based on the idea that all human behaviours are acquired through stimulus- response and the association between them. All behaviours are caused by external stimuli (operant conditioning), and can be explained without the need to consider internal mental states or consciousness. They focused on people's behaviours that are directly observable rather than the mental system underlying the behaviours. Knowledge is a repertoire of behavioural responses to environmental stimuli. They view learning as a passive absorption of a predefined body of knowledge by the learner which is

promoted by repetition and positive reinforcement. In the classroom situation correct behavioural responses are transmitted by the teacher and absorbed by the students. This theory is relevant to this study because it considers all learning, including language learning, to be the establishment of habits through reinforcement and reward. The Behaviourists claim that second language learning is solely a process of language transfer based on negative effects of transfer of First Language (L1) features into Second Language (L2) which leads to interference.

While, the Cognitivist theory grew out of Gestalt psychology in Germany in the early 1900s by Wolfgang Kohler and brought to America in the 1920s, it was later developed in the 1960s by Noam Chomsky as a reaction to the Behaviourists paradigm. The basic tenets of the Cognitivist theory are that mental function can be understood. That each individual possess an innate capability to actively construct and discover knowledge. Learning is an active association and accommodation of new information to existing cognitive structures- fostering discovery by the learner. The teacher facilitates learning by providing an environment that promotes discovery and assimilation of knowledge. The models recognise both the positive and negative effects of language transfer. That is why they recommend that an adequate explanation of language transfer is one that considers both the positive and negative effects of transfer. Hence, learners play a vital role in determining how, when and where they transfer features of native language to second language. Accordingly, both the behaviourists and the cognitivists see error as indispensable in the learning process, which signaled a breakdown in the teaching-learning process. Hence, the relevance of the foregoing theories to the present study.

Practically, the result of the study is expected to benefit most students, teachers, textbook writers, curriculum planners, examination bodies, and future researchers. The results of the study may be of immense benefit to Hausa learners and teachers of English as

L2 who might put these problems into actual classroom practices. Based on the findings of the study, teachers will be able to identify areas of difficulties faced by either Hausa learners attempting to learn English or vice-versa. As a result, English teachers may be directed to look deeply into the parts of their syllabus that need some improvement while comparing L1 and L2. They may also be propelled to conduct remedial teaching using exercises and drills related to the problem areas of the target language. This may lead to greater improvement in students' language use thereby reducing the menace of poor performance that bedevils all levels of the education sector.

For the special methods teachers in colleges of education and other related institutions, the results of the study may be of great benefit by emphasizing the use of contrastive analysis and error analysis as diagnostic tools that could be used to identify areas of perceived learning difficulties. It should be noted that CA and EA as diagnostic tools can help curriculum planners in material preparation, design of the linguistic and cultural content of the textbooks, diagnosis of learning difficulties and preparing language testing

The study may also provide valuable information for textbook writers, by directing attention to the area of students' weaknesses. Error Analysis helps in determining the frequency and the stylistic distribution of certain structures in both English and Hausa Languages, informing the selection, grading and presentation of second language or foreign language in-put. The material developers should provide exhaustively drills and exercises, taking care to balance the most difficult items and the least difficult ones throughout the text(s). The study is expected to be of great benefit to curriculum designers, especially the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) and the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) who would undertake the review of the curriculum provisions to provide comprehensively for the effective teaching of English verb-tenses and aspects.

Similarly, examinations bodies will be properly guided in constructing test items that will directly address the identified areas of difficulties, particularly in the areas of English verb tenses and aspects. Based on their knowledge of the actual situation, teachers are expected to conduct remedial teaching using exercises and drills related to the problem areas of the target language. This may lead to greater improvement in students' language use thereby reducing the menace of poor performance that bedevils all levels of the education sector.

The findings of the study will be helpful to future researchers as the information assembled in the research report may serve as a baseline data for future related studies.

### **Scope of the Study**

The study investigated patterns of interference in English tenses among Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria. The study was carried out in Jigawa State in the North-West geo-political zone of Nigeria. It was limited to three institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State, which are; Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel, Hussaini Adamu Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure and Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse.

The course on English and Communication Skills is selected because it is a compulsory course offered by all students in these institutions. It is also selected because students do not often do well in the subject. The study focused on verb tense and aspects which are important grammatical components of the English and Communication Skills syllabus taught in these institutions. Hausa and English languages are selected because of their close affinity since colonial days and because they share a large number of bilingual speakers/ learners. The study investigated the influence of some variables such as gender, location, proprietorship and types of institutions on the interference of Hausa with English tenses and aspects and their influence on the academic achievement of Hausa learners of English as a Second Language (L2).

## Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study;

- 1 What types of errors in English verb-tenses are committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning?
- 2 What is the influence of gender on the interference errors made by Hausa/English bilinguals in English verb-tenses in institutions of higher learning?
- 3 To what extent does location influence the interference errors made in English verb tenses by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning?
- 4 To what extent does proprietorship of schools (federal and state) have influence on the interference errors made in English verb-tenses by Hausa learners of English?
- 5 What is the influence of different types of institutions (colleges of education and polytechnics) on the interference errors made in English verb-tenses by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning?
- 6 What is the difference in the achievement scores of male and female Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses in institutions of higher learning?
- 7 To what extent does location influence the achievement scores of Hausa learners of English in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses?
- 8 What is the influence of proprietorship of schools (federal and state) on the achievement scores of Hausa learners of English in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses?
- 9 What is the influence of types of institutions on the achievement scores of Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses?

## Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses drawn were tested at 0.05 level of significance.



- H<sub>01</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean interference errors in English verb-tenses committed by male and female students in institutions of higher learning.
- H<sub>02</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean interference errors in English verb-tenses committed by urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning.
- H<sub>03</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean interference errors in English verb-tenses committed by students in federal and state institutions of higher learning.
- H<sub>04</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean interference errors in English verb-tenses committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning and their achievement.
- H<sub>05</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores in English verb-tenses of male and female Hausa /English bilinguals in institutions of higher Learning.
- H<sub>06</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural bilingual students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
- H<sub>07</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of bilingual students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
- H<sub>08</sub> There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter presents the literature review under four broad headings as follows:

#### **Conceptual Framework**

##### Concept of Bilingualism

Concept of Contrastive Analysis

Concept of Error Analysis

Concept of Translation

Concept of Grammar and Grammatical Structures

Concept of Tense and Aspect

Concept of Second Language Acquisition and Interference

Concept of Gender

Concept of Location

Concept of Proprietorship

#### **Theoretical Framework**

Behavioristsø Theory

Cognitivistsø Theory

Connectionistsø Theory

#### **Review of Empirical Studies**

Studies on Verb Tenses

Studies on Gender

Studies on Location

Studies on Proprietorship

#### **Summary of Literature Reviewed**

### **Conceptual Framework**

In this study, conceptual framework refers to the terms, terminologies and concepts that are operationally explained in relation to the research topic: Patterns of interference errors in English tenses among Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State. In research, a conceptual framework is a schematic description and illustration of the causative mechanism and relationship deducible from the research problem (Eboh, 2009:27)

### **Concept of Bilingualism**

A casual survey of the speech of speakers of the same language across different geographical regions reveals copious linguistic variations, how much less the speech of an L2 learner. Even from the accent of a speaker, one can determine his linguistic background. This implies that something must have been transferred from his First Language (L1) (Native Language or Mother Tongue or Source Language) to his Second Language (L2) (Target Language). As the problem of second language learning in bilingual societies becomes manifest, linguist like Weinreich (1953) provided the framework for how languages affect each other in bilingual situations. According to him, interference may occur in the speech of bilinguals because of their familiarity with more than one language. It is very common that people develop some knowledge and ability in a second language and so become bilingual.

The simplest definition of a bilingual is a person who has some functional ability in a second language. This may vary from a limited ability in one or more domains, to very strong command of both languages (which is sometimes called balanced bilingualism (Spolsky, 1998). In a bilingual situation what is important is to be able to identify each of the languages, that is, which varieties of the languages are involved. Secondly, it is important to identify the way each of the languages is acquired. It is useful to distinguish

between mother (or native) tongue learning and second or foreign language learning. Each of these suggests different possible kinds of proficiency. It is also useful to note the age of learning and the time spent using the language (Spolsky, 1998).

Bilingualism has been defined differently from a variety of perspectives. Ordinarily, the term refers to a person who speaks two or more languages. Emenenjo (1990) sees it as the alternative use of two or more languages by the same individual. Bilingualism is as a cover term for Multilingualism, a situation where a person or group of persons speaks more than two languages. However, a broad definition of bilingualism has it that it is any level of proficiency in more than one language. At Cambridge Assessment International Education (Cambridge, 2017) the term 'bilingual' or 'bilingualism' is used to refer to individuals or groups who routinely use two or more languages for communication in various contexts. However, there are many definitions and understandings of the term 'bilingual' for example, a degree of competence in two languages.

There exist two extremes of bilingualisms (Emenenjo, 1990) namely Narrow Bilingualism and Wide Bilingualism. *Narrow Bilingualism* is a social linguistic terms used to refer to an individual with native-like proficiency in two languages. Usually, such individual is not only comfortable or at home with the two cultures represented by the languages he speaks, but can also read and write in the two languages with native-like ability. Such a bilingual- bi- cultural individual is variously referred to as balanced bilingual, equilingual bilingual, co-ordinate bilingualism and compound bilingualism. Such individual grew in a healthy language -rich environment and whose parents either use both languages freely and naturally or who show a definite positive attitude towards both languages and cultures. *Wide bilingualism* variously referred to as residual bilingualism, incipient bilingualism, semi-bilingualism etc, refers to a situation where an individual's proficiency in a second language is deficient or much less proficient than his first language.

The individual is marginally competent in the second language or may not go beyond being able to merely hear the language.

Bilinguals have repertoire of domain related rules of language choice. The home school or the home work switch is probably the most common, with the language learned at home from parents (first language) and the second learned at school ( $L_2$ ) and used at work (Spolsky, 1998). A *öbilingual learnerö* is in its broad sense (and in this document) a student who uses his first language ( $L_1$ ) at home in the community and is learning through a second language ( $L_2$ ), for example English at school. The student may be learning all subjects through the  $L_2$ , many scholars use bilingual learner instead of second language learners to high light the value of the two languages. However, others use *öbilingual learnersö* to refer only to students on bilingual education programmes. Cambridge (2017) uses *öbilingual educationö* to refer to the use of two or more languages as medium of instruction for contents subjects such as Science or History.

The theory/reason behind bilingual education is that content subjects and language are inextricably linked; learners cannot develop academic knowledge and skills without access to the language in which that knowledge is embedded, discussed, constructed or evaluated. Nor can they acquire academic language skills in a context desired of academic content (Cambridge, 2017). Bilingual Education has been practiced in many forms, in many countries, for thousands of years. Defined (broadly); it can mean any use of two languages in school by teachers or students or both ó for a variety of social and pedagogical purposes. Success in school depends upon the child's mastery of cognitive / academic language, which is very different from the social language used at home.

There is a growing body of evidence according to Mehisto (2012) suggesting that there are potential benefits to individuals, schools and societies in being bilingual some of which include; (1) increased mental flexibility; (2) improved inter ócultural skills and

increased opportunities for global exchange and trade. Yet, another benefit in being bilingual is the ability to transfer meaning, message, and style from one language to the other, a process referred to as translation

### **Concept of Contrastive Analysis**

Most of the language acquisition theories in the 1950s and 1960s were based on the behaviorists' tenet that sees learning as a process of habit formation i.e. through imitation and reinforcement. Fundamentally, this view holds that learners transfer the properties of their first language (L1) in the course of learning the second language (L2). Proponents of this view have proposed three theoretical models of analysis to account for L2 learners' errors: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage. The first of such language learning models is Contrastive Analysis (CA). The concept of Contrastive Analysis (CA) was formulated by Fries (1945), Weinreich (1953), and developed by Lado (1957). It was regarded as the comparison of the structures of two languages and finding out the points of differences, which are the main source of difficulty for the language learners, and they form the basis for preparation of language texts. The basic tenet of CA is on the premise that languages are different because they develop from different social milieus, and that because of these differences the L2 Learner will encounter difficulties while learning second language (Lado 1957, Crystal, 2003a, Ellis, 2008). Contrastive analysis describes similarities and differences among two or more languages at such levels as phonology, grammar and semantics (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). Contrastive analysis is the study of foreign language learning, the identification of points of structural similarities and differences between two languages (Ellis, 2007, Crystal, 2008).

Contrastive Analysis (CA) or Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA) refers to the identification of structural differences between languages, seen as points of potential learning difficulties (Crystal, 2003a). According to Johnson (2007), contrastive analysis is

the systematic comparison of two languages with the aim of describing their similarities and differences. The objective of the comparison may vary; language comparison is of great interest in theoretical as well as on applied perspective. It reveals what is general and what is language specific and is therefore important both for the understanding of languages in general and for the study of the individual languages compared. The study may be theoretical i.e without immediate application, or it may be applied i.e carried out for a specific purpose (Johnsson, 2003).The applied aspect of CA would provide the teacher with some knowledge about the effectiveness of his techniques and those of his teaching materials.

Contrastive Analysis or contrastive linguistic analysis is one of the applied linguistics that analyses and describes the comparison (equalities and differences) between Source Language (SL) and Target Languages (TL). CA includes all fields of linguistics such as phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics (Ummhy, 2012). Contrastive studies should rather be regarded as an approach not as a branch of general linguistics. Most authors tend to distinguish between the so-called micro-linguistics and macro-linguistics features, the former comprising mainly the grammatical levels and thus treating the sentence as the largest analyzable unit and the latter studying language in situation and context with emphasis on the communicative function. Throughout the history of contrastive studies, great attention was paid to grammar and lexicon, whereas the cultural aspects were largely neglected.

In contrastive analysis, the description of the structure of the languages to be compared is made. Then, the subsets of the languages are compared, noting the areas of similarities and differences from where predictions as to the ease or difficulty of learning the language materials are made. If the materials are similar, learning becomes easier (positive transfer) but if the materials are different, learning becomes difficult (negative

transfer or interference) since new concepts or materials have to be learnt. In other words, the study of one language would make easier the study of another where similarities in the linguistic corpus exist while dissimilarities between the languages would result in difficulty of learning or inhibiting effect (Headboom, 1979, James, 1995, Mairs, 2005, Obi-Okoye, 2008, Olaoye, 2008). These views show that knowing the linguistic and cultural elements between the First Language (L1) and the Second Language (L2) will help teachers focus more attention on the areas that need to be stressed. In a broad sense, contrastive analysis has always been available in linguistic and language teaching materials (Johnson & Johnson, 1999, Brown, 2000, 2007, Yule, 2007, Ellis, 2008). Teachers have always accepted the idea that the native language affects second language acquisition (Gast, 2015).

Contrastive Analysis (C.A) is traditionally defined as a method which helps the analyst to ascertain in which aspects the two languages are alike and in which they differ, which includes two main processes ódescription and comparison (James, 1995, Chesterman, 1998, 2006, Kurtes, 2006, Gast, 2013). Although the term contrastive analysis is widely accepted and used, the problem of terminological diversity was present in the relevant linguistic literature throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Yang (1992, 2012) states that the term òcontrastive hypothesisö refers to the theory itself while, òcontrastive analysisö focuses on the method of implementation of the hypothesis. On the other hand, òcontrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH)ö emphasizes both the theory and method simultaneously.

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), according to James (2005) has its basis in the behavioural psychology associated with Skinner's stimulus-response learning. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is based on the assumptions that, L2 learners will tend to transfer the features of their L1 to their L2 utterance. This notion of òtransferö means, carrying over the habits of his mother tongue into the second language (proactive inhibition/interference). Ellis (2008) suggests that the psychological foundation of CAH is



transfer theory, substituting the first language for the prior learning and the second language for the subsequent learning (retroactive inhibition/interference). The application of linguistic and psycholinguistic theories to the study of language learning has added a new dimension to the discussion of learners' errors and their corrections, particularly in L2 learning. Some knowledge of the tools of contrastive analysis is essential for investigating and analyzing the sources and causes of learners' errors, and how to use them to help ESL learners (Obi- Okoye, 2008).

Contrastive Analysis (C.A) is a diagnostic tool that predicts possible learning problems to distinguish between what are needed and not needed to learn by the Target language (TL) learner by evaluating languages (Gass and Selinker, 2008). In addition, CA is a technique to identify whether two languages have something in common, which assesses both similarities and differences in languages, conforming to the belief in language universal (Johnson, & Johnson, 1999). Both statements indicate that CA holds a principle, which is important to identify what are required by the TL learner to learn in the TL and what are not. If there are no familiar characteristics in the languages, it indicates that the learner might have difficulty in learning the TL. A more important point to note is the influence of first language on the TL. Thus: "Contrastive analysis stresses the influence of the mother tongue in learning a second language in phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic levels. It holds that second language would be affected by first language" (Jie, 2008).

Further, contrastive analysis belongs to applied linguistics in that the analysis may yield practical instructional materials (James, 2005). Selinker (2007) posits that contrastive analysis and error analysis are diagnostic tools; that they cannot be traced to individual native competence. A detailed point by point comparison of the target language and the first language is essential because it will provide a good basis for efficient well informed

instructions. Through contrastive analysis, one can identify the learner's entire thinking which is conditioned by his/her first language experiences. However, Gass and Selinker (2008) contend that there are other factors that may influence the process of acquisition such as innate principles of language, attitude, motivation, age, aptitude, and other learnt languages.

The underlying assumption of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) is based on three hypotheses: strong, weak and moderate. The strong hypothesis claims that one can predict the error of a language learner based on comparison in the description of L1 and L2. In this version, the languages are compared *a priori*. It claims that; (1) the main obstacle to second language learning is from the interference of learner's native language system; (2) the greater the difference between native language(s) and target language, the greater the difficulty will be; (3) a systematic and scientific analysis of the two language systems can help predict the difficulties; and (4) the results of contrastive analysis can be used as a reliable source in the preparation of teaching material, the planning of course and improvement of classroom techniques.

The weak hypothesis requires the linguists or teacher to use the best linguistic knowledge available to him to account for observed difficulties in L2 learning. According to Yang (2012), the emphasis shifts from the predictive power of the relative difficulty to the explanatory power of observable errors. Brown (2000; 2007) also suggests that the weak version focuses not on the *a priori* prediction of linguistic difficulties, but on the *a posteriori*, explanation of sources of errors in language learning.

Lastly, the moderate hypothesis represents the middle ground between the two. Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) who proposed the moderate version found that the strong version was too strong and the weak version was too weak. This hypothesis, according to them focused on the nature of human learning and postulates the categorization of abstract

and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences as the basis for learning. Therefore, wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result. These hypotheses are essentially assumptions about how the knowledge of the first Language affects the learning and use of the second language (Onuigbo and Eyesi, 2009). This has led to the development of different contrastive descriptive models, which outline the basic steps that must be taken in contrasting two or more languages.

Lado's (1957) model consists of the following five basic steps;

1. Locate the best structural description of the two languages concerned, keeping the same analytical models (grammatical models) x and y,
2. Establish the elements you want to describe in the two languages;
3. Contrast the two languages;
4. Predict interference, and
5. Prove out the theoretical predictions

Prator's (1967) model comprises six Hierarchy of Difficulty;

1. Level 0: Transfer; No difference exist between L1 and L2.
2. Level 1: Coalescence; Two items in L1 become coalescence into one item in the L2.
3. Level 2: Under-differentiation: An item in L1 is absent in L2.
4. Level 3: Re-interpretation: An item in L1 is given a new shape to be reinterpreted by L2 learner.
- 5 Level 4: Over-differentiation; an item in L1 does not exist in L2. No similarity between L1 and L2 features.
6. Level 5: Split; One item in L1 becomes two items in L2.

Banathy's (1969) model comprises the following six steps:

1. Identify the rationale or purpose for which CA shall be undertaken.

2. Quantify the scope and depth of coverage;
3. Select the language theory upon which the comparison shall be made;
4. Decide on the framework within which the comparison shall be made;
5. Outline the procedure to be followed in making the comparison; and
6. Formulate the format and style of the contrastive statement

Whiteman's (1970) model breaks the CA down into a set of component procedures. The five steps are:

1. Take the two languages, L1 and L2, and write out formal descriptions of them.
2. Pick the forms of X and Y languages from the description for the contrast.
3. Make a contrast of the forms selected (using CA model).
4. Make prediction of the difficulty through the contrast.
5. Formulate a hierarchy of difficulty.

Di-Pietro's (1971) model provides three steps;

1. Observe the differences between the surface structures of two languages: such differences may be from total absence to partial sharing of some surface features;
2. Postulate the underlying universals;
3. Formulate the deep to surface structure and in the process specify only those rules which are not shared between the two languages rather than formulating complete and separate sets of realization rules

Atoye's (1980) model provided the following steps;

1. Two languages, L1 and L2 are taken and formal description of the structural systems of these languages is written.
2. Subsets of equal level are selected from L1 and L2 for the contrast
3. The two subsets selected from L1 and L2 are contrasted..

4. Predictions of difficulty for the second language learner are made based on the contrast.

However, all of them, according to Olaofe (2009), have the following steps in common: Locate- Select- Describe- Contrast- Predict- Rank- Validate. By 'locate' it implies to set or identify the best structural description of the two languages concerned, L1 and L2, keeping the analytical model (grammatical model) X and Y. 'Select' means to establish the language element(s) or sub-sets to be described in the two languages, for example verb tense and aspect. 'Describe' implies to take the forms or sub-sets of L1 and L2 and write a formal description of structural systems of each one of them. At this stage emphasis is laid on equivalent description of the two languages, that is, if the first language is described transformationally, the second language must follow the same model of description in order to obtain reliable results (Onuigbo and Eyisi, 2009). Then, by 'contrast' it means to make the comparison of the language elements selected and using the same contrastive analysis model. 'Predict' simply refers to anticipate or forecast areas of likely learning difficulties on the basis of the contrasted language component(s). 'Rank' refers to formulating an inventory showing hierarchy of learning difficulties. Lastly, 'validate' means to authenticate the strengths and weaknesses of the theoretical description.

For the purpose of this study, a synthesized descriptive model by Whitman (1970) and Whitman (1970) will be adopted. This model consists of four basic stages of analysis;

1. Two languages, L1 and L2 are taken and formal descriptions of the structural systems of these languages are written. At this stage, emphasis is laid on equivalent descriptions of the structural systems which mean that, if the first language is described transformationally, the second language must follow the same model of description in order to obtain reliable results. This is necessary because if the same data from L1 and L2 are described using different models, the descriptions are

likely to highlight two different features of the same data and subsequent comparison will be unnecessarily difficult.

2. Subsets of equal level are selected from the description of the first language and the second language.
3. The two subsets selected from L1 and L2 are contrasted
4. Predictions of difficulty for the second language learner are made on the basis of the contrast.

According to Bashir (2000) and Oloafe, (2010) the constructivist model used in his study may be *autonomous* or *generalized*. Of these two models, the former is *taxonomic* only and the latter is both *taxonomic* and *operational* as shown in the figure below:

**Table 1:** Contrastive Models

Model	Taxonomic	Operational
Autonomous	X	-----
Generalized	X	X

**Source:** Bashir, 2000 and Oloafe, 2010

Further, Oloafe (2010) pointed out that the operational model of CA is far more difficult to achieve than the taxonomic model. The operational model requires rigorous conversion of the source language rules in order to compare them with the target language rules. In the taxonomic model, however, the analyst requires an inventory of the features of the two languages to be formulated and matched with a view to finding differences that are pedagogically considered as the learning task (Banathy, 1969). The point is what L1 features correspond with what L2 features. There may be the possibilities in which L1 conveys a certain signification through one device while L2 conveys the same signification through another device. For instance, English depicts the use of copula (verb *to be*) while

Hausa largely does not. The present study therefore was conducted based on taxonomic model. In this regards, the study contrasted the tense and aspects systems of English and Hausa with a view to finding out their areas of similarities, partial similarities and differences. The next theory of learners' errors which was reviewed in this study is Error Analysis.

### **Concept of Error Analysis**

Error analysis is a careful study of large corpus of errors made by speakers of first language (L1) or mother tongue attempting to express themselves in the target language. Error analysis (EA) rather than predicting errors, as is done in contrastive analysis (CA), focuses on actual errors produced by second language (L2) learners. EA sets out to collect, analyze and correct errors. EA helps to discover problems in L2 learning and it is a process of providing to the teacher evidence of how language is learned and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the target language (Ngudda and Nwoke, 2014)

Error analysis, according Crystal (2003a), is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language using any principles or procedures provided by linguistics. Error analysis is a branch of applied linguistics which is concerned with compilation, study and analysis of errors made by second language learners.

Error Analysis is conducted in order to; (a) find out how well someone knows a language (b) find out how a person learns a language and (C) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or preparation of teaching materials. This definition stresses the function of error analysis (Hasyim, 2002).

The concept of error was defined by Brown (2007) as the process to observe, analyse and classify the deviation of the rules of the second language and then to reveal the

systems operated by learners. This concept is the same as proposed by Crystal (2003a) i.e error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguists.

Scholars have given various definitions of the concept errors. Most of them have the same things in common. That is why the research puts forward two basic definitions of error in this research. The two definitions are (1) errors is a systematic deviation, when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong and (2) error is systematic deviation from the standard they reveal the learners' current mastery of the target language (Hasyim, 2002 , Crystal, 2003a. Lennon 2008, Ellis, 2008). It seems that the phrase "systematic deviation" in these definitions is a key word which can be interpreted as the deviation which happens repeatedly.

Further, it is necessary to differentiate between error and mistake. Ellis (2008) raises the need to distinguish between errors and mistakes. Errors reflect gaps in the learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance, they occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows. A mistake is also a deviation of the norms of the language but is not systematic. It means that the use of the norms of the language in sentences is sometimes gets it right and sometimes wrong (Hasyim 2002). According Richards, Pratt and Pratt (1992) mistake is made by a learner when writing or speaking which is caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness or other aspects of performance and therefore can be readily self-corrected by the learner himself, an error is a systematic deviation made by the learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the second language (L2). A learner cannot self-correct an error because it is a product reflective of his or her current stage of L2 development, or his underlying



competence (Corder, 1974, Galadi, 2004). An error is a systematic deviation, when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong. But, a mistake is when there is an inconsistent deviation, that is sometimes the learner gets it right and sometimes he gets it wrong. When a learner has been taught a certain correct form, and he uses one form sometimes and another at other times quite inconsistently, the inconsistent deviation is a mistake. While a lapse, like a mistake, always results from lack of concentration, and shortness of memory or fatigue. From the above, it could be concluded that a mistake is made by a learner because he does not apply the rule(s) that he actually knows. In other words, a mistake is a non-systematic deviation from the norms of the language.

The term error is used to refer to a form of structure that the native speaker deems unacceptable because of its inappropriate use (Lennon, 2008) or the use of a linguistic item in a way in which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning (Richards, 1997). Another distinction useful between errors is that a systematic error is one that is part of the learner's inter-language which is his personal internalized code for the language differs from the native-speaker's standard or i.e. his idiosyncrasies. A random error results from a simple lapse or a mistake or an overgeneralization of an otherwise correct rule. This study will only concentrate mainly on systematic errors, for there is no need trying to analyse random errors.

Errors are systematic deviation from the standard and they reveal the learner's current mastery of the target language (TL). Mistakes are errors of performance, which are not systematic and which cannot be investigated by this study. The study is also interested in identifying students' errors, because it is on the basis of systematic errors; those that occur regularly, that syllabuses are designed and remedial programmes are drawn (Abisamra, 2003, Brown, 2007).

Errors have further been divided into two types based on their gravity and on how they describe items within a sentence boundary, which are not bound by the limit of the sentence. Errors that occur within a sentence are referred to as local errors, and those that are related to the relationship between sentences and the combination of sentences are known as global errors. Local errors consist of errors in nouns or verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries and formation of quantities (Adogwa, 1992, Lennon, 2008). Global errors, however, hinder communication significantly because the systematic structure of the sentence(s) is totally distorted. Comprehensibility is totally impaired by errors of word-order (Olaofe, 1997, Galadi, 2004).

Error analysis is a careful study of large corpus of errors made by speakers of first language (L1) or mother tongue (MT) attempting to express themselves in the target language (TL). Error analysis, rather than predicting errors, focuses on actual errors produced by second language (L2) learners. It sets out to collect, analyse and correct errors. Error analysis (EA) helps to discover problem in L2 and it is a process of providing to the teacher evidence of how language is learned and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the target language (TL). Error analysis involves many more than merely collecting and analyzing learners' errors and then counting for frequency of errors. It needs a lot of knowledge, patience and professional analysis on the part of the teacher so as to come out with useful decision about the learner. It is a very popular tradition in the field of error analysis to set up a three way classification of errors; i. Inter-lingual errors; ii. Intra-lingual errors; and, iii. Developmental errors (Ngadda & Nwoke, 2014).

i. Inter-lingual (Interference) Errors. It is obvious that L1 learners do commit errors, which could be traced to L1 interference and such errors are termed inter-lingual errors. Heydari and Bagheri (2012) referred to them as interference ó like goofs ó those errors that

reflect native language structure, and are not found in L1 acquisition data of the target language, for instance *õhers Pajamasö* reflect MT interference which results from misapplication of rules from the English *ó* based structure<sup>4</sup> *õThe Pajamas are hersí ö*. Proponents of inter-lingual errors point out that second language learners *ø* errors are remarkably systematic and uniform, regardless of the first language involved. The errors the learner makes are inherent within that language system and are not native-language induced (Headbloom, 1979). Dulay and Burt (1974) opined that most of the interference-like errors appear to be false analogy from English, for example *õThe boy he is deadö*.

ii. Intra-lingual Errors; .Intra-lingual errors are errors originating within the structure of the language and such errors are the result of the complexity of the rules of the language itself. Some intra-lingual interference features manifested differently as: (a) Over generalization (b) Ignorance of the rules (c) rule restrictions; (d) Incomplete application of the rules; (e) Faulty categorization, and (f) Hyper-correction (Ngadda & Nwoke, 2014).

The term *õtransitional errorsö* has been used to describe all of them. However, if they remain after years of schooling they become *õredundant errorsö* for which teaching is largely to blame: such errors are stubborn and difficult to remove because they are already *õfossilisedö*. The learner sticks to the wrong form of language he has acquired since the language structure has been fossilized and atrophied (Ngadda & Nwoke, 2014).

iii. Developmental Errors Dulay and Burt (1974) strong advocates of developmental errors state that, error can also be committed by native speakers. They found out that 75% of errors studied show the learner's incompetence is due to his age and maturity in the target language. First language (L1) acquisition researchers also found out that children acquiring English as their L1 also commit errors such as: i. *She doesn't wants to go.* ii. *I eated it;* which suggested that they had internalized rules for subject *ó* verb agreement and past tense formation in English, respectively, but had not yet mastered the limitations of the

rules (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:57). Similarly, second language learners were found to commit similar "developmental errors", errors that were not apparently due to L1 interference.

Developmental errors are errors made through the process of hypotheses formation and testing. After initial exposure of the TL, the learner formulates hypotheses about the TL, producing utterances in the TL and where a mismatch is perceived between the actual utterance in TL and the learner's ill-formed utterance; the hypotheses are reformulated to conform to the rules of the TL. Developmental errors are common both in the native and non-native situation. In other words; both native and non-native speakers commit developmental errors.

According to James (2005), many of the predictions of TL learning difficulty formulated on the basis of CA turned out to be either uninformative or inaccurate. There were information on errors which teachers already know, there were errors which were predicted but did not materialize in the learner's language, and there were occurrences of errors which were not predicted in CA. Consequently, CA gave way to EA, which provided a methodology for investigating learner language and an appropriate starting point for the study of learner language (Ellis, 2008).

The procedures for Error Analysis in Corder as elaborated by Ellis (2008) and Lennon (2008) consists of five steps; ( a) collection of a corpus of learner's language, (b) identification of errors in the corpus, (c) description of errors, (d) explanation of errors and (e) evaluation of errors (in Ellis, 2008). In fact, according to Ellis (ibid.), EA was one of the first methods used to investigate learner language, which achieved considerable popularity in the 1970s, replacing contrastive analysis.

The first procedure of EA is to collect samples of learner language. The size of sample could be massive, specific or incidental. A massive sample is a collection of samples of

language use from a large number of learners in order to compile a comprehensive list of errors, representative of the entire population. A specific sample consists of one sample of language use collected from a limited number of learners. An incidental sample is one sample of language use produced by a single learner.

The second step is identifying the errors. At this stage, the most crucial question which needs to be answered is "What is an error?" Lennon (2008) distinguishes "errors of competence" from "mistakes in performance" and puts forth the argument that EA should investigate only errors. James (1998) has an extensive chapter on the definition of "error" whereby he even measures deviance (using these four categories: "grammaticality", "acceptability", "correctness" and "strangeness and felicity") and classifies them into "slips", "mistakes", "errors" and "solecism".

In the third step of the description of errors, one of the prime purposes of describing errors was that this procedure reveals which errors are the same and which are different, and this was a necessary step in putting them into categories (James, *ibid*). The EA literature is rife with studies on the various classifications of errors. Dulay et al present the most useful and commonly used bases for the descriptive classification of error in these four major taxonomies: 1) Linguistic Category Taxonomy, 2) Surface Strategy Taxonomy, 3) Comparative Taxonomy, and 4) Communicative Effect Taxonomy. In their work, each of the taxonomies is described in detail based on the error types and examples of learner error. James (*ibid*: 106) takes a special interest in the "Surface Strategy Taxonomy" in his own EA research but renamed it as "Target Modification Taxonomy".

The fourth stage is an attempt to explain the errors based on the cause and sources of errors. By identifying the sources, it is hoped that there will be new findings which can help teachers to take another step toward understanding how the learners' cognitive and affective processes relate to the linguistic system and to formulate an integrated understanding of the

process of second language learning (Brown, 2000, 2007). He has broadly categorised the sources of errors into; 'inter-lingual transfer', 'intra-lingual transfer', 'context of learning', and 'communication strategies' (Brown, *ibid*). Very similar to Brown's, James (*ibid*) also has listed four main diagnosis-based categories of learners' errors ('inter-lingual', 'intra-lingual', 'strategy based' and 'induced errors'), which he expands further into various sub-categories.

Finally, the fifth stage which involves the evaluation of errors, affects the learners who make the errors. The outcome of the final step should be pedagogically motivated to create better teaching and learning materials which will help teachers to improve their teaching, as well as for learners to learn more effectively.

The survey of related literature presented so far has shown the indispensability of Error Analysis in the teaching-learning process most especially as it provides insights into the nature of the learning process, the methodology to use, the materials to be designed to reflect actual learning needs of the learner, the remedial programmes to be put in place and the follow-up activities needed at each stage of the learning process. It is based on these reasons that error analysis becomes central in the study.

### **Concept of Translation**

One of the instruments adopted in this study is translation method. Translation is used especially in a situation where the respondents and the researcher are bilinguals in both languages. The translation method was employed to establish the necessary translational equivalents in the translation exercises in this study. The concept of 'Translation' in the areas of SLA and linguistic transfer has received considerable attention of linguists, researchers and teachers. Translation refers to the process of or the product resulting from, transferring or mediating written text(s) of different lengths (ranging from words and sentences to entire book) from one human language to another (Baker, Mona, Saldanha and Gabriola, 2008) This definition attempts to capture the core elements that

most scholars and practitioners will agree are present in the concept of translation, (i) written text (ii) transfer or mediation (iii) from one language to another. Translation is the communication of the meaning of an equivalent target language text. According to Baker, Mona, Saldanha and Gabriela (2008), the English Language draws a terminological distinction (not all languages do) between translating (a written text) and interpreting (oral or sign-language communication between users of different languages). Under this distinction, translation can begin only after the appearance of writing within a language community. It is important to stress that translation deals with the transfer of written text(s). But when the text or medium is oral, the term used is interpreting or interpretation. In translating, the language from which a text is translated is known as the source language (SL) and the language of the translated product, is the target language (TL). What is also referred to as the original text is generally known as the source text (ST) and the translated text is the target (TT).

According to Jiraphatralikhit, Klinpoon, Kaewjan, Visitwanti (2005) translation is seen as the replacement of textual material in one language source language (SL) by the equivalent text material in another language target language (TL). In the vain, Bell (1991) views translation as the replacement of a text in one language by an equivalent text in another language. While, Kelly (2005) defines translation as the skill of understanding the source text and rendering it in the target language by using the register, the background knowledge, and other language resources according to the intended purpose. Therefore, a translator is a mediator of the two language and cultures who can transfer the SL to the TL.

A translator always risks inadvertently introducing source language words, grammar or syntax into the target language rendering. On the other hand, such öspill-overö have sometimes imported useful source-language calques and loanwords that have enriched target languages. The comparison of text in different language inevitably involves a theory

of equivalence. Evidence can be said to be central issue in translation although its definition relevance, and acceptability within the field of translation theory have caused heated controversy and result in many theories of the concept of evidence.

When a message is transferred from SL to TL, the translator is also dealing with two different cultures at the same time. This particular aspect of translation seems to influence the second group who see translation equivalence as being essentially a transfer of the message from the SL to TL. This is functional/pragmatic approach to translation. Others see the use of equivalence for sake of convenience not because it has any relevance.

According to Zohre Owji (2013), amongst the problems a translator may encounter include lexical problem (denotative meaning, lexical meaning, metaphorical expression, semantic voids, and proper names) and syntactic problems (word classes, grammatical relations, word order, style, pragmatic aspects). Considering these problems, the translator is expected to convey the message of the source text to target readers; however, there is no completely exact translation between any two languages. Zohre Owji (2013) believes the degree of approximation between two language systems determines the effectiveness of the translation. Translation is based on the theory of universals especially the presence of equivalent and deep structures across languages which ensures the possibilities of saying the same thing in different languages (James, 2010). The concept of translation was reviewed in order to put one of the instruments of this study (English-Hausa Error Analysis Test) into proper context.

### **Concept of Grammar and Grammatical Structures**

Generally, the term grammar is the name given to the system of rules underlying the use of language. Traditionally, grammar is concerned with morphology and syntax. In its broader sense, grammar covers not only morphology and syntax but also phonology and



semantics. Grammar, therefore, is a model of those linguistic abilities of a native speaker of a language which enables him to speak and understand his language fluently (Radford, 1997, Chomsky, 2006). Languages may differ in their grammar; for instance, English has a common Subject, Verb, and Object word-order while Japanese has Subject, Object, and Verb word order, while Hausa has Subject, Verb, and Object word-order. Grammar, for the purpose of this study means, syntactic structures -a grammar that allows a learner to generate correct sentences of a given language.

Grammar from linguistic point of view is the total structure of a human language. Pedagogical grammar, on the hand, is a modern approach to linguistic intended to aid in teaching and learning of a foreign language. In pedagogical grammar, the structure of teaching is divided into the descriptive grammatical analysis, and the prescriptive, the articulation of a set of rules. Following an analysis of the context in which it is to be used, one grammatical form or arrangement or words will be determined to be most appropriate. It helps in learning grammar of foreign languages. Pedagogical grammar typically requires rules that are definite, coherent, non-technical, cumulative and heuristic. As the rules themselves accumulate, an axiomatic system is formed between the two languages that should then enable a native speaker of the first language to learn the second language.

A pedagogical grammar should be designed to help the learners learn the most important grammar ideas and most powerful conventions of the language. Once the learners have done this they can then set about learning the rest of the language which they think is important to them. While they are doing this a dictionary will be more useful than a grammar.

There exist considerable discussions (see Dirven 1990, Chalker 1994) on the differences between pedagogical and linguistic grammar, variously termed *‘theoretical’* or *‘scientific’* grammar. Linguistic or theoretical grammar requires that each pedagogical

description should have a theoretical basis and what this basis should be. Despite the large number of reference grammars on the market and the important role which grammar rules play in many classrooms, there appears to be relatively little coherent theory underlying rule formulation (Newby, 2000). According to Nuidquist (2017) theoretical or linguistic grammar is concerned with language in general rather than within an individual language, as is the study of essential components of any human language. Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar, Allen's Sector Analysis and Pike's Tagmemics are some examples of Linguistic Grammars. Linguistic Grammar provides scientific explanations in favour of one account of grammar rather than another in terms of general theory of human language (Nordquist, 2017).

Crystal (2004:1) defines grammar thus:

Grammar is the structural foundation of ability to express ourselves. The more one is aware of how it works the more one can monitor the meanings and effectiveness of the way one and others use language. It can help foster precision; detect ambiguity, and exploit the richness of expression available in English. Grammar, according to Anasiudu, Nwaozuzu and Okebalama (2007:306-307), can be any or all of the following:

- the quality of the knowledge of a particular language possessed by the speaker;
- a book of grammar rules;
- a body of descriptive statements about acceptable and unacceptable usage; and
- a body of prescriptive statements about acceptable and unacceptable usage.

According to Fromkin, Rodman and Hymas (2011), Grammar is the knowledge speakers have about the units and rules of their languages-rules for combining sounds into words (called phonology), rules of words formation (called morphology), rules for combining words into phrases and phrases into sentences (called syntax), as well as the rules for assigning meaning (called semantics). To them every human being who speaks a

language knows its grammar. Grammar is the principles and rules that underlie or govern the use of language. The knowledge of these rules, principles and processes of language use imbues the language user with the ability to speak and understand the language (Otagburuagu, Okwor, Ngonebu, Orabueze and Ogenyi, 2012).

For the purpose of this study, descriptive and prescriptive grammar notions is the main concern. Prescriptive grammars are based on the traditional grammar model which makes rules about correct and incorrect usage i.e doø and donøts of language. This model aimed at the correct or standard form of language- breaking rules was regarded as undesirable. It tells us how we ought to speak as in *it is I* and how we ought not to speak as in *it is me*, or *he ain't home*. This model tries to pass value judgments by referring to the standard varieties as correct or õgoodö English, and the non-standard as incorrect or õbadö English (Larsen-Freeman & DeCarrico, 2010). But rules are often broken for stylistics purpose in language usage.

On the other hand descriptive grammar has to do with statements that define grammatical concepts and functions. The rules are formed to describe how language is actually used in context. The rules are more like blueprint for building well formed sentences; they represent speakerø unconscious knowledge or õmental grammarö of the language. This model describes how native speakers do speak and does not prescribe how they ought to speak. For example, õthe cow ate the cornö is a grammatically correct sentence in English but õate the corn the cowö is not grammatically correct (Larsen-Freeman & DeCarrico, 2010, Schmitt, 2010).

Every language, including English, according to Otagburuagu, et al (2012) has its patterning and structuring rules which determine its use; this in effect means that all languages have grammar. Even though comparison may be made between the grammar of one language and another, none is superior or inferior to the other, they are just different.

The grammar of every language has its intrinsic and unique patterns and structures that can be examined from the four linguistics levels of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Every language has its own basic rules which if properly followed can produce an acceptable statement or statements that are grammatical. These rules which speakers/writers of a language observed consciously or unconsciously constitute the grammar of these languages. Nowadays, many ESL practitioners view grammar less as a body of knowledge to be studied than as a skill to be practised and developed. Grammar knowledge is important, but only insofar as it enables students to communicate accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately (Larsen-Freeman, 2009).

Grammatical structures are the building blocks of languages. These structures can be broken down into words, phrases, clauses and /or sentences. According to Olaofe (2009), language structure is usually more inclusive than the term grammar. A description of the structure of the language commonly includes not only the classification of different words and constructions but also statements about various ways in which they are combined and the classification of the smallest significant unit of sounds which is phonemes with statements about the way they are combined. Language is a highly organized phenomenon. The meaning of any stretch of language consists of the sum of the meanings of the units which occur in that stretch plus the meaning contributed by the way in which the units are organized or, in other words, the meaning of its structure.

Grammatical structure, therefore, is the regular patterning of the elements of language into larger predictable structures which make it possible for one person to communicate with another. If there were no such regularity communication will become impossible. The study of grammatical structures, therefore, is a study of a systematic pattern underlying every linguistic utterance. For the purpose of this study, the researcher shall be more concerned with the structures of English and Hausa verb-tenses.

### **Concept of Tense and Aspect**

The importance of the focus on the English tenses and aspects is an attempt to improve on the current teaching practices as it has been observed that verb usage is one of the worst areas of English expression seen in our students both at secondary and tertiary levels of education across the country. Common errors in the area of the verb usage range from misuse of tenses and aspects in the sense of using present tense for past tense and vice-versa, wrong verb formation process such as contriving structures like 'have went' and 'had eated' all of which results from wrong interpretation of grammatical category of tense and aspect.

Studies across the world and experience have shown evidence of the verb-tense difficulty among learners of English as a second language. Binnick (1991) and Wilkins (1999) hold very strongly that the universal nature of verb-tense error is due to the fact that students make their choice of tenses in English in the same way it is made in their first language or languages. Taher (2011) and Jafar (2014) for instance discover that between twenty-five percent (25%) to thirty-six percent (33%) of their data are verb-tense related errors. Those of Galadi (2004) were as high as forty-four percent (44%).

Different languages have different number of tenses and different verb systems expressing similar ideas, but in different forms. English, for instance, has relatively many verb-tenses (with at least twelve regular aspectual forms) while Hausa has relatively fewer verb-tense (with at least eight verbal grade systems). Tense is a grammatical term that refers to how a verb shows the time of happening in the sentence. Every English sentence has a verb that describes an action, state or occurrence. These can happen in one of three times zones in which we all exist ópresent, past or future: there are more than three tenses to express further nuances in the passage of time (Free English Grammar Guide, 2013).

A clear distinction should be made between *tense* and *time*. The notion of time-present, past and future is universal, and is independent of any particular language or of languages at all. Tense, on the other hand, is a linguistic device, varying from language to language. It means the verb-form or forms used to express certain time relations. In discussing about tense, according them, it is important to note two points:

A present tense does not necessarily express an action taking place in the present time, nor does a past tense necessarily express an action taking place in the past time. For instance the sentence: *we feed our cat on fish*, the verb *feed* is in the present tense but the sense of the sentence does not mean that the action of *feeding* takes place only in the present; it could be in the present, past or even future. Morphologically, English is said to have only two tenses namely; present and past (Greenbaum and Quick, 2001, Ngochal, 2004, Uka, 2004), while other tenses made use of a variety of auxiliary verbs in order to be formed.

Tense is concerned with situations in time usually with reference to the present moment though also with reference to other situations. Binnick (1991) defines tense as the change that takes place in the form of the verb to indicate time. Tense is a grammatical category that is realized by verb inflections (Greenbaum and Quick, 2001: 47).

According to the New Lexicon Webster's Dictionary of English Language, (1992:1019) tense is *any of the forms of a verb expressing the time of the action or the state of being- a set of form for the various persons for a given time*. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2000:1487) on the other hand, defines tense as *any of the forms of a verb that show the time, continuance or completion of an action or state that is expressed by the verb*. For example *I am* is in the present tense, *I was* is in the past tense and *I will be* is in the future. To Ngochal (2004) tense is the correspondence that exists between the form of the verb and our concept of time. In English, tense locates

situations in either present or past time. These situations are understood generally to cover states, actions and processes. Verbs are then inflected in ways to describe these states, actions or processes and place within a time frame to properly explain the time an event took place.

Tense shows us how or when an action is performed. Tense interact with the grammatical concept of aspect. Aspect defines how the flow of time is viewed in the sentence. Aspect, unlike tense, is not concerned with relating of situation to any other time point but rather with internal temporal constituency of the one situation (Li, 1991, Yusif, 2011, Jaggar, 2012). Like tense, aspect is a way that verbs represent time. Hence, English aspectual distinctions in the past tense include *I went, I used to go, I was going, I had gone, I had been going*, in the present tense, *I lose, I am losing, I am going to lose, I have lost, I have been losing* and with future modal. *I will see, I will be seeing, I will have seen*. What distinguished these aspects within each tense is not (necessarily) when the events occurs, but how the time in which it occurs is viewed: as complete, ongoing, consequential, planned, and so on.

Traditionally, both aspects (perfect and progressive) are treated as part of the tense system of English. We commonly speak of tenses such as the present progressive (e.g. *we are waiting*) or even the past perfect progressive (e.g. *we had been writing*), which combines two aspects. However, a distinction needs to be made between tense and aspect. Tense is more concerned with past time versus present time, and is based on morphological forms (e.g. *write, writes, wrote*), aspect is concerned with duration and in English is a matter of syntax, using part of *be* to form the progressive, and of *have* to form the perfective (Huddleston, 2001, Ranta, 2011, Chalker and Weiner 2014). Therefore, aspect of a verb indicates whether the expressed action is completed (perfective) or continuous

(progressive). There may also be the combinations of the perfective and progressive aspects to produce the perfective progressive aspects.

Tense and aspects have received considerable attention of scholars. Both tense and aspect are connected to time although they differ in various ways. In English there are four aspects according to which the tenses can be conveniently arranged;

1. The Progressive Aspect (Continuous) views the action in the process of happening, being in the middle of things and not having been completed. e.g. I am eating dinner at the moment (He is still eating and has not finished).
2. The Perfective Aspect views the action as having been completed before another point in time. The action is completed but may influence what follows e.g. I have (already) eaten my dinner.
3. The Perfective Progressive Aspect combines the qualities of the two aspects above and describes the action as an on-going one that has been going on until a certain point in time. e.g. I had been eating dinner when my mother came in.

The Simple (or Zero) Aspect does not relate to the flow of time and merely states whether the action occurs. e.g. The sun rises in the east and sets in the west (simple factual statement).

### **English Verb-Tenses**

*The Simple Present Tense* is the first of all English verbs (the only exception is when using the third person singular; he, she, it or any noun that when changed to pronoun will become any of the third person singular, then *ōsō*, *ōesō* or *ōiesō* is added to the verb). The simple present tense is used to state (express) general truth, habitual, permanent or repeated action, or instantaneous truth or to make universal statements ( Greenbaum and Quirk, 2001, Uka, 2004, James, 2010) e.g,

- i. The sun rises in the East.
- ii. I sleep with my windows open.



- ii. Okocha passes the ball.      iv. He studies at University of Nigeria, Nsukka..

The present simple tense is used predominantly in scientific writings, dramatic and literary arts and other forms of writings especially descriptive writings. According to James (2010), it is used to make statements to what was true in the past, is true now and is likely to be true in the future.

*The present progressive* is the tense most closely related with the present time. It describes an incomplete ongoing present action that is in the middle of happening but will finish at some point. This tense is formed by using the auxiliary verb *to, be* (am, is, are) with the addition of the present participle or *ing* form to the main verb e.g He is eating. The tense is used to express event happening now or future plans e.g

- i. Ibrahim is writing a letter (now)      ii. Musa and Binta are marrying next month (a plan).

It is also used to express dislike on someone's habits. .e.g

Joseph is always complaining about his ill-health.

Quirk and Greenbaum, (2004) explained that the present progressive has a future happening anticipated in the present, thereby having the meaning of fixed arrangement, plan or programme e.g. *The University is graduating its students next month*. However, static verbs are not normally used in present progressive form e.g. \* she is being beautiful.

*The Present Perfect* Tense refers to the present result of an activity in the past. It shows that the action has been completed i.e it started in the past and ended in the present. The present perfect tense according Quirk et al (2013) is a reflection of a present action with an indication that such an action has ended a short while ago. The structure of the present perfect is formed by the use of *have/has* with past participle form of the verbs e.g:

- i. He has written a letter      ii. We have waited for two hours

In the perfective, the beginning of the actions or state which necessitated the utterance is shifted back to an earlier time while the effect of the action or state is still being felt at the time of utterance. In the words of Ngochal (2004) the consequences of this event are present at the time of utterance. Quirk et al (1990) refer to the time indicated by the perfect tense as the past with current relevance e.g.

- I. He has bought a new car. ii. We have enjoyed our stay on campus

*The Present Perfect Progressive Tense* is used to show an action which started in the past but continues in the present. According to Uka (2004), the tense indicates that the activity or state referred to still continues and may continue in the future. Here, the action which started at an earlier time is seen to be going on at the time of utterance. To form this tense, you need to use ðhas/have beenö with the present participle or öingö form of the verb e.g

She has been writing her assignment for two hours now.

*The Past Simple Tense* is used to indicate activities or states in the past which have no link with the present. Quirk and Greenbaum (1990) and Binnick (1991) are of the opinion that the simple past tense expresses an idea of completeness of an action at a specific time in the past. The tense is formed by the addition of öedö (allomorphs; ödö öidö and ötö) to the regular verbs, and appropriate form and the necessary changes of sounds or spellings in the irregular verbs as the case may be e.g.

- i. I stopped him by the gate. ii. He spoke to her on the phone yesterday.

However, the past simple tense does not always refer to the past time e.g.

She said she was going there next week.

Fred wishes he spoke French as well as you do..

*The Past Progressive (Continuous) Tense* describes an action which went on during a stretch of time in the past and had been completed. The tense is formed by the use of verb öto

beö (was/ were) with the present participle form of the verb ending öingö e.g She was writing a letter when I came in.

The tense is used to express action that was taking place at the time another action occur e.g. The students were fighting when the principal arrived. As I was lying in bed (hospitalized), my wife was singing (note the ambiguity)

It is also used for making report e.g.

The columnist said he was meeting the party leaders for discussions.

In the *Past Perfect Tense*, two or more actions are accounted for. One action was completed before the other(s), the completed action is in the past perfect tense while the simple past tense is used for any other action(s) in the same sentence e.g

Jane had gone half way before she remembered her bag.

Quirk, et al (1990) state that, this tense refers to a past time earlier than a past time. In other words, it is used to show that an action was completed before another action/event in the past (Ngochal, 2004). This tense is formed by using the auxiliary verb öhadö with the past participles form of the verb e.g

The train had left when I arrived at the station.

He had unlocked the door; there was nothing to prevent you from going out.

*The Past Perfect Progressive (Continuous) Tense* describes an ongoing action that began in the past, continued incessantly, and was completed before another point in time in the past or before another more recent past action. The tense is formed by the use of the auxiliary verb öhadö together with the auxiliary verb öbeenö and the present participle form of the verb ending with öingö e.g.

He had been keeping the memory for the past ten years.

You might give the fellow a chance, he's doing his best; he might turn out a success.

*The Future Tense* is used to express an action that is to take place in the future. It is commonly formed by the use of *ōshall/willö*. In British English *ōshallö* is often used with the pronoun *ōIö* and *ōweö* to indicate futurity and with *ōyouö* *ōtheyö*, *heö* *ōsheö* and *ōitö* to express determination or strong desire. On the other hand, *ōwillö* is used with all other persons except *ōIö* and *ōweö* to indicate futurity, and only used with *ōIö* and *ōweö* to express weak intention or desire. However, in American English *ōshall/willö* are used interchangeably for all persons (Eckaleys and Eckaleys, 1976, Galadi and Shuaibu, 2013).

*The Future Simple Tense* states or predicts that an action or situation will take place or happen in the future. It is formed by the use of auxiliary verbs *ōshall/willö* with the base form of the verb. Under the future simple one can put three more structures that convey different future actions differently from the form described above.

- (i) I am visiting my friend tomorrow.
- (ii) We are going to start our examinations tomorrow.
- (iii) Our examination starts tomorrow.

*The Future Progressive Tense* is used to express a future activity, beginning before and finishing after some given time in the future. The tense is formed by using the simple future tense of *ōbeö* plus present participle form of the verb e.g

I shall be finishing my assignment by this time next week.

She will be writing her final year examinations by this time next year.

*The Future Perfect Tense* is used to describe actions that will be completed in the future before a certain point in time or before another action in the future. The tense is formed by using the auxiliary verb *ōwill /shallö* with the auxiliary verb *ōhaveö* and the past participle form of the verb. E.g.

Casmir will have graduated from the university by July next year.

Musa will have attended his lectures for four month by December.

*The Future Perfect Progressive Tense* is used to describe an activity that will be continuing from the time it began up to another point in the future. This tense is formed by using auxiliary verb *ɔ*shall/will, followed by auxiliary verb *ɔ*have*ɔ* then auxiliary verb *ɔ*been*ɔ* and with the present participle of the verb e.g By 10 o'clock tomorrow, the president will have been speaking to the nation for about an hour.

An error analysis study could reveal the nature of the learners' basic knowledge and competence in the use of English and Hausa verb-tenses, and how such differs from the outward manifestations i.e performance of students. These structural linguistic differences between the two constitute the problem the researcher is investigating.

### **Hausa Verb-Tenses**

The Hausa language presents many grammatical aspects which make it very different from the Indo-European languages. In English and other western languages like Italian, German, French etc verb is inflected in moods and tenses, which means that there is temporal system. In Hausa, on the contrary, tense is something secondary because verb expresses time but only to determine the expression it is referred to. In fact, verbal system is figurative and what is important is the kind of action expressed by the verb. (D'Aniello, 2004).

The verbal system, is one of the most complex aspects of the Hausa grammar because it depends on the action, which can be completed or uncompleted (Amfani, 2007a, Yusif, 2011), besides, it presents a very typical verbal tense, the Aorist (or subjunctive), which is used to express a not indefinite action (Jaggar, 2012). While in the Indo-European languages, time is expressed by changes in the verb itself, in Hausa, it is expressed by changes in the personal pronouns (pre- verbal pronouns). For example, the sentence *ɔ*ɪ*ɔ*m coming*ɔ*, in Hausa will be *ɔ*ɪ*ɔ*na zuwa*ɔ* where the pronoun *ɔ*ɪ*ɔ*na*ɔ* introduces the continuative or uncompleted construction. This means in Hausa temporality is expressed by the variation of the pronouns.

According to Yusif (2011), Agreement, Tense and Aspect are separate word level categories from the main verb. Lexical verbs in Hausa do not inflect for agreement features (person, number, gender) nor for tense features (tense, aspect, and mood). In Hausa, the auxiliary verb either does not exist (DøAniello, 2004) or is an independent constituent from the main verb (Yusif, 2011). It comprises of a subject Agreement Marker( i.e AGR-S) as suggested by Chomsky (1995) which traditionally referred to as Pre-Verbal Pronoun and a TNS/ASP morpheme usually suffixed to the subject marker. These forms can be seen as follows:

- (i) Tense Marker = òzaaö
- (ii) Aspect Markers;
  - (a) Perfective = AGR + òa/nö
  - (a) Perfective = AGR + ònaaö
  - (a) Perfective = AGR + òkanö
  - (a) Perfective = (AGR + zero marker)

The above Tense and Aspect Markers can be illustrated in the following structures:

- 1) Aisha zaa ta karanta wasikar = zaaö ta (Willö she)  
 (Aisha will she read letter the)  
 Aisha will read the letter.
- 2) Aisha taa karanta wasikar = ta a (sheö perf.)  
 (Aisha she-perf. read letter the)  
 Aisha (had) read the letter.
- 3) Aisha tanaa karanta wasikar = ta--naa (she--prog.)  
 (Aisha she-prog. read letter the)  
 Aisha is reading the letter.
- 4) Aisha ta kan karanta wasikar = ta-kan (she--habitual)

(Aisha she-habitual read letter the)

Aisha (habitually) reads the letter.

In Hausa, according to Jinju (1992), Bello (2015), Sani (1999, 2007), Newman, (2000), Galadanci (2003), and Yusif (2011) there are eight (8) tenses. Each of these tenses is identified by the following:

A preverbal pronoun (PP)

A tense marker (TM)

A main verb (MV)

The pre-verbal pronouns are the same in all the eight tenses presented as *ōnaö* (I), *-kaö* (you, sing. masc.), *ōkiö* (you; sing. fem..), *ōkuö* (you, pl.), *ōyaö* (he), *ōtaö* (she) *ōmuö* (we) and *ōsuö* (they), except when the first person singular is used in the general continuous (GC) where *ōinö* is used instead of *ōnaö* (Sani, 1999, 2007, Galadamci, 2003,)

All these tenses have visible tense markers (TM) as follows:

TENSE (T)	TENSE MARKER (TM)
Habitual (Hab.)	Kan
General continuous (GC)	Na
Relative continuous (RC)	Ke
First future (FF)	Za
Second future (SF)	a
General past (GP)	(i) a (ii) aa
Relative past (RP)	Ka
Subjunctive (SUB)	

The Subjunctive and half of the Relative Past have no tense marker (TM) i.e. they have zero (O) tense marker. In all cases, the pre-verbal pronoun.(PP) preceded the tense marker (TM) except in the First Future (FF) where tense marker *õzaõ* (will) precedes the Preverbal Pronoun (PP). In the First Future, there is an elision of *õZa naõ* to *õZanõ*, *za yaõ* to *õzayõ* or *õzaiõ* e.g.

*Za na karanta* = *Zan karanta*. (I will read)

*Za ya karanta* = *Zay / Zai karanta* (He will read)

As will be seen in the examples below, the Hausa tenses have the following structures:

.1) Habitual Tense is realized as:

PP	TM	V
Na	kan	Karanta ô 1 do read.

2.) General Continuous Tense is realized as:

PP	TM	V
Ka	na	rubutawa - You are writing

3) Relative Continuous is realized as:

PP	TM	V
Na	ke	rubutawa ô Jam writing,

4). First Future is realized as:

TM	PP	V
Za	ka	rubuta Will you write.

5) Second Future is realized as:

PP	TM	V
Na	a	rubuta

6) General Past is presented as:

PP	TM	V
Na	a	karanta ô I read / I have read

7) Relative Past is realized as:

PP	TM	V
Ki -	-	karanta - You read.

8) Subjunctive is realized as:

PP	TM	V
Na	-	karanta - I read.



## **Concept of Second Language Acquisition and Interference**

The concept of Second Language Acquisition has greatly received the attention of applied linguists, researchers and teachers over the years. Second Language acquisition is the process by which people learn a language or languages other than their Native Language or First Language. The term "Second Language Acquisition (SLA)" refers to the acquisition of a new language by children or adults who already have full knowledge of their first language (L1). Second Language Acquisition is distinct from childhood bilingualism or simultaneous language acquisition, which refers to the child language acquisition of two languages simultaneously, with exposure to both languages beginning in infancy or soon after (Genesee, 2000, Schwartz, 2003, Ionin, 2012).

Child Second Language Acquisition refers to the acquisition of a second language after age three or four, when much of the first language is already in place (Gass and Selinker, 2001, Ionin, 2012). There is disagreement on exactly when child second language acquisition ends and adult second language acquisition begins (Gass and Selinker, 2001), but age eight or nine is often taken as the upper boundary for true child second language acquisition (Bialystok and Miller, 1999, Schwartz, 2003).

A second language or L2 is any language learned after the first language or mother tongue has been acquired. Although, a person's first language may not necessarily be his dominant language, but the one he uses and is comfortable with. First language, for the benefit of doubt, is defined as, the first language learned in childhood and is still spoken, since a situation might arise where the first language is lost as a result of a child's parents migrating to a new language environment (Olaoye, 2008). The theory of second language acquisition (SLA) suggested that adults have two different ways of developing competence in second languages; acquisition and learning. According to Krashen (1985) "acquisition" is a subconscious process identical in all-important ways to the process children utilize in

acquiring their first language and *learning* which is a conscious process that results in *knowing* about the rules of languages. According to him, learners' most direct source of information about the target language is the target language itself. When the learners come in direct contact with the target language that situation is referred to as *input*. When learners processed that language in a way that can contribute to learning that is referred to as *intake*. His research heavily relied on Benjamin Bloom's Taxonomy which describes the affective levels of receiving, responding, valuing, organization and self-characterization using one's value system.

While corroborating Krashen (1987), Yule (2007) also provides a clear distinction between *acquisition* and *learning*. The term *acquisition* when used of language refers to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations. The term *learning*, however, applies to a conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of a language. While learning refers to activities that are deliberately planned and executed in a classroom setting, activities associated with acquisition are those experienced by the young child and, analogously by those who pick up another language from a long period spent in social interaction (daily use of language) in another country. Those learning the language as L2 tend not to develop the proficiency of those who have had an acquiring experience. Therefore, very few adults new learners of L2 can attain native-like proficiency in using the second language. This suggests that some features (e.g. vocabulary, grammar) of an L2 are easier to learn/acquire than others (e.g. phonology). This goes to support the critical period hypothesis that after puberty it would be difficult to acquire another language fully (Yule, 2007).

The basic difference between first language acquisition by children and second language acquisition by adults, according to Bley-Vroman (1990, 2009) is that they fundamentally follow different processes. He argued that while child language acquisition

is guided by innate linguistic mechanisms, adult's second language acquisition relies on problem solving, instruction, and explicit categories. Olooye (2008:10) in outlining several other characteristics of a second language also posits, 'L2 learning takes place in a formal, classroom situation'. The implication of this to the present study is that, even though research has shown that traditional language teaching techniques are insufficient, yet there is a broad consensus of SLA scholars that acknowledge, the fact that formal instruction can help in language learning. Second Language scholars have attributed the plethora of errors made by L2 learners to mother tongue interference.

The concept of 'interference' (or linguistic interference to be precise) in second language acquisition has received considerable attention of theorists, researchers and teachers. The terms 'linguistic interference' (usually shortened to interference) are variously being used interchangeably to describe or connote the same phenomenon. In this work, the three terms are used presumably to mean the same and are therefore going to be used interchangeably. Language transfer (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, and cross meaning) refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from their native language to second language. It is most applied in the context of English language learning and teaching, but can occur in any situation when someone does not have a native-like command in a second language (Wikipedia-Free Encyclopedia). Transfer or interference can also mean the carry over or generalization of learned responses from one type of situation to another especially the application in one field of study or effect of knowledge skills, power or ability acquired in another (Crystal, 2003a).

Interference is a Psycholinguistics concept, which is a reality in language learning. Errors in L2 learning are partly attributable to interference. Theorists of interference believe that the nature of the first language usually affects performance in subsequent language(s) acquired. In other words, interference is a term which refers to a situation

whereby two different languages overlap (Onike, 2009). In interference, one of the two or more languages in use in a speech community is dominant. The features of the dominant language are transferred to the target language at the phonological, lexical, grammatical and discourse levels.

Interference is defined by Bhela (1999) as errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue. Ellis (1997) refers to interference as "transfer" whom he says is "the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2. He argues that transfer is governed by learners' perceptions about what is transferable and by their stage of development in L2 learning. In learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules (Selinker & Gass, 1994 and Ellis, 2008) with the use of their L1 knowledge but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or when they become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible.

Transfer has traditionally been divided into positive transfer or facilitation, which helps learners acquire properties of the target (second) language, and negative transfer or interference, which hinders learners in their course of acquisition (Odlin, 1989, 2005b). Generative approaches to second language acquisition look at transfer at the level of grammatical categories and features (Schwartz, 2003, White, 2003, Ionin, 2012). Linguistic transfer consists of deviation or different world perceptions that result from the contact between L1 and L2. It results in either positive or negative transfer (Galvo, 2009:2).

One major cause of interference posits Onike (2009) is inter-lingual identification i.e a situation whereby the bilingual equates two separate elements of the two languages in context. Interference cases therefore occur when learning and performance in English, in the context of the present study, is impeded by the transfer of speaker's knowledge of his mother tongue or other acquired languages before contact with English. Onike (2009) suggests that two types of interference can be distinguished. The first type is the proactive

interference, which is an interference phenomenon that helps in the acquisition of the target language or subordinate language. That is the previous language (First language) is influencing the acquisition of new language. If the materials to be learnt are similar, learning becomes easier (positive transfer). In other words, the study of one language would make easier the study of another where similarity in the linguistic corpus exists between the two languages and this would result in facilitative effect. For instance, sounds such as /b/, /d/ and /t/, which occur in most Nigerian languages, aid the acquisition of similar sounds in English phonology. Retroactive interference occurs when the new language interferes with the already known language (Offorma, 2009). This type retards the process of the acquisition of the target language. If the materials to be learnt are different or do not exist in the linguistic corpus of L1, learning becomes difficult (negative transfer) since new concepts or materials have to be learnt, and this would result in inhibitory effect or learning difficulties. For example the lack of sounds such as the voiced Labio-dental /v/ and the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ʃ/ which are present in English phonology but absent in Hausa and Yoruba.

According to Galvo (2009) transfer or cross-linguistic influence may occur consciously, where there is a gap in the knowledge of L2 learners; and unconsciously, where the correct form has not been learnt or automatized. In addition to attributing such phenomenon to interlanguage (the learner's interim knowledge e.g mental grammar of the L2), she further adds that it is possible that there is not enough previous knowledge of the other language(s), fear of loss of identity if L2 is learned too well, besides the feeling that L2 lack prestige. Bhela (1999) implies that the source of data for transfer research lie in the learner's production or utterances, that is the observed output, which results from the second language learner's attempt to produce target language norms.

## **Concept of Gender**

Ordinarily, gender relates to the differences in sex (i.e either male or female) and how this quality affects, their dispositions and perceptions towards life and/or academic activities (Okoh, 2010). Sociologically, gender is not the same as sex; which is the physical biological difference between male and female. Gender is a cultural construct, while sex is a biological construct. Uzoegwu (2004) defines gender as a psychological term describing behaviors and attributes expected of individuals on the basis of being born either male or female. UNICEF (1991) defines gender as the varied socially and culturally constructed roles, qualities, behaviours and so on that are ascribed to women and men by different societies. Keller and Keller(2004) corroborates UNICEF (1991) when he defines gender as cultural construct developed by the society to distinguish the roles, behaviours, mental and emotional characteristics between males and females. Sadiq (1996) tries, however, to make a distinction between sex and gender. According to him, sex is a physical distinction; gender is a social and cultural one. This simply implies that roles and expectations of males and females are defined by the societies and cultures. For the purpose of this study, gender refers to the different roles and expectations attributed to males and females by societies and culture.

As Otagburuagu (2001:29) notes that "since the Beijing conference held in China in 1990, scholars have found added impetus to investigate the gender variation in all spheres of human endeavours". One area that is of great concern in such human endeavours is achievement in school subjects between males and females. There are two contending theories, in the literature, on language achievement between males and females. The first asserts that differences in language achievement between males and females result from biological differences. This theory has an array of supporters which include Truidgill

(2000), Fakeye (2010), Nwafor (2012) among others. For instance, Coates as reported in Oluikpe (2004) contends that:

If we compare sentences constructed by men and women, we shall find in the former many more instances of intricate with clause within cause or vice-versa, with subordination and subordination while typical forms of long feminine structures is that of co-ordination, one sentence or clause being added to another on the same plane. In learned terminology, we say that men are fond of hypotaxis, and women of parataxis. (Pp. 43-44).

The second theory on language ability states that differences between males and females are not due to biological differences but rather, they are due to gender socialization. Supporters of this theory, as reported in Oluikpe (2004), include O'Barr and Atkins (1982), Klen-Delius (1987), Philips (1987), Sheiffelin (1987), Coates and Camaron (1988) and Corson (1995). Therefore, in order to confirm or reject either of the theories further research is needed in the area.

A study on Iranian students by Masoud (2011) found that, gender is an issue with important theoretical and pedagogical implications in second language learning and, therefore has received attention of scholars in language learning research. Studies of the relationship between gender and students' achievement demonstrate that girls tend to have a higher reading achievements than boys do (Rothman & McMillan, 2003, World Bank, 2004, Nguyen, Wu and Gilles, 2005, Eurydice, 2010, as cited in Kangabi, Indeshi, Okwachi and Osado, 2012). Eniobong, (2007) also reported a significant difference between the level of mother tongue (Efik) interference of male and female in English language. The ability to learn and use language has a female advantage as early as during the first two years of life.

A study conducted by Offorma (1990) also found out that there is a significant mean difference in the spoken French of male and female students. According to her findings, females performed better than their male counterparts. This is not surprising according to the researcher because it has been established by psychologists that girls have more flair for language than boys do and, this can be attributed to the fact that women naturally talk more than men do. Language learning at the beginning stage calls for a lot of work which includes repetition, imitation of the sounds and words, pattern drills, games and simulations and girls are fond of all these activities than boys.

In the same line, Azikiwe (2005) suggests that although the assumption of gender difference in English in favour of females seems to be accepted to a large extent through research evidence in English speaking countries, its generalization in Nigeria, where English is the second language needs to be verified. Using the survey method, she collated the findings of available relevant empirical studies, which investigated the effects of gender on language use and performance. The main focus of the study was on English, Igbo and French. For the analysis of data, percentages were used and the result showed that out of 31 collated studies, 23 (74%) revealed that gender had no influence on language use, acquisition and performance in Nigeria. Marjah (2008) noted that the general belief is that girls are more prone to learning language than boys. In addition, Nwafor (2012) reported that girls are better than boys in literary texts, while boys perform higher than girls in numeracy. However, contrary to this result, a study by Odidoh (2009) revealed no significant difference between the errors in English language tenses made by male and female students who used Tiv language as their mother tongue. Therefore, the present study wants to find out which of the two contending positions is true in Jigawa State.



## **Concept of Location**

The location of a school is an important variable that affects students' academic achievement. Schools are located in both urban and rural areas, but more schools are found in the urban areas because of the population density of the area. The location of schools is of critical importance. Ezike (1997) classifies location as either being urban or rural areas. He conceptualized urban environment as those, which have high population density containing a high variety and beauty and commonplace views. While he further identified the rural environment as being characterized by; low population density, subsistence mode of life, monotonous and burdensome containing low variety and isolated place view. Citing social amenities such as; hotels, recreational centres, markets, banks and good road networks as being some of the common features of urban environment. There have been controversies, over the years, on the question of whether school location has effect on the behavior and academic attainment of the students who attended them. Writing on the importance of location Torty (2010) states that, in Nigeria most schools in urban areas are well equipped with facilities which aid teaching/learning. Ejini (2009) reported also that students in urban areas in the state made fewer errors in English language during storytelling than their counterparts in rural parts of Cross River State. Adi (2010) also found out those students from rural areas made errors due to the interference of their mother tongue than those in the urban area. Uzoegwu (2004) asserts that location of a school determines so many things that are important in learning, such as learning facilities and environment factors, infrastructures, number and quality of teachers and class size. Adequate provision or lack of these facilities may improve or hamper learning by students. Owolabi and Daslyva (2004) accentuated that some highly qualified teachers prefer to serve in the urban rather than in the rural areas. This is because more school facilities and services tended to be concentrated in urban schools. Uzoegwu (2004) also opines that no

two school environments are the same. Schools in Nigeria are located in urban and rural areas. Owoeye and Yara (2011) observe that many parents prefer their wards to attend schools in urban areas because they believe that students from urban schools perform much better than their counterparts from rural schools. The difference in school environment is expected to result in a differential impact in the acquisition of language skills. In the context of this study, location is considered to imply rural or urban areas where the Federal and State tertiary institution are established.

Many studies have been carried out on the influence of school environment on learning. Offordile (1995) stated that environment provides different learning stimulations and as a result, students (pupils) would perform differently because they experience different environmental stimulations; because of different socio-cultural backgrounds, physical circumstances, traditional beliefs and choices which invariably affect the students' intellectual development. Rural and urban circumstances present different stimulations for the learners. Based on this assumption many studies have revealed that on the average, urban students perform better than their rural counterparts. Many reasons have been given to support this fact. One of such reasons is that majority of the students from rural schools in Nigeria come from poor homes and this negatively affects their academic achievements.

These students from rural schools lack the basic amenities like recreational materials and library facilities. They also do not have qualified teachers in most of the subjects. This is unlike the students from urban schools who have the background experience which enhance learning and performance. Yet, other studies that report higher academic achievements of urban students over their rural counterparts include Eneh (2002), Akabogu (2002), Anizoba (2004), Agada (2008), Offorma (2009) and Omeje (2009). On the contrary and interestingly Uzoegwu (2004) and Torty (2010), Adepoju and OIuchukwu (2011) reported that students in rural schools achieved higher than in the urban setting.

Uzoegwu (2004) and Torty (2010), Adepoju and Oluchukwu (2011) reported that students in rural schools achieved higher than in the urban setting. This conflicting opinions and findings on the influence of location on students' achievements in English language necessitate further investigation. The researcher, therefore, intends to investigate via contrastive analysis the effective use of English tenses using location as a variable.

### **Concept of Proprietorship**

School proprietorship or ownership is an important variable that influences students' academic achievement. School proprietorship or ownership may either be public or private. A public school is any school controlled and/or supported by the State or Federal Governments. A private school on the other hand, is a school supported and controlled by religious/social organizations or other private groups or individuals (Oke and Maliki, 2009). In this study school proprietorship refers to the Federal and State ownership of Tertiary Institutions in Jigawa state.

There is a widely-held view, in different parts of the world that students who attend private schools perform better than those that attend public schools. Crone, Johnson and Elder (2004) found that school ownership (i.e schools owned by private individuals and those owned by the government) are important structural components of the education system. Private schools, they argued, tend to have better funding and small size than public schools. This additional funding of private schools leads to better academic performance and more access to resources such as computers, which have been shown to influence academic achievement.

Private schools according to Sampson (2004) have alternate source of funding higher level of discipline, and are very selective and this is why they tend to have higher academic performance than students from public schools. Crone, Johnson and Elder (2004), Sampson (2004) and Considine and Zappala (2002) share a similar view and that

is; private schools are more likely to have a greater number of students from high socio-economic status (SES ) families, select students with stronger abilities and have greater financial resources. They conclude strongly that the type of school affects the academic performance of students. Ajayi (2006) in his study revealed that school type makes a difference in students' academic performance. Private schools, according to Lukbieski and Luklieski (2005) are free from much bureaucracy that plagues public schools, they are able to avoid political entanglements but rather focus on a core academic curriculum.

The same reasons that have been advanced for differential performance between private and public schools could presumably be applied to federal and states supported and controlled schools. Most, if not all, the contributory factors for differential achievement between private and public schools are also present between federal and states schools. Hence, the views and findings of all these researchers could be summarized that, the outcome of tertiary level education depends largely on the type of high school attended. Therefore, since there is no private tertiary institution in Jigawa state, this study intends to find out whether students in federal tertiary institutions perform better than those in state-owned tertiary institutions in the state.

**Fig 1: SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

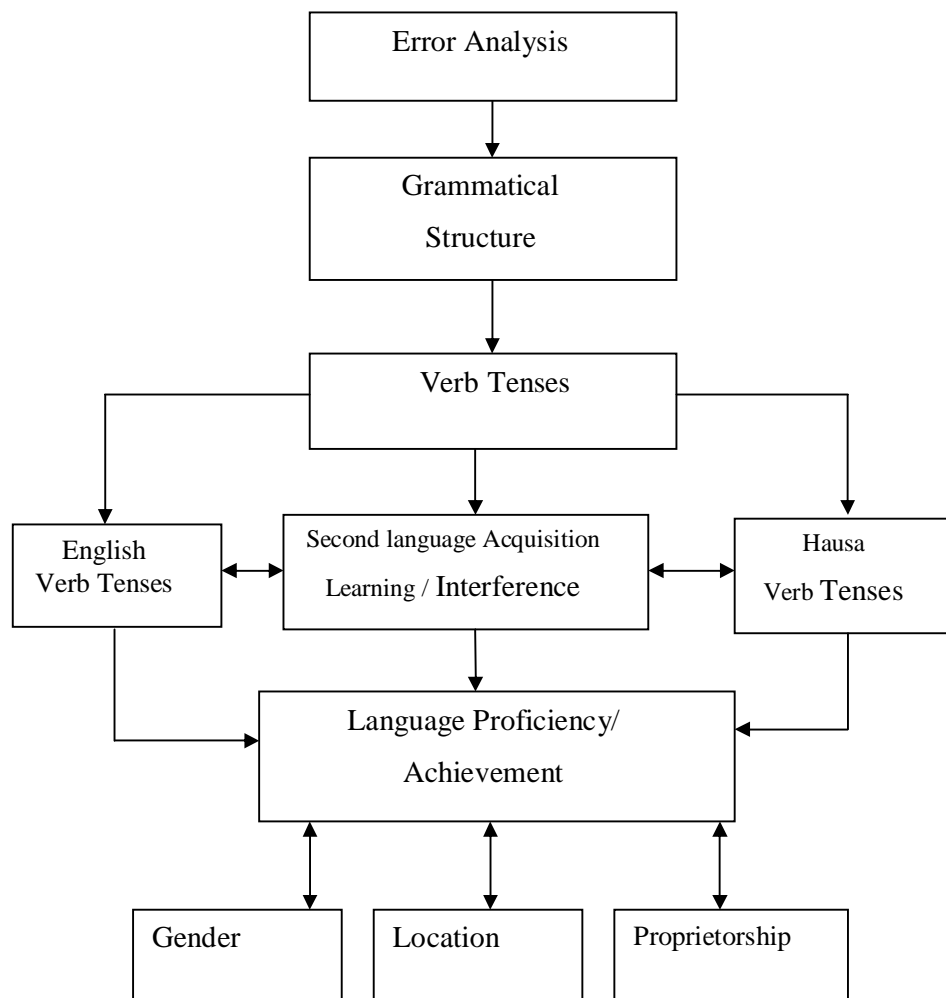


Figure 1: The figure above shows the schematic relationships among the study variables: interference, gender, location and proprietorship of schools on achievements/ language proficiency of students in English and Hausa verb tenses (Habu, 2018).

### **Theoretical Framework**

Theories of learning are formulated and, if well applied can explain and predict the behaviour of learners. It is through theories that one comes to terms with other possibilities and ways of seeing the world around. According to Riding, Grimleg, Dahraei, and Banner, (2003), the formulation of a theory of learning plays the following important roles;

- It gives detailed systemized information of an area of knowledge.
- It serves as a guideline to conduct further researches.
- It produces new facts.
- It gives an organized knowledge of the explanation behavior developed by a theorist.
- It serves to guide and explore reality which is the goal of all sciences-physical or social.

Therefore, based on these conditions, the following learning theories that have direct relevance to this study were reviewed: the Behaviourists, the Cognitivists (Mentalists) and Connectionists learning theories.

### **Behaviorists' Theory**

Various theories of learning have been advanced, over the years, to account for language acquisition, be it first language (L<sub>1</sub>) or second language (L<sub>2</sub>); the most influential among them are the Behaviorists, the Cognitivists (Mentalists) and Connectionists theories of language learning.

The behaviourists focused on people's behaviours which are directly observable, rather than the mental system underlying these behaviours (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, 2011). The major premise of the behaviourists' theory rests on the analyses of human behaviour in observable stimulus-response interaction and the association between them. According to Rivers (2009) the behaviourists theory of stimulus-response learning, particularly as developed by Skinner (1957), considers all learning to be the establishment of habits as a result of reinforcement and reward.

In the 50<sup>s</sup> and 60<sup>s</sup> of 20<sup>th</sup> century, behaviourism, a psycholinguistic approach to language acquisition, was dominating the teaching/learning scene. In behaviourists' view of language teaching (Bloomfield, 1933, Skinner, 1957), language acquisition is seen as

any other type of learning i.e. as a formation of habits (Al-Shormani, 2009). According to Malmkjacr (1991) everything which some refer to as mental activity, including language use, can be explained in terms of habits or patterns of stimulus and responses, but up through conditioning. Hence, language learning is entirely the product of experience and that our environment affects everybody. In this view, human beings are being exposed to numerous stimuli in their environment to which they respond. Language was viewed as a kind of verbal behaviour that was learnt or acquired through imitation, reinforcement, analogy and similar processes (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2011).

The behaviourists place much emphasis on the role of the environment (nurture) in learning and development. Thus L2 learning is seen as the development of new sets of habits, both positive and negative transfer habits (Marjah, 2008). Linguistic behaviour is modeled externally, and reinforced by adult speakers. This theory believes that linguistic development in the learner depends on analogy in which the learner simply builds up sentences analogous to the structures already learnt through stimulus-response reinforcement chain (Marjah, 2008) This theory is relevant to the present study because it holds the view that L1 habit learners had already established interfere with the formulation of the new habit in L2. Accordingly, the behaviourists see error as a bad phenomenon, which signaled a breakdown in the teaching-learning process. Hence, the theory is very important in the present study.

### **Cognitivists' Theory**

The Cognitivists, on the other hand, believe that people learn a language because they possess the mental capacity to acquire it. Essentially, they believe that people have an innate predisposition to learn a language, what Chomsky (1959), the proponent of the Cognitivists school of thought calls Language Acquisition Device (LAD) in human brains that allows man learn a language. Accordingly, the behaviourists see error as a bad

phenomenon, which signaled a breakdown in the teaching-learning process. Hence, they emphasize pattern drills and practice, often in a rather mechanical fashion to ensure correctness. The learners are made to hear only good models and are encouraged to produce acceptable English sentences all the times. To them, errors are unacceptable and should be frowned at and stamped out.

The Cognitivists argue that without such a biological predisposition, it could not be possible to learn a language quickly and thoroughly as human do. Chomsky (1959) further argues that human behaviour is considerably more complex than animal behaviour. Moreover, certainly language behaviour is so specific to humans that it could never be explained through animal behaviours (Van-Ells, Bongaerts, Extra, Van-Os, and Van-Dieten, 1993).

However, Chomsky does not refute the role of the environment in language acquisition; rather he maintains that the environment is a source of data for language acquisition. The Mentalists / Cognitivists theory contends that children are born with major principles of language in place but with many parameters to set it up. This entails that when the young children are exposed to a language, their Language Acquisition Device (L.A.D) makes it possible for them to set up the parameters and device the grammatical principles because the principles are innate (Igbeaku, 2011). In a swift and devastating reaction to B.F Skinner's (1957) seminal book titled *Verbal Behaviours*, in which he proposes a model of language acquisition, Chomsky's (1959) text entitled *Review of Verbal Behaviours* showed that language is a complex cognitive system that could not be acquired by behaviourists principles.

The behaviourists, on the other hand, argue that everything we have learnt is through interaction with our environment (nurture). They postulate that, rather than being biologically predisposed (nature) to learn language, we learn language through



reinforcement (parents give children praises and attention when they start making speech sounds, which encourages the children to continue to do so). Hence, L2 learning is seen as the process of habit formation through the pedagogical practice of dialogue, memorization, imitation and pattern drills which result in over-learning and automaticity. Language behaviour, according to Skinner in Van-Ellis, (1994), can only be studied through observation of the world around the language user; such as the frequency with which a certain utterance is used in the child's environment.

The basic difference between the two theories being examined is found in the way language is to be structured to facilitate better learning. While the behaviourists are of the view that language habit is formed by constant repetition, characterized by pattern drills, followed by positive and negative reinforcement by the teacher, the mentalists believe that when, a child learns the rules governing the way a given language functions, he will be able to use the rules to form further sentences in the language through the process of hypothesis formation and testing (Fakeye, 2002). Essentially, the Cognitivists postulate that the ability to learn language is inborn (nature), whereas the behaviourists report that language is entirely learned (nurture).

Similarly, while the behaviourists see the learner as being passive in the process of language learning, the mentalists see him as an active participant in the language learning process. In other words, while the behaviourists see language learning as habit formation that is mechanistic, the mentalist sees it as a rule-governed activity in which the learner is consciously and actively involved (Fakeye, 2002). This relates to Chomsky's (1965) generativist theory which presupposes that in using language, the individual is able to react appropriately in an indefinite range of new situations (Utoh, 2003).

Generally, language acquisition in children seems to be based on two important and intimately interconnected properties of human language. First, language is regarded as rule-

governed and human beings master and follow rules for forming and using expression of their native language (Marjah, 2008). Secondly, language is creative; in the process of language acquisition, human beings spontaneously produce and understand expressions they never encountered before in their linguistics expressions.

Both elements of behaviourism and cognitivism seem to be visible in human linguistics performance. It is because of this Marjah (2008) suggested that an eclectic model may not be out of place, since, the child certainly constructs his language through hypothesis formation; and he/she makes use of imitation in the acquisition of language.

The theoretical framework of linguistic transfer is anchored on the behaviourists' views of L2 acquisition which holds the notion that L1 habits that learners had already established would interfere with the formation of new habits in L2 (Schmitt, 2010). Accordingly, the behaviourists see error as a bad phenomenon, which signaled a breakdown in the teaching-learning process. Hence, they emphasize pattern drills and practice, often in a rather mechanical fashion to ensure correctness. The learners are made to hear only good models and are encouraged to produce acceptable English sentences all the times. To them, errors are unacceptable and should be frowned at and stamped out.

On the contrary, the Cognitivists anchored their view on language learning and learners' errors in the opposite direction. They hold that learners must make errors as an unavoidable and necessary point in the learning process. Errors, to them, are therefore visible proof that learning is taking place. Lastly, second language learning, it should be emphasized, is a conscious process in which the basic structures of the language must be taught and learnt effectively. It is also imperative to state that sound theoretical knowledge is essential for the effective teaching-learning of language and its basic structures. Therefore, in order to achieve this objective, a combination of these two major theories is suggested to be the relevant theoretical framework for this study.

## Connectionists' Theory

The behaviourists hold strongly that language learning is a process of stimulus response. Connectionism is one of the behaviourists theories developed by Edward Thordike. The theory is based upon the idea that all behaviours are acquired through conditioning, which occurs through interaction with the environment (Ringim, 2016). Connectionism was based on the concepts that ideas are associated with one another through a set of simple rules. The theory states that learning consists of connections between the problem of a particular situation and the previous accomplishments (Culatta, 2018).

Connectionism is the theory that all mental processes can be described as the association acquired between stimulus (S) and responses (R). This theory proposes that all learning consists primarily of the strengthening of the relations (bonds) between the stimulus and the response. The bonds between S-R constitute the basic units of learning. While stimulus is anything causing or expected to cause, elicit, accelerate a physiological or psychological activity or reaction, a response on the other hand, is the act of responding, reacting or answering to a specific stimulus. Response can be positive or negative, weak or strong etc. Bond represents the connection between stimulus and response.

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After conducting several experiments with animals, Thordike formulated his three famous laws of learning, which he believes equally applied to man as to animals (Rihgim, 2016). These laws are; law of readiness, law of exercise and law of effect. The law of readiness implies preparatory adjustments of the organism (learner) confronted with a problem. However, it does not include maturation. The law states that the more ready an individual is to respond to stimuli, the stronger will be the bond between them. Secondly, the law of exercise emphasizes the importance of practice and drill in learning. This means that those

things most often repeated through practice and drill are the best learned, that is, learning becomes strengthened with practice and weakened when practice is discontinued. Thirdly, law of effect implies the principles that, whether or not something is learned depends upon the consequence of that activity (on the learner). That is, only those responses of the organism (learner) followed by reward and satisfaction would be learned and those unsuccessful responses followed by punishment and annoyance would be eliminated (Rigim, 2016). Learning was a matter of stamping in of the successful S-R bonds. However, according to Thorndike in Culatta (2018) negative consequences do not necessarily weaken the connection; same is true that positive consequences do not always guarantee the recurrence of behaviour.

According to the connectionists, learning is the result of association forming between stimuli and responses. Such associations became strengthened or weakened by the nature and frequency of S-R pairings, this result in trial and error learning in which some responses came to dominate others due to reinforcements (rewards). The hallmark of connectionism (like all behavioural theory) was that learning could be adequately described without referring to any unobservable internal states. [www.instructionaldesign.org/theories](http://www.instructionaldesign.org/theories)

The theory suggests that transfer of learning depends upon the presence of identical elements in the original and new learning situations i.e. transfer is always specific, never general [www.instructionaldesign.org](http://www.instructionaldesign.org).

Connectionism, according to Ghaemi & Faruji (2017), emphasizes environment influence and exposure to language towards gradual build up of language. According to them, all knowledge is embodied in a network of simple processing units joined by connections which are strengthened or weakened in response to irregularities in put patterns. In second language learning the assumption is that transfer from L1 to L2 occurs because strong associations already established in L1 interfere with establishment of the L2

network (Gas and Selinker, 2008, Ghaemi and Faruji 2017). Connectionist theory is important in that they directly show how language learning takes place through gradual strengthening of the associations between co-occurring elements of languages. In the context of the present study how the acquisition of L1 (Hausa) facilitates (strengthens) or hampers (weakens) the learning of the L2 (English) in institution of higher learning in Jigawa State. This means that the learner should try to see the association (similarities and dissimilarities) between the different tenses and aspects systems of the two languages used in the study.

### **Review of Empirical Studies**

The main aim of the review of empirical studies is to highlight the salient features of some studies whose findings have direct relevance to this study. This review is arranged under empirical studies on Verb-Tenses, Gender, Location and Proprietorship (School ownership).

#### **Empirical Studies on Verb – Tenses**

A foundation study was conducted by Adeyanju (1971) on English and Hausa sentence structures based on Sector Analysis Grammatical Model. The study was directed at teachers of English to Hausa students in Nigeria. It is based on the theory that the patterns of a learners' native language tend to interfere with the learning of the patterns of the target language. The study seeks to predict the points of difficulty that Hausa students will meet when they study English sentence structures and to make some suggestions for ways of improving the teaching of English to Hausa students.

As a first step toward a contrastive analysis of English and Hausa, the analyst found it necessary to describe the structure of written Hausa as adequately as possible, using the Sector Analysis Model. The descriptive part of the study aims at identifying the different kinds of units that may occur in various positions in a Hausa sentence. The aim was to

identify structural similarities and differences between the two languages. He found out that some structures do exist in English but do not exist in Hausa, on the other hand, some slots or positions that are filled in Hausa but are not filled in English. The absence of English structures implies that these positions must receive special attention in teaching English sentence structures to Hausa students. All the lexical items and constructions types which fill these positions and which do not occur in Hausa must also be taught as completely new items. The present study and previous one are similar in a number of ways. Both studies conduct a contrastive analysis of English and Hausa grammatical structures. Both studies aimed at identifying areas and patterns of learning difficulties a Hausa learner of English is likely to encounter with a view to proffering pre-emptive measures to remedy the situation. However, the two studies differ in several ways. While the previous study adopted Documentary Research Design, this study adopted Ex- Post Facto Research Design. The data for the previous study were sourced from Hausa texts and newspapers, while this study obtained its data from Tests and Written essays given to the students. The influence of variables such as gender, location and proprietorship on interference and students' academic achievements was investigated in the present study.

A contrastive study of Anaan and English structural patterns conducted by Udondata (2001) reveals that emphasis has shifted from mere vocabulary control to patterns and structure of the English language. The study was conducted to find out if there are any significant differences and similarities between the structural patterns of Anaan and those of English and whether such differences or similarities could hinder or facilitate communication in English by Anaan speakers. A Pilot study was conducted using twenty educated Anaan speakers as respondents. It was concluded that the word and group structures of Anaan and English exhibit some difference whereas the sentence structures do not. For the main study four research questions and three hypotheses were formulated. The

study was carried out in six local government areas. Two secondary school were randomly selected from each of these local government areas, one from urban and one from rural not for performance but for geographical spread. The sample was stratified between males and females. The sample consisted of 160 respondents. Ninety-six (96) were final year Senior Secondary School Student while Sixty-four (64) were Secondary School teachers. Six (6) students were randomly selected from each of the sixteen (16) secondary schools in the study. Four (4) teachers were also selected from each of the schools. In each school three (3) male and three (3) female students were selected .Two (2) female and two (2) male teachers selected. There were a total of ten (10) respondents from each school.

Three research instruments were used to collect data .It was a picture with a house, a tree in front of it, two girls playing on the ground and two boys playing football. Respondents were to write four sentences on it. In test two, they were expected to translate the four sentences into Anaan. The aim was to elicit spontaneous response in constructing the sentences. The sentences were used to identify different structural patterns. The third test consisted of eight sentences comprising simple, compound, complex and compound complex structures. The students were expected to translate these structures. On the structural differences, less than 50% of the 160 respondents were able to produce the structures tested and, on structural similarity only 5% and above of the 160 respondents had no difficulty producing the structures tested.

The data generated from the study were subjected to different statistical analysis; the following were the major findings of the study, three of which are relevant to this study. Definite articles Adjectives, nouns, verbs, adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, interrogatives, and inflections exist in Anaan and English. English grammar is characterized by verb suffixation while Anaan is characterized by verbal prefixation. In English cardinal numbers come before nouns here as in Anaan nouns come be cardinal numbers

The present study is related to the one reviewed above because both of them undertake an error analysis of grammatical structures of English and another native language. Both of them also use test items and some structures to be translated and or provide equivalent structures in a native language. However, they differ in content coverage, geographical scope and proficiency levels. Similarly, the present study, unlike the previous one, investigates the influence of gender, location and school proprietorship as variables on students' academic achievements.

Lending support to this, the study conducted by Afangideh (2005) which seeks to investigate interference of Anaan with English verb tenses among different categories of secondary school students. The intention was to compare and contrast the lexical verbs of Anaan and English by highlighting their similarities and differences. It was also to determine how the differences constituted interference in the performance of the different grade levels, on males and females and on Anaan secondary school learners of English lexical verbs at different locations. Four research questions and four hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The study employed two research designs survey (analytic/contrastive) and causal comparative. One hundred and fifty (150) secondary school Anaan learners in Aback and Oruk Anam Education Zones of Akwa Ibom state were used. The population was sourced from two co-ó educational schools, one girls' school and one boys' school by a non-ó proportionate stratified random sampling technique. The English Lexical Verbs Achievement Test (ELVAT) was the instrument used for data collection, which comprised structure, translation and essay tests. The data collected from the study were analysed by analytic / contrastive Analysis; means, standard deviation, t-test statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The major findings of the study were; That English and Anaan lexical verb have a number of resemblances, but surprisingly in spite of these apparent similarities, there are many peculiar differences in



both systems as follows: That there is a significant difference between English and Anaan lexical verb That there is a significant difference in mean interference scores of the different grade levels of Anaan secondary school learners of English lexical verbs. That there is no significant difference in the mean interference scores of male and female Anaan secondary school learners of English lexical verbs. That the language of Anaan Secondary School Students in urban schools showed less degree of interference in English lexical verb than that of rural schools.

The educational implications of the findings were extensively discussed. Various recommendations among which was that the Akwa Ibom state government should use the findings of this study to improve the procurement of learning materials to secondary schools in the Anaan community in order to curb interference problems were made, and suggestion for further research were also made.

The study on an error analysis investigation carried out in Concepcion, Chile, by Garrido and Rosatio (2012) with a group of forty-eight native speakers of Spanish, studying to become EFL teachers at universal San Sebastian. All the participants were first year students who had studied English tenses and aspect for a year. The objective of the investigation were the identification of students' errors regarding the use of tenses and aspects in English, the design of a hierarchy of difficulty and the explanation of main errors. According to the results obtained, after a year of formal instruction, students still showed problem with the correct use of English tenses and aspects. The main problem was accurately matching tenses and aspects to different contexts. Findings provide useful information to design remedial programmes to help students become successful in the use of English tenses and aspects.

The present study is related to the one reviewed above because both of them undertake an error analysis of grammatical structures of English and another native

language. Both studies' main objectives were the identification of students' errors regarding the use of tenses and aspects in English Language. However, they differ in content coverage, geographical scope and proficiency levels. Similarly, the present study, unlike the previous one, investigates the influence of gender, location and school proprietorship as variables on students' academic achievements.

Yet another study by Sukasame, Kantho and Narrot (2013) sought to study grammatical errors in learning English structures on tenses of the Matthayom Suksa four students. The research group consisted of 31 Matthayom Suksa four students of the Demonstration School of KhonKaen University (Suksasart) in the second semester of the 2012 academic year. The data were collected by using three kinds of instruments, namely; a multiple choices test examining grammatical errors, a table recording each student's errors and a survey interviewing those whose errors were found. The student's errors were subsequently analyzed to find the percentage. The results were presented in the form of a table with the description. The results showed the student's errors in learning English grammars on Tenses. There errors were found in respective twenty two grammar rules in seven tenses as follow: They were past perfect tense (87.1%), past simple tense (74.2%), present perfect tense (67.4%), past continuous tense (54.8%), present simple (48.4%), future simple tense (41.7%) and present continuous tense (32.3%).

The present study is related to the one reviewed above because both of them undertake an error analysis of grammatical structures of English tenses. Both of them also use multiple choice test items covering all the English tenses. However, they differ in content coverage, geographical scope and proficiency levels. Unlike, the present study, the previous one uses observation scales and interview schedules. Similarly, the present study, unlike the previous one, investigates the influence of gender, location and school proprietorship as variables on interference and students' academic achievements.

In an error analysis case study conducted by Komala (2014) which sought to describe the students' errors and its causes in using simple present tense, simple present continuous tense and simple past tense. In this research, the researcher used a qualitative method in a form of descriptive analysis (percentage) that included observation, collecting the students' test, analyzing, and interpreting the data. For collecting the data the researcher used test as the instrument. This research was conducted to 28 students in class 8.6 of SMP YAPERAN-Nurmaniyah Ciledug. The result of the research showed that the highest frequency of errors was in the simple past tense; there were 73 errors or 37.24 %. The writer classified the types of error into *missformation*, *omission*, and *addition*. Among those three types, the most frequency error was *missformation* that reached 96 errors or 70.59%. The other finding was the sources of error which are divided into three categories. Those are *interlingual errors*, *intralingual errors*, and *communicative strategies*. *Intralingual errors* and *communicative strategies* are the most common source of error, there were 40.44%

### **Empirical Studies on Gender**

Studies on the influence of gender on students' academic achievement are found in all societies across the world. Harker (2000) investigated gender differences in achievement of boys and girls in schools in New Zealand. The study, which employed a large sample of 5,300 students, showed that the achievement of girls in English language was significantly higher than that of boys in terms of both mean curriculum coverage and examinations learning outcomes. The results however, showed that boys achieved significantly better results than girls in mathematics. The result revealed that there was no significant difference in the achievement of boys and girls in science. This study is related to the present study in that it has addressed the issue of gender influence on academic achievement of male and female students. However, some of its drawbacks are that it has

failed to provide the research design, sampling techniques, instrument for data collection, method of data analysis and implications of the study. All these aspects are needed if some other researchers intended to replicate the same study.

In a study conducted to determine the influence of gender on secondary school students' competence in English grammar patterns in Enugu Nigeria, Olukpe (2004) used survey design on a population of 3053 secondary school students. Proportionate stratified random sampling technique along gender was adopted and twenty-five percent of each category was selected using systematic sampling technique. In the process, 591 males and 888 females were selected in JSS 3 and 672 males and 902 females in SS1 making a total of 1263 males and 1790 females. Questionnaire was designed consisting of 100 multiple-choice items reflecting present, present perfect, past and past perfect tenses. Specialists in English language studies first validated the items before they were administered under test conditions for duration of one hour. Percentages, means and z-tests were used for analyzing the data. The result revealed that boys committed more errors in English tenses than girls did. In addition, girls had higher competence level than boys in present tense, past tense and past present tense. This study is related to the present study in several ways. Like the present study, the study is on the influence of gender on English language achievement of students. Secondly, like the present study, it is also addressing the problem of English verb-tense to second language learners. Both of the two studies are conducting a contrastive analysis of English and a native language. However, the two studies differ in the location and the languages (Igbo or Hausa) being compared.

In another study, Umo (2003) investigated the influence of gender on secondary school students' achievement in Igbo grammar using games in relation to the conventional method in Enugu, Nigeria. The quasi-experimental design was used; Eight Secondary Schools were randomly selected. A multi-stage sampling technique was adapted to sample

out 197 JSS II students. The sampled students were assigned to treatment and control groups in intact classes. The treatment and control groups were further stratified based on gender and location. Igbo Grammar Achievement Test (IGAT) consisting of 40 multiple-choice questions, validated by experts in language studies was used to collect data. Pre-test and post-test were administered and the data collected analyzed using means and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results revealed that gender had significant influence on the achievement of students in Igbo grammar. This result contradicts Azikiwe (2005) collated empirical studies, which revealed that gender had no influence on language acquisition and performance. In the Igbo grammar experiment, the result showed that female students achieved significantly higher than their male counterparts did. This study also is significant to the present study because of its finding on gender and the fact that it has also treated the interference of Igbo verb-tense with English verb-tense. While the present study undertakes a Contrastive Analysis of English and Hausa verb tenses.

Using deficiency analysis framework, Otagburuagu, (2001) conducted a study on the expository essays of males and females students in Chemistry to determine gender-induced syntactic variations in the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria. A stratified sampling technique was used to sample out 800 students from a population of 1,382 freshmen and women taking different courses in Chemistry. The sampled respondents consisted of 400 males and 400 female students. The same stratified sampling technique was further used on the groups to get 200 scripts that yielded the corpus on which the study was conducted.

A carefully and appropriately selected chemistry topic was chosen: how gin is made from palm-wine and a checklist in the area of syntactic strategies in chemistry syntax and cohesive devices were used as instruments for the study. Both content and construct validity were used to validate the instruments. The instruments were administered

once, using individualized writing technique to enable the subjects to respond freely without page-and word restrictions. Cumulative frequency count of each, category of syntactic devices used was obtained.

Therefore, physical count of the frequency of occurrence of the strategies used by males and females was carried out. Mean and standard deviation of each category of syntactic strategy and chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) as well as t-test were used in analyzing the data. The result revealed that females use WH-question fronting, compounding and complementisations more than males. On the other hand, males tended to use passivisations, relativisations, subordinations, imperatives and infinitives more than females. Thus males lacked compounding more than females, while females lacked subordination more than males; and females used more questions strategies than males.

In yet another study carried out by Anagbogu and Ezeliora (2007) to examine sex differences in scientific performance of boys and girls in some selected secondary schools in Awka education zone, in Anambra state using experimental design. The boys and girls were grouped into two and assigned to experimental and control groups. The research instrument was a combination of three level tests namely, cognitive skills test, affective skills test and psychomotor skills test. The three levels were predominantly visual materials related to school science practical materials capable of eliciting student's attention. In order to test the hypothesis the scores of boys and girls were subjected to Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) on the pretest and post test scores. The study showed no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female students expose to the experiment. This present study is related to the previous study, in that both of them consider gender as an important variable influencing academic achievement of students. However, Anagbogu's and Ezeliora's study differs from the present study in geopolitical location, content area, types of instruments and proficiency level of respondents.

The literature survey on gender influence on students' different scholastic performance across the different grade levels showed mix results. However, one common finding is that females performed better than their males' counterparts particularly at the higher levels of education. The present study will confirm or disprove these findings particularly for Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning.

### **Empirical Studies on Location**

School location is an importance variable that may affect effective teaching and learning processes. The environmental conditions and the facilities available are naturally assumed to influence the students' academic achievements. Studies on the influence of location on the behaviour and academic achievements abound across all societies.

In a research work carried out by Akabogu (2002) on the effect of contextual exposure to English registers on secondary school students' achievement in reading comprehension. The study employed a non- equivalent, control group quasi-experimental design. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select the eight schools used for the study. The eight schools were located in the urban and rural areas of Enugu Education zone of Enugu State. Two intact classes of SS2 students were randomly selected and assessed, and assigned to the experimental and control groups. The experimental group had one hundred and thirty three (133) students, comprising male and female students. The control group had one hundred and twenty-seven (127) students, made up of male and female students. A Reading Comprehension Achievement Test (RCAT) was used to collect data on the students' performance. The data collected were analyzed using mean, standard deviation and analysis of covariance (ANOVA) for gender and location. The results of the study revealed that: there is no significant effect of gender on students' achievement in reading comprehension. Location of school had significant effect on students' achievement in reading comprehension. The previous study and the present study share some common

characteristics. Both of them are in the area of language studies. Equally, the two studies formulated research question and hypothesis on location. However, while the previous study was on reading comprehension, this study is on English and Hausa verb-tense.

In a study conducted by Adepoju and Oluchukwu (2011) to assess the academic performance of secondary school students in two principal subjects (English and Mathematics) at Senior Secondary School Certificate (SSCE) in ten secondary schools typical randomized local government areas of Oyo state, Nigeria between 2005 and 2007. The study employed a descriptive survey research design. An instrument titled Student Academic Performance in English Language and Mathematics Questionnaire (SAPEMQ) was used to collect relevant data for the study. The ten secondary schools involved were selected based on simple random sampling technique and the statistical tools to analyse the data collected were percentages, means scores and multiple regression (backward procedure), Four researches questions and one null hypothesis were formulated to guide the study. The result among other things revealed that there was a marked difference in the performance of students in urban and rural schools at the SSCE with impressive means scores obtained in urban schools. The implication of the findings was discussed. However, this may require further investigation especially using different geographical location and proficiency level to ascertain whether location as a variable significantly affect the students academic achievements.

Owoeye and Yara (2011) investigated the location of schools and its relation to the academic performance of students in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The study examined the results of WASCE conducted between 1990 and 1997 in 52 secondary schools in both rural and urban areas of the state. One validated instrument "Students Location Questionnaire (SLQ)" was used for data collection. One hypothesis was formulated and answered. Data were analysed using mean and t-test. The results of the study revealed that: there is no



significant effect of gender on students' achievement in reading comprehension. Location of school had significant effect on students' achievement in reading comprehension.

The previous study and the present study share some common characteristics. Both of them are in the area of language studies. Equally, the two studies formulated research question and hypothesis on location. However, while the previous study was on reading comprehension, this study is on English and Hausa verb-tense.

In another study conducted by Joseph (2012) to examine the extent to which the school variables (school location, school type and school proprietorship) relatively and collectively contribute to students' performance in English studies. The hypothesis formulated to guide the study based on the purpose of the study was that the independent and interactive effects of the selected school variables on JS 3 students' performance in English Studies are not statistically significant. This ex-post-facto research employed simple random sampling technique in selecting a total of 853 students from 20 secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State. The study made use of a researcher developed and standardized instrument: a 50-item English Studies Achievement Test (ESAT). The effect of school variables on students' performance in English studies was analysed using a 3 way factorial ANOVA. The result returned school proprietorship as the only school variable that exerted a significant effect on students' performance in English studies. School type had no significant effect in predicting students' performance in English studies but when interacting with school location and school proprietorship respectively its underlying effect was uncovered. It was recommended that teaching/learning conditions should be improved in public schools to enable students in these schools compete favourably with their counterparts in private schools whilst rural schools are given increased attention vis-à-vis infrastructural and human resource development to ensure improvement in the gains from teaching and learning. From the conflicting findings of the previous study, it could be

implied that enough evidence has not yet been established in Nigeria to support the claim that location has significant effect on students' language achievements. The present study also intends to move a step further because while the previous study was on secondary school students, this study will address the tertiary level especially the polytechnics and colleges of education.

Yet a study carried out by Alokun and Arijesuyo (2013) investigated the difference between the academic performance of students from rural environment and students from urban environment. A descriptive research design of survey type was adopted for the study. The population for this study comprised all public secondary school students in Ondo State. The sample consisted of 240 students from six randomly selected schools. A questionnaire tagged 'Academic Performance Questionnaire' was used to collect data. Expert judgements were used to ensure face and content validity. Test-retest method was used to determine the reliability and a reliability coefficient of 0.72 was obtained. Data collected were analysed by using t-test. The result revealed that there is no significant difference in the academic performance of students from rural environment. It can be concluded from the result that, all else equal, rural students do not suffer disadvantage in their academic performance simply as the result of their residence in rural areas or their attendance at rural schools. It was recommended; among others that rural deficit model should be further examined as educators take a new and more objective look at the performance of the many different types of rural students. Also, parents and students should not feel that they must attend metropolitan schools in order to achieve success. This present study is related to the previous study, in that both of them consider location as an important variable influencing academic achievement of students. However, Alokun's and Arijesuyo's (2013) study differs from the present study in geopolitical location, content area, and proficiency level of respondents.

### **Empirical Studies on Proprietorship (School Ownership)**

One important variable that has been receiving the particular attention of language education specialists is the relationship between proprietorship and students language achievements. Various studies have been conducted to ascertain the effects of school proprietorship on students' achievements in language. In a study conducted by Oke and Maliki, (2009) on the effect of school ownership on candidates performance at the West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (WASSCE) in Nigeria to ascertain whether students from public schools perform better than those in private schools. Adopting the cross-sectional design, two sets of questionnaires tagged Teachers Questionnaire (TQ) and Students' Questionnaires (SQ) as well as a School Facilities Inventory (SFI) were used to elicit responses from 1,178 students, 574 teachers and 60 principals. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data while chi-square analysis was done to see if there was a significant difference in the attitude of respondents toward the variables under study. Correlation analysis was also done to see if there was any significant relationship between school ownership and candidates' performance in WASSCE in Nigeria. In addition, regression was used to depict the paths and the contribution of instructional facilities, years of teaching experience, productive engagement of students and teachers' motivation to performance. The results showed that although candidates in private schools performed better than those in public schools, school ownership was not the sole determinant of candidates performance; a great deal depended on access to instructional facilities. The findings were discussed and it was recommended among others, that the type of facilities provided in Federal Government Colleges and State Model Schools should be extended to other state public schools in the country to improve performance. From the findings of study reviewed, it is not certain which type of school

ownership; public or private, has more significant effect on students' academic performance as one of the variables in the study is justified.

In another study conducted by Joseph (2010) was designed to develop a causal model involving some psycho-academic and school variables as determinants of JS 3 students' performance in English language in Akwa-Ibom state, Nigeria. Through the construction of a nine-variable path model, significant pathways were identified that could be used to explain students' performance in English Studies. The most meaningful causal models as well as direct and indirect effects of the psycho-academic and school variables on students' performance in English were established. Three specific objectives and hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. This Ex-post facto research employed stratified random sampling technique in selecting a total of 853 (407 males and 446 females) from 20 Secondary Schools in the state. The study made use of two research instruments for data collection developed by the researchers. These were a 50-item English Studies SPAIQ). Data generated from Achievement Test (EAST) and 9 Student Psycho-Academic Information Questionnaire (these instruments were analysed using the path analysis technique, and the findings generated a seventeen path-model which could be used to explain the effect of some of the psycho-academic and school variables on students' performance in English language. Furthermore school location, school proprietorship, attitude to schooling and attitudes towards English language studies had significant direct effect on performance in English language. It was recommended that parents and teachers should consciously work on their students' attitudes to schooling and to the different school subjects as these do directly impact their performance by school. It is therefore worthwhile undertaking a study using school proprietorship as a variable to find out if similar results will be obtained or otherwise.

In yet another study Alimi, Ehinola, and Alabi (2012) investigated the influence of school types, facilities and students' academic performance in Ondo state, Nigeria. It was designed to find out whether facilities and students' academic performance were related in private and public secondary schools respectively. Descriptive survey design was used. Proportionate random sampling technique was used to select 50 schools in Ondo state. Two sets of research instruments named Student Facility Descriptive and Student Academic Performance Questionnaire (SFDAPQ) for principals; and School Facility Descriptive Questionnaires (SFDQ) for the teachers were used for the study. T-test was used to analyse the data. All hypotheses were tested at a significant level of 0.05. The study revealed a significant difference in the facilities available in public and private schools in Ondo state. It however, revealed no significant difference in academic performances of students in the two types of secondary schools. Suggestions for procurement of more facilities in public secondary schools were made in order to enhance students' academic performance. The study is important to the present study because even though it found significant difference in the facilities available in public and private schools, but to the general assumption it found no significant in the academic achievements of students from urban rural schools. This is one among many other reasons that justified the present study.

A study was conducted by Mburu (2013) on the effects of the type of school attended on male and female students, academic performance in Kenya. The study sought to explore the influence of the different male and female students' school and societal socialisation experiences on their academic performance. The study used descriptive research design and two questionnaires for data collection. Descriptive statistics was used in data analysis. The research was guided by the following objectives; To establish whether social classroom interactions affect male and female students academic performance; Establish whether the type of school attended affect male and female students' academic performance. The research

also addresses the following research questions: what social classroom interactions affect male and female students' academic performance what effect does the type of school attended study were that the type of school attended affected students' academic performance as majority of the girls who qualified to join tertiary institution were from single sex schools.

Yet another study was carried out by Bagana, Mamman, Ahmed and Alhaji (2017) to examine the influence of school type difference on academic performance of secondary school students in West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations (WASSCE) in Maiduguri Education Zone, Borno State, Nigeria. The study employed ex-post facto research design. The population of the study was 45,927 students. A total sample of 17,308 was drawn using disproportionate stratified sampling technique. A form was designed and used in collecting data and the data was analysed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The finding of study revealed that there was a significant difference in students' academic performance in WASSCE Mathematics between day, boarding and day boarding Senior Secondary Students. However, in 2009 there was no significant difference in students' academic performance in WASSCE Mathematics between day, boarding. The study also revealed a significant difference in students' academic performance in WASSCE Mathematics due to school characteristics, school location, school ownership and school organization. This present study is related to the previous study, in that both of them consider school types (school ownership) as an important variable influencing academic achievement of students. However, Bagana's, Mamman's Ahmed's and Alhaji's (2017) study differs from the present study in geopolitical location, content area, and proficiency level of respondents. It is therefore worthwhile undertaking a study using school proprietorship (school ownership) as a variable to find out if similar results will be obtained or otherwise.

### **Summary of Literature Reviewed**

The Literature Review was presented under four (4) broad headings. On the conceptual framework, ten (10) concepts and some sub-concepts were defined. These concepts include contrastive analysis, error analysis, bilingualism, translation, grammar and grammatical structures, tenses, second language acquisition and interference, gender, location and proprietorship of schools. Contrastive Analysis refers to the identification of structural differences between two or more languages, seen as points of potential learning difficulties, while Error Analysis is a diagnostic tool used to find out errors made in the speech or writing of L2 learners. Bilingualism is a situation where a person or groups have some functional proficiency in a second language. Translation is act of transferring meaning of a stretch or unit of language from one language to another. The term grammar is the name given to the system of rules underlying the use of language. On the other hand, grammatical structures are the building blocks of language such as words, phrases, clauses and sentence. Tense is a grammatical term that refers to how a verb inflects to show the time of happening in a sentence. While aspect relates to other temporal information such as duration, completion or frequency as they relate to the time of the action. Both concepts have been fully elaborated. Similarly, twelve (12) English tenses and eight (8) Hausa tenses were reviewed.

The concept of second language acquisition (SLA) refers to the acquisition of a new language by children or adults who already had full knowledge of their first languages. The concept of interference is variously defined by experts as a situation where the L2 learner applies knowledge from his native language to the L2. Different definitions of the concept of gender were given. One of which sees gender as psychological term describing behaviours and attributes expected of individuals on the basis of being male or female. Many studies on gender and achievement were reviewed. Next is school location, which is

defined as the areas where schools are sighted, in either urban or rural. Lastly, school proprietorship may either be public school which is controlled and/or supported by state and federal governments, or a private school which is established, controlled and supported by religious/social organizations.

On the theoretical framework, three major learning theories (especially language leaning); behaviorists theory, the cognitivists theory and the Connectionists theory were reviewed. The behaviourists' major tenet is that human behavior is observable on the basis of stimulus-response interaction (nurture). While the cognitivists believe that, people learn a language because they possess the mental capacity to acquire it (nature). This biological disposition (LAD) allows us to learn a language quickly and accurately. While giving further credence to the behaviourists, the connectionists believe that learning could adequately be explained without recourse to any external states. Lastly, the review of related empirical studies showed that twenty related studies were reviewed. Five empirical studies each for Verb-Tense, Gender, Location, and Proprietorship were reviewed so far. Other related studies were incorporated into the body of the literature under the background of the study and conceptual framework.

From the available literature reviewed so far and to the best knowledge of the researcher, most of the error analysis done in English and Hausa languages did not address the influence of some variables such as gender, location, proprietorship and types of institutions on interference error made and academic achievements of students. The present study is aimed at filling this existing gap. More specifically, the researcher hopes the study will serve as a basis for more comprehensive studies on other grammatical components of English and Hausa languages. This will meet the need of teachers of native Hausa students learning English.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHOD**

This chapter deals with the methods and procedures the researcher used in the study. It contains the following: design of the study, area of the study, population of the study, sample and sampling technique, instruments for data collection, validation of the instruments, reliability of the instruments, method of data collection, and method of data analysis.

#### **Design of the Study**

The study employed two research designs: Descriptive Survey and Ex-Post Facto research designs. Survey is a form of design which is chiefly concerned with finding, describing and interpreting data as it is. Surveys simply describe data on variables of interest or explanatory variables that are tested for their influence on dependent variables (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Ex- post facto research is a method that can also be used instead of an experiment, to test hypotheses about cause and effect in situations where it is impossible, uneconomical or unethical to control or manipulate the dependent variable or, indeed, the independent variables (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, Nworgu, 2015). Specifically, it adopted the post-test only non-equivalent groups design. Therefore, intact classes or pre-existing lecture groups (Nworgu, 2015) were used, so as not to disturb the institutions' structure of placement of students. This ensured that the research was conducted in a natural classroom setting using regular students and their teachers. According to Cohen, Manion & Morrison, (2011) researches conducted in natural classroom settings are more authentic and reliable.

#### **Area of the Study**

The study was carried out in Jigawa State in the North-West geo-political zone of Nigeria. Jigawa State was created from the old Kano State on 27<sup>th</sup> August; 1991. Jigawa

State is bound by Kano and Katsina States to the west, Bauchi State to the east and Yobe State to the northeast. To the north, Jigawa State shares an international border with Zinder Region in The Republic of Niger. The state is selected because it is one of the most educationally disadvantaged states in the country. Over the years, the state has been recording massive failures in public examinations, particularly, in English, the official language of instruction, which in turn affect performance in other subjects. All the institutions used for the study were co-educational and admission of students into them was done through the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examinations (UTME) and pre-Nigeria Certificate in Education (Pre-NCE) or Pre-National Diploma (Pre-ND). Admission of students into these institutions is done from the 27 local government areas of the state and from other states of the federation. The students also share common language background and they either come from urban or rural areas of the state. The main occupation of the people of the state is subsistence farming.

### **Population of the Study**

The population of the study comprised all 2876 N.C.E II and ND II students in 2016/2017 academic session offering English and Communication skills at the three institutions namely; Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel; Hussini Adamu Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure and Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse. The population is made up of 2354 males and 522 females. Majority of the population share common characteristics as being mostly farmers, traders, Muslim by religion and Hausa by tribe. For a detailed distribution of the population by institutions and by gender refer to Appendix G. (p. 186)

The choice of N.C.E II and ND II is because the students have been exposed to English and Communication Skills Curriculum for over one year especially with regard to English verb tenses. However, N.C.E I and NDI were not used for the study because they

were settling down newly for their programmes while N.C.E III were not used because they were in their final year, getting ready for their final NCE examinations.

### **Sample and Sampling Technique**

The sample size of the study was 476 NCE II and ND II students. This comprised all the students in the non-equivalent intact classes (lecture groups) selected across the three tertiary institutions in the study. One intact class or lecture group each used for this study was selected through balloting among the existing lecture groups in each of these institutions. Each of these intact classes consisted of males and females as well as students from urban and rural settings who were already assigned to different lecture groups for lecture convenience by the management of these institutions.

Figures obtained from these institutions showed that (1) Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel with NCE II students' enrollment of 2289 had eight (8) lecture groups (A-H) consisting of 286 students on average, for each group; (2) Hussaini Adamu Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure, with ND II students' enrollment of 415 had four (4) lecture groups (A-D) consisting of 103 students on average, for each group, and Jigawa State Polytechnic with ND II students' enrollment of 172 had two (2) lecture groups (A & B) comprising average 87 students for each group. Appendix H (p.187).

### **Instruments for Data Collection**

Two instruments were used for the collection of data in this study. These instruments were developed by the researcher. They are: English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) and English Verb Tense Achievement Test (EVTAT). The English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) consisted of thirty (30) sentences covering the twelve aspects of English verb-tenses. Section one of EHEAT consists of 15 structured sentences in Hausa to be changed /translated to English. Section two of EHEAT consists of another 15 structured sentences in English to be changed /translated to Hausa. Similarly, section

three of EHEAT consists of 3 easy topics; one each on the present, past and future tenses. The English Verb Tense Achievement Test (EVTAT) consisting of forty-item multiple choice objective test with four options A-D was constructed by the researcher. The EVTAT was chosen to enable the researcher ensure wider content coverage. The test items for EVTAT and its marking scheme are in Appendix A. (p. 175) and Appendix B (p. 179), while the test items for EHEAT and its scoring guide are found in Appendix C (p. 180) and Appendix D (p. 182) respectively.

### **Validation of the Instruments**

The two instruments for data collection namely English Verb Tenses Achievement Test (EVTAT) and English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) were face and content validated (see Tables of Specifications in Appendices, E and F, pp. 184-185) by five experts in English Language Education and Educational Measurement and Evaluation from the University of Nigeria, Nsukka and Bayero University, Kano. Of the five experts, two were from English-Education and one from Educational Measurement and Evaluation units. Similarly, two experts, one each, in Hausa and English from Bayero University, Kano also validated the instruments. In addition, one experienced lecturer each in the two languages from the three tertiary institutions sampled for the study were consulted during the development of the instruments. The experts, at UNN and BUK examined the instruments for suitability, difficulty level and clarity of the instructions on the test items (questions). The experts' comments, observations and suggestions were effected for improvements of the instruments.

### **Reliability of the Instruments**

The validated instruments were trial tested on 30 NCE II students from Sa'adatu Rimi College of Education, Kano. The institution was selected because it did not fall within

the study area and its students share some common characteristics with the research subjects.

The trial testing was done to determine the reliability of the instruments. The reliability indices of the instruments were computed as follows; Since English Verb Tense Achievement Test (EVTAT) was scored dichotomously, Kuder-Richardson (K-R 20) method was used to test its internal consistency and the reliability coefficient was found to be 0.89. However, the reliability of English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) was determined using different reliability estimates because the three sections of the instrument vary and their scores cannot be combined. The reliability indices of section one and two of EHEAT were determined through test re-test methods and the estimates of temporal stability were computed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The reliability coefficient of section one of EHEAT (Hausa to English) was found to be 0.84 and the reliability coefficient of section two of EHEAT (English to Hausa) was found to be 0.73. While the reliability of section three of EHEAT consisting of three different essay topics was determined using inter-rater reliability. Specifically Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance (W) was used. The technique was used because in this section, the rating was more subjective. The instrument was administered on the same group of students and the students' scripts were photocopied into three different places (3 x 30 = 90). These were given to three independent scorers. The inter-rater reliability of the three separate topics was found to be 0.78, 0.71 and 0.74 respectively. Since the reliability coefficients of the three independent raters were high and show insignificant difference; there was high degree of reliability among the three raters. With these satisfactory reliability coefficients, the items contained in the respective instruments were found to be adequately reliable and therefore appropriate for the current study. For evidence, See appendix L. (p. 196).

### **Method of Data Collection**

The researcher organized a training conference for the regular teachers that administered the two instruments of the study. The two test instruments; English Verb-Tense Achievement Test (EVTAT) and English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) were administered simultaneously to all respondents. Each of the two tests was expected to last for one hour only (or as the class period lasts).

### **Method of Data Analysis**

The data generated were analysed using frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation (appropriately) to answer the research questions. While the hypotheses were tested, using t-test and the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at 0.05 level of significance. Each item of the EVTAT was scored one mark, up to a total of 40 marks. While each item in section one and two of EHEAT was analysed to identify patterns and frequencies of interference errors made by the respondents. Then, each of the three essay topics was used to identify the nature and frequencies of interference errors made by respondents. The scoring of EVTAT, identification of errors in EHEAT and the actual Error Analysis of EHEAT was personally done by the researcher.

The data generated from the English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) were used in answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses. While the scores from the English Verb Tenses Achievement Test (EVTAT) and English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) were used to answer the research questions using frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation (appropriately). The hypotheses were tested using t-test and the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at 0.05 level of significance.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

The results are presented in line with the research questions and hypotheses that guided the study.

#### Research Question 1

What are the types of errors committed in English verb tenses by Hausa learners of English in institutions of Higher Learning?

**Table2: Summary of Types, Frequencies and Percentages of Major errors in English verb tense committed by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning**

Institutions	Federal Poly, Kazaure		State Poly, Dutse		State College of Educ, Gumel		Total	
	N=103		N=87		N=286		N=476	
Category of Errors	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq	%
Present Simple Tense (+S, -S)	319	17.40	268	16.47	1118	18.09	1705	17.69
Progressive Tenses (+ ING)	127	6.93	138	8.48	513	8.30	778	8.07
Past Simple Tense (V-ED1)	686	37.43	629	38.66	2323	37.60	3638	37.74
Perfective Tenses(V – ED2)	385	21.00	340	20.90	1137	18.40	1862	19.32
Auxiliary Verbs (Aux - VERB)	316	17.24	252	15.49	1088	17.61	1656	17.18
Total	1833	100	1627	100	6179	100	9639	100

Key: N =No of respondents, +S/-S= Present Simple Tense, +ING= Present/Past Progressive Tenses, V-ED1= Past Simple Tense, V-ED2=Perfective Tenses and AUX VERB= Auxiliary verbs

Table 2 shows the types of errors identified from the students' answer scripts. From the scripts, the following major types of verb tenses errors were observed; the Present Simple Tense (+S, -S), the Present/Past Progressive Tenses, (+ ING), the Past Simple Tense (V-ED1), the Perfective Tenses (V-ED2) and the Auxiliary Verbs (AUX-VERBS). In the Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure, a total of 1833 errors were made by the respondents. Out of this number, 319 or 17.40% were Present Simple Tense (+S -S) errors, 127 or 6.93% were Present/Past Progressive Tenses (+NG) errors, 686 or 37.43% were Past

Simple Tense (**V-EDI**) errors, 385 or 21.00% were Perfective Tenses (**V ED2**) errors and 316 or 17.24% were Auxiliary Verbs (**AUX-VERBS**) inflections for tense errors respectively.

In the Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse, the same patterns of errors were observed. Out of a total of 1627 errors committed by the respondents in this institution, 268 or 16.47% were Present Simple Tense (**+S -S**) errors, 138 or 8.48 were Progressive Tenses (**+ING**) errors, 629 or 38.66% were Past Simple Tense (**V – EDI**) errors, 340 or 20.90% were Perfective Tenses (**V ED2**) errors and 252 or 15.49% were Auxiliary Verbs (**AUX-VERBS**) inflections for tense errors respectively.

In the Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel, the same patterns of errors were also observed. Out of a total of 6179 tense errors committed by respondents in this institution, 1118 or 18.09% were Present Simple Tense (**+S -S**) errors, 513 or 8.30 were Present/Past Progressive Tenses (**+NG**) errors, 2323 or 37.60% were Past Simple Tense (**V – EDI**) errors, 1187 or 18.40 were Perfective Tenses (**V ED2**) errors and 1088 or 17.61% were Auxiliary Verbs (**AUX-VERBS**) types of errors.

Overall, a total of 9639 verb tenses errors were recorded. Out of the major categories of verb tense errors, the results indicate that Past Simple Tense errors ranked highest with 3638 or 37.74% errors recorded, followed by Perfective Tenses with 1862 or 19.32%, while the least tense error recorded was the Progressive Tenses with only 778 or 8.07% errors recorded.

## **Research Question 2**

What is the influence of gender on the mean errors score made in English verb tenses by Hausa/English bilingual in institutions of higher learning?



**Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviation of the influence of gender on the errors made in English verb tenses by male and female Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning**

S	Gender	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Interference	Male	381	20.99	8.46
Errors Made	Female	95	16.22	6.28

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation

The result in Table 3 shows the mean and standard deviations of the influence of gender on the interference errors made by male and female Hausa/English bilingual in English verb-tense. The result indicates that male Hausa/English bilinguals had a mean of 20.99 with a standard deviation of 8.46 while their female counterparts had a mean of 16.22 with a standard deviation of 6.28. This result shows that male Hausa/English bilinguals had a higher mean than their female counterparts which implies that they committed more errors compared to the females; therefore gender appears to have influence on the interference errors made by Hausa/English bilingual in English verb tenses.

### Hypothesis 1

H<sub>01</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean errors committed in English verb tenses by male and female students in institutions of higher learning.

**Table 4: Mean and t-test analysis of the significant influence of gender on the mean errors made in English verb tenses by male and female Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning**

Variable	Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	t-val	Df	Sig	Dec
Interference	Male	381	20.99	8.46	<b>5.15</b>	474	<b>.00</b>	<b>S</b>
Errors Made	Female	95	16.22	6.28				

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, t-val= t-test value, Df= degree of freedom, Sig= level of Significance, Dec = Decision.

The result in Table 4 also indicated that a t-value of 5.15 with an associated probability of 0.00 and degree of freedom of 474 was obtained. Since the associated probability of 0.00 was less than the 0.05 set as the level of significance and the criterion for taking a decision, the null hypothesis 1 which stated that: there is no significant difference in the interference errors committed by male and female students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses is rejected. Therefore, there is a significant difference in the interference errors committed by male and female students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

### Research Question 3

What is the influence of location on the mean interference errors score made in English verb tenses by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning?

**Table 5: Mean and Standard Deviation of the influence of location on the interference errors made in English verb tenses by urban and rural Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning**

Variable	Location	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Interference Errors Made	Urban	320	19.66	8.19
	Rural	156	20.82	8.46

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation

The result in table 5 indicates the mean and standard deviations of the influence of location on the interference errors made by urban and rural Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. The result indicates that urban Hausa learners of English had a mean of 19.66 with a standard deviation of 8.19 while their rural counterparts had a mean of 20.82 with a standard deviation of 8.46. This result shows that rural Hausa/English bilinguals had a higher mean than their urban counterparts had, which means that they

committed more errors compared to those in urban, hence location has influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses.

### Hypothesis 2

H<sub>02</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean interference errors committed in English verb tenses by urban and rural Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning.

**Table 6: Mean and t-test analysis of the significant influence of location on the interference errors made in English verb tenses by urban and rural Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning**

Variable	Location	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	t-val	Df	Sig	Dec
Errors Made	Urban	320	19.66	8.19	-1.44	474	0.15	NS
	Rural	156	20.82	8.46				

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, t-val = t-test value, Df= degree of freedom, Sig= level of Significance, Dec = Decision

The result in Table 6 also shows that a t-value of -1.44 with an associated probability of 0.15 and degree of freedom of 474 was obtained. Since the associated probability of 0.15 was greater than the 0.05 set as the level of significance and the benchmark for taking a decision, the null hypothesis 2 which stated that; there is no significant difference in the interference errors committed by urban and rural students in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses is retained. Hence, the conclusion drawn was that there is no significant difference in the interference errors committed by urban and rural students in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses.

### Research Question 4

What is the influence of proprietorship of schools on the mean interference errors score made in English verb tenses by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning?

**Table 7: Mean and Standard Deviation of the influence of proprietorship of schools on the interference errors made in English verb tenses by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning**

Variable	Proprietorship of schools	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Interference	Federal	103	16.53	7.02
Errors Made	State	373	21.03	8.35

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation

The result in Table 7 shows the mean and standard deviations of the influence of proprietorship of schools on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. The result indicates that higher institutions owned by federal government had Hausa/English bilinguals who obtained a mean of 16.53 with a standard deviation of 7.02 while their counterparts owned by the state government had a mean of 21.03 with a standard deviation of 8.35. This result indicates that Hausa/English bilinguals in schools owned by the state had a higher mean of interference errors than their counterparts in federal schools which imply that they committed more errors. Therefore proprietorship of schools has influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses.

### Hypothesis 3

H<sub>03</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean interference errors committed in English verb tenses by Hausa learners of English in federal and state institutions of higher learning.

**Table 8: Mean and t-test analysis of the significant influence of proprietorship on the interference errors made in English verb tenses by urban and rural Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning**

Variable	Proprietorship of schools	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	t-val	Df	Sig	Dec
Errors Made	Federal	103	16.53	7.02	<b>-5.00</b>	<b>473</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>S</b>
	State	373	21.03	8.35				

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, t-val= t-test value, Df= degree of freedom, Sig= level of Significance, Dec = Decision

The result in Table 8 also indicated that a t-value of -5.00 with an associated probability of 0.00 and degree of freedom of 473 was obtained. Since the associated probability of 0.00 was less than the 0.05 set as the level of significance and the criterion for taking a decision, the null hypothesis 3 which stated that there is no significant difference in the interference errors committed by students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses is rejected. Therefore, there is a significant difference in the interference errors committed by students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses

### Research Question 5

What is the influence of types of institutions on the mean interference error score made in English verb tenses by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning?

**Table 9: Mean and Standard Deviation of the influence of types of institutions on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	Types of schools	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Errors Made	Fed Poly	103	16.53	7.02
	State Poly	87	19.01	6.29
	State College	286	21.61	8.81
	<b>Total</b>	<b>476</b>	<b>20.04</b>	<b>8.29</b>

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation.

The result in Table 9 shows the mean and standard deviations of the influence of types of institutions on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. The result indicates that Hausa learners of English in the Federal Polytechnic had a mean of 16.53 with a standard deviation of 7.02. Also, Hausa learners of English in the State Polytechnic had a mean of 19.01 with a standard deviation of 6.29, while those in the State College of Education had a mean of 21.61 with a standard deviation of 8.81. The total mean was 20.04 with a standard deviation of 8.29. The result

however indicates that Hausa learners of English in the State College of Education had a slightly higher mean than their counterparts in the Federal and State Polytechnics which shows that they committed more errors; hence types of institution has influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses.

#### Hypothesis 4

H<sub>04</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean interference errors score committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses.

**Table 10: ANOVA of the significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses**

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2064.780	2	1032.390		
				15.982	,000
Within Groups	30554.539	473	64.597		
Total	32619.319	475			

Table 10 shows the ANOVA result of the significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in types of institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses. The result shows that an F-ratio of 15.98 was obtained with an associated probability value of 0.00. Since the associated probability value of 0.00 is less than 0.05 set as level of significance, the null hypothesis 4 (H<sub>04</sub>) which stated that there is no significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses is rejected. Thus, there is a significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses. In order to test for the direction of the difference, a Post Hoc test was carried out as presented in Table 11.

**Table 11: A Post Hoc Test of the significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses**

(I) Institution	(J) Institution	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
FedPoly	State Poly	-2.47751	1.17032	.04
	State college	-5.07791	.92359	.00
StatePoly	Fed Poly	2.47751	1.17032	.04
	State college	-2.60039	.98405	.01

The result of the analysis in Table 11 shows the Post Hoc Test of the significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses. Result shows that there was a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal Polytechnic and those in the State Polytechnic, and between Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal Polytechnic and those in the State College of Education. Also, the result showed that there was a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in the State Polytechnic and those in the State College of Education. This is because their associated probability values are less than 0.05 set as level of significance for testing the hypothesis.

### Research Question 6

What is the difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses?

**Table 12: Mean and Standard Deviation of the difference in the achievement scores of male and female Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	Gender	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Achievement	Male	381	22.03	5.56
	Female	95	25.89	5.07

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation

The result in Table 12 shows the mean and standard deviations of the difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. The result indicates that the male Hausa learners of English had a mean of 22.03 with a standard deviation of 5.56 while their female counterparts had a mean of 25.89 with a standard deviation of 5.07. This result shows that female Hausa learners of English had a slightly higher mean in English verb tenses than their male counterparts.

### Hypothesis 5

H<sub>05</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa of English bilingual in institutions of higher learning in English Verb tenses.

**Table 13: Mean and t-test analysis of the significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa/ English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	Gender	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	t-val	Df	Sig	Dec
Achievement	Male	381	22.03	5.56	<b>-6.16</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>S</b>
	Female	95	25.89	5.07				

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, t-val= t-test value, Df= degree of freedom, Sig= level of Significance, Dec = Decision.

The result in Table 13 also indicates that a t-value of -6.16 with an associated probability value of 0.00 and degree of freedom of 474 was obtained. Since the associated probability of 0.00 was less than the 0.05 set as the level of significance and the criterion for taking a decision, the null hypothesis 5 which states that; there is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa /English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses is rejected. Therefore, the inference drawn is that there is a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa of English bilingual in institutions of Higher Learning in English Verb tenses.



### Research Question 7

What is the influence of location on the mean achievement scores of Hausa learners in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses?

**Table 14: Mean and Standard Deviation of the difference in the achievement scores of urban and rural Hausa learners in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	Location	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Achievement	Urban	320	22.27	5.78
	Rural	156	23.89	5.32

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation

The result in Table 14 shows the mean and standard deviations of the difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural Hausa learners in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. The result indicates that urban Hausa learners had mean of 22.27 with a standard deviation of 5.78 while the rural Hausa learners obtained a mean of 23.89 with a standard deviation of 5.32. This result shows that rural Hausa learners in institutions of higher learning had a slightly higher achievement mean score in English verb tenses than their urban counterparts.

### Hypothesis 6

H<sub>06</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

**Table 15: Mean and t-test analysis of the significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural Hausa learners in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	Location	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	t-val	Df	Sig	Dec
Achievement	Urban	320	22.27	5.78	-2.95	474	.00	S
	Rural	156	23.89	5.32				

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, t-val= t-test value, Df= degree of freedom, Sig= level of Significance, Dec = Decision.

The result in Table 15 also indicates that a t-value of -2.95 with an associated probability value of 0.00 and degree of freedom of 474 was obtained. Since the associated probability of 0.00 was less than the 0.05 set as the level of significance and the criterion for taking a decision, the null hypothesis 6 which stated that; there is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses is rejected. Therefore, there is a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

### Research Question 8

What is the influence of proprietorship (federal and state) on the mean achievement score of Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses?

**Table 16: Mean and Standard Deviation of the influence of proprietorship of schools (federal and state) on the achievement of Hausa learners in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	Proprietorship of schools	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Achievement	Federal	103	21.66	5.02
	State	373	23.11	5.82

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation

The result in Table 16 shows the mean and standard deviations of the influence of proprietorship of schools (federal and state) on the mean achievement of Hausa learners in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. The result indicates that Hausa learners in federal institutions obtained mean of 21.66 with a standard deviation of 5.02 while their counterparts in state institutions had a mean of 23.11 with a standard deviation of 5.82. This result indicates that Hausa learners in state institutions had a slightly higher mean than their counterparts in federal institutions which imply that proprietorship of schools (federal and state) influences the mean achievement of Hausa learners in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

### Hypothesis 7

H<sub>07</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb-tenses.

**Table 17: Mean and t-test analysis of the significant influence of proprietorship of schools (federal and state) on the mean achievement of Hausa learners in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	Proprietorship of N schools	$\bar{x}$	SD	t-val	Df	Sig	Dec
Achievement	Federal	103	21.66	5.02	2		
	State	373	23.11	5.82			
				.30	473	0.02	S

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, t-val= t-test value, Df= degree of freedom, Sig= level of Significance, Dec = Decision.

The result in Table 17 also indicates that a t-value of -2.30 with an associated probability of value of 0.02 and degree of freedom of 473 was obtained. Since the associated probability of 0.00 was less than the 0.05 set as the level of significance and the criterion for taking a decision, the null hypothesis 7 which stated that; there is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses is rejected. Therefore, the inference drawn is that there is a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

### Research Question 9

What is the influence of types of institutions on the mean achievement scores of Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses?

**Table 18: Mean and Standard Deviation of the influence of types of institution on the mean achievement scores of Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

Variable	School types	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
	FedPoly	103	21.66	5.02
Achievement	StatePoly	87	23.75	6.65
	StateCollege	286	22.93	5.53
	<b>Total</b>	<b>476</b>	<b>22.80</b>	<b>5.68</b>

**Key:** N = Number of respondents,  $\bar{x}$  = mean, SD = Standard Deviation.

The result in Table 18 shows the mean and standard deviations of the influence of types of institution on the mean achievement scores of Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. The result indicates that Hausa learners of English in the Federal Polytechnic had achievement mean of 21.66 with a standard deviation of 5.02. Also, Hausa learners of English in the State Polytechnic had a mean of 23.75 with a standard deviation of 6.65, while those in the State College of Education had a mean of 22.93 with a standard deviation of 5.53. The total achievement mean was 22.80 with a standard deviation of 5.68. The result however indicates that Hausa learners of English in the State Polytechnic had a slightly higher mean achievement scores in English verb tenses than their counterparts in Federal Polytechnic and State College of Education.

### Hypothesis 8

H<sub>O10</sub>: There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

**Table 19: ANOVA of the significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	216.435	2	108.218	3.39	.03
Within Groups	15089.002	473	31.901		
Total	15305.437	475			

Table 19 shows the ANOVA result of the significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. The result shows that an F-ratio of 3.39 was obtained with an associated probability value of 0.03. Since the associated probability value of 0.03 is less than 0.05 set as level of significance and the benchmark for taking the decision, the null Hypothesis 8 ( $H_{08}$ ) which stated that there is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses is rejected. Hence, the inference drawn therefore is that, there is a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. In order to test for the direction of the difference, a Post Hoc test was carried out as presented in Table 20.

**Table 20: A Post Hoc Test of the significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in different types of institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses**

(I)Institution	(J) Institution	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
FedPoly	StatePoly	-2.08693	.82243	.01
	State College	-1.26638	.64904	.05
StatePoly	FedPoly	2.08693	.82243	.01
	State College	.82055	.69153	.24

The result as presented in Table 20 shows the Post Hoc Test of the significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. The result shows that there was a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal Polytechnic and those in the State Polytechnic but there was no significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal Polytechnic and those in the State College of Education. Also, the result showed that there

was no significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the State Polytechnic and those in the State College of education. This is because their associated probability values are less than 0.05 set as level of significance for testing the hypothesis.

### **Summary of the Results**

- Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning committed the highest number of errors in the past simple tense, followed by the perfective tenses while the least tense errors made was in the progressive tenses.
- Male Hausa/English bilinguals had a higher mean interference errors score than their female counterparts had. Therefore gender has influence on the interference errors made by Hausa/English bilingual in English verb tenses. There is a significant difference in the interference errors committed by male and female students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
- Rural Hausa/English bilinguals had a higher mean interference errors score than their urban counterparts had which means that they committed more errors compared to those in urban areas; hence location had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. There is no significant difference in the interference errors committed by urban and rural students in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses.
- Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions owned by the state had a higher mean interference errors score than their counterparts in federal institutions had, which implies that they committed more errors; therefore proprietorship of schools had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. There is a significant difference in the interference errors committed by students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

- Hausa learners of English in the state college of education had a slightly higher mean interference errors score than their counterparts in the federal and state polytechnics had, which shows that they committed more errors in English verb tenses. There is a significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English verb tenses. There was a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal polytechnic and those in the state polytechnic, and between Hausa/English bilinguals in the federal polytechnic and those in the state college of education. In the same way, the result showed that there was a significant difference between the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in the State Polytechnic and those in the state college of education.
- Female Hausa learners of English had a slightly higher achievement mean in English verb tenses than their male counterparts. There is a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
- Rural Hausa learners in institution of higher learning had a slightly higher mean achievement score in English verb tenses than their urban counterparts had. There is a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
- Hausa learners in state institutions had a slightly higher mean achievement score in English verb tenses than their counterparts in federal institutions had, which implies that proprietorship of schools (federal and state) had influence on the mean achievement score of Hausa learners in English verb tenses. There is a significant

difference in the mean achievement scores of students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

- Hausa learners of English in the state polytechnic had a slightly higher mean achievement scores in English verb tenses than their counterparts in Federal Polytechnic and State college of education had. There was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. There was a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal Polytechnic and those in the state polytechnic: but there was no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the federal polytechnic and those in the state college of education. Also, the result showed that there was no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the state polytechnic and those in the state college of education.



**CHAPTER FIVE**  
**DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS,**  
**RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY**

This chapter is organised on the following sub-headings: discussion of the results, conclusions, educational implications of the findings, recommendations, limitation of the study, suggestions for further studies and summary of the study.

**Discussions of Results**

The results of the study were discussed under the relevant sub-headings below in line with the research questions and hypotheses that guided the study.

- Interference in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English.
- Gender and interference errors in English verb tenses of Hausa/English bilingual learners.
- Location and interference errors in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English.
- Proprietorship and interference errors of Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses.
- Types of institutions and interference errors in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English.
- Gender and achievement scores in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English.
- Location and achievement scores in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English.
- Proprietorship and achievement scores in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English.
- Types of institutions and achievement scores in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English

### **Interference in English verb tense of Hausa learners of English.**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 2 shows that from amongst the five types of tense errors; (the present simple tense error, the progressive tense errors, the past simple tense, the perfective tense and the auxiliary verbs based errors), the past simple tense had the highest overall total frequency of errors, followed by the perfective tense errors while the least error recorded was the Progressive Tense errors. The highest interference error exhibited by students was past simple tense (V-ED1) error and the least was present /past progressive tenses (+ING). This result indicates that students from federal polytechnic, state polytechnic and state college of education exhibited simple present tense or +S/-S, present progressive tenses or +ING, past simple tense or V-ED1, perfective tenses or V-ED2 and auxiliary verbs interference errors. The same patterns of error occurrences were observed across all the three institutions in this study.

In federal polytechnic, state polytechnic and state college of education the highest error recorded was in the past simple tense. The overall result and the results obtained from the individual institutions as shown in Table 2 confirm Taher (2011) and Jafar 2014 who reported that between twenty-five percent (25%) to thirty-six percent (33%) of their data are verb-tense related errors. Those of Galadi (2004) were as high as forty-four percent (44%). Akonobi (1976) and Olayemi (1980) also reported that 44.47% and 44.20% errors recorded were tense errors respectively. This pattern of tense error seems to persist in all the three institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State. The present study found that the past simple tense, the perfective tense had the highest frequency of errors, while the least frequency of errors recorded was in the progressive tense. Sukasame, Kantho and Narrot (2013) corroborated the present study when they reported that the highest frequency of errors recorded was in the past simple tense, followed by the present perfective tense while the least errors recorded was in the present progressive tense. Similarly, Komalo (2014)

also agrees with the present study when he reported that the highest frequency of errors was in the past simple tense. However, on the contrary Oluikpe (2001) reported that girls had a higher competence than boys in the use of present tense, past tense and past present tense. Garrido and Rosatio (2012) found that students still showed problem with the correct use of English tenses and aspects. The main problem was accurately matching tenses and aspects to different contexts.

The reason for this result is that different languages have different number of tenses and different verb systems expressing similar ideas, but in different forms. English, for instance, has relatively many verb-tenses (with at least twelve regular aspectual forms) while Hausa has relatively fewer verb-tenses (with at least eight verbal grade systems). By implication the teaching and mastery of the verb tenses seem to be incomplete and fossilisation of the tense errors become evident.

#### **Gender and interference in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 3 showed that male Hausa/English bilinguals had a higher mean than their female counterparts which implies that they committed more errors compared to the females; therefore gender had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa/English bilingual in English verb tenses. The result agrees with Harker (2000) who reported that the achievement of girls in English language was significantly higher than that of boys in terms of both mean curriculum coverage and examinations learning outcomes. The results however, showed that boys achieved significantly better results than girls in mathematics. The result revealed that there was no significant difference in the achievement of boys and girls in science. The result corroborates the findings by Oluikpe (2001) which revealed that boys committed more errors in English tenses than girls did, and that girls had higher competence level than boys in present tense, past tense and past present tense.

In the same vein, Eniobong, (2007) also revealed that there was a significant difference between the level of mother tongue (Efik) interference of male and female in English language. This implies that the interference errors committed by male and female Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses varied significantly. Corroborating, Umoø (2003) revealed that gender had significant influence on the achievement of students in Igbo grammar. This result contradicts Azikiweø (2005) collated empirical studies, which revealed that gender had no influence on language acquisition and performance. In the Igbo grammar experiment, the result showed that female students achieved significantly higher than their male counterparts did. Similarly, in line with Azikweø(2005) and contradicting Umo (2003) and Eniobong (2007) a study carried out by Anagbugu and Ezeliora (2007) also showed no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female students expose to the experiment.

The result from Hypothesis 1 in Table 4 of this study also confirmed that there was a significant difference in the interference errors committed by male and female students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. Egbe (2014) that the males achieved slightly higher than the females, but this was not found to be statistically significant. This finding disagrees with Umo (2003) and Uzeogwu (2004) who found out in their studies that gender was a significant factor in studentsø achievement in language. Umo (2001) found out that the female students significantly performed better than the male students in Igbo grammar, while Uzeogwu (2014) came to the conclusion that the male students achieved higher than their female counterparts in essay writing in the English language.

However, the result of this study agrees with the findings of Anizoba (2004), Oluikpe (2004), and Egbe (2011) these researchers did not establish any significant difference in the achievement of male and female students taught the English language using different methods and techniques.

This may be in line with the general belief that most female students do better than their male counterparts in English language and the arts which require verbal skills while most male do better in mathematics and the natural sciences which require dexterity and high order cognitive thinking than female counterparts. This kind of stereotype may have contributed to the achievement of the male and female students in the learning of English verb tenses.

However, contrary to this result, a study by Odidoh (2009) revealed that there was no significant difference between the errors in English language tenses made by male and female students who used Tiv language as their mother tongue, which means that the interference errors committed by male and female Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses did not vary significantly. The reason for this could be due to the fact that both male and female students speak the same language at home and therefore discuss issues together using their mother tongue. In this case, the errors committed by them may be similar no matter the gender of the student, except other factors like biological or emotional factors are responsible for such interference.

#### **Location and interference (errors) in English verb tenses of Hausa English bilinguals learners**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 5 indicates that rural Hausa/English bilinguals had a higher mean than their urban counterparts which means that they committed more errors compared to the those in urban, hence location influences the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tense. This result is in line with that of Ejini (2009) which revealed that students in urban areas in the state made fewer errors in English language during storytelling than their counterparts in rural parts of the state. The result also corroborates the finding by Adi (2010) which showed that students from rural areas made errors due to the interference of their mother tongue than

those in the urban area, and also showed that there was a significant difference between errors committed by students in the rural areas and their counterparts in the urban areas. This result also agrees with Egbe (2014) who reported that students in urban area outscored the students in the rural area, and location was statistically significant. This result is in line with Eneh (2002), Akabogu (2002), Umo (2003), Omeje (2010), and Joseph (2012) who found out that location was a significant factor in students' achievement. Owoeye and Yara (2011) also report that there was a significant difference between the academic achievement of students in rural and urban secondary schools in senior certificate examinations. The study has proven that students in urban areas had better academic achievement than their rural counterparts. However, it disagrees with Uzeogwu (2004) and, Adepoju and Oluchukwu (2011) who found that location did not significantly influence students' achievement.

This could be due to the fact that rural schools are poorly staffed, mainly by unqualified, poorly motivated, ill-equipped teachers without basic amenities, which are destabilising for the teachers and students. While on the other hand, urban institutions are relatively and adequately staffed, most times with qualified and experience teachers, highly equipped schools with quality buildings and congenial environments. The implication of these assertions is that students who are in urban schools may use English tenses better than students in rural schools. However, the result of the test of hypothesis 2 in Table 6 showed that there was no significant difference in the interference errors committed by urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. This may be as a result of the interaction among urban and rural students in the institutions which might have helped to bridge the gap in respect to the number of errors committed by them.

### **Proprietorship and interference in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 7 shows that Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions owned by the State had a higher mean interference errors score than their counterparts in federal schools which implied that they committed more errors; therefore proprietorship of schools had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. In a similar manner the result in Table 14 indicated that Hausa learners in State institutions had a slightly higher mean than their counterparts in federal institutions which imply that proprietorship of schools (federal and state) influences the achievement of Hausa learners in institution of higher learning in English verb tenses.

These findings are in agreement with the result of the study by Joseph (2010) which showed that school location, school proprietorship, attitude to schooling and attitudes towards English language studies had significant direct effect on performance in English language. Also, the findings are in line with the result by Oke and Maliki (2009) which showed that candidates in private schools performed slightly better than those in public schools. Crone, Johnson and Elder (2004), Sampson (2004) and Considine and Zappala (2002) share a similar view and that is; private schools are more likely to have a greater number of students from high socio-economic status (SES ) families, select students with stronger abilities and have greater financial resources. They conclude strongly that the type of school affects the academic performance of students. Ajayi (2006) in his study revealed that school type makes a difference in students' academic performance. Similarly, a study conducted by Bagana, Mamman, Ahmed and Alhaji (2017) revealed that there was a significant difference in students' academic performance in WASSCE Mathematics between day, boarding and day boarding Senior Secondary Students. The result of the test of hypothesis 3 in Table 8 revealed that there was a significant difference in the

interference errors committed by students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. Similarly, result of the test of hypothesis 7 Table 17 revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

This is because the quality of infrastructures, facilities, academic staff and management in federal and state institutions may vary to an extent. The federal institutions are better funded and catered for by the federal government and this makes them better in terms of quality of facilities and staff which in turn promote learning by the students than when compared with those in institutions owned by the state. Based on this, there is high possibility that due to the quality of staff, students in federal institutions are better taught and exposed to commit fewer errors in English verb tenses and also achieve higher in English verb tenses than their counterparts in state institutions who lack staff in terms of quality.

#### **Types of institutions and interference (errors) in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 9 revealed that Hausa learners of English in the state college of education had a slightly higher mean interference than their counterparts in the federal and state polytechnics which shows that they committed more errors; hence institution appears to have influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tense. However, the result as presented in Table 18 indicated that Hausa learners of English in the state polytechnic had a slightly higher mean achievement scores in English verb tenses than their counterparts in federal polytechnic and State college of education. Moreover, the result of the hypothesis 4 in Table 10 showed that there was a significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning and their achievement in English



verb tenses. Uzoegwu (2004) asserts that location of a school determines so many things that are important in learning, such as learning facilities and environment factors, infrastructures, number and quality of teachers and class size. Adequate provision or lack of these facilities may improve or hamper learning by students/ Udodanta (2001) agrees with the present study when it reported a significant difference in mean interference scores of the different grade levels of Anaan secondary school learners of English lexical verbs. That there is no significant difference in the mean interference scores of male and female.

The post hoc test showed that there was a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal Polytechnic and those in the state polytechnic, and between Hausa/English bilinguals in the Federal Polytechnic and those in the State College of Education, as well as between Hausa/English bilinguals in the State Polytechnic and those in the State College of Education.

In a similar way the result of the hypothesis 8 in Table 19 revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. The direction of the difference through a post hoc test in Table 11 showed that there was a significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the federal polytechnic and those in the state polytechnic but there was no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the federal polytechnic and those in the state college of education. These findings are in line with the result from a study by Alimi, Ehinola, and Alabi (2012) which revealed that federal or state ownership of institutions significantly influences students' learning due to facilities available in schools owned by them, and also showed that there was a significant difference in academic performances of students in federal and state institutions. This reason could be that most state institutions are ill-equipped in terms of facilities and staff when compared with the federal institutions

that are better funded. This may have in turn influenced the difference in English verb tenses and mean achievement scores in English verb tenses among Hausa/English bilinguals in the institutions of higher learning.

### **Gender and achievement in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 12 indicate that Female Hausa learners of English had a slightly higher achievement mean in English verb tenses than their male counterparts. This result is in line with Harker(2000) who investigated gender differences in achievement of boys and girls in schools in New Zealand and found that boys achieved significantly better results than girls in mathematics. The finding of this study also corroborates Umo (2003) who reported that gender had significant influence on the achievement of students in Igbo grammar and that female students achieved significantly higher than their male counterparts did. Marjah (2008) noted that the general belief is that girls are more prone to learning language than boys. In addition, Nwafor (2012) reported that girls are better than boys in literary texts, while boys perform higher than girls in numeracy. These results contradict Azikiweø (2005) collated empirical studies, which revealed that gender had no influence on language acquisition and performance.

In the Igbo grammar experiment, the result showed that female students achieved significantly higher than their male counterparts did. In the same vein, Anagbogu and Ezeliora (2007) found no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female students expose to the experiment. The finding from the test of hypothesis 5 in Table 13 however showed that there was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa/ English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English tenses. This could be attributed to the common belief that females are expected to do better than their male counterparts in English language and the arts which require verbal

skills while males on the other hand are most likely to do better in mathematics and the natural sciences which require dexterity and high order cognitive thinking than their female counterparts.

### **Location and achievement in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 14 shows that Rural Hausa learners in institution of higher learning had a slightly higher mean achievement score in English verb tenses than their urban counterparts. This finding is in consonance with the result by Joseph (2012) which revealed that students in the urban areas performed significantly higher in English studies than those in the rural areas. The result is also in line with that of Adepoju and Oluchukwu (2011) which showed that there was a marked difference in the performance of students in urban and rural schools at the SSCE with impressive means scores obtained in urban schools. In the same way the result agreed with that of Akabogu (2002) who reported that location of school had significant effect on students' achievement in reading comprehension.

Moreover, the finding from the test of hypothesis 6 in Table 15 confirmed that there was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. This result is in line with Eneh (2002), Umo (2003), Omeje (2010), Egbe (2014) who found out that location was a significant factor in students' achievements. Akabogu (2002) on the effect of contextual exposure to English registers on secondary school students' achievement in reading comprehension. The results of the study revealed that: there is no significant effect of gender on students' achievement in reading comprehension.

However, the finding of the present study disagrees with Owoeye and Yara (2011) and Joseph (2012) who reported no significant effect of location on students' achievement in reading comprehension and students' performance in English studies respectively.

Alokan and Arijesuyo (2013) investigated the difference between the academic performance of students from rural environment and students from urban environment. The result revealed that there is no significant difference in the academic performance of students from rural environment. It can be concluded from the result that, all else equal, rural students do not suffer disadvantage in their academic performance simply as the result of their residence in rural areas or their attendance at rural schools.

The explanation for this result is that most rural schools are poorly staffed, have inadequate qualified and experienced teachers and lack basic school facilities and amenities, which impede teaching and learning among teachers and students, whereas, most urban schools are adequately staffed, most times with qualified and experience teachers, with highly equipped libraries and laboratories that promote teaching and learning activities. In essence, students in urban schools may achieve at a higher level since they adequately equipped with facilities and teachers that will help enhance their learning unlike their counterparts from or in rural schools who may lack such opportunities.

### **Proprietorship and achievement in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 16 shows that Hausa learners in state institutions had a slightly higher mean achievement scores than their counterparts in federal institutions which implies that proprietorship of schools (federal and state) influences the mean achievement of Hausa learners in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. The test of hypothesis 7 in Table 17 also showed that there is a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. Crone, Johnson and Elder (2004), Sampson (2004) and Considine and Zappala (2002) share a similar view and they concluded strongly that the type of school affects the academic performance of students. Ajayi (2006) in his study revealed that school type makes a difference in students' academic performance. Oke and

Maliki, (2009) on the effect of school ownership on candidates performance at the West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (WASSCE) in Nigeria to ascertain whether students from public schools perform better than those in private schools. The results showed that although candidates in private schools performed better than those in public schools, school ownership was not the sole determinant of candidates performance; a great deal depended on access to instructional facilities.

Among the reasons adduced for the relatively low performance in state institutions of higher learning are differences in infrastructural facilities, motivation of teachers, enrollment size and student-teacher ratio. This is because the state institutions may have larger enrolment size than the federal institutions. Based on this, it is highly likely that the available physical infrastructures, facilitates and the staff in statesø institutions of higher learning would be over-stretched. This means that students in the federal institutions may do better since they are better taught and expected to commit fewer errors in English verb tenses and also achieve higher in English verb tenses than their counterparts in state institutions who tend to have fewer facilitates and staff commensurate with their enrolment.

### **Types of institutions and achievement in English verb tenses of Hausa learners of English**

The findings of the study as presented in Table 18 shows that Hausa learners of English in the state polytechnic had a slightly higher mean achievement scores in English verb tenses than their counterparts in federal polytechnic and state college of education. Hence, the test of hypothesis 8 in Table 19 revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses .A Post-Hoc Test, in Table 20 to determine the directions of the differences shows that there was a significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the federal polytechnic and those in the state

polytechnic but there was no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the federal polytechnic and those in the state college of education. Also, the result showed that there was no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the state polytechnic and those in the state college of education.

A study carried out by Ajayi (2006) revealed that school type makes a difference in students' academic performance. This finding agrees with Joseph (2012) and Joseph (2010) who found that types of school a significant effect on students' performance in English language studies. The result of this study also corroborated Alimi, Ehinola and Alabi (2012) who also found a significant difference in academic achievement of students in different types of institutions. Mburu(2013) on the effects of the type of school attended affected students' academic performance as majority of the girls who qualified to join tertiary institution were from single sex schools. Moreover, the finding from the test of hypothesis 8 in Table 18 confirmed that there was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of federal polytechnic and state polytechnic, but found no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in the federal polytechnic and those in the state college of education students in English verb tense. On the contrary, Alimi, Ehinola, & Alabi (2012) found no significant difference in academic performances of students in the two types of secondary school.

The reason for this result may be the quality of physical infrastructures, facilities, academic staff and management in polytechnics and colleges of education may vary to some extent. This is because the polytechnics may have smaller enrolment size than the colleges of education. Based on this, there is high possibility that the available physical infrastructures, facilities and the staff in colleges of education would be over-stretched. This implies that students in polytechnics are better taught and expected to commit fewer

errors in English verb tenses and also achieve higher in English verb tenses than their counterparts in state colleges who tend to have fewer facilities and staff commensurate with their enrolment size.

### **Conclusions**

The following conclusions were drawn based on the strength of the findings of this study:

Gender is a significant factor on the interference errors made by students in English verb tenses in institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria. Location is not a significant factor on the interference errors committed by students in urban and rural institutions of higher learning. Proprietorship of schools (federal and state) significantly influences the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. Type of institutions (polytechnics and colleges of education) has a significant influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

Gender has a significant influence on the mean achievement scores of male and female students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. Location is a significant factor on the mean achievement scores of urban and rural Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. Proprietorship is a significant factor in the mean achievement scores of students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. Type of schools (polytechnics and colleges of education) is a significant factor on the achievement of students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses..

### **Educational Implications of the Findings of the Study**

Based on the conclusions drawn from the findings of this study, the following educational implications are outlined as they relate to the teachers, students, curriculum developers, textbook writers, education authorities.

The findings of this study would have provided empirical evidence on the need and importance of error analysis as a diagnostic tool that could be used by teachers in enhancing students' achievement in English language. This is because the more the students function proficiently in the English Language; the more they are likely to perform well in their academic pursuits.

The result of the study could guide English language teachers to identify the students' areas of weakness and level of proficiency. They can use this essential information, from the study, to improve on their existing practices. They could also look into parts of their syllabi that need some improvement, enrichment and revision. This could bring about greater improvement in students language use thereby reducing interference errors and promoting the academic achievements of students in English Language.

For the students, there is no hope lost for improved quality and proficiency in the English language, particularly in the effective use of the English verb tenses. This implies that as the students' achievements improve; their chances of better performance in standardized and internal examinations would be enhanced thereby raising the quality and educational standards in the country.

The implication of this study to education authorities is that since they are the ones who have the authority to direct, guide and support teachers on whatever remedial programmes that would be put in place by the different institutions under them. They could do this through organising conferences, workshops and seminars to ensure that teachers are effectively trained in the area of verb tenses and aspectual forms of the English language.

For the curriculum developers at both polytechnics and colleges of education, the findings of this study need to be incorporated into the next curriculum review. The implication of the review is that it may have to explore the identified areas of difficulties



and incorporate them appropriately into the curriculum provisions of higher education institutions.

Textbooks writers had to refocus on the findings of this study to provide extensive drills and exercises to strengthen their texts with the need and observed difficulties of the learners in mind.

### **Recommendations**

The following recommendations were made based on the findings of the study:

1. Teachers should identify and concentrate on areas of difficulties and mother tongue interference common among Hausa/English bilinguals and make useful corrections as well as give constant feedback to the students in order to reduce interference errors and promote the academic achievements of students in English language especially English tenses.
2. Education, it is often said, is the right of every individual, whether male or female. Therefore, gender disparity in institutions of higher learning (federal or state, and polytechnics or colleges of education) should be eliminated. All hands must be on deck to ensure equitable distribution of educational opportunities to all. Teachers should be more sensitive with different needs of the male and female students. Also, in the classrooms, teachers should use pedagogical techniques that are not gender biased to carry both male and female students along during their lessons.
3. Governments at the federal, state or local government levels should ensure equitable provision and distribution of physical facilities, resources, instructional materials and equipment to both urban and rural schools so that the magnitude of interference errors committed and the disparity in the academic achievements of students observed in the study could be minimized. Government at both federal and state levels should ensure that adequate qualified teachers are employed and posted

to both urban and rural areas. Some incentives should be provided to teachers deployed to rural areas to ensure retention and high productivity.

4. Furthermore, government could use the findings of this study as a reference material in formulating school policies and programmes. The educational policies and programmes implementation should be made uniformed to help close the gap between federal and states tertiary institutions (polytechnics and colleges of education) across the country. Moreover, the types of facilities, resources and equipment in federal institutions of higher learning should be extended to state institutions of higher learning in order to improve the academic performance of students.
5. The English language teachers have great roles to play in addressing the various interference errors, observed to be committed in this study. They should expose their students to the different rules and exceptions to the rules of grammar and syntax to avoid the problems of errors that occurred as a result of misapplication or overgeneralization of the rules. The situation where teachers give written exercises to the students and refuse to mark or carelessly mark them should be discontinued.
6. Workshop, conferences, and seminars should regularly be organised and fully supported by the government/education authorities for teachers to enable them refresh and update their knowledge in the areas of English grammar particularly English tenses.
7. Curriculum developers and textbook writers should incorporate ideas and materials that will provide effective teaching and learning of English verb tenses. They should undertake a periodic review of the contents and styles of presentation of English language course materials to address the various interference errors identified and the shortfall in students academic achievements reported in the study.

They should provide exhaustively adequate lesson series, drills and practical exercise in the curriculum provisions and textbooks, particularly in the area of English verb tenses. Course materials should be written in simple classroom English that will help students learn better.

### **Suggestions for Further Studies**

Based on the findings of the study, the following suggestions were made for further research.

1. A similar study can be replicated in the state at the primary or secondary school levels.
2. This study can be replicated in higher institutions in other geopolitical zones in the country, preferably with a larger sample using other indigenous languages in order to check the consistency of the findings of this study and other studies too.
3. Other instruments for data collection such as interview schedules and observation scales may also be employed by researchers in a related study in order to ascertain the consistency of the findings of this study.

### **Summary of the Study**

The main purpose of this study was to investigate patterns of interference in English tenses among Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria to identify the problems encountered by Hausa learners of English as a second language (L2) in the learning of English verb tenses. Nine (9) research questions and Eight (8) null hypotheses guided the study. The study was carried out in Jigawa state in the North-West geo-political zone of Nigeria. It was limited to three higher education institutions in Jigawa State, which are; Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel, Hussaini Adamu Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure and Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse The related literature to the study was reviewed under the following major sub-headings: conceptual

framework, theoretical framework, review of related empirical studies and summary of the literature reviewed. The study employed two research designs: the descriptive survey and the ex-post facto research designs. The population of the study comprised 2876 N.C.E II and ND II Students in 2016/2017 academic session offering English and Communication skills in Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel, Hussaini Adamu Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure and Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse. A sample of 476 respondents in non-equivalent intact classes (lecture groups) was drawn and used for the study.

Two instruments; English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) and English Verb Tenses Achievement Test (EVTAT) developed by the researcher were used for data collection in this study. The instruments were face and content validated by five experts in English Language Education and Educational Measurement and Evaluation from University of Nigeria, Nsukka and Bayero University, Kano. Of the five experts, two were from English-Education and one from Measurement and Evaluation Units. Similarly, two experts, one each, in Hausa and English Languages from Bayero University, Kano also validated the instruments. Kuder-Richardson (K-R 20) method was used to test the internal consistency of the English Verb Tenses Achievement Test (EVTAT) and the reliability coefficient of 0.89 obtained showed that it was highly reliable.

The reliability of English-Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) was determined using different reliability estimates because the three sections of the instrument vary and their scores cannot be combined. The reliability of section one and two of EHEAT were determined through test re-test method and the estimates of temporal stability were computed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The reliability coefficient of section one of EHEAT (Hausa to English) was found to be 0.84 and the reliability coefficient of section two of EHEAT (English to Hausa) was found to be 0.73. While the reliability of section three of EHEAT consisting of three different essay topics was determined using

inter-rater reliability. Specifically Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance was used. The reliability of the three separate topics was found to be 0.78, 0.71 and 0.74 respectively.

The researcher organized a training conference for the regular teachers who helped in the administration of the two instruments of the study. The two test instruments; EVTAT and EHEAT were administered simultaneously to all respondents. Each of the two tests was expected to last for one hour only before retrieval. Data collected were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions, while the hypotheses were tested using t-test and the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at 0.05 set as the level of significance. The findings/results of the study revealed that:

1. Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning committed the highest number of errors in past simple tense, followed by the perfective tenses while the least tense errors made was in the progressive tenses.
2. Gender had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa/English bilingual in English verb tenses. There was a significant difference in the interference errors committed by male and female students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
3. Location had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. However, there was no significant difference in the interference errors committed by urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
4. Proprietorship of schools had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. There was a significant difference in the interference errors committed by students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

5. Institution type had influence on the interference errors made by Hausa learners of English in English verb tenses. There was a significant difference in the interference errors committed by Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning.
6. Female Hausa learners of English had a slightly higher achievement mean in English verb tenses than their male counterparts. There was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of male and female Hausa/ English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English Verb tenses.
7. Rural Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning had a slightly higher achievement mean scores in English verb tenses than their urban counterparts. There was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of urban and rural students in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
8. Proprietorship of schools (federal and state) influenced the mean achievement of Hausa learners of English in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses. There was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of students in federal and state institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.
9. Hausa learners of English in the State Polytechnic had a slightly higher mean achievement scores in English verb tenses than their counterparts in federal polytechnic and state college of education. There was a significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Hausa/English bilinguals in institutions of higher learning in English verb tenses.

The implications of the above findings of the study were examined and it was recommended that teachers should identify and concentrate on areas of difficulties and interference common among Hausa learners of English and make useful corrections in order to reduce interference errors and promote the academic achievements of students in English language. Also, teachers should use pedagogical techniques that are gender

sensitive to carry both male and female students along during the lesson. That, textbook writers/authors should use simple classroom English to explain concepts and also provide relevant drills and exercises that will help students learn better. Furthermore, curriculum planners should incorporate ideas and materials that will promote effective teaching of English verb-tenses. Also, that examination bodies should construct test items that will adequately and directly measure the areas concerned, particularly English verb tenses. And lastly, that government should adequately equip institutions in both urban and rural locations so that students from these areas can perform alike. Also, both federal and state institutions should be adequately funded or catered for, in order to promote equitable learning and achievement among students. These will no doubt enhance effective learning and high achievement in English language in the area of this study. The limitations of this study were highlighted and suggestions were also made for further studies.

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**APPENDIX A**

**ENGLISH VERB-TENSES ACHIEVEMENT TEST (EVTAT)**

**PART ONE**

**Introduction: Background Information and Instructions**

I am a Ph.D. student of the Department of Arts Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. I intend to carry out a research on Patterns of Interference in English Tenses among Hausa/English Bilinguals in Institutions of Higher Learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria. In pursuance of this research objective, your maximum co-operation is needed to make this research worthwhile. The information is for the consumption of the researcher and hence, the result will not in any way be used against you.

Read each question carefully before you answer it. Do not waste time on any question (item). If you find it difficult go to the others and finish them before you come back to complete the difficult ones. Please work independently, and do not discuss anything with anybody.

**Section A: Personal information of respondents.**

Please tick (✓) or fill in the correct information.

Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_

School Proprietorship: Federal  State

Sex: Male  Female

Level: NC E II  NDII

Location: Urban  Rural

First Language (Mother Tongue): \_\_\_\_\_

**PART TWO: INSTRUMENT**

**TEST ONE: ENGLISH VERB-TENSES ACHIEVEMENT TEST (EVTAT)**

**Instruction**

**Time: 40 minutes**

Fill in the gap in each of the following sentences below by choosing the best answer from the options lettered A-D. Indicate your choice by putting a circle round the appropriate letter of your answer.

Example:

He----to school every day.

(A) go (B) will go (C) is going (D) goes

The correct answer is **(D)** so D is encircled

(1) Adamu hardly \_\_\_\_\_ these days. (A) ate (B) eat (C) eaten (D) eats

(2) The principal \_\_\_\_\_ to the students yesterday.

(A) is spoken (B) had spoken (C) has spoken (D) had speak

(3) By this time next year, I \_\_\_\_\_ in this school for twenty-five years. (A) will work

(B) shall have been working (C) will be working (D) shall work

(4) I \_\_\_\_\_ another examination before I got my last result. (A) have written (B) am writing (C) has written (D) had written

(5) John, Mary and Ben \_\_\_\_\_ to Church every week. (A) go (B) goes (C) went (D) going

(6) I----there before you get up. (A) am reached (B) had reached (C) shall have reached (D) reached.

(7) After they had gone, I \_\_\_\_\_ down and \_\_\_\_\_ (A) sit, rest (B) sitted, rested

(C) sat, rested (D) seated, rested.

(8) What ---- with yourself these last three years? (A) you have been doing (B) Are you doing (C) have you been doing (D) had you been doing

(9) Tomorrow at noon, I \_\_\_\_\_ a lecture at the University so I will not be answering calls.

(A) would be giving (B) will give (C) will have given (D) will be giving.

(10) He was thirsty, so he \_\_\_\_\_ two glasses of water. (A) drinks (B) drink (C) drank (D) drunk

(11) We \_\_\_\_\_left the examination hall before he arrived. (A) had (B) have (C) has (D) having

- (12) The lady \_\_\_\_\_-here tomorrow. (A) arrive (B) arrived (C) arrives (D) arriving
- (13) All through next week the workmen----our new house. (A) will have painted  
(B) will paint (C) is painting (D) will be painting
- (14) My colleagues \_\_\_\_\_ before I arrived yesterday. (A) writing (B) have written  
(C) have been writing (D) had been writing
- (15) The president \_\_\_\_\_ signed the bill before noon tomorrow. (A) will have (B)  
will be (C) had (D) will have been
- (16) The houses -----somewhere around our house last year. (A) is built (B) were  
built (C) were build (D) was built
- (17) The children\_\_\_\_\_ French fluently when they lived in Cameroon. (A) are  
speaking (B) speaks (C) were speaking (D) was speaking
- (18) Did you ----- to Jacob about your result? (A) wrote (B) written (C) writes  
(D) write
- (19) If I were you, I\_\_\_\_\_ report the matter to police. (A) will (B) shall (C) could  
(D) would
- (20) Candidates who are not accustomed to ----- fast will find it difficult to finish  
this paper. (A) writing (B) write (C) have written (D) written
- (21) I have no doubt at all that Mary \_\_\_\_\_ to pass the examination. (A) can be  
able (B) will be able (C) can able (D) is be able
- (22) My friend is in the hospital. He \_\_\_\_\_ ill for a week now. (A) have been (B)  
had been (C) has being (D) has been
- (23) Do come tonight but don't expect me to speak to you because I \_\_\_\_\_ an  
interesting programme on Television when you arrive. (A) watch (B)am watching (C)  
have watched (D) shall be watching
- (24) Nigeria \_\_\_\_\_ 57 years of independence next year. (A) celebrates (B)  
celebrate (C) will have celebrate (D) has celebrated.
- (25) Benson returned from school when his mother lunch. (A) has prepared  
(B) prepared (C) is preparing (D) was preparing
- (26) I am looking forward to \_\_\_\_\_ you. (A) see (B) have seen (C) be seeing (D)  
seeing
- (27) I \_\_\_\_\_ by this time tomorrow. (A) would be reading (B) shall be reading  
(C) should read (D) will read.

- (28) I \_\_\_\_\_ widely, but I have never been to Maiduguri. (A) have travelled  
(B) have travel (C) am travelled (D) will travel
- (29) Musa \_\_\_\_\_ in Minna for seven years by January, 2016. (A) will have been  
living (B) shall live (C) will live (D) lived
- (30) They \_\_\_\_\_ to the news when the principal came in. (A) are listening (B) have  
listened (C) were listening (D) were listened.
- (31) They \_\_\_\_\_ their assignment for two hours now. (A) had been writing (B) are  
writing (C) have written (D) have been writing
- (32) She \_\_\_\_\_ cooking when they arrived yesterday. (A) is finished (B) have  
finished (C) had finished (D) has finished
- (33) We \_\_\_\_\_ football before the blast suddenly occurred yesterday. (A) are  
playing (B) had played (C) played (D) had been playing
- (34) I \_\_\_\_\_ this paper for three days now. (A) has been writing (B) is writing  
(C) would have written (D) have been writing
- (35) God knows how long I \_\_\_\_\_ it now. (A) have been doing (B) had been doing  
(C) had done (D) shall do
- (36) If it rains, I \_\_\_\_\_ stay at home. (A) shall (B) should be (C) would (D) will
- (37) Razaq \_\_\_\_\_ the radio cassette since 6 pm. I wish he \_\_\_\_\_ put it off. (A) has  
been playing /would (B) is playing/would (C) played/will (D) had played/should
- (38) He always \_\_\_\_\_ with his windows opened. (A) sleep (B) is sleeping (C)slept  
(D) sleeps
- (39) By the end of next semester, he \_\_\_\_\_ his University Education. (A) shall  
have completed (B) will have completed (C) will be completing (D) was completing
- (40) It is likely my father \_\_\_\_\_ a new house next year. (A) will build (B) built  
(C) had built (D) will have build



**APPENDIX B****PART TWO: INSTRUMENT TEST ONE: ENGLISH VERB-TENSES****ACHIEVEMENT TEST (EVTAT) MARKING SCHEME**

<b>1. D</b>	<b>21. B</b>
<b>2. B</b>	<b>22. D</b>
<b>3. B</b>	<b>23. D</b>
<b>4. D</b>	<b>24. A</b>
<b>5. A</b>	<b>25. D</b>
<b>6. C</b>	<b>26. D</b>
<b>7. C</b>	<b>27. B</b>
<b>8. C</b>	<b>28. A</b>
<b>9. D</b>	<b>29. A</b>
<b>10. C</b>	<b>30. C</b>
<b>11. A</b>	<b>31. D</b>
<b>12. C</b>	<b>32. C</b>
<b>13. D</b>	<b>33. D</b>
<b>14. D</b>	<b>34. D</b>
<b>15. A</b>	<b>35. A</b>
<b>16. B</b>	<b>36. C</b>
<b>17. C</b>	<b>37. A</b>
<b>18. D</b>	<b>38. D</b>
<b>19. D</b>	<b>39. B</b>
<b>20. A</b>	<b>40. A</b>

## APPENDIX C

### TEST TWO: ENGLISH—HAUSA ERROR ANALYSIS TEST (EHCAT)

#### SECTION ONE: Hausa to English

**Time: 1 Hour 30 minutes**

**Instruction:** Please translate the following sentences from Hausa to English.

1. Aisha takan karanta wasika.
2. Ban ci abinci ba.
3. Ta rubuta labari ne?
4. Na ga Abdu a makaranta.
5. Malamin yana rubuta wasika.
6. Ya jefar /yar da jakar makarantarsa.
7. Me yake yi?
8. Ibrahim zay/zai tafi gida gobe
9. Yara su na kallon wasa.
10. Zan je Kano gobe, amma ba zan dade ba.
11. Sun yi karatu a London (ne)?
12. Ba ka yi magana da ita (a) kan batun ba.
13. Yana koyan harshen Hausa
14. Mun hadu da John a bakin kasuwar.
15. Yaushe ne Nijeriya ta sami yancin kanta?

#### SECTION TWO: English to Hausa

**Instruction:** Please provide the equivalent sentences or translate the following sentences below from English to Hausa.

1. I ate some food.
2. I am listening to the song.
3. Has she written a story?
4. We did not enter, because we were not invited.
5. They were going to see him.
6. She will write a novel next year.
7. I did not see him in school.
8. Have you been advising him?
9. Does he write letters?
10. I did not go to Kano.
11. Did he study in London?

12. You should not have spoken to her.
13. She has been reading her book.
14. He brushes his teeth every morning.
15. The doctor told her not to worry.

**SECTION THREE: Essay**

**Instruction:** Write a paragraph of at least ten sentences on each of the following topics:

**Topic 1:** Aspects of the Past Tenses

öHow I spent my last holidaysö

**Topic 2:** Aspects of the Present Tenses.

öMy Hobbyö

**Topic 3:** Aspects of the Future Tenses.

öWhat I will like to do after my studies.ö (10 marks)

## APPENDIX D

### ENGLISH- HAUSA ERRORANALYSIS TEST (EHEAT)

#### PART ONE: Marking Guide

1. (a) Aisha reads a letter  
(b) Aisha often reads letters.
2. (a) I did not eat any food.  
(b) I have not eaten (any food).
3. Has she written a story?
4. (a) I have seen Abdu at school.  
(b) I saw Abdu at school.
5. (a) The teacher is writing a letter.  
(b) The teacher was writing a letter.
6. (a) He lost his schoolbag.  
(b) He discarded his schoolbag.  
(c) He has /had lost his schoolbag.
7. (a) What is he doing?  
(b) What was he doing?
8. Ibrahim will go home tomorrow.
9. (a) The children are watching the game.  
(b) The children were watching the game.
10. (a) I shall go to Kano tomorrow, but I shall not stay long.  
(b) I will go to Kano tomorrow, but I won't stay long.
11. (a) Did they study in London?  
(b) Were they studying in London?
12. (a) You had not spoken to her on the matter.  
(b) Have you not spoken to her about the matter?
- 13 (a) He is studying the Hausa language.  
(b) He was studying the Hausa language.  
(c) He is /was learning the Hausa language.
14. (a) We met John at the market.  
(b) We have /had met John at the market.
15. (a) When did Nigeria gain her independence ?

#### PART TWO: Marking Guide

1. Na ci wani abinci.
2. Ina sauraron wakar.
3. Ta rubuta labari ne?
4. Bamu shiga ba, saboda ba a gayyacemu ba.
5. Su na tafiya don ganawa da shi

Sun tafi su gana da shi.

6. Za ta rubuta kagaggen labari badi.
7. Ban gan shi a makaranta ba.
8. Ka na bashi shawara kuwa?
9. Ya kan rubuta wasiku ( kuwa) ?
10. .Ban je Kano ba.
11. Ya yi karatu a London ne?
12. .Da ba ka /ki /ku yi magana da ita ba.
13. Tana ta karanta littafin ta
14. Ya kan goge hakoransa duk / kowace safiya. .
15. Likitan ya fada mata (cewa) kada ta damu.

### **PART THREE: Marking Scheme**

The researcher will examine the consistency in the use of tenses in the written essays of students. Each correct sentence attracts one mark.

## APPENDIX E

TABLE OF SPECIFICATION FOR EVTAT

TENSES	ITEM	% WEIGHT	LOWER ORDER	HIGHER ORDER	TOTAL
Present simple	4		1,24,38	5	4
Present continuous	2		20	36	2
Present perfect	3		22,27	2	3
Present perfect continuous	4		31	8,34,35	4
Total	<b>13</b>	(32.5%)	7	6	13
Simple past	4		10,16	7,18	4
Past continuous	4		17,25,30	33	4
Past perfect	3		11	4,32	3
Past perfect continuous	2		-	14,37	2
Total	<b>13</b>	(32.5%)	6	7	13
Simple future	5		12,21,40	36	5
Future continuous	4		10,23	11,27	4
Future perfect	3		-	6,15,39	3
Future perfect continuous	2		-	3,29	2
Total	<b>14</b>	(35%)	6	8	14
Grand Total	40	100%	19 (47.5%)	21 (52.5%)	40

**APPENDIX F****TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS FOR EHEAT BY FUNCTION**

## Hausa to English

Function	Item	Total
Affirmative	1,3,4,5,6,8,9,13,14	9
Negative	10,12,2	3
Interrogatives	7,11,15	3
	Total	15

## English to Hausa

Function	Item	Total
Affirmative	1,2,5,6,12,13,14	7
Negative	4,7,10,15	4
Interrogatives	3,8,9,11	4
	Total	15

## APPENDIX G

### DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY INSTITUTIONS

/No	INSTITUTION	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
	Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel	1862	427	2289
	Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse	157	15	172
	Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure	335	80	415
	TOTAL	2354	522	2876

**Source:** Studentsø Affairs Division of the respective Institutions, 2017



## APPENDIX H

### DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE SIZE BY IN-TACT CLASSES ACROSS THE INSTITUTIONS

S/N	INSTITUTION	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
1	Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel	229	57	286
2	Jigawa State Polytechnic, Dutse	79	08	87
3	Federal Polytechnic, Kazaure	73	30	103
	TOTAL	381	95	476

**Source:** General Studies Departments in collaboration with Studentsø Affairs Division,  
2017

## APPENDIX I

Department of Arts Education,  
Faculty of Education,  
University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

í í í í í í í í í í í  
í í í í í í í í í í í  
í í í í í í í í í í í  
Sir,

### REQUEST FOR VALIDATION OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

I am a Ph.D student of the Department of Arts Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. I am carrying out a research on "Patterns of Interference in English Tenses among Hausa/English Bilinguals in Institutions of Higher Learning in Jigawa State, Nigeria" with specific interest in the aspects of English Verb Tenses.

There are two types of instruments to be used for the study;

English Verb - Tenses Achievement Test (EVTAT) consisting of 50 objective test items

English ó Hausa Error Analysis Test (EHEAT) consisting of three parts (sections);

**Part 1:** Sentences in Hausa to be translated to English keeping in mind their verb tense forms.

**Part 2:** Sentences in English to be translated to Hausa with special attention on their verb tense forms.

**Part 3:** Three topics on the Present, Past and Future tenses respectively are provided for the respondents to write a paragraph of at least ten sentences on each.

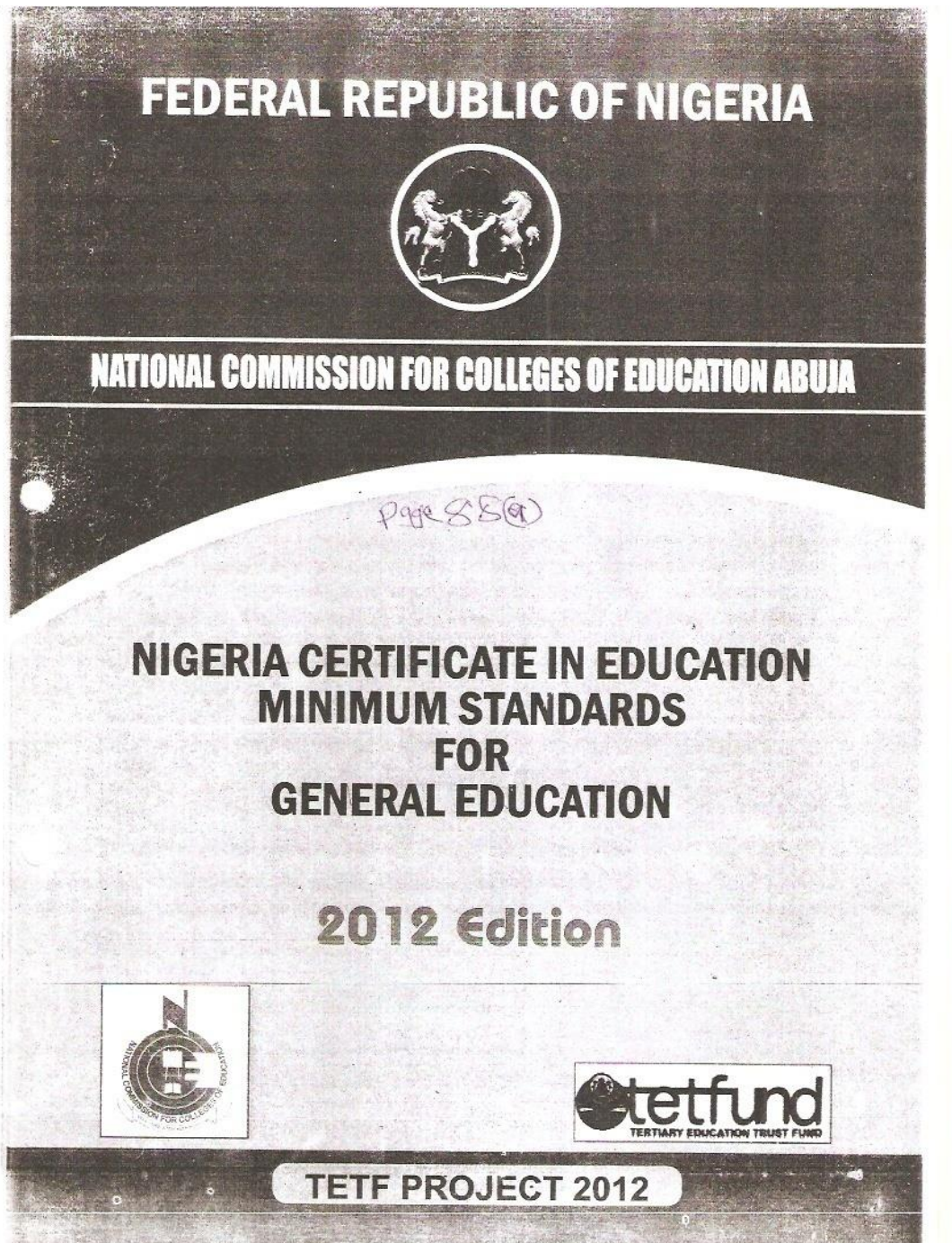
Please, kindly go through the instruments and validate them to enable me update and use them for the purpose of the study only.

Your kind response is highly appreciated, please.

Yours faithfully,

HABU, Galadi Dauda  
PG/Ph.D/11/58859

**APPENDIX J**  
**NCCE COURSE OUTLINE**



Page 22(15)

- GSE 112: INTRODUCTION TO LIBRARY STUDIES: (1 CREDIT) C**  
 (A qualified Librarian should teach this course).  
 Objectives and functions of the library;  
 Types of library;  
 Types of library materials;  
 Organizational structure of the library;  
 Bibliography, cataloguing and classification;  
 Use and care of the library;  
 Basic library automation;  
 Virtual and e-library
- GSE 113: BASIC GENERAL MATHEMATICS I (1 CREDIT) C**  
 Binary Numbers, conversion from base 2 to base 10 and vice-versa;  
 Sets definition, notation and diagrams;  
 Basic operations on fractional and whole numbers;  
 Fractions, decimals, and approximations;  
 Indices and surds;  
 Graphs;  
 Change of subject of formulae.

## YEAR ONE SECOND SEMESTER

- ✓ **GSE 121: GENERAL ENGLISH II (1 CREDIT) C**
- Grammar:**  
 a) Verb – tenses ✓  
 b) Agreement (concord);  
 c) Auxiliary and modals;  
 d) Questions, statements, commands.
- Vocabulary:**  
 a) Synonyms (b) Antonyms (c) Homonyms, (d) Homophones;  
 b) Registers (must be relevant to areas of study) Semantic Mapping.
- Reading:**  
 a) Relationship between reading and writing e.g. summarizing as a bridge.
- Writing:**  
 a) Paragraphing/Structure and development;  
 b) Linking paragraphs for unity and coherence.  
 c) Punctuation

## APPENDIX K

English verb-tense Achievement Test Reliability Computation Using K-R<sub>20</sub>

S/N	R	W	P	q	pq
1	25	5	0.83	0.17	0.14
2	15	14	0.50	0.47	0.23
3	13	17	0.43	0.57	0.25
4	22	8	0.73	0.27	0.20
5	15	15	0.50	0.50	0.25
6	17	13	0.57	0.43	0.25
7	16	14	0.53	0.47	0.25
8	17	13	0.57	0.43	0.25
9	18	12	0.60	0.40	0.24
10	21	9	0.70	0.30	0.21
11	18	12	0.60	0.40	0.24
12	18	12	0.60	0.40	0.24
13	19	11	0.63	0.37	0.23
14	20	10	0.67	0.33	0.22
15	17	13	0.57	0.43	0.25
16	20	10	0.67	0.33	0.22
17	21	9	0.70	0.30	0.21
18	22	8	0.73	0.27	0.20
19	22	8	0.73	0.27	0.20
20	23	7	0.77	0.23	0.18
21	24	6	0.80	0.20	0.16
22	19	11	0.63	0.37	0.23
23	24	6	0.80	0.20	0.16
24	20	10	0.67	0.33	0.22
25	22	8	0.73	0.27	0.20
26	10	20	0.33	0.67	0.22
27	8	22	0.27	0.73	0.20
28	18	12	0.60	0.40	0.24
29	14	16	0.47	0.53	0.25
30	19	11	0.63	0.37	0.23
31	23	7	0.77	0.23	0.18
32	22	8	0.73	0.27	0.20
33	14	16	0.47	0.53	0.25
34	17	13	0.57	0.43	0.25
35	24	6	0.80	0.20	0.16
36	18	12	0.60	0.40	0.24
37	15	15	0.50	0.50	0.25
38	20	10	0.67	0.33	0.22
39	18	12	0.60	0.40	0.24
40	21	9	0.70	0.30	0.21
					8.77

\Variance of the total score on the test

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
score	30	29.00	81.00	49.3667	7.8641	<b>61.8441</b>
Valid N (list wise)	30					

- R = Number of Examinees that choose correct option  
 W = Number of examinees that choose wrong options  
 p = Proportion of examinees that choose correct option  
 q = Proportion of examinees that choose wrong options  
 pq = Product of proportion of those that choose correct option and those that choose wrong options

$S^2$  = Variance of the total score on the test

n = Number of items in the test

K-R(20) = Kuder-Richardson formula 20

$$\begin{aligned}
 K - R(20) &= \frac{n}{n-1} \left[ 1 - \frac{\sum pq}{S_{b^i}^2} \right] \\
 &= \frac{40}{40-1} \left\{ 1 - \frac{8.77}{61.84} \right\} \\
 &= \frac{40}{39} (1-0.14) \\
 &= 1.03(0.84) \\
 &= 0.89
 \end{aligned}$$

## ENGLISH-HAUSA ERROR ANALYSIS TEST (EHEAT)

### Translation from English-Hausa

#### Correlations

		F irtsadmi	Seco ndadmi
FirstadmiEH	Pearson Correlation	1	.728**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30
SecondadmiEH	Pearson Correlation	.728**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	30	30

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### Translation from Hausa-English

#### Correlations

		First admiHE	Secon dadmiHE
FirstadmiHE	Pearson Correlation	1	.840**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30
SecondadmiHE	Pearson Correlation	.840**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	30	30

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

## ESSAY TEST

### Topic 1 (How I spent my last holiday)

#### Descriptive Statistics

	N	M ean	Std. Deviation	M inimum	M aximum
Rater1	30	2.9333	1.22990	1.00	5.00
Rater2	30	3.4667	1.27937	1.00	6.00
Rater3	30	3.6667	1.24106	1.00	6.00

### Kendall's W Test

#### Ranks

	Mean Rank
Rater1	1.53
Rater2	2.13
Rater3	2.33

#### Test Statistics

N	30
Kendall's W <sup>a</sup>	.781
Chi-Square	13.277
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.001

a. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance

### Topic 2 (My Hobby)

#### Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Rater1	30	3.3000	1.36836	1.00	6.00
Rater2	30	3.1667	1.20583	1.00	6.00
Rater3	30	3.2667	1.25762	1.00	5.00

### Kendall's W Test

#### Ranks

	Mean Rank
Rater1	1.98
Rater2	1.93
Rater3	2.08



**Test Statistics**

N	30
Kendall's W <sup>a</sup>	.707
Chi-Square	10.447
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.010

a. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance

Topic 3 (What I will like to do after my studies)

**Descriptive Statistics**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Rater1	30	4.6333	1.40156	2.00	7.00
Rater2	30	4.2333	1.13512	2.00	6.00
Rater3	30	4.0667	1.14269	2.00	6.00

**Kendall's W Test****Ranks**

	Mean Rank
Rater1	2.20
Rater2	1.93
Rater3	1.87

**Test Statistics**

N	30
Kendall's W <sup>a</sup>	.735
Chi-Square	12.113
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.001

a. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance

**APPENDIX M****Schedule of Training for Research Assistants**

One day

10 .am	Arrival of the Researcher
10:15	Opening prayer
10:15 ó 10:30	Briefings on the research instruments
10:30 ó 10:50	Modalities for the conduct of the research
\f10:50 ó 11am	Responses and clarification
11 ó 1pm	Administration of the instruments
1: 10pm	Closing and departure

## APPENDIX N

## Descriptive Analysis for Research Question and Hypotheses

## Research Question 2

## Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
+S/-S	FedPoly	103	3.0971	1.38984	.13695	2.8255	3.3687	1.00	8.00
	StatePoly	87	3.0805	1.18340	.12687	2.8282	3.3327	1.00	7.00
	Statecollege	286	3.9091	1.92640	.11391	3.6849	4.1333	.00	10.00
	Total	476	3.5819	1.74827	.08013	3.4245	3.7394	.00	10.00
+ING	FedPoly	103	1.2330	.88787	.08748	1.0595	1.4065	.00	3.00
	StatePoly	87	1.5862	.92198	.09885	1.3897	1.7827	.00	4.00
	Statecollege	286	1.7937	1.20936	.07151	1.6529	1.9345	.00	5.00
	Total	476	1.6345	1.11864	.05127	1.5337	1.7352	.00	5.00
VED1	FedPoly	103	6.6602	3.18869	.31419	6.0370	7.2834	1.00	18.00
	StatePoly	87	7.2299	3.34352	.35846	6.5173	7.9425	1.00	16.00
	Statecollege	286	8.1224	4.13573	.24455	7.6410	8.6037	.00	22.00
	Total	476	7.6429	3.85344	.17662	7.2958	7.9899	.00	22.00
VED2	FedPoly	103	3.7379	1.78754	.17613	3.3885	4.0872	1.00	9.00
	StatePoly	87	3.9080	1.48349	.15905	3.5919	4.2242	.00	8.00
	Statecollege	286	3.9755	2.42851	.14360	3.6929	4.2582	.00	11.00
	Total	476	3.9118	2.15225	.09865	3.7179	4.1056	.00	11.00
AUX	FedPoly	103	3.0680	1.58586	.15626	2.7580	3.3779	.00	8.00
	StatePoly	87	2.8966	1.30326	.13972	2.6188	3.1743	.00	6.00
	Statecollege	286	3.8042	1.99915	.11821	3.5715	4.0369	.00	10.00
	Total	476	3.4790	1.84607	.08461	3.3127	3.6453	.00	10.00
Total	FedPoly	103	17.7961	7.63167	.75197	16.3046	19.2876	5.00	38.00
	StatePoly	87	18.7011	7.04490	.75529	17.1997	20.2026	7.00	36.00
	Statecollege	286	21.6049	9.99164	.59082	20.4420	22.7678	2.00	53.00
	Total	476	20.2500	9.17838	.42069	19.4234	21.0766	2.00	53.00

## T-Test

Research question 3 and hypothesis 1

**Group Statistics**

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SUMoferror	Male	381	20.9895	8.45732	.43328
	Female	95	16.2211	6.28267	.64459

**Independent Samples Test**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper	
SUMof error	Equal variances assumed	10.660	.001	5.151	474	.000	4.76845	.92577	2.94934	6.58756
	Equal variances not assumed			6.140	188.610	.000	4.76845	.77668	3.23636	6.30054

Research question 4 and hypothesis 2

**Group Statistics**

	Location	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SUMoferror	Urban	320	19.6563	8.18635	.45763
	Rural	156	20.8205	28.46205	.67751

**Independent Samples Test**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
SUM of error variances assumed	.546	.460	-1.440	474	.150	-1.16426	.80829	-2.75253	.42401
			-1.424	298.510	.155	-1.16426	.81758	-2.77322	.44469

Research question 5 and hypothesis 3

**Group Statistics**

Proprietorship	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Federal	103	16.5340	7.02351	.69205
State	373	21.0323	8.35106	.43298

**Independent Samples Test**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
SUM of error variances assumed	5.674	.018	-4.998	474	.000	-4.49828	.90000	-6.26677	-2.72979E0
			-5.510	189.501	.000	-4.49828	.81634	-6.10855	-2.88801E0

Research question 6 and Hypothesis 4

**Descriptives**

SUMoferror

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					FedPoly	103		
StatePoly	87	19.0115	6.29044	.67441	17.6708	20.3522	8.00	32.00
Statecollege	286	21.6119	8.80987	.52094	20.5865	22.6373	2.00	45.00
Total	476	20.0378	8.28687	.37983	19.2915	20.7842	2.00	45.00

**ANOVA**

SUMoferror

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2064.780	2	1032.390	15.982	.000
Within Groups	30554.539	473	64.597		
Total	32619.319	475			

**Post Hoc Tests****Multiple Comparisons**

SUMoferror

LSD

(I) Institution	(J) Institution	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
FedPoly	StatePoly	-2.47751*	1.17032	.035	-4.7772	-.1778
	Statecollege	-5.07791*	.92359	.000	-6.8928	-3.2631
StatePoly	FedPoly	2.47751*	1.17032	.035	.1778	4.7772
	Statecollege	-2.60039*	.98405	.009	-4.5341	-.6667
Statecollege	FedPoly	5.07791*	.92359	.000	3.2631	6.8928
	StatePoly	2.60039*	.98405	.009	.6667	4.5341

### Multiple Comparisons

SUMoferror

LSD

(I) Institution	(J) Institution	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
FedPoly	StatePoly	-2.47751*	1.17032	.035	-4.7772	-.1778
	Statecollege	-5.07791*	.92359	.000	-6.8928	-3.2631
StatePoly	FedPoly	2.47751*	1.17032	.035	.1778	4.7772
	Statecollege	-2.60039*	.98405	.009	-4.5341	-.6667
Statecollege	FedPoly	5.07791*	.92359	.000	3.2631	6.8928
	StatePoly	2.60039*	.98405	.009	.6667	4.5341

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Research question 7 and Hypothesis 5

### Group Statistics

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Achi Male	381	22.0315	5.56247	.28497
Female	95	25.8947	5.06652	.51981

### Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Achi Equal variances assumed	1.058	.304	-6.161	474	.000	-3.86324	.62702	-5.09533	-2.63115
Equal variances not assumed			-6.517	155.519	.000	-3.86324	.59280	-5.03423	-2.69225

Research question 8 and Hypothesis 6

**Group Statistics**

Location		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Achi	Urban	320	22.2719	5.77731	.32296
	Rural	156	23.8910	5.31774	.42576

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Achi	Equal variances assumed	.938	.333	-2.945	474	.003	-1.61915	.54987	-2.69964	-.53866
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.030	331.382	.003	-1.61915	.53439	-2.67038	-.56792

Research question 9 and Hypothesis 7

**Group Statistics**

Proprietorship		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Achi	Federal	103	21.6602	5.02065	.49470
	State	373	23.1102	5.81718	.30161



### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Achi	Equal variances assumed	4.055	.045	-2.303	474	.022	-1.45002	.62963	-2.68723	-.21281
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.503	184.897	.013	-1.45002	.57939	-2.59309	-.30695

Research question 10 and Hypothesis 8

### Descriptives

Achi

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					FedPoly	103		
StatePoly	87	23.7471	6.65289	.71326	22.3292	25.1650	9.00	35.00
Statecollege	286	22.9266	5.52870	.32692	22.2831	23.5701	9.00	38.00
Total	476	22.8025	5.67644	.26018	22.2913	23.3138	9.00	38.00

### ANOVA

Achi

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	216.435	2	108.218	3.392	.034
Within Groups	15089.002	473	31.901		
Total	15305.437	475			

## Post Hoc Tests

### Multiple Comparisons

Achi LSD

(I) Institution	(J) Institution	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
FedPoly	StatePoly	-2.08693*	.82243	.011	-3.7030	-.4709
	Statecollege	-1.26638	.64904	.052	-2.5417	.0090
StatePoly	FedPoly	2.08693*	.82243	.011	.4709	3.7030
	Statecollege	.82055	.69153	.236	-.5383	2.1794
Statecollege	FedPoly	1.26638	.64904	.052	-.0090	2.5417
	StatePoly	-.82055	.69153	.236	-2.1794	.5383

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.