



**MISAPPROPRIATION OF ADJECTIVES BY GRADE 7 NON-NATIVE ENGLISH
LANGUAGE LEARNERS: A CASE STUDY OF FOUR INDEPENDENT RURAL
PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN MAN'OMBE CIRCUIT, MOPANI DISTRICT**

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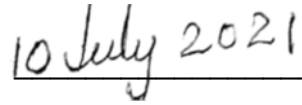
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DECLARATION

I, Addmore Ticharwa, acknowledge that the dissertation, "Misappropriation of adjectives by Non-native English Home Language learners: A Case Study of Four Independent Primary Schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District" submitted for the English Language Teaching (ELT) degree at the University of Venda, has not been submitted for a degree at this or any other university, and that it is my own work and that all reference material contained therein have been duly acknowledged.



Signed



Date

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to:

- God, Almighty. I thank God, through Jesus who enriches me in everything I do.
- My beloved wife, Ravei, for financial support and encouragement even during times of financial embarrassment.
- My children, Beular Lillian, Plaxedes, Joseph, Jainos and Rutendo
- My beloved granddaughter, NokutendaChikwavira
- My siblings, Edward, Jainos, Beular, Michael, Johannes and Molly. May God bless you.

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ABSTRACT

The study aimed to present an analysis of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language Learners, with a special focus on independent rural primary schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District. Grade 7 is the transitional grade from senior primary phase to high school which serves an important function of preparing learners for further education and training (FET) studies. A mixed research approach (qualitative and quantitative) was used. For the qualitative approach content analysis was employed to collect data, while for the quantitative approach, data was gathered using a standardised test. The population was eighty-one (81) Grade 7, non-native learners of English Home Language, both as a subject and as the medium of instruction, in four independent schools in Man'ombe Circuit. The participants were selected using systematic random sampling and they comprised 25% of the population (20 learners). Both the quantitative and qualitative data show that the errors committed by non-native English Home Language learners were predominantly morphology, comparative degree and adjective identification errors. The quantitative data showed that errors on the use of similar-sounding words (homonyms) (for example, *further/ farther*), syntactic errors, morphology errors as well as errors in the use of semantically-similar words (*latter /last*) recorded the highest number of errors, compared to errors on adjectives of quantity, possessive pronouns and adjectives of quality that recorded the least number of errors. The qualitative data showed that the errors made by the participants in this study were mostly morphological and errors on the formation of comparative degree adjectives. In this study, the errors were brought about by both inter-lingual and intra-lingual transfer. The study should be relevant for learners who should be advised to make brief summaries of grammatical rules governing the use of adjectives to improve their written and spoken English. It is also essential for learners to be conversant with grammatical rules governing the morphology of adjectives and encourage them to internalize and make use of them when they speak and write. Learners are also advised to familiarise themselves with adjective error they commit so that they can work towards the avoidance of such errors.

Key words: Adjectives, English Home Language, Error, Mixed Methods, Independent Schools, Random Sampling

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BICS	:	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CA	:	Curriculum Advisor
CAH	:	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CALP	:	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAPS	:	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CASS	:	Continuous Assessment
CT	:	Communicative Theory
DBE	:	Department of Basic Education
EA	:	Error Analysis
EFL	:	English First Language
EHL	:	English Home Language
ESL	:	English as a Second Language
FAL	:	First Additional Language
EFAL	:	English First Additional Language
FET	:	Further Education and Training
GIS	:	Geographic Information System
HL	:	Home Language L2 Second Language
EH	:	English Home Language
LoLT	:	Language of Learning and Teaching
L1	:	First Language
L2	:	Second Language
ELP	:	English Language Proficiency
SBA	:	School Based Assessment
TL	:	Target Language

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

In the Republic of South Africa, many independent schools offer English as a Home Language (Hofmeyr and Mccay, 2010). Home Language is the language that the learner first acquires, however, many schools in South Africa do not offer the home languages of some of the enrolled learners but rather one or two local languages are offered at Home Language level (CAPS, 2011) Consequently, the labels 'Home Language' and 'First Additional Language' denote the proficiency levels at which the language is offered and not to refer to the home language of the learners (CAPS, 2011). In the South African context, it is possible for a learner whose native language is Tshivenda, for instance, to learn English Home Language as a subject. Research dealing with the quality of performance in schools, revealed remarkably higher achievements in English, in the independent schools in comparison with the public schools. The 2001/02 HSRC research report affirmed that the quality of education in private schools, generally, was better than in government schools, particularly, in key subjects, such as English.

Learning of languages like English involves the learning of aspects, like word classes or part of speech, such as adjectives, verbs, nouns and conjunctions. Word classes are the essential building blocks in the learning of grammar and the construction of texts (CAPS, 2011). The knowledge of grammar is an essential tool as it equips language learners with the ability, not only to interact in the language but also to correct their own mistakes and improve their written and spoken language (Debata, 2013). Adjectives, hence, are a vital element of sentences. According to El Shaban (2017: 1), "They comprise a key lexical category in English, and they belong to an open set, which is characterized as one restricted indeterminably large membership" In the CAPS document, word classes dominate the list of language structures and conventions of which adjectives form a part, that learners need to be familiar with (CAPS, 2011).

English adjectives form a massive open category (Payne, 2010) and the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (2018) roughly estimates that they account for about 25% of the total

number of words forming part of the dictionary's entries (Marusic and Caustic, 2018). In isolation, some adjectives are not easily identifiable and according to El Shaban (2017),

“Not all words that are traditionally regarded as adjectives possess all the adjective characteristics since certain adjectives are more ‘adjective-like’ than others and these are prototypical adjectives. If speakers are asked to give examples of adjectives, they are likely to provide prototypical examples, which correspond to ‘central adjectives’ in Quirk *et al.*, (1985), such as ‘big’ and ‘happy’. They comprise the set, which has most, or all the properties which adjectives exhibit”.

Adjectives help speakers and writers provide details of persons or objects, therefore, without the use of adjectives it would be impossible to provide exact, unambiguous descriptions of objects. In order for English Home Language (HL) learners to be able to express themselves vividly and interestingly, they need proper knowledge of adjectives (Lutrin and Pincus, 2015: 26). In other words, adjectives are a vital part of speech, owing to the fact that they can turn any regular sentences into comprehensive ones by helping writers and speakers describe their situations and surroundings in greater detail. This connotes that in order for English Home Language (EHL) learners to attain a certain level of fluency and competence, they must be conversant with the use of different types of adjectives. They need to have a firm grasp on adjectives and their lexicology, in order to express themselves clearly and interestingly. Qualifying words such as “*impressive*,” “*beautiful*” and “*gorgeous*” are examples of English adjectives which help learners to better express their thoughts and feelings about the world around them as well as about people and different situations (Pincus and Lutrin, 2015). Understanding the use of adjectives and how they fit in sentences assist in making speaking, reading and writing interesting and accurate.

In terms of usage, the salient role played by adjectives in the English language focuses on the fact that they categorise events or objects or describe their qualities (Marza, 2011). Adjectives are referred to as words that describe or provide information on nouns as well as pronouns. They are usually easily recognisable in sentences, and they often describe or modify an object's size, colour and quantity (Mohammed, 2004). Adjectives are words

which describe characteristics or distinct attributes that are given to referents or the heads of adjective phrases. Adjectives can appear in attributive position. This means that they are capable of pre-modifying nouns, occurring between determiners (including *zero* article) and heads of a noun phrases, for example: *a beautiful dress*; *the neat exercisebook* and *lazy dog*. Adjectives can also freely function in predicative position. This denotes that an adjective can be used as a subject complement, for example, in the sentences, “*The bridegroom is handsome*” and “*They thought the bridegroom handsome*” (Curtis *et al*, 1998).

In the current Senior Phase Curriculum, adjectives, like other Language Structures and Conventions (LSCs), are blended within the time allotted for the four macro skills used in the language classroom (CAPS, 2011), although, there is also time allotted for learners to practise formally. The CAPS curriculum requires that LSCs must be taught using the contextual approach as other language skills are taught. Suffixes, which are components of adjectives are also listed as part of the list of LSCs (CAPS, 2011). Their mastery promotes the learning of derivational adjectives and their lexicology.

A plethora of researchers have carried out studies on adjective errors made by EFL students. Abaker (2017), for example, researched on the problems facing EFL students in identifying and using adjectives properly. The study was supported by a hypothesis to verify student competence in handling adjectives; the findings of the study revealed that the research participants lacked the competence to use adjectives properly. They were also not able to differentiate among adjectives, adverbs and some nouns. In addition, the majority of the EFL learners, as respondents, were not aware of the derivational process for forming adjectives.

Basso and Aydin (2011) carried out a study aimed at analysing the errors committed by advanced EFL writers when they used adjectives. One of their findings was that advanced EFL students misused possessive adjectives. Most of them also misused comparative adjectives by making sentences such as, “*She seems old and more happy*” and “*This is perhaps the most biggest threat to life*”

Rashid and Aydin (2004) investigated English and Chinese errors, in their use of adjectives. The errors in this study included adjectives in the comparative and superlative

forms. A possible explanation of errors of this nature, from the study, was ignorance of rule restrictions. It seemed that errors of this nature are made after the students had been introduced to some comparative and superlative irregular adjective forms, which cannot be inflected but have to be tagged with 'more' and 'most' to express the degree or extent of a noun or pronoun.

Another study was carried out by Singh, Ruzak and Singh (2017). The study focused on the wrong use of adjectives by EFL university students, in writing. The errors in this study included wrong application of adjectives. Students lacked the competence to use conventional rules constructing comparative forms of adjectives, such as "**dirty**" and "**pretty**" ending in "**y**", and the "**y**" has to be dropped and be replaced by an "**i**" before the ending is added. The findings of the above studies are a clear indication that the challenges in the use of adjectives by non-native English Home Language learners are not unique to South Africa but are commonplace in a myriad of countries.

The educational context in South Africa demands that Grade 7 learners be equipped with the ability to use adjectives, so that they can be proficient enough to express themselves well by writing error-free essays, not only in the examinations but in their daily verbal interactions. Grade 7 is the senior primary transitional phase just before high school; this stage serves a significant function of preparing learners for further studies. It is at Grade Seven level that the setting of the educational level has to be higher for learners in the primary school (CAPS, 2011).

English is one of South Africa's eleven official languages that are constitutionally recognised. It is the language that is offered by most South African schools as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) (Mabasa, 2012). English is at the heart of the national curriculum since all the other learning areas depend on it. The majority of the learners in the Republic of South Africa are indigenous students with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and whose mother tongues interfere with their learning of English. Monyai (2010) concurs with Mabasa (2012) by saying, "Indigenous South Africa L2 learners live in townships and African cultural villages and their home languages are native African languages. Limited English Proficiency (LEP) is a serious barrier that thwarts and frustrates the learners' true potential." Educators in South Africa are,

therefore, facing the challenge of ensuring that their learners' Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) in English are satisfactorily developed so as to optimise learning in other areas of the curriculum (Lehola, 2012).

Even though English is the native language for a mere 9,5% of the South African population, it is the dominant language of learning and teaching (LoLT) (Lehola, 2012: 32). Almost 80% of South Africa's Senior Phase learners use English as their language of instruction in the Senior Phase (Grade 7-9) (Zimmerman, 2011). Even in areas where there are isolated cases, of learners who speak English as their home language, (especially in African cultural villages and township schools), many SGBs still opt for English as their LoLT (Novasaria, Pascoe, and Kathard, 2011) from the Intermediate and Senior Phases, as well as in the later levels of education. In such a situation, learners face a serious problem of acquiring the language of instruction and concomitantly mastering the required reading and writing proficiency expected in English to meet the requirements of the curriculum. This scenario has brought about a legion of pedagogical challenges which eventually give rise to low literacy levels among many learners in South Africa.

The literacy problems confronting a plethora of South African Second language learners that are commonplace in many rural areas, are points of discussion in the whole of South Africa. Many teachers argue that the mother tongue is being abandoned as LoLT too early and that dependence on a foreign or the second language (which in most instances is English) is too early and may thwart its effectiveness as the medium of instruction (Prinsloo and Heugh, 2013).

The above description with reference to most schools in the Republic of South Africa is also true regarding the schools in Mopani District, where the present research is located. Most of the schools are located in rural areas, where outside the classrooms, learners communicate in their home languages, hence outside the classroom milieu or school environment, learners scarcely have any exposure to the English Language. This means the learners are introduced to and learn the English language outside its linguistic setting and cultural environment.

The aim of this study is to investigate the use of adjectives by Grade 7 English Home Language learners in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District. The purpose is not merely to examine the use of adjectives but also to identify, describe and evaluate the errors, in order to improve English Home Language pedagogy.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The learners' performance in the Language Structures and Conventions examination has been mediocre, for example, in 2018, only 51% of the candidates who sat for the paper in Man'ombe Circuit passed; a clear indication that all aspects of grammar need to be focused upon. The results of the 2017 and 2018 Grade Seven end of year examinations in Man'ombe Circuit were a clear indication that English Home Language is to the learners, one of the most challenging subjects to learn. The tasks on essay writing were dismally failed. In both years, Grade 7 learners wrote descriptive compositions that, naturally, involved the use of adjectives. Unfortunately, very low marks of 43% and 47% were the average marks for the essays in the two years, respectively. These reports are a clear testimony that non-native English Home Language learners have problems with the use of adjectives. A major problem was that the majority of the learners lacked the competence to use adjectives of various types to describe people and objects. In view of the fact that the learners experienced problems in their use of adjectives, this study was undertaken to investigate adjective errors committed by non-native English Home Language Learners in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District, Limpopo Province.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to present an analysis of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners with a focus on independent rural primary schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To attain the expressed aim, the following objectives were pursued:

- To identify types of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in independent schools in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District.
- To describe the adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in independent schools in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District.
- To evaluate the causes of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in independent schools, in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are types of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in independent schools in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District?
- What are the characteristics of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in independent schools in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District?
- What are the causes of adjective errors among Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in independent schools in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District?

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Before the researcher went into the field to collect data, the research proposal was sent to the Higher Degrees Committee. After the Higher Degrees Committee had gone through the research proposal and approved it, the proposal was then submitted to the University Office for Ethical Clearance, before data collection commenced. Ethics is concept that is concerned with morality and ethical guidelines; these are moral principles which make up the foundation, by assessing a researcher’s behaviour while conducting the research (Boeji, 2010). A researcher is required to respect the rights of the respondents and therefore adhere to recognized ethical considerations. In the current research, the researcher complied with the fundamental standards of research prescribed by Babbie (2007: 17), which are equitable selection, voluntary participation, right to privacy and minimization of risk to participants. The rights of the participants must be protected throughout the

research process (Pillay, 2011). Cresswell (2003) postulates that the integrity, desires, values and needs of the informants must be respected.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The use of adjectives by non-native English language learners has not yet been investigated by previous researchers in South Africa. In a legion of research studies and textbooks intended for teaching ESL all over the world, adjectives have received less attention than other parts of speech (El Shaban, 2017); this makes the use of adjectives in South Africa, a fertile ground for study by researchers. The study is significant in that it is expected to benefit English Home Language teachers, curriculum designers and learners by providing solutions to the challenges encountered by non-native English Home Language learners in their learning of adjectives. The aim is to use the solutions gained to improve pedagogy, especially, the learning and teaching of adjectives in the Senior Phase. The learners are anticipated will be enabled to identify errors in their use of adjectives, hence, combat their recurrence. English is the language of teaching and learning, in most South African schools, therefore, the ability to deal with such errors would improve the quality of learning and teaching in all subjects for which English is the LoLT. Learners writing and speaking competence would improve remarkably, as a result of this. Teachers would be able to identify and deal with challenges faced by learners in their learning of adjectives. If the study yields optimum results, it would improve learners' academic achievement in South African schools. The study is also crucial in that it will also assist English Teachers who need to improve their teaching skills through a better explanation of adjectives, by giving them some practical tips.

1.8 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

In dealing with the use of adjectives among English Home learners, it is imperative to begin with some clarification of key concepts. This is particularly necessary as there are some technical linguistic terms. Among the key terms to be clarified are –adjective, affix, collocation, derivational morpheme, error, grammar, morpheme, suffix, prefix, semantics, suffix, syntax and word classes.

1.8.1 Adjective

Adjectives are defined as words that modify nouns or pronouns or supply information about them. They are normally easily recognisable in sentences, and they usually, perform functions like, describe or modify sizes of objects, their colours or amount (Jarvie, 1993). Adjectives add ‘colour’ to sentences by describing or giving more information about words and phrases (Lutrin & Pincus, 2015)

1.8.2 Affix

An affix is a cluster of letters attached at the beginning or end of a word to transform its meaning. The prefix **dis-** in **discomfort** and the suffix **-full** in **beautiful** are both affixes (Hornby, 2015). Affixes are the smallest parts of words or word fragments that have a grammatical function or meaning, and there are two categories of affixes, namely, prefixes and suffixes. Affixes are morphemes that are added either at the beginning, middle or end of words (Donaldson, 2014).

1.8.3 Collocation

Collocation is the habitual co-occurrence of words like: rotten food, rancid butter.” Collocation is referred to as the combination of words that appear usually (Firth, 1957). Hornby (2015:279) defines collocation as “combination” in languages and they occur together very frequently (Hornby, 2015)

1.8.4 Derivational Morpheme

Derivational morphemes are the smallest parts of words which can transform words’ grammatical status and in the English language these can be prefixes, infixes or suffixes. The combination of these morphemes with root words transforms the grammatical status of the original word. A derivational morpheme often transforms the original word from one lexical category to another (Holmes, 2013) A typical example is the word **anger**, which is a noun, but changes to an adjective when the letter **e**, at the end of the word, is dropped and replaced by the bound morpheme **-ry**. The new word derived from the word **anger** is **angry**, which is an adjective. Derivational morphemes occur both at the beginning and at the end of words, and those which appear at the beginning of words are called **prefixes**

while the ones which appear at the end of words are called **suffixes**. Morphemes create semantic transformation by changing the grammatical status of words (Dockrell and Connelly, 2013).

1.8.5 Error

An error is a noticeable deviation from the correct grammatical usage of a language and usually reflects the inter-language competence of a learner (Brown, 2007; Hourani, 2008). Errors are systematic. In other words, they are likely to happen regularly and may not be recognised by the learner. This connotes that only a teacher or competent user of the language can locate them; the learner would not (Gass and Sellinger, 2008). A mistake is usage which is wrong, the person may be aware of that fact and is amenable to reason when corrected. It is an inconsistent deviation, which means, sometimes the learner gets it right but sometimes gets it wrong (Mungungu, 2010). Mistakes can be self-corrected but errors cannot. In other words, errors are likely to happen regularly and may not be recognised by the learner.

1.8.6 Grammar

Grammar can be referred to as the conventions in any language for working with words and combining them into sentences (Hornby, 2015). Wilcox (2004) defines grammar as a system of rules which enable the users of a language to communicate meaningfully by constructing meaningful words, phrases and sentences. Linguists use the term to refer to both morphology (the structure of words) and syntax (their arrangement in sentences) (Stork and Widdonson, 1974). In the context of the proposed study, grammar, specifically, refers to the morphology of adjectives, their arrangements and positions in sentences.

1.8.7 Morpheme

Morphemes are significant components of language. They are the smallest meaningful units that combine to form words (Kasumardhani, 2018: 18). They are a meaningful morphological unit that cannot be further divided, for example, **in**, **ing**, **ful** and **un**.

1.8.8 Prefix

Prefixes are morphemes which are added to the beginning of the root of the word, for instance, the **un-** in the word **unable** is a prefix (Holmes, 2013). A prefix, therefore, is a letter or group of letters attached to the front of a word to change its meaning, for instance **in-** in **incorrect** and **dis-** in **disappear** (Hornby, 2015).

1.8.9 Semantics

Semantics is the study of how meaning is expressed by elements of any language. These elements include meanings of words, phrases, sentences and texts (Holmes, 2000). Semantics refers to the meanings of words and phrases, hence, studies the nature of meaning and why particular utterances have the meanings they have (Hornby, 2015).

1.8.10 Suffix

Suffixes are morphemes attached at the ends of words (Donaldson, 2014). A suffix is a combination of letters attached to the end of a word to form another word, for example, **-ly** in **angrily** or **-ous** in **dangerous**.

1.8.11 Syntax

Hornby (2015: 1515) defines 'syntax' as, "the way that words and phrases are put together to form sentences in a language." The word 'syntax' is from the ancient Greek 'syntaxis', a verbal noun that literary refers to "arrangement or setting out together". Traditionally, it denotes the branch of grammar concerned with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranged to show connections of meaning between the parts (Donaldson, 2013). This implies that syntax is an essential factor in determining the meaning of a sentence. Speakers of human language use a variety of possible arrangements of the elements in sentences.

1.8.12 Word Classes

Word classes are defined in grammar as a category of words that show similar syntactic characteristics, especially, concerning inflections and distribution in sentences. Different word classes occupy different positions in sentences to ensure grammatical correctness

and meaning (Gardenfors, 2014). Adjectives are in the category of word classes and this study focuses on their nature and use in text creation.

1.9 SYNTHESIS OF STUDY

In view of the foregoing, non – native Grade 7 English Home Language learners need to be conversant with the use of adjectives so that they can be able to express themselves vividly in the exams and also in their daily lives. The data gathered by the researcher, from different sources indicates that English Second Language learners in different parts of the world exhibit various problems in their use of adjectives. A legion of learners at different levels of education, including those pursuing tertiary education, lack the competence to use adjectives intelligibly and vividly. It is hoped that the solutions gained in this study will improve pedagogy, especially the learning and teaching of adjectives in the Senior Phase.

1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The study is divided into five chapters aimed at presenting an analysis of adjective errors in selected Grade 7 English Home Language learners' work in independent schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District, Limpopo Province, South Africa. Below is the organization of the study.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

This chapter provided the background to the study, statement of the problem, aim of the study as well as the specific objectives of the study. In addition to that, it discussed significance of the study, definitions of key terms and an overview of whole study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will review the literature on adjectives and previous studies on adjective errors.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will discuss the research methodology, the research design and justifications for choosing them in this study.

CHAPTER 4: REPORT ON DATA COLLECTED

This chapter will present a report on the data collected and analysed.

CHAPTER 5: SYNTHESIS OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter will provide the synthesis of the study, draw conclusions and make recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter examined, *inter alia*, the background to the study, the aim of the study, research objectives, statement of the problem and significance of the study. This chapter discusses the selected literature relevant to the study, concerning adjective errors made by English Home Language learners, in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District. The chapter also distills the theoretical framework and discusses previous research on adjective errors

The centrality of a dissertation literature review cannot be overstated. It is a report that evaluates the studies found in the literature, related to a specific study area. The review should describe, summarise, evaluate and clarify this literature (Boote and Beile, 2005) and this implies that it must provide a theoretical foundation for the research and enable the researcher to establish the scope of the study. According to Gay and Mills (2012: 44), “The literature review gives the researcher an opportunity to identify any gaps that may exist in the body of literature and to provide a rationale for how the study contributes to the existing body of knowledge.” A literature review provides the researcher with answers to the research questions and make them an integral part of the guiding hypotheses that give the direction that the researcher might pursue (Haradhan, 2018).

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study adopts the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) and the Error Analysis Theory (EA) as its theoretical frameworks. Both theories attempt to facilitate second language learning.

2.2.1 The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)

The leading exponent of this theory is Robert Lado. Lado (1957) asserted that CA can predict learners’ errors and degrees of difficulty brought about by the dissimilarities between the mother tongue and the second language. It is a structuralism approach which

views language as a system of finite rules and structures; this approach facilitates a comparison of languages (Zaki, 2015). Language in this context is regarded as a hierarchy of sub-systems starting with phonology, morphology then syntax (Lado, 1957).

The CAH claims that errors made by ESL learners are mainly a result of the language transfer from the old habits of the mother tongue. According to Lado (1957: 2), “Individuals tend to transfer forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and repeatedly when attempting to grasp and understand the language as practised by its natives.” In other words, Lado (1957) implied that errors clearly indicate that challenges ESL students have with some forms of the target language; this would be explained by the habits of the native language which are transferred by learners to the target language. As the term ‘contrastive analyses indicate, this is a process of determining similarities and differences between languages systems.

According to the CAH, the errors and challenges that appear in written and spoken language of foreign language learners are a result of the influence of the native language. The differences between the structure of the second language and that of the mother tongue is expected to cause difficulties in mastery as well as performance errors. Comparative studies between the learners’ L1 and L2, thus, can be done to improve language learning and teaching at the phonological, vocabulary and grammatical levels (Dost, 2016). CAH is also based on presupposition that ESL learners are likely to transfer some forms of their first language to their second language utterances. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their mother tongue and culture (Lado, 1957: 2) The implication is that, features of the second language which are similar to the learners’ native language will not pose any problems to them, but those features that are different will be problematic. Most language teachers have always been aware of this concept, so it not a new phenomenon among them, however, Lado (1957) was the first researcher to advance a well substantiated theoretical framework and a systematic methodology for the contrastive study of languages. Lado used a “structuralistic” approach to describe languages and he compared and predicted learning challenges (Tripath, 2018).

The behaviourist theory of language learning played a significant role in influencing contrastive analysis and it was strongly believed that most of the errors made by L2 learners were a result of the interference of the learners' rules of the mother tongue (Jabeen, 2015). If there are similarities in the conventions of the two languages, then it was assumed there would be optimal learning of the target language, as learners would learn the language with ease; this was considered positive transfer. Differences in the conventions, however, made language learning problematic as was regarded as negative transfer (Ellis, 1997). Proponents of CAH subscribe to the fact that language learning is a process whereby learners form habits and as soon as this is done, it becomes difficult for the learner to master the rules of the target language (Jabeen, 2015). Ellis, (1997), asserts:

“In the context of learning a second language, the grammar programmed into the mind as the first language, will interfere with the smooth acquisition of the second language. The interference happens as a result of what is called proactive inhibition where the way in which previous learning inhibits the learning of new habits. An error is likely to arise in the second language because the learner will transfer the realization (sic) from the first into the second.”

Ellis (1997) adds that when the L2 learners perceive language difficulties, they will transfer skills from the L1 to the L2. In the process of transferring these skills, errors tend to occur in the L2 learning.

This view assumes that difficulties in acquiring the second language may be predicted and if gotten rid of might help the learning of the second language to be optimised. The CAH, seeks to predict and describe the patterns that might create learning problems by comparing systematically the target language and the culture to be learned with the learners' native language and culture (Lado, 1957). It was founded on the supposition that the main problems were caused by inter-lingual factors and that the differences between the mother tongue and the second language, once they have been identified could be minimised by giving learners practices which are meant to transform their linguistic behaviour at the appropriate points (Jansen van Ransenburg, 1983).

Both EA and the CAH sought to improve the learning of the target language by alleviating language learning difficulties. The proponents of both EA and CAH were mainly concerned

with the features of grammatical, lexical and syntactical forms of the second language, in this case, English. It is paramount to bear in mind that Error Analysis is an assessment tool while the Contrastive Analysis is a theory or hypothesis.

CAH was, however, unable to provide all the causes of second language errors since the process was perceived as a complex one and had a multiplicity of underlying processes that work with the learning of language. The main criticism was that inter-lingual interference from the mother tongue (L1) cannot be the sole reason for the commitment of errors by ESL learners (Al Khresheh, 2016).

- **Inter-lingual Transfer**

Inter-lingual transfers could be one of the sources of ESL errors (Nephawe, 2019). Such errors are common during the early stages of learning the target (Nurjanah, 2017). It can be brought about by the learners' knowledge of their mother tongue, which strongly influences the learning of L2, hence the initial level of learning the target language can be affected by inter-lingual transfer from the mother tongue resulting in the errors committed by ESL learners. Brown (2000) asserts that inter-lingual transfer occurs when sentences in the L2 exhibit interference that can be directly tracked down to the learners' mother tongue. When inter-lingual transfer takes place, it brings about both positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer occurs as a result of the similarities between the features of the learners' L1 and those of the L2.

English adjectives cannot be used in the plural form but in Arabic they can. So Arab ESL learners transfer knowledge from their mother tongue and pluralise English adjectives as in ***the deafs people*** instead of ***the deaf people***. Swanepoel (2010) also cites the influence of L1 on the learning of L2 as one of the causes of ESL learners' errors. Zawareh's (2012), and Kanyepi's (2015) research findings concurred with Swanepoel's (2010) results. Transfer errors are also called inter-lingual errors. Hourani (2008), maintains that inter-lingual errors are those which are brought about by one's mother tongue. Similarly, Corder (1971) explains that they are a result of the interference of the learners' first language habits (patterns, systems or rules); these prevent them, to some degree, from acquiring the patterns of the target language. Qaid and Ramamoorthy (2012) define inter-lingual errors as those errors that are caused by the interference of

the mother tongue. This is also confirmed by Gass and Selinker (2008) who postulate that negative transfer may lead to adjective errors among ESL learners, making the language very challenging to handle. For instance, learners may create sentences such as ***John is tallest than Peter*** instead of ***John is taller than Peter***. Such errors are caused by the fact that the morphology of the comparative and superlative adjectives used in the English language differs significantly from the one used by ESL learners in their native language. This explains why L2 learners become seriously challenged, therefore, tend to omit or add morphemes to adjectives unnecessarily. The behaviourist theory postulates that the learners' old habits affect the learning of new habits, either positively or negatively. It is, therefore, self-evident that the skills that are transferred from L1 to L2 do cause the learning of L2 to become difficult, as during such as transfers errors are likely to be committed.

- **Intra-lingual Transfer Errors**

Intra-lingual transfer is the other source of salient errors when L2 learners manufacture sentences using adjectives. In sharp contrast with the inter-lingual transfer, Brown (2000) postulates that the main source of L2 learners' errors is intra-lingual transfer. Intra-lingual errors can happen to the ESL students who are already conversant with the conventions of the L2. The errors made by some ESL students neither reflect the structure and conventions of the students' mother tongue nor those of the second language (Richards, 1974) As the learners try to make up a hypothesis about the language from inadequate information obtained during formal learning of the target, errors occur (Huang, 2013). Learners, therefore, may oversimplify the rules of a language due to limited contact with an L2, or try to deduce the rules behind the limited data which have been exposed to them.

Gass and Selinger (in Quad, Yahia and Ramamoorthy 2011) state that intra-lingual errors are those which are a result of defective or insufficient learning of L2, rather than from interference. Intra-lingual errors are those that are caused by the target language, and they are not influenced by the mother tongue (Quad *et al* 2011). Richards (2001) asserts that there are forms that the learners construct which neither reflect the structure of the native language nor the target language, but are hypotheses founded on insufficient

learning of L2. The student in this case, attempts to deduce rules behind the data that he/she has learnt, and may create generalisations that are neither similar to the mother language nor the second language (Hourani, 2008). As a result, the learners construct erroneous or ill-informed sentences by wrongly applying their knowledge of the L2 to new second language situations. Brown (1994:14) asserts that intra-lingual transfer can be described as negative transfer of forms within the second language, or in other words, the wrong generalization of conventions within the learner's L2.

- **Fossilisation**

Fossilisation can be described as the continued recurrence of errors in a student, remarkable improvement in other aspects of their language learning. In addition to that, fossilisation occurs when learners' grammatical development seems to be fossilized at a certain stage, and persistent grammatical errors including punctuation and ill-usage become ceaseless features of learners' spoken language (Nephawe, 2019). Nghikembua (2014) postulates that this is brought about by the influence of the language system of the L1 on the speech produced by learners. According to Selinger (1996b), fossilization refers to the stage whereby the learner develops a discontinuance of inter-language learning, thus ceasing to develop the inter-language, permanently. The assertion that is advanced here is that no adult can ever speak an L2 in such a way that s/he is not distinguishable from mother tongue speakers of that language. In some instances, a learner's grammatical development seems to cease at a certain stage and recurrence of certain types of utterances, in both grammar usage and pronunciation become permanent features of a learner's speech (Nephawe, 2019). This is called fossilization. It comprises the recurrence of errors in a learner's language, in spite of continuous input. This is what Gass and Schacter (1989) describe as the "stopping of progress" as even earned structured efforts by an instructor are usually futile. Even when there are changes, these might not lead the student anywhere as he or she always reverts to the old-fixed condition.

- **Simplification**

Siddhartan (2014) notes simplification as a reduction in the linguistic difficulty of a text, while still preserving the original message and meaning. It is made use of, sometimes, when messages are to be communicated with minimal language resources; topics for

simplification, for instance, may be, explaining the extending the rules of regular adjectives to irregular adjectives.

Learners sometimes deflated a complex set of grammar to a simpler set of rules or opt for easy forms and constructions instead of more difficult ones; when this occurs, it is called simplification (Nephawe,2019). Simplification, thus, takes place when the language that the learner is being exposed to is made simpler to use and to learn. Language that has been simplified can serve adouble purpose, due to the fact that both the person addressed, and the addresser can make use of it. This means, the addresser uses simplified language himself /herself so as to be comprehensible as possible to the addressee. Baby talk is an example of simplification, as also is “foreigner talk”, used sometimes by nativespeakers of a language in order to make communication simpler or even to make fun of foreigners’ speech (Ruschmann, 1980).

- **Inadequate Learning**

Inadequate learning is usually caused by under-differentiation and incomplete learning. According to Touchie (111986: 79), inadequate learning is caused by ignorance of rule restrictions or underdifferentiation and incomplete learning. An example is omission of the third person singular **s** as in: **He want**. In the context of this study, a goodexample would be wrong adjective order’For instance, **A red big car**. The adjective with a colour property should be placed closer to the head noun than the one with a size property (Dixon, 1977). For learners to develop such a realization, they need to learn the rule adequately.

- **Ignorance of rule restrictions**

Ignorance of rule restrictions can be defined asatype of transfer caused by using the rules that the students have already mastered in new contexts, inappropriately. It occurs when learners fail to observe the rules of the L2 that they had learned (James 1998:63). This is a form of transfer that is a result of participants’ lack of competence to abide by the rules or available structures in the target language. It involves applying of rules that the learners had grasped before to new contexts where they are inappropriate. According to Nephawe (2019), incomplete application of rules may involve the use of grammatical features, including sentence types. Essentially, the incomplete application of rules occurs when a

learner fails to adequately acquire certain structures necessary for production of acceptable sentences as in, ***Thomas is clever than Lillian.***

- **Hypothesising False Concept**

Errors of this nature come about as a result of the learners' flawed understanding of some distinctions in the second language. Such errors are often a result of poor gradation of teaching items, for instance: ****Mybrother is moretaller than Joseph***Such an error may be due to the belief that the periphrastic "more" is a marker of the comparative form and it can also be used with an adjective of one syllable (Nephawe,2019). Hypothesizing false concept refers to errors made by learners who seem to have developed wrong hypotheses about the target language (Bui Thi, 2010). As a consequence, L2 learners end up manufacturing ungrammatical sentences. According to Touchie (1986), hypothesizing false concepts can be brought about by erroneous assumptions from learners when, for example, they lack the ability to distinguish regular and irregular comparative and superlative adjectives as in ****Your essay is badder than mine.***

Bui Thi (2010) posits that false concepts whenhypothesisedresults in errors being made by learners who might have acquired wrong assumptions about the L2. It, therefore, results in the construction of ungrammatical sentences by ESL learners. False concept hypothesisingrefers to faulty rule learning at various levels. Sometimes, the learners cannot differentiate between ***too*** and ***very***, ***long*** and ***tall***, ***young*** and ***small*** and many other adjectives which appear to be confusing.

- **Incomplete application of rules**

Incomplete application of rules can be defined as the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the level of development of the rules necessary for the production of correct utterances (Nephawe, 2019: 18). This comes about when learners fail to adequately acquire a certain structure necessary for the production of correct sentences. It usually involves failure to acquire difficult forms of structures as learners assume that they can communicate effectively by using relatively easy conventions. This can become evident during a session where a teacher asks learners a lot of questions. The learner may constructincorrect utterances such as: ***Teacher: Is he themost handsome?***

Student: Yes, is he most handsome. Nephawe (2019) postulates that the incomplete application of rules is systematic difficulty for the student in the use of grammatical features, including adjectives and sentence types. Essentially, an incomplete application of rules features when a student lacks the competence to adequately develop certain structures, as in “**She is beautifullest girl in the class**”

- **Overuse**

Overuse takes place as a result of learners’ over-dependence on certain grammatically acceptable forms and they choose to use them instead of other known forms that might be available. Overuse can also be brought about by the avoidance of production of inadequate certain different structures (Ellis, 1994). For example, learners saying - ***Your book is colour what?** -when the correct version would have been, “**What colour is your book?**”

2.2.2 The Error Analysis Theory (EA)

The learning of language, just like any kind of human learning, subsumes the making of errors (Touchie, 1986). The chief exponent of the EA theory was Stephen Pit Corder, but a new direction for the hypothesis in the learning of language was given by Chomsky’s nativist theory (Jabeen, 2015) The nativist theory denies that the learning of language is just the process of forming habits and they assert that there is universal grammar and second language learners possess the ability to learn the rules of language. Corder (1973) points out that some of the learning approaches and strategies that L2 learners use are similar to those made by native language learners during the process of learning the mother tongue (Richards, 1974: 22).

Richards and Rodgers (2001) define error analysis as a process whereby second language errors are studied and analysed with the aim of investigating forms second language learners use. Error analysis compares learner English with English itself and the investigation of errors can be diagnostic and prognostic. The process is diagnostic since it can show the learners’ state of language at a specific time during the learning process and prognostic because it can provide course organisers with information that

helps them to reorient language learning materials, based on learners' current problems (Mungungu, 2010). Gass and Selinger (2001) contend that errors are red flags; that means they are warning signals that give evidence of the learners' level of mastery of the second language.

The EA seeks to examine learners' mastery of the target language through the analysis and description of learners' errors (Zaki, 2015). It mainly focuses on the actual errors that L2 learners commit (Al-Kresheh, 2015). Brown (1994:166) asserts that error analysis aims to study students' errors through observing, analysing, and classifying to show the nature of the system operating within the learners. In the same vein, Richards (1984: 96) postulates that error analysis may be executed in order to (a) find out how well someone knows a language (b) establish how an individual learns a language and, (c) get information on common hardships in language learning which help in teaching or for the preparation of teaching materials. Endorgan (2005) adds that error analysis is concerned with the performance of learners in terms of the cognitive processes they use in coding the input they get from the second language. According to Mungungu (2010: 28) an error is:

“The use of language in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as faulty or incompetent learning. Error refers to a systematic error of competence both covert and overt that deviates from the target language. An error is different from a mistake in the sense that a mistake is an inconsistent deviation, which sometimes the learner gets it right' and sometimes “the learner gets it wrong”

Richards (1984) states that a mistake is made by a learner when writing or speaking; this maybe caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or other aspects of performance.

EA is regarded as an analytical tool that learners can use in order to learn a second language. The outcome of error-based analysis of students' spoken language and written work, therefore, serves as an effective means of improving the language of students, as it gives them an insight into some errors that they make in their language (Khansir, 2013). This connotes that it is crucial that English teachers should be able to not only identify the errors made by learners, but also understand the linguistic reasons for their occurrence

and recurrence. Studying learners' errors could be the first step to providing L2 teachers with knowledge about learners' Language. Error analysis picks all the errors made that are peculiar to that group of people, but this, however, does not mean that people with different mother tongues do not have the same types of errors (Sobahle, 1986). Errors, according to Corder (1974), give the language teacher the opportunity to assess the teaching technique and come up with possible modifications in the syllabi and teaching methodology. He went on to assert that errors provide an indispensable data base in the study of learner language. In other words, errors are taken as inevitable in the development of second language learning and as a valuable aspect of learning.

Nzama (2014) postulates the following reasons for studying learner's language errors:

“...the pedagogical justification, namely that a good understanding of the nature of errors is necessary before a systematic means of eradicating them could be found, and the theoretical justification, which claims that the study of learners' errors is part of the systematic study of the learners' language which is necessary to an understanding of the process of second language acquisition.”

It is imperative to draw a clear distinction between errors and mistakes. Brown (1993:125) contends that mistakes and errors are often used interchangeably, regardless of the function each one of them play. According to Nephawe (2019), mistakes refer to a performance errors that may be random guesses or slips due to the learners' failure to utilise known systems correctly. This connotes those errors are inconsistent deviations occurring after learners have been exposed to a certain correct item, which they use inconsistently since they use different forms at different times. Hourani (2008) postulates that errors are salient deviations from the grammar of adult native speakers, showing the inter-language proficiency of the learner. Mistakes can be corrected by the learners themselves, but errors cannot. Errors are systematic and they tend to occur regularly and are often not recognised by the learner. They can only be located by a teacher or other professional, not the learner. Researchers like Kaplan (1966) and Nunan (2001: 87-92) have indicated that errors are systematic, and not random and many learners often commit the same kinds of errors at a certain level of language learning.

Kaplan and Nunan in Mungungu (2010) have noted that learner errors are systematic rather than random, and many learners tend to commit the same kinds of errors during a certain stage of language learning. It is, therefore, the responsibility of teachers to identify and make summaries of these habitually made errors and remind learners of such errors regularly.

EA cannot be effectively studied or understood without touching upon the theory of contrastive analysis. Error analysis was a response to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis which regarded inappropriate language knowledge transfers as the main cause of errors in second Language Learning. Applied EA, on the other hand, is concerned with organising remedial courses and preparing suitable materials and strategies founded on the findings of the theoretical Error Analysis. One of the major differences between CAH and EA is that the latter explores errors without focusing on their sources and reasons (Sideeg, 2002).

Corder (1981) maintains that the world is imperfect, hence, errors will occur in spite of teachers' efforts. Corder (1981:10-11) contends that students' errors are significant in three ways:

“First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and consequently what remains for him to learn. Secondly, they provide to the researcher evidence of what is learnt or acquired, what strategies and procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of language. Thirdly, (and in a sense this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself, because the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner can use in order to learn. The making of errors is the means by which the learner tests his hypothesis about the nature of language he is learning.”

An error analysis must be concerned with errors that are systematic misapplication of patterns which the learners have learnt about. Such errors tell us something about the learners' inter-language, or underlying language and the rules of the target language (Corder, 1967:10).

EA is a systematic or methodical way of analysing the errors made by learners. Errors must not always be seen in bad light, rather they should be seen as crucial aspects in the

process of learning a language. According to Corder (1974:125) there are five steps in any error analysis research:

1. Collecting samples of learner language
2. Identifying the errors
3. Describing the errors
4. Explaining the errors
5. Evaluating/ correcting errors

- **Collection of Samples of Learner Language**

In this stage, the researcher collects a well-defined sample of the students' language so that comprehensible statements can be made concerning the types of errors made by learners, under different circumstances.

- **Identification of Errors**

The researcher checks the consistency of the L2 students' performance. If a learner sometimes uses the correct form of a certain structure or rule and later on uses the wrong one, then it is a mistake and can be self-corrected, but if the learner always uses it incorrectly, then it is regarded as an error. Another way of identifying errors is to ask the learners to rectify their wrongly written or spoken language. If they fail, then the deviations are errors. Brown (2000), and Corder (1981), however, regard any deviation from what a native speaker of the language would produce, as an error.

- **Description of Errors**

Corder (1973) classifies ESL students' errors in terms of the differences between their utterance and the appropriate version. Based on that, errors can be categorised into four types: omission, selection, addition, or mis ordering of some elements.

- **Explanation of Errors**

Sanal (2007: 3) posits that the analyst must be conscious of the mechanism that causes each error category. Explaining the type of errors is an essential issue in SLA. Explaining

errors entails establishing their causes in order to explain why they were committed (Barkhuizen (2005: 62).

This study followed Corder's (1974) 5 steps in EA research to analyse the learner's compositions. The EA theory is relevant to this study since it helps researchers understand students' language as well as the reasons for the occurrence and recurrence of learners' errors. It also furnishes the researcher with clear guidelines on how to analyse second-language learners' errors. The Error Analysis Theory is used in conjunction with the CAH owing to the fact that it is not easy to understand EA without touching upon the notion of CAH. This study employed Corder's stages of EA research to collect, identify, describe, explain and evaluate adjective errors made by Grade 7 non-native speakers learning English Home Language.

In this study, the researcher will identify types of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 English Home Language learners, described them and evaluated the causes of the errors. Error Analysis (EA) plays a paramount role in investigating, identifying and describing ESL errors, as well as their sources (Al- Kresheh, 2015). In a nutshell, in second language acquisition, error analysis studies analyses the types and causes of learners' errors. It seeks to acquire information on common difficulties in language learning, in order to improve teaching and learning.

2.2.3 Importance of Errors

EA is carried out in the classroom in order to: (1) identify strategies which can be used in language learning; (2) identify the causes of students' errors and (3) obtain information on common challenges in language learning that can help in the making of learning materials.

Errors inform the teacher about how far towards goal attainment the learner has gone and what is left for him to learn (Corder, 1977). Errors furnish the teacher with feedback since they show how effective he is in his teaching style and what changes he needs to make to assist learners fare better. They enable the teacher to identify areas that need more attention and syllabus designers with essential significant data to indicate the items that are must be included or which ones are to be re-taught. Keshavarz (1997) asserts that an error-based analysis can provide the researcher with reliable results upon which

remedial materials can be prepared. Findings from error analysis improve language learning in numerous ways, however, only if the teacher is aware of them and can use them in the teaching process, correctly. The author continues that language teachers used to regard errors made by learners as problematic and undesirable, therefore, they aimed to prevent them from happening. Researchers in Applied Linguistics have come to perceive errors as proof of a creative process in language learning in which learners employ hypothesis testing and various strategies in learning the target language. Selinker (1969) claims that errors are not a nuisance to be eradicated but are important for language teachers since they help the teacher to gain a deeper understanding of how language is learnt. He also contends that errors are essential to the language learners as they enable them to engage in hypothesis testing.

Learning a second language is a step-by-step process and during this time errors or mistakes are to be expected. At this time of learning, errors are clear evidence that learning is going on (Corder 1967). He accentuated that errors, if studied systematically can give important insights into how a language is really learned by a second language learner.

Mungungu (2010: 30) cites Corder (1972) and indicates that errors are significant in three ways:

- (a) To the researchers, in that they tell them how far towards goal attainment the learners have gone, and as a result, what is left for them to learn.
- (b) They furnish the researchers with evidence on how language is learnt or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learners are making use of in their discovery of the language.
- (c) The making of errors can be regarded as a device learners use, in order to learn.

The current researcher is convinced that the learners' writing errors can be meaningfully used by teachers to plan appropriate remedial action and furnish learners with suitable learning aids and teaching materials in order to minimise the recurrence of such errors. Sithole (2014) postulates that the identification of the errors is significant because once

identified, language learners can, without the help of their teachers, keep on correcting their errors until they have sufficient knowledge of the rules of a second language.

Xie and Jiang in (Mungungu 2010: 32) give the following challenges of error analysis, among others:

“(i) Errors are recognised depending crucially on the analyst, who has to correctly interpret the learner’s intended meaning from the context. It is not easy to reach a correct decision of what the error is and what it is not.

(ii) There is the danger that too much attention can be paid to learners’ errors. For instance, in the classroom the teacher tends to be preoccupied with noticing errors to the extent that the correct utterances in the target language sometimes go unnoticed.”

The above stated advantages outweigh the drawbacks. Error analysis is a vital aspect of the learning of ESL and it is relevant to the current study of SLA learners’ errors made by non-native EHL learners.

Fries (1945) contends that teachers should use materials guided by a detailed description of learners’ native languages. Corder (1973) although he does not support the influence of mother tongue interference, asserts that similarities between the first language and the second language facilitate the incorporation of L2 items in the learners’ built-in syllabus. A further contribution of CAH is its ability to predict and diagnose the second language learners’ errors and guide tests designs for learners of common L1 or those of common language features. Lado (1957) supports that CAH can predict and describe patterns of learning difficulty, as well as errors that will be produced by the second language learner; in addition to predicting the power of errors and the time needed for them to be eliminated (James, 1980)

CAH promotes the setting of valid tests since it helps the teacher to make decisions on what to test and how to test them (James, 1980). L1 and L2 features which are similar can be neglected and more focus can be paid on the different features that pose more problems to the learner. In multiple choice questions, for instance, CAH can guide the teacher in formulating distracters since the best distracters are those that evoke the use of the mother tongue. CAH was also considered important in the selection of items to be

included in a course and for their sequencing. Items with similar features were first confirmed before difficult or different ones are further introduced to the learners (Zaki, 2015).

2.3 DEFINITION OF GRAMMAR

Wilcox (2004) contends that the word grammar refers to the underlying system of rules for the construction of meaning using language by forming words and sentences; and the process involves the combination of individual phonemes (sounds) to construct morphemes (the smallest units of meaning in a language), which may occur as separate words and combine with other morphemes to make up complete words". This implies that the arrangement of words must be done in a specific manner to construct sentences and words must be classified in accordance with their forms, for instance, nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Grammar refers to the rules of a language governing the sounds, words, sentences and other elements, as well as their combinations and interpretation. The word grammar also denotes the study of these abstract features (Wilcox, 2004) Grammar is a device for producing sentences of a language under an analysis. He adds that the grammar of a language generates all the grammatical sentences and none of the ungrammatical ones (Chomsky, 1957).

Hornby (2015) contends that grammar refers to, "the rules in a language for changing the form of words and joining them into sentences" Hirai (2010) describes grammar as a method of organising sentences and producing correct language. These definitions connote that grammar is an essential linguistic tool that enables speakers and writers to construct intelligible sentences and communicate their ideas, desires and emotions clearly and effectively. Both spoken utterances and written language, therefore, are assessed by how well they adhere to the grammatical rules of that language (CAPS, 2011). Thorne (1997) contends that grammar is the study of how language is organised which entails an analysis of language structures in order to find out the ways in which speakers and writers can communicate effectively in different situations and for a range of purposes. Grammar works at the sentence level and regulates the syntax or word orders that are acceptable in the language and it also operates at the sub-sentence level to regulate language aspects such as number, and person agreement between subject

and verb in sentences (Zhang, 2009). For Hornby (1987), grammar is the study and practice of the conventions by which words transform themselves and are put together into sentences. In other words, grammar is the way in which words transform themselves and combine to manufacture sentences (Harmer, 1987:1) Grammar is the study of the configuration of language. In grammar there are numerous features that must be learned, like vocabulary, translation, and structure (John, 2003: 18).

Grammar is categorised into two aspects, namely, morphology and syntax. James (1998) contends that traditionally grammar has been discussed with reference to morphology and syntax. Morphology is concerned with word structure, while syntax deals with structures greater than the word. These two categories have different functions and need different comprehension.

2.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF GRAMMAR

Mandlazi (2013) contends that grammar is the basic foundation through which language operates when it is used for communication purposes among humans. It is therefore of vital importance that when teachers teach grammar, they must not only guide learners to master grammatical forms and conventions but also train them to communicate in English. They must harness the actual communication situations that arise during lessons for meaningful language practice, and allow a lot of oral work. Learners commit adjective errors due to the fact that they do not use the rules of the components and elements of the second language (Ramelan, 1992). Grammar is one of the essential components of human language which learners must learn (Praninskas, 1980). Nasr (1988) explains that, it is essential and forms an integral part of any language. There is a plethora of syntactic and morphological rules.

Knowledge of grammatical conventions enables the learners to correct their own mistakes and improve both their written work and spoken language (Debata (2013). Kohli (1984) gives a beautiful illustration of the importance of teaching and learning grammar by saying, “Not knowing the grammar of a language is like being a driver who knows nothing about the working of the engine, while knowing the grammar of a language is like being a driver who knows not only driving but also the working of the machinery.” This illustration

is a clear testimony that it is next to impossible to learn a second language without understanding its grammar. Killic (2019: 9) point out that there is a huge correlation between the knowledge of the vocabulary and the grammar of a language and language learning achievement, especially, in the area of ESL acquisition. This, therefore, means that the knowledge of grammar enhances reading and listening comprehension skills. If anyone aspires to be able to use English language correctly and fluently, it is necessary for him to learn grammatical rules (Zhang, 2009). In a nutshell, grammar teaching is necessary in English language teaching.

Grammar is the backbone of English language learning because English as a second language is not acquired naturally, but actual teaching and structured learning are necessary (Nel and Muller, 2010). It is grammar teaching that enables ESL learners to be able to construct meaningful sentences since it helps them grasp syntactical rules that are fundamental in the production of correct language. If one really hopes to acquire and use any language correctly, intelligibly and effectively and be able to speak fluently, grammar learning is a necessity. Grammar enables the learners to use formal English appropriately and effectively. It enhances the learners' confidence in the production of written and spoken language (John, 2003). Learners who have adequately grasped the rules of grammar can learn the English language easily. They find the production of their written and spoken language grammatically very easy. It is because they can understand sentence patterns and the phenomenon of the language (Scott, 1976:121). Without an adequate understanding of grammar, learners would lack the necessary proficiency to do anything beyond uttering separate items of language for separate functions (Harmer, 1987:22).

The educational context in the Republic of South Africa demands Senior Phase English Home Language learners to be conversant with English grammar so that they can be proficient enough to express themselves clearly and accurately (CAPS, 2011). This equips them with fundamental skills which enable them to write error-free essays in the examinations in all subjects whose LoLT is English. Grammar is viewed as the most significant facet of learning for ESL students (Singh *et al.*, 2019). It is paramount for Senior Phase ESL learners to grasp the rules of grammar as English is used on a large scale in the Republic of South Africa, as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT). Grammar

is the backbone of language learning for second language learners. Most learners in South Africa face a language barrier in the classroom because they lack grammatical skills, and this impacts negatively on their academic achievement.

Parts of speech, of which adjectives form a part, are a very important aspect of grammar, as they are fundamental building blocks of language (Heilman, 2020). The lexical category to which a word belongs helps learners to know its use in a sentence and to determine the correct syntax and pronunciation. Understanding all the word classes is essential for analyses of word meanings. Learning the eight word classes or lexical categories enables learners to pick up grammatical problem in sentences, and see whether, for example, there is a run-on sentence, a pronoun that has been wrongly used or an error of concord. Knowledge of word classes or lexical categories is an important subject area that learners should possess (Khaisaeng and Nutprapha, 2017).

2.5 ADJECTIVES DEFINED

Adjectives are words which describe nouns and they belong to wordclasses. They are used for the purpose of describing, restricting, modifying, qualifying; for example, pointing out the living organisms or inanimate objects indicated by the noun or pronoun (Zerkina *et al.*, 2017: 5149). According to Dehham (2016) in Marusic and Katavic-Causic (2018)), in English, adjectives are in the lexical category which can be regarded as describing words. Marza (2011) affirms this by saying, “Adjectives are probably the most prototypical way to express the qualification of a noun”. Crystal (2004) defines an adjective as a word that qualifies a noun, which restricts the application of a noun by combining its meaning with something. Adjectives are, therefore, used to modify other words and they are also used to qualify, focus, limit, or extend the meaning of the words they modify. For instance, “He had **red** car.” The adjective **red** furnishes more information onto the meaning of the noun **car**. Colours are very common adjectives. With regard to function, their pivotal role in the English language is the fact that they are capable of categorising situations and events as well as entities or describing their qualities, which is the reason they are regarded as describing words (Marusic and Katavic-Causic, 2018). Adjectives are the most frequently used word class and are an essential tool for determining the status of a sentence, which can be merely objective or subjective features; therefore, they can reveal

much of the speaker/ writer's attitude towards the textual content. They can express physical and other qualities, such as opinion of the writer or attitude, origin, place, frequency, degree, necessity and degrees of certainty (Eastwood, 1994) Adjectives help the audience to find distinctive features of a subject from different vantage points, to provide a figurative and vivid description to communicate the estimation of personal attitude (Zerkina *et al.*, 2016). This connotes that adjectives refer to features which enable the audience to be cognisant of the essence of objective reality, form a mental image of the world and incorporate the later into linguistic signs with specific connotations.

Adjectives can function predicatively, attributively and postpositively (Payne, 2010) According to Quirk (1985) in Jitpranee (2017: 59), "adjectives are attributive when they pre-modify the head of a noun phrase; likewise, they are predicative when they function as subject complements or object complement". In their postpositive function, adjectives in a noun phrase immediately follow the noun or pronoun they modify, and these adjectives can be regarded as reduced relative clauses. Adjectives can take superlative or comparative endings (Jitpranee, 2017). The comparative form of an adjective shows the greater degree to which the normal form can be described while the superlative form indicates the maximum extent (Nim, 2016) Finally, adjectives can be used as a modifier of indefinite pronouns, thereby, coming after the pronoun (Dohham, 2016 in Marusic and Katavic-Causic 2018).

Adjectives can be used in the positive, comparative and superlative forms (Lutrin and Pincus, 2015). Lague and Maclay- Mayers (2015) explain that adjectives may be formed or recognised by the suffixes such as:

***-able-comfortable, -en - proven, -ble -convertible, -ant -constant, -ent -permanent-
ish - feverish, -aryordinary, -ful -hopeful, -ive - possessive***

Adjectives can be used to express emotions or feelings and examples are in the table below.

Table 2.1: List of adjectives which express emotion from Lutrin and Pincus (2015: 23)

Amazed	Angry	Annoyed	Anxious
Bashful	Delighted	Calm	Cheerful
Defeated	Embarrassed	Depressed	Devastated
Disgruntled	Frustrated	Envious	Excited
Foolish	Horrified	Gentle	Grumpy
Happy	Optimistic	Jealous	Jolly
Nervous	Scared	Pessimistic	Proud
Sad	Stupid	Unhappy	Shy

Adjectives have the same significance as the other content words in the linguistic code even though they have not been paid adequate attention, although, their significance is undeniable, particularly in some types of discourse (Marza, 2011:100; Tomuro, Kanzaki and Isahara, 2007). Furthermore, with reference to their use, their pivotal role in English is evidenced by the fact that they can classify events, or entities as well as describe their qualities which is the reason why they are regarded as describing words. Marza (2011) asserts that the most frequently used content words are adjectives and is an important facet for assessing a sentence, which can constitute merely objective or subjective features as they can show much of the speaker/writer's attitude towards the content of a text. Adjectives communicate physical and other qualities, writer's opinion or attitude, origin, place, frequency and levels of certainty, thereby, adding information to the nouns and enabling them to elaborate communication with attitude and mood (Eastwood, 1994: 259).

Another vital aspect of adjectives is gradeability, which means that they are capable of describing different quantities or degrees or qualities; this enables comparison or grading. They, therefore, take comparative or superlative forms, either through use of inflections (**-er** for comparative and **-est** for superlative) or through the qualification or addition of the modifiers **more** and **most**. They can unquestioningly display much of the interlocutor or writer's feelings, beliefs, hates, fears, desires and emotions. They can also clearly depict places, animals, plants and other objects by painting pictures, semantically.

Knowledge of adjectives is an essential component of language production and adjectives are a fundamental grammatical category for broadening learners' repertoire in communication beyond just naming to describing (Arunachalam, 2019). In order to describe something, adjectives are needed because using them means that the writer or speaker can express the quality of any person or object (Nim, 2016). Without adjectives, the writer or speaker would not be able to vividly describe an object. Adjectives can be used to draw clear pictures of people, objects and situations using words. They can depict the writer or interlocutor's desire, ideas, hates, fears, beliefs and hopes. They describe feelings and provide an object's or human being's characteristics, or nationality or origin, help provide a picture of age, size, value, measurement and colour. Adjectives also tell what something is made of and furnish the reader with information concerning shape and express judgement or a value. They enable learners to predict upcoming nouns in the speech stream and broaden their vocabulary (Tribushinina & Mak, 2016).

Adjectives answer certain questions such as - Which one? What kind? How many? and whose? – among others. Learners' mastery of adjectives helps them describe objects, animals and human beings, specifically. Using adjectives, one can count, compare, praise and criticise humans and objects, vividly and interestingly. They make utterances and written texts more vibrant, interesting and help the audience to picture the content. Teaching adjectives before teaching descriptive compositions should be mandatory as it enhances the learners' writing proficiency. The more knowledge about adjectives the learners have, the easier it is for them to develop their competence in writing descriptive texts (Upsala University, 2014).

Adjectives make written texts or speeches more visual and distinctive by adding information on number, size, colour, type, and other qualities pertaining to nouns and pronouns in sentences (Central Africa Correspondence College, 1999). If writers are to write sentences laden with detail, they must harness the power of adjectives for when adjectives are used skilfully they can make a speech or written text very interesting. Adjective used correctly and skilfully can arouse laughter, fear, anger, hatred or deep love, therefore, it goes without saying, that adjectives are a powerful instrument for communication.

Based on the foregoing, the current researcher concludes that the more knowledge about adjectives the learners acquire, the easier it will be for them to develop their speaking and writing proficiency.

2.6 FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES, TYPES AND THEIR IMPORTANCE

2.6.1 Adjectival Affixes

Adjectives are a lexical category with other words that can be built from different parts of speech. In principle, adjectives can be constructed from all other parts of speech, resulting from their role as modifiers of nouns (Dehham (2016). According to the author, they are derivational words from nouns, verbs and adjectives using affixations. Affixes play a central role in the formation of adjectives. Morphemes that form adjectives are called either prefixes, suffixes or zero. For example, the adjective **lovable** can be formed from the verb **love**, and the adjective **central** can be built from the noun **centre**. The process of using affixes to form words is called **affixation** and the affixes are added to morphemes whose role is to modify the meaning of the root (Fon, 2003). They are classified into three categories, depending on where they are positioned in connection with the root: prefixes attached before another morpheme and infixes (inserted within the morphemes) (Crystal, 2004). Prefixes are bound morphemes that appear before a root and they, normally, do not appear singly as free morphemes or directly before other affixes. In word formation, a prefix is productive when it contributes to the meaning of a word (the **un** in untrue having the meaning of **not** can be added freely to other roots or comparable words as in: **unsafe** and **unconquerable**).

The term “suffixation” can be referred to as the addition of suffixes that are bound morphemes which appear after a root. Hartman and Stork (1976) define a suffix as “an affix added to the end of a word” A good example is the suffix **ful** in the adjective **beautiful**. There are three types of adjectival suffixes, which are:

- -Suffixes used to derive adjectives from nouns, for instance **hair(noun) –hairy (adjective)**, **intention(noun)- intentional(adjective)**, **time(noun)- timely(adjective)**.

- -Suffixes used to derive adjectives from adjectives, for instance, **weak – weakly, correct- corrective, green- greenish, tall- taller**
- -Suffixes used to derive adjectives from verbs, for example, **read- readable, laugh-laughable, continue- continuos**

Adjectives can be formed from other lexical categories, such as verbs or nouns, and this for instance, can be done by adding **–ing** or **–ed** to the end of the verbs or nouns. Below are some common examples of adjectives made from verbs. Take note of the changes in spelling of some verbs when **–ed** and **–ing** are added.

Table 2.2: Adjectives Formed from Other Lexical Categories

According to League and Maclay- Mayers 2019:44, the following are some examples of adjectives formed from other word classes:

Amaze (verb)	Amazed(adjective)	Amazing(adjective)
Please (verb)	Pleased(adjective)	Pleasing(adjective)
Horror(noun)	Horrified (adjective)	Horrifying(adjective)
Terror (noun)	Terrified(adjective)	Terrifying (adjective)
Disappoint (verb)	Disappointed (adjective)	Disappointing(adjective)
Shock (noun)	Shocked (adjective)	Shocking (adjective)
Threat (noun)	Threatened (adjective)	Threatening (adjective)
Shock (verb)	Shocked (adjective)	Shocking (adjective)

The above Table shows adjectives that are derived from verbs and nouns. Other examples of such adjectives are formed by adding the affixes. Suffix can be used, for instance **–ent** as in **repellent**, **-ive** as in **repulsive**, **-ory** as in **migratory**, **–y** as in **runny** **and –able** as in **breakable** (Setyani, 2015). The author goes on to say that adjectives can also be derived from other adjectives, for instance **–ish** as in **pinkish**, **like** as in **red like**, **a-** as in **amoral**, **il-** as in **illegal** and **sub-** as in **sub- minimal**.

Urdoğan (1982) postulates that adjectival morphemes are bound morphemes, as opposed to free morphemes, which cannot stand by themselves but have to be attached to other forms. Adjectival affixes are morphemes that are added to other morphemes to

construct adjectives. It is important to note that adjectives can be formed from all other parts of speech, mainly, due to their noun-modifying role. They are formed from prefixes, suffixes, and zero (Leipzig, 1987: 204) Some adjectives can be recognised easily by their endings. Leech (1986) categorizes such endings into two categories: more common endings, such as 1 **-al, -ent, -ous, -ic, -ive** and **-able(-ible)** and less-common endings like, **-y, -ed,-en, -like, -ory**. There are varied classifications for suffixes forming adjectives, some of which are discussed below.

2.6.2 Suffixes forming adjectives

Suffixes forming adjectives can be categorised into groups, namely:

1. Suffixes used to derive adjectives from nouns
2. Suffixes used to derive adjectives from verbs
3. Suffixes used to derive adjectives from adjectives
4. Suffixes used to derive adjectives from nouns (Sharopov, 2019)

The following list of derivational suffixes is given by Utami (2015: 22):

- **-ful**

The suffix refers to being - full of or having a certain quality or characteristic. Below are some examples of words ending with **-ful**
beautiful, careful, truthful, careful

- **-ive / -ative**

The suffixes refer to - having the quality (nature, character), of having the tendency to. Examples are:

accumulate- accumulative

repeat- repetitive

talk- talkative

determine- determinative

- **-ent/ -ant**

It means - a kind of agent, characterised by. Some examples of words with the suffix are “dependent, insistent, correspondent”

- **-like**

The suffix means - similar to, having the characteristics of or in the manner of – as in, clocklike, prison-like, pillar-like

- **-ly**

This means, “like the manner, (nature or appearance) similar to – as in the examples:

queenly, motherly, orderly, princely, deadly

The suffix also means- happening at regular periods of, or recurring or repeated at an interval. Below are some examples:

hourly, yearly, monthly

- **-able, -ible.**

The suffix refers to, - showing qualities of, able to, or suitable to. The following are examples:

1. knowledgeable (well informed, having knowledge)
2. marriageable (of a young person, fit for marriage)
3. controllable
4. permissible
5. Treasonable (quality of treason)

- **-ish**

The suffix **-ish** means - belonging to. Below are some examples:

Swedish, Turkish, Danish, Jewish

It also means, - having the character of. Examples are:

foolish, selfish, slavish, wolfish

In some instances, it means - proper to the nature of or in the manner of. Below are some examples; boyish, girlish, childish, womanish, mannish

It can also mean ‘with the ages or times’

Dehnam (2016) gives the following list of some suffixes used to derive adjectives from as follows:

- The suffix “**-less**”

This means- **without**, free, and beyond the range of. Below are some examples of adjectives ending with the suffix **-less**:

careless, brainless, starless, useless

- **-y**

This suffix has a dual meaning:

1. Full of; covered with; or tending to. The following are some examples:

Filthy, wordy, watery, misty, bossy, thorny, rocky, foggy (Jespersen, 1965: 76)

2. Like, like that of, or fond of

a cold wintery day, a horsy person

- **-an/ -ian**

This suffix has three meanings:

1. A human being who or a thing which belongs to. Examples are:

American, Christian, Brazilian, Cuban (Long, 1961: 402)

2. Like, or like of – as in the example: Shakespearean novel.

3. An individual who belongs to the time of. Below are some examples:

Elizabethan, Georgian, Freudian, Mohammedan

- **-ary**

This means –of, or concerning or connected with – as in the examples, complementary, momentary, honorary

- **-en**

This suffix means - made from or resemble –as in the examples, wooden, woollen. silken, earthen (Fowler, 1958: 138)

- **-ese**

This suffix refers to -humans, places, languages that belong to (a country) –as in, Congolese, Senegalese, Togolese

- **-ic**

The suffix –**ic** means connected or involving with – as in:

Atomic Science, a scientific research, a historic event

- **-ory**

This suffix means - with the aim to. For instance:

explain- explanatory

prepare –preparatory

inflame- inflammatory

satisfy- satisfactory

introduce- introductory

- **-un**

The prefix refers to - the opposite of the word. For example:

Unsafe

Unable

unhappy

- **-non**

This suffix means **not**. Below are some examples:

non-existent, non-flammable, non-active, non-political

- **-in**

The suffix is used - to form the opposite of words. Below are some examples:

incorrect, indirect, inaccurate, inflexible

- **-dis**

The suffix is also used -to create the antonyms of words. For instance:

disobedient, discourage, disappear

2.6.3 Comparative and Superlative Adjectives

Other adjectives are formed when objects are compared and such adjectives are called comparisons. According to Miranda (2014: 19) "Comparison is used to contrast one thing or person with another and it is the method by which an adjective or adverb expresses a greater or less degree of the same quality. There are three degrees of comparison, as follows: the positive degree, the comparative degree and the superlative degree." The positive degree expresses the quality of a single person or object and it is just the adjective form. The positive degree serves the purpose of comparing two nouns or action words which are equal or almost equal (Imanuri,2019). The positive adjective is used when constructing sentences for the positive degree of comparison. The other function of the positive is to compare two nouns or verbs that are equal or almost equal. *For example,*

Linda is as tall as Peter.

The comparative degree is used to compare the quality of an individual or object with another person or object. For example.

Your table is bigger than mine.

The superlative degree stresses the highest extent of a quality of more than two things or people compared, for instance,

Mrs Brown is the tallest of the three women.

According to Al Maani (2016), the formations of comparative and superlative adjectives are processes which adhere to particular morphological conventions, which should be employed in order to form acceptable adjective form. A comparative refers to the form of an adjective or adverb that expresses more in amount, degree or quality (Hornby, 2010) For example, **better** is the comparative of **good** and **more difficult** is the comparative of **difficult**. Comparatives are used to distinguish between two persons, objects, or places, for the purpose of giving comparative information (Al- Maani, 2016).

Different forms of adjectives show degrees of comparison that the modifiers express. The three forms or degrees of adjectives are the positive, comparative and superlative (Little, 2002). The positive form describes individual objects, groups and actions, for example - His mother's feet were big. The house is beautiful.

Some adjectives are monosyllabic while others are polysyllabic. The comparative form is used to make a comparison between two different objects, For instance, "Mary is cleverer than Jane." (Samosir, 2017) The superlative degree is the form of an adjective or adverb that is used to express the highest degree of something, for example, **best**, **worst**, **slowest** and **most difficult**. The superlative form is used to make comparisonsofthree or more things, for example, "Mary is the cleverest girl in the class".

To provide the correct comparative form in monosyllabic adjectives, (-er) is added at the end of the adjective, for example **smaller**. In monosyllabic adjectives which consistsof a consonant, vowel and consonant form, the last consonant must be doubled and **-er** is added, as in "fat - fatter" (Al- Maani, 2016) In adjectives which end with (-y) the (-y) must be omitted (**-ier**) is added, as in " **funny**- funnier". In poly- syllabic adjectives, which consist

of more than two syllables, the adjective must be preceded by the word “**more**” as in “**expensive- more expensive**” and **beautiful- more beautiful**”

In comparative degree sentences, the word **more** is used as a comparative degree marker and precedes long adjectives, for instance, “The young man is more ignorant than his father” The word **most** is used as a superlative degree marker and it always collocates with long adjectives, for example, “The young man is the most ignorant person in his family”. Bazos and Aydin’s (2011) study found that ESL learners misused the comparative and superlative degree markers **more** and **most**, respectively. Singh, Singh and Ruzak’s (2017) study found that some of the research participants could not construct comparative and superlative adjectives.

Little (2002) gives two types of comparisons, and these are regular and irregular comparisons. Comparisons that form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding **-er** and **-est** are called regular adjectives, and those whose comparatives and superlatives are formed by using **more** and **most** respectively are called irregular adjectives. In one syllable and some two syllable adjectives, comparative and superlative forms are formed by adding **-er** or **-est**. In all three syllable and most two syllable adjectives, comparative and superlative adjectives are formed by using **more** or **most**. According to Little (2002), **well** can be used both as an adverb and as an adjective, after a linking verb. An irregular adjective is one which is not formed in a normal way.

2.6.4 Regular and irregular adjectives

Mohammad (2008) studied adjective errors made by students at the university of Sudan. The researcher gathered data from a test that covered eight aspects, in the use of adjectives, in order to examine the abilities of students in all applications of adjectives. Concerning the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, the study found that the students committed errors in 35% of the selected adjectives, which indicated that they had not mastered such areas on adjectives. The findings also indicated that the students’ errors occurred mostly in irregular adjectives and the multi-syllabic adjectives. The students employed the rules of **er/est** and **more/most** in situations which were inappropriate. They used the rules of regular and irregular adjectives interchangeably.

Mohammad (2008) maintains that these errors were caused by lack of proper classroom techniques and inadequate teaching materials provided. In addition, the study revealed that the students' errors were mainly comparative and superlative degree errors. The students indiscriminately added **-er** and **-est** to all adjectives which indicates that they generalized the use of the comparative and superlative degree markers.

Table 2.3: List of Regular Adjectives according to Little (2002:1187)

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Tall	Taller	Tallest
Poor	Poorer	Poorest
Younger	Younger	Youngest
Happy	Happiest	most handsome
small	Smaller	Smallest

Little (2002:1187)

Spelling changes must sometimes be made to form some superlative and comparative forms of adjectives for instance, **pretty- prettier (change -y to and add the ending)**, **thin – thinner** (the final consonant is doubled then the ending is added).

Some commonly used adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms as shown in the Table below, from Little (2002: 1187).

Table 2.4: Irregular Adjectives

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good	Better	Best
Bad	Worse	Worst
Far	Farther	Farthest
Little	Less	Least
Many	More	Most
Well	Better	Best
Much	More	Most

Little (2002: 1187)

Al-Maani (2016) examined how Jordanian EFL students use comparative and superlative adjectives. The findings revealed that university students' mastery of the rules was superior to that of tenth graders. The data were gathered from two groups of Jordanian EFL students - 30 GradeTen learners and 30 second-year university students. Each group comprised 15 males and 15 females. The respondents completed a questionnaire of 20 sentences which covered the regular rules for forming the comparative and the superlative forms. The overall performance of both groups was better with monosyllabic adjectives; however, when adjectives are polysyllabic, students' performance became remarkably worse. On the other hand, there were slight differences in favour of females in terms of the variable, gender of the respondents. The research instrument used, a questionnaire of 20 sentences, was too short to cover enough ground and yield credible results, although the results of the study cannot be nullified completely. Some valid conclusions and recommendations can still be drawn from the research.

Pu and He (2016) conducted a corpus-based study on the comparative degree errors in English writing made by Chinese EFL learners. They identified seven types of comparative degree errors in English. One of the errors was the use of the word "than" with positive adjectives, for instance, "dirty than, powerful than." Another error was the over-use of the word *more*, in short adjectives whose comparatives are formed by adding *-er*. For example, "Mealie-meal is more cheaper than flour" instead of "Mealie-meal is cheaper than flour" and "Laptops are more better than desktops" instead of "Laptops are better than desktops" The researchers concluded that the errors made by Chinese high school students mainly resulted from the influence of the mother tongue. The methodology that was used to collect data in this research project was not stated. The results of the project, however, can still be considered as some English Home language students make the errors that were similar to those made by the Chinese research participants.

Mohammad (2008) carried out a study to investigate the errors, in the EFL writings of Sudanese university students in an attempt to determine their abilities in all aspects of adjectives. Concerning the comparative and superlative degree, the errors committed by the students indicated that they lacked the competence to use adjectives in this manner. The findings also revealed that learners lacked the competence to use irregular adjectives and multi-syllable adjectives. The research participants used *der/est*, *more/most*

inappropriately. They used the rules of regular and irregular adjectives interchangeably. Ibrahim (cited in Mohammad 2008: 68) carried out a similar research and it revealed that the adjective errors the students made were mostly in the use of comparisons. EFL learners generalised the rule by using **-erandest** indiscriminately.

Kacani (2014) investigated the common grammatical errors committed by Albanian EFL students and the study revealed that ESL learners erroneously used comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. The results showed that the participants used forms such as: This is **more better**/ more **good than**/ the **most cleverest**/ work more harder, instead of, "**This is better than----/ the cleverest**. The researcher concluded the errors were a result of mother-tongue influence.

2.6.5 Possessive Adjectives

According to Azar & Hagen (1992), possessive adjectives are followed immediately by nouns and they do not stand singly. Possessive adjectives are used to indicate ownership by modifying the nouns, for example:

She brings **her** wallet.

Possessive adjectives are also used to modify gerund, for example:

We were surprised at her going on trip (Subandowo, 2015).

Possessive adjectives (**my, your, his, her, its, our, their**) are exactly the same as possessive pronouns. They are, however used as adjectives, therefore, they modify nouns or a noun phrase, as in the following sentences:

- *My house is the biggest one.*
- *The city is my home town.*
- *Your letter was sent yesterday*

A possessive adjective (my, your, his, her, its, our, their) is the same as possessive pronouns, however, the former are used as adjectives and they modify nouns or noun phrases, as in the following sentence:

I do not have my pen, so I will not write the letter.

In the above sentence, the possessive adjective **my** has been used to modify **pen** and the noun phrase **my pen** functions as an object. Possessive adjectives are also called “possessive determiners” that modify nouns by attributing possession to someone or something (Krohn, 1990). Possessive adjectives are used to describe nouns, and they come before them, just like other adjectives (**your, his, her, its and my**). Possessive adjectives are used to show possession or ownership and they need to agree with the possessor and not with the person or object that is possessed. Possessive adjectives are used in front of nouns.

Subandowo (2015) investigated students’ wrong pronoun usage in simple sentences. Most of the errors committed by the learners were errors in the use of possessive adjectives (**your, his, her, its and my**); these are used to show possession or ownership. The sampling technique used in the research was purposive sampling. To check the validity of the result, the researcher used primary data and triangulation - a questionnaire for the students and an interview for the teacher. The errors were attributed to lack of classroom technique; hence, the errors were caused by intra-lingual interference.

There are two categories of possessive adjectives, namely, singular possessive adjectives (**my, your, her, his, it’s**) and plural possessive adjective which are used to show possession or ownership. The possessive adjective needs to agree with the possessor and not with the person or object that is possessed.

Lestari (2015) conducted a research project aimed at analysing the use of possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives in descriptive texts by eighth-grade EFL students. The study recorded four types of errors - omission, addition, substitution and mis-ordering. The most dominant type of errors that the students committed were those of substitution; the causes of possessive pronoun and possessive adjective errors were inter-lingual interference of the learners’ L1 and intra-lingual transfer caused by false concept hypothesized. Sabandowo (2015) investigated students’ wrong possessive adjective usage and his study found that some of the errors committed by ESL learners were from the use of possessive adjectives.

2.6.6. *Proper Adjectives and Nouns Used as Adjectives*

Proper adjectives are formed and derived from proper nouns (Imanuri, 2019), and they always begin with capital letters. Below are some examples of proper adjectives:

1. He joined the British army.
2. He was a Portuguese sailor.
3. He met a Zambian minister.
4. They are American soldiers.

In English it is possible to use common nouns as adjectives; they do not begin with capital letters, and below are some examples:

- security council
- Head delegate
- press conference
- state budget
- world news (Dahami, 2013)

It is important to realise that if the position of the adjective, noun and qualified noun changes, the meaning of the adjective changes as well. For instance:

- girls high school (it means a high school for girls)
- high school girls (it means girls going to high school)

2.6.7 Emphasising Adjectives

According to Dahami (2013), emphasising adjectives are determiners and they are different from ordinary adjectives that are used to describe a property of the main noun; they are used to convey strong feelings from the speaker. **Own** and **very** are used as emphasising adjectives, as in the following sentences:

1. This is the **very** thing we want.
2. He is his **own** master.

3. I saw it with my **own** eyes.
4. Mind your **own** business.

2.6.8 Demonstrative Adjectives

A demonstrative adjective is a word that shows the position of an object, and it is followed by a noun or noun phrase (Imanuri, 2019). It uses the words **this**, **these**, **that** and **those**, for instance:

1. I like this flower.
2. I do not know that gentleman.

Frank (1972:21) asserts that demonstrative pronouns are the same as the adjectives- **this**, **that**, **these**, **those**. The demonstrative pronoun takes the place of a noun phrase and is always followed by a noun. **These** represents something **close by** and **those** represents something **farther away**. The difference lies in the sentence structure. Dahami (2013) postulates that **this** and **that** are used with singular nouns while **these** and **those** are used with plural ones, and they answer the questions "Which one?" The following are some examples of demonstrative adjectives:

1. Put **this** cup on **that** table.
2. **This** boy is harder than Paul.
3. **That** gentleman is hard-working.
4. I like **such** quiet places.

According to Imanuri (2019), Demonstrative adjectives modify nouns based on their positions and show whether the noun is singular or plural. **This** and **that** indicate the position of singular nouns while **these** and **those** indicate the position of plural nouns. **This** and **these** are near demonstratives as they indicate the position of objects that are near the speaker while **that** and **those** are far demonstratives since they indicate the position of distant objects. Kennison *et al.*, (1998) carried out a study on errors made by ESL learners and the study found that the participants did not conform to the rules of using demonstrative pronouns.

Paturusi (2011) carried out a study to find out the difficulties encountered by second year level of SMP AyisyiyahSugguminasa students in using demonstrative pronouns. The researcher employed the quantitative approach as the method of analysing data. The researcher used an objective test and a questionnaire to collect data. The sample of this study was second-year students of the academic year, 2014/2015. The result of the research showed that the students exhibited difficulties in using demonstrative pronouns. The research concluded that the majority of the students had problems in using the demonstrative adjective **those** and the difficulties were brought about by the fact that the students had never learned about them before.

2.6.9 Definite and Indefinite Articles as Adjectives

An article error can be referred to as the use of a wrong article or not using an article when it is required as defined by the report “19 Article Error Categories” by Richards (1971). Richards (1992:21) defines an article as “a word which is used with a noun and which shows whether the noun belongs to something definite or something indefinite” Warriner and Graham (1977) define articles as demonstrative adjectives that precede and modify nouns. In English there is the definite article (**the**) and the indefinite article (**a/an**). Hall (2012) contends that there are three kinds of articles, the definite article, **the**, the indefinite article, **a**, and the **zero** article. According to Hall (2012), articles are not easy to hear and are very difficult to use correctly. In many instances, however, flawed use does not interfere with the meaning of an utterance and the indefinite and definite article are sometimes interchangeably used with the zero article.

English articles are one of the most difficult problems for ESL learners, especially those whose mother tongue does not have articles (Nopjirapong (2011)). The indefinite articles **a** and **an**, grammatically, are the same. They are singular indefinite articles that refer to one out of many and they are used with singular nouns that are countable. The article precedes a noun that begin with a consonant or a consonant sound such as **a book**, **a tree** and **a user** while the article **an** precedes a noun beginning with a vowel or vowel sound such as **an aeroplane**, **an orange**, and **an apple**. The article **a** is sometimes used with the quantifiers **little** and **few**. Nouns sometimes also take the definite article **the**. **The** is used with specific singular and plural countable nouns and with uncountable nouns.

Most proper nouns are used with no article. The article **the** is used before specific nouns for instance, “Sally shut **the** window and locked it.” The word **window** clearly refers to one specific window that is known to the reader and this window is preceded by **the**. The plural of the word **window** can also be used with **the** in the following example:

Tom closed the windows.

The can also be used when one is thinking of a particular object. Compare **a/an** and **the** in the following sentences:

- Bob slept on a bed
- Bob slept on the bed in the bedroom. (a specific bed)
- Francis is sharpening a pencil. (not a specific pen)
- Is Francis sharpening the pen? (a specific pen)

The definite article **the** is used when the thing is clear and in a situation a specific thing or person is being referred to. For instance, at home people talk about **the toilet, the wall, the roof, the door and the chairs**.

Errors occur when an article is omitted, when an unnecessary article is included, and when the wrong article is used, that is, when an indefinite article is used and vice versa. Some common examples made by ESL learners are:

1. *I bought a bread
2. *I will buy a orange

Richards (1971: 187) categorised article errors as follows:

1. Omission of **the**
 - (a) Before unique nouns
 - (b) Before nouns of nationality
 - (c) Before nouns made particular in contexts
 - (d) Before a noun modified by a participle
 - (e) Before superlatives
 - (f) Before a noun modified by an of–phrase

2. **The** used in place of zero article
 - (a) Before proper nouns
 - (b) Before abstract nouns
 - (c) Before nouns behaving like abstract nouns
 - (d) Before plural nouns
3. **A** used instead of **the**
 - (a) Before superlatives
 - (b) Before unique nouns
4. Instead of zero article
 - (a) Before a plural noun
 - (b) Before uncountable nouns
 - (c) Before an adjective
5. Omission of **a** before class nouns defined by an adjective.

Thu and Huong (2005) provides a summary of all the error types from English articles committed by L2 learners around the world. The errors are as follows:

- Omission of **a/an/the/s**
 - *Put pen [**a/the** pen] on table
 - *He is in difficult [a difficult] position
 - *She have three book(s)
- Wrong use of **a/the/-s**
 - *It was **a/ the** very hard work
 - *He works in the Kimberly
 - *He ate **abigapples**[apple]
- Confusion of **a/the/-s**
 - *That is [the] house I was telling you about (When referring to a specific occasion)
 - *The metres are the units [metre is a unit] of length (in a general context)

Sawalmeh (2013) investigated errors in a corpus of 32 compositions written by Arabic-speaking Saudi learners of English. All the respondents were male students who had graduated from secondary schools and joined the preparatory year programme at the University of Hail. The errors committed were identified and categorised into different

types. The findings of the research revealed that the majority of the errors committed by the learners were over articles. Harb (2014) carried out a research on grammatical errors committed by ESL learners and his study found that the learners made errors in the use of articles and they were result of interference of their mother tongue. The errors were also caused by an incomplete understanding of how definite and indefinite articles are used. Leonard and Robert (2011) carried out a similar study and the findings showed that the article errors were a result of inadequate understanding of how the English article system works.

Geranpayeh (2002), carried out a study to investigate errors committed by native speakers of Persian languages and he found that English articles posed untold difficulties for most people who are non-native English speakers. A learner's first language (L1) may have some influence on the learning of the target language. Kim (2006) asserts that Korean noun phrases appear in a bare form without markers, whereas English noun phrases can have an article as a marker. This causes Korean students to erroneously omit articles in front of noun phrase.

Another study was carried out by Bataineh (2005), who counted errors in writing samples by some students in a Jordanian university. The results showed that some of the participants deleted needed indefinite articles; others used the indefinite articles with marked and unmarked plurals (hypercorrection); some used indefinite articles with uncountable nouns, and others used the indefinite article with adjectives (overgeneralisation)

2.6.10 Descriptive Adjective Errors

Descriptive adjective errors are made by learners when they fail to use adjectives which qualify people, animals, things or places, in order to describe their features, for example, "The *rich* man lives in the big house." Descriptive adjectives are used to describe or tell what kind of noun a word is (Octafia, 2020).

2.6.11 Proper Adjective Errors

Proper adjectives are those that modify nouns in terms of nationality and they always begin with capital letters. Such adjectives are derived from proper nouns such as China, Mugabe, Britain; examples of proper adjectives are the **British** army, the **Mugabe** regime the **Chinese** border. Abaker's (2017) study found that the learners lacked the ability to differentiate between proper adjectives, adverbs and nouns.

2.6.12 Quantitative Adjective Errors

Quantitative adjectives are used to show how much of a thing is being referred to, for instance, "He ate **much** rice at school; examples of quantitative adjectives are **many**, **much**, **few**, **little** and **much**. Baga (2020) carried out a research project to analyse the expression of quantity in structure and grammar subjects at third semester of teaching at English Education Department of IAN Metro. The students lacked the competence to express quantity using adjectives of quantity, as the learners used the different adjectives of quantity with countable and uncountable nouns, indiscriminately. For instance, they would say: The lady bought **many** cooking oil. In other words, they failed to use adjectives of quantity to explain **how many** or **how much** of something there was. A countable noun refers to a noun denoting people or objects that can be counted; they refer to nouns which are preceded by the articles 'a' and 'an', for example **a book**, **a man**, **a banana**. Uncountable nouns are names of things that cannot be counted, for instance **water**, **soil**, **diesel** and **bread**.

2.6.13 Distributive Adjectives

Distributive adjectives are adjectives which modify nouns by dividing or separating objects into different parts. Some examples of distributive adjectives are **each** and **every**, for instance as in the example, "**Every** soldier is ready for the battle". The following are some examples in which distributive adjectives have been used:

1. **Each** learner has his own atlas
2. **Every** member of the party has a card.

3. **Each** girl must take her turn.
4. **Either** Moses or Tom will go to town.

2.6.14 Syntactic Errors (Order of Adjectives)

Abubaker, Hassan and Yussof's (2017) findings in a study revealed that the research participants sequence the adjectives wrongly and that the participants' native language influenced their adjective position and order in their sentences.

2.6.15 Nouns Used as Adjectives

According to Dahami (2013) in English, some nouns can function as adjectives. Below are some examples of nouns which are used as adjectives:

- School prefect
- Chief priest
- Army commander
- Life president
- World channel

It is important to realise that if the position of the adjective noun and the qualified noun changes the meaning of the adjective also changes as in the following examples.

- school boy (it means a boy who goes to school)
- boy school (a school for boys)

The relationship between adjective order and semantics is one which raises many challenging questions (McNally & Kennedy, 2008), due to the fact that in English adjectives have a broader range of flexibility in terms of order when compared to other syntactic categories for instance, sentence structure. Consequently, the order of adjectives is characterised by semantic properties (Svenonius, 2007) The examples in (1) and (2) below demonstrate that while both sentences have the adjectives before the noun, a native English speaker's intuition would say that (2) is wrong.

1. A big green bus
2. A green big bus

Dixon (1977) contends that the adjective with a colour property must be located closer to the head noun than the adjective which has got a size property.

2.6.16 Compound Adjectives

Patrova (2008) contends that compound adjectives are regarded as complex lexical items which can be broken down into two or more separate word forms and which can operate as independent linguistic entities. Such complex lexical items function grammatically and semantically as adjectives; therefore, they modify nouns, can be gradable and normally have simple primary stress. Adams (1973) postulates that a compound word is one that is understood to be the result of the (fixed) combination of two free morphemes, or words whose existence have otherwise been independent. Plag (2003) says that a compound is a word that comprises two elements, the first of which is either a root or a word. Compound adjectives have the ability to significantly shorten sentences in which they appear and as a result, they make such sentences and whole texts more semantically reduced. Compound adjectives give extra information and writers try to use compound adjectives to make their expressions meaningful and make the reader acquire better understanding.

Dehham (2014) carried out a study on the performance of Iraqi ESL learners in their use of compound adjectives. The study aimed to examine the errors that EFL learners commit in their use of compound adjectives. The study found that Iraqi EFL university students lacked the competence to use compound adjectives. The participants could not recognize nor produce compound adjectives and the learners' errors were attributed to both intra-lingual and inter-lingual transfer.

2.6.17 Morphological Errors

Morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of words (Kusumawati, 2015). It is the study of morphemes, which are the smallest units of

grammar (Todd, 1987). Morphological errors are those produced or committed when the morphological aspect of grammar is blemished, or wrongly informed. Morphology is the structure of words; it is the relation on how words are formed and fit together. This implies that morphology is also the study of adjectives and how they are constructed. If adjectival rules are misapplied by ESL learners, this denotes that they have made morphological errors, although they may have previous knowledge of the rules.

Imam's (2016) research study focused on morphological errors committed by Grade 11 ESL learners, in writing narrative compositions. Thirty-nine Grade 11 students participated in the research study. A morphological error is a part of grammatical error since it is a failure to follow the norms or rules of word classes. A significant number of learners committed adjective morphology errors. The researcher believes that students' L1 interferes with their L2 in their second language learning. Singh, Ruzak and Singh (2017) carried out a research study that focused on the wrong use of adjectives by ESL learners. The results showed that students mainly committed morphological errors. They could not use the conventional rules for constructing correct comparative forms of adjectives such as **hungry** and **angry** which end in "y" and they must be dropped before the ending is added. This error was a result of ignorance of rule restrictions.

El Shaban (2017) carried out a study to investigate the difficulties encountered by Libyan ESL learners in their use of adjectives. The main study was aimed at investigating the types of errors intermediate and advanced Libyan learners encountered in their use of English adjectives, using error analysis. This approach provides actually attested problems rather than hypothetical ones and revealed some common morphological errors that were made by Arab learners.

Imam and Palembang (2015) investigated morphological errors in narrative writing of Grade Eleven ESL students. The learners made numerous morphological errors, which included adjective morphology errors.

2.6.18 Global and Local Errors

Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguish between local and global errors. Local errors are those that do not hamper the intelligibility or understanding of the meaning of an

utterance. Global errors, on the other hand, are worse than local errors since they bring about incomprehension and disrupt the meanings of texts. Local errors comprise the use of articles and inflections, whereas, global errors, for instance, involve the use of word order in sentences. Hendrickson (2006), states that global errors are also called “communicative errors”, while local errors can also be referred to as “linguistic errors”. Hendrickson’s (2006) study on the most frequent communicative and linguistic errors revealed that most global errors were a result of, inter alia, insufficient lexical knowledge. Most local errors were caused by, inter alia, inappropriate lexical choice and faulty word order.

According to Gan (2014), the following three features are commonly considered characteristics of adjectives:

- (a) Morphological characteristics - they can be inflected into comparative and superlative forms
- (b) Syntactic characteristics- they can serve attributive and predicative syntactic roles as well as post modifiers, noun phrase heads, close linkers, free modifiers and exclamations.
- (c) Semantic characteristics – they are descriptive, gradable and can be modified by adverbs of degree such as “very”.

Adjectives that have all these characteristics are central adjectives while those containing fewer characteristics are peripheral (Gan, 2014). Adjectives denoting colour, size, dimension, as well as of age and quality are central adjectives, such as **red** and **black**, **big** and **short** as well as **old** and **bad**. Peripheral adjectives can usually either occur as attributives or predicatives or they cannot be inflected without the help of **more** and **most**, for instance, **alive** and **alone** as well as **unbelievable** and **extraordinary**.

An adjective is referred to as a predicative adjective when functioning as subject complement or object complement, as in “What he said was **ridiculous**” and when an adjective is used in a noun phrase, modifying the head, it is then called an attributive adjective, as in “The **stolen** car was taken a mile away” (Biber, Conrad and Leech, 2002). Adjectives have been classified in a multiplicity of ways - depending on the criteria

adopted, based on morphological, functional, syntactic, pragmatic or semantic criteria or even based on a combination of some of these.

2.6.19 Coordinate Adjectives

Coordinate adjectives are demarcated by commas or the word **and** so they appear one after another to modify the same noun (Saragih, 2020). The adjectives in the phrase **hot, summer** day and **long** and **boring** speech are coordinate adjectives. In phrases which have more than two coordinate adjectives, the word **and** is always used before the last one; for instance: The letter had **small, faint,** and **dull** font.

2.6.20 Exclamatory adjectives

These are adjectives which modify nouns by using interjections, for example, **what** a man he is!

2.6.21 Indefinite adjectives

Like the articles **a** and **an**, indefinite adjectives are used to discuss non-specific things. They are easily recognizable because they are constructed from indefinite pronouns. The commonest indefinite adjectives are **any, many, no, several,** and **few** (Saragih, 2020).

Did you buy **any** food?

Thomas had been working for **many** months.

There are **no** people in the room.

I have covered a **few** books.

2.6.22 Attributive Adjectives

Attributive adjectives deal with specific properties, qualities or features, meaning that they describe attributes (Saragih, 2020). They are different types of attributive adjectives. Some indicate value or discuss subjective measures like, **real, perfect, best, interesting, beautiful** or **cheapest**. There are also adjectives that discuss measurable, objective qualities including specific physical characteristics which are size and shape adjectives,

for example, **small, large, square** and **round**. There are age adjectives, that refer to specific ages in numbers, as well as general ages, for instance **old, young** and **new**. Colour adjectives are self-explanatory since they indicate colour. Examples of such adjectives are, **red, yellow, brown** and **green**. There is also a type of attributive adjectives called “origin adjectives” which indicate source of the noun; examples include **British, Zambian, South African** and **Canadian**. Material adjectives describe what something is made of, for instance **cotton, gold** and **wool**. There are also qualifier adjectives which are often considered part of nouns. They help nouns to be more specific, for instance **log cabin, luxurious house** and **pillow cover**.

Hassen (2016) carried out a case study on English and Arabic adjectives in attributive position, at Aden University. The research participants were undergraduate pre-service teacher-trainees of Bachelor Program, College of Education, Saber, English Department, University of Aden, and they were 120. The research was mainly concerned with English adjectives in attributive position which students had learnt about in their English Grammar Course. The results showed that the college students lacked competence in constructing English adjective. They committed many errors in constructing English adjectives in attributive position at the sentence level and the errors were attributed to the interference of the mother tongue, as English and Arabic employ different processes and structures in their formation of the adjective structure of the various types.

Hassen (2016)’s study is similar to the current study in the sense that the researcher used a case study, to gather rich information from participants. The other similarity is that the respondents in both studies are English Second Language Learners. The errors in this study were caused by the interference of the mother tongue.

2.6.23 Adjectives Followed by Prepositions

There are adjectives which collocate with prepositions, such as **angry with, ashamed of, dressed in, full of** and **far from**. Below are sentences in which such adjectives are used.

1. John is **good at** Mathematics.
2. The man was **dressed in** his best clothes.
3. The giant is **cruel to** children.

2.6.24 Articles as adjectives

Articles are categorised as adjectives and there are only three articles which are **a**, **the** and **an**. The articles **a** and **an** are called indefinite articles as they are used to talk about non-specific objects and people. For example:

1. I want to buy a book.
2. She bought an orange.

Neither of the two sentences names a specific object. The word **the** is called a definite article and there is only one definite article, and is used to indicate very specific people or objects:

1. Please go and buy a banana. I would like the one which is yellowish.

Let me wait for an hour. The principal's speech was fantastic!

2.6.25 The *-Ing* and *-ed* Participial Adjectives

There are two types of participial adjectives, namely the *-ing* participial and the *-ed* participial. The *-ing* is the present participial while the *-ed* is the past participial (Bintoro, 2016). The present participial adjectives are used to describe people and objects that cause feelings; They refer to the actor (the one or thing causing the emotion). Furthermore, when *-ing* forms function as adjectives, they have similar meanings to active verbs, for example, **drying** grass (grass that dries), a **God-fearing** man. Adjectives ending in *-ing* are also capable of describing the general use of the noun for which it is meant, for example: "**a washing machine**", refers to a machine that washes and a **sitting room** refers to a room for sitting (Hughes, 1989). The present participial adjective indicates what the doer is actually doing (in progress).

The past participial adjectives describe how people feel (Azar, 1992: 298). Kilby (1985) contends that the past participial adjectives *-ed* of all regular and irregular verbs are the same as past tense verbs, and can only be distinguished by their use in sentences. For example: a **well-dressed little girl** is a girl who has been well dressed, while a **well-dressed man** has an active meaning since a man is considered to be able to dress

himself, whereas a little girl is not. The sentence performs the same pattern but not always with the same meaning.

Ademola (2014) carried out a study to analyse the use of English modifiers among Yoruba ESL learners, which included quantitative adjectives. The study tested the use of **any**, **few**, **little** and **a lot of**. The learners used the adjectives inappropriately and the cause of the errors was attributed to the interference of the mother tongue. The results showed that Yoruba learners of English lacked the ability to use English adjectives. In view of the results, the researcher suggested, inter alia, that, that the curriculum designers should bear in mind the linguistic differences that exist between the learners' first language (L1) and target language when designing curriculum.

The large sample used in the study, makes the results credible as the population is likely to be representative of the full diversity of the population from whence it came. The research instrument that the participants were given, a test with one hundred items, with various types of adjectives was very appropriate. This makes the results credible and the recommendation made by the researcher valid and worth noting.

2.6.26 Adjective Identification Errors

In his research study, Adelebu (2014) contrasted adjectives in English and Yoruba aiming at identifying of similarities and differences and the problems these differences brought about among ESL learners. The study recorded numerous adjective identification errors. The adjectives for identification in the study included, cardinal adjectives, nouns as adjectives, and verbs used as adjectives. The learners could not mostly, differentiate among adjectives and adverbs; hence, they used some of them interchangeably. The errors were attributed to mother tongue interference.

2.6.27 Position and Order of Adjectives

Abubakar, Hassan, and Yussuf (2017) carried out a study on native language interference on English. A sample of 20 final year students of a government school, who are Hausa native speakers, was purposely selected and a test was administered to gather qualitative

data. The findings revealed that the students' native language influences their English adjective position and order. The results showed that students made 66 errors out of 200 responses, and their responses provided evidence of their challenges with English adjective, in terms of position and order. The weakness of the research approach used by the researchers in this research study lies in the fact that a qualitative research is not a statistically representative form of data collection and it creates data with questionable value, however, the result yielded by the study cannot be discarded completely.

2.6.28 Derivative Adjective Errors

Adelebu's (2014) research study discussed above, also recorded derivative errors, which are those which involve the use of adjectives that are formed from other word classes (Home, 2013). For instance, the word *cloud* is a noun, but the addition of the bound morpheme, **-y** to make it ***cloudy*** derives an adjective from a noun. In the research the derivative adjective with **-able** was a big challenge to many participants, and similarly, the cause of the error was attributed to the interference of the mother tongue.

2.6.29 Developmental Errors

This type of error occurs within the L2 when learners are inadequately exposed to ESL. There are several types of developmental errors, some of which are:

- **Overgeneralisation**

Jakobovits (1969) describes overgeneralisation as the "use of previously available strategies in new situations" (p.55). Within such a strategy, learners move away from the basic structure depending on their understanding of other structures in the foreign language. This could be a result of certain teaching techniques that cause the frequency of overgeneralising structures to increase, for instance, **Lufuno looks tired;** **Lufuno looks happy.**

- **Ignorance of rule restrictions**

In ignorance of rule restrictions, the learners apply some rules to the wrong structures. This type of error is related to errors of overgeneralisation. The learner applies an already

learned convention in a new situation. These errors may be explained with regard to analogy and memorisation of rules. For example, if it were possible to use the superlative marker **—est** with adjectives that do not have more than two syllables, then one would say *Our teacher is thehandsomestone, instead of, our teacher is the **most handsome**. Swanepoel's (2010) studyrevealed that overgeneralization was one of the causes of ESL errors with adjectives.

According to Nephawe (2019), overgeneralization involves the application of the grammatical rules in cases where they do not apply. For example, learners may say *clevest instead of “cleverest” or manufacture adjectives like *beautifullest instead of “most beautiful” without imitating the adults around them or without having learned those forms from adults. The learners may be figuring grammatical rules to form comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and produce deviant structures in this way (Denham and Lobeck, 2010). Overgeneralisation involves application of new strategies in new situations (Richards, 2013). This connotes that, with regards to overgeneralization, learners may overgeneralise the inflections of the suffix –est to all adjectives in the superlative degree without consideration of other possible ways. If the learners have limited exposure or inadequate data, they tend to overgeneralise the rules of the language and manufacture deviant structures; this may be because they want to find an easy way to solve their linguistic challenge (Wen,2013). Consequently, these learners may come up with their own grammatical conventions and create sentences that are at their level of understanding.

- **Performance Errors**

These are errors that learners commit when they rush through their work or when they are exhausted; such errors are not serious and can be easily overcome by the ESL learner. In other words, they are the errors made by learners when they know the correct form. According Encyclopedia Almanacs (2020), “Performance contains slips of the tongue, and false starts, and represents only small samples of utterances.” The terms language performance and language competence were developed by Naom Chomsky in ***Aspects of the Theory of Syntax***, when he advocated for a generative grammar that reflects an interlocutor's competence and captures the creative aspect of linguistic

capability. This implies that the number of errors can be minimized by proof reading or editing one's work in order to sort out mistakes.

- **Competence Errors**

The kind of errors made by learners who do not know the correct forms of a language are called competence errors. Noam Chomsky (1965) defined "competence" as, "the underlying knowledge each speaker – hearer has about the language of his or her community".

Dulay and Krashen in Richards (1977: 10) divide errors into six categories:

1. Omitting grammatical morphemes

These errors are characterised by the omission of an item that should appear in well-constructed texts.

2. Double Marking

These errors are described as arising from an inability to get rid of certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions, but not in others.

3. Regularising rules

An error from a rule that typically applies to the class of linguistic items, such as the class of the main verb or the class of nouns.

4. Using Arch forms

An error due to using one form in place of many, like using *her* for both *she* and *her*.

5. Using two or more forms in random alternation

These types of error arise from the use of arch forms which often give way to apparently fairly free alternation of various numbers of a class with each other, for example, masculine for *he*.

6. Disordering

This refers to situations whereby learners select correct grammatical forms which need to be used in appropriate contexts but arrange them in the wrong order.

Pu and He (2016) carried out a study on comparative degree errors in English writing and the study collected errors from Chinese learners' written texts containing about 500 000

words. The researchers applied the error analysis method to discuss the errors and they were categorised, analysed, and classified. The research found seven categories of errors and these were:

1 Mis choosing

These errors resulted from choosing the wrong comparative structure and monosyllabic adjectives which must use the comparative marker –er to form the comparative degree, instead students chose the word more. For polysyllabic comparatives students added –er to construct the comparative degree form, for example, *more happy, *more small, *beautifuller, *more young.

2. Omitting markers

This error has two types, one of which is the marker of analysis or synthesis. For instance, *hot in the morning than”, Hot should actually be changed to hotter. The other one is the omission of the article the, which only appears in the superlative degree, for instance, for instance, *She is most beautiful girl in the class. The sentence can be corrected as “She is the most beautiful girl in the class”.

3. Duplicative use

Learners made errors such as *more cheaper, *more better, *more thicker to form the comparatives. More should not be added to the comparative form, but instead, -er should be used to form the comparatives.

4. Wrong sentence structure

Learners made errors such as, *Our teacher is eagerer than us. This should actually be written as “Our teacher is more eager than us’

5. Wrong regular adjectives

Some students made errors such as, *America is farer away than Europe. The sentence can be corrected as “America is further away than Europe”

6. Others

The students also made errors such as *I want to buy a bread, which can be corrected as “I want to buy some bread” and*The china president which can be corrected and expressed as, “The Chinese president”

2.7 CORRECTING LEARNERS' ERRORS

Teachers must spend a lot of time of time checking, marking learners' work and giving them feedback (Cimcoz, 1991:9). Al-Buainain (2006) states that correcting learners' errors take up a lot of time and therefore many teachers are reluctant todo it. Tennant in Al-Buainain (2011) suggests two methods that can be used to edit and / correct learners' written texts:

1. To write comments on a sheet of paper using a red pen to make them clearly visible.
2. A more effective method, is to write comprehensive comments explaining grammar points, raising some questions concerning meaning and logical development. In addition to that, the teacher can suggest alternative wording and help the learner re-organisethetext. For example, the teacher can remind students of a previously studied grammar rule through explaining its applicability in a specific instance. It is always beneficial for teachers to move beyond just correcting to providing explanations for changes suggested.

When teachers correct ESL learners' errors, they must be very careful not to discourage learners. Marshal and Makina (2011) postulate that teachers should not necessarily condone errors at all times, but errors should not be stressed at the expense of communicative language use, as errors can be an indication of progress in the acquisition of language.

According to Touchie (1986), teachers cannot and should not correct all errors committed by their students. The frequent correction of oral errors disrupts the process of language learning and discourages shy learners from communicating in the target language. Touchie (1986 gives the following guidelines in correcting second language learners' errors:

1. Correction of errors must focus on errors affecting intelligibility, and these refer to errors that distort the general meaning and understandability of texts. Teachers must mainly focus on correcting global errors.
2. High-frequent errors and generality errors should be given more attention than those that are less frequent.
3. Teachers must exert themselves in correcting errors affecting a large percentage of their learners.
4. Errors that are relevant to pedagogical focus should be given more attention.

Constructive comments written in simple language which the learners can easily understand should be used to encourage learners; provocative comments must be avoided at all times.

Any experienced teacher must be aware of the fact that they do not need to correct all errors, especially during a spontaneous speech whose focus is mainly on communicability and comprehensibility of a message (Limengka and Kutntyara (2015). Feedback is a fundamental form of support by EHL teachers to the learners individually, but the teacher must know when to provide corrective feedback, as well as the linguistic area which needs to be emphasized during lessons (Lyster *et al*, (2013). Errors which cause an utterance to be unintelligible should be paid more attention to. Burt (1971) distinguished between global and local errors, where the former refers to errors which may cause misunderstanding or incomprehension in the learners and the latter, those that do not hamper communication. A local error can be referred to as an error that makes a sentence appear ungrammatical but, causing the native English speaker little or no difficulty in comprehending the intended meaning, given the contextual framework (Hendrickson, 1997). More attention should be paid to stigmatization or irritating errors (Touchie, 1986).

Teachers must focus much more on errors relevant to the pedagogical focus than other errors (Touchie, 1986). For instance, if the lesson is based on comparative and superlative adjectives, the correction of errors involving tenses, subject verb agreement and adverbs, in this lesson, should not be accentuated by the teacher. If the teacher does, the focal point of the lesson would be compromised, which in this case, is the comparative and superlative adjectives.

There is a myriad of ways of giving corrective feedback on ESL learners' written texts. The teacher may furnish learners with the correct form using techniques such as crossing out an unsuitable word or phrase, providing them with the missing word or morpheme, and supplying the correct form or morpheme just above, near the error (Ellis, 2008). It is especially desirable for the teacher to give direct feedback to the learners, who have a low level of language proficiency and are not capable of correcting themselves.

One drawback of direct corrective feedback (CF) is that it needs minimum processing on the part of the learner and although it may enable them to construct correct forms in the process of revising their written texts, it is likely not to contribute to long term learning (Ellis, 2008: 9). In indirect CF, teachers indicate the errors that the learners have committed without actually correcting them (Ellis, 2009). This type of corrective feedback draws learners' attention to their errors by using techniques like underlining or drawing circles around the errors and letting the learners correct the errors by themselves. Ellis (2008) says that CF is preferred by the majority of researchers as it requires learners to be engaged in guided learning and problem-solving, consequently, providing the type of reflection that might lead to long-term memory.

Teachers sometimes get tempted to think that learners' errors are just careless mistakes or a result of global misapprehension of the topic and they are often led to assume that the learner would perform better if given the same question on another day (Saxe *et al.*, 2015). The presumption that learners' errors are a sign of global misunderstanding of the topic usually causes teachers to re-teach the content. Many a time, however, learners' errors and mistakes are caused by their own partial understanding (Wells and Coffey, 2005). Instead of regarding wrong answers, as errors or mistakes to be eschewed, Saxe *et al.*, (2015) asserts that they are often a natural part of the linguistic development of learners' misapprehension of the content. Revealing and discussing learners' partial understandings can be a fundamentally beneficial teaching strategy, consolidating as well as perfecting learners' mastery of work. Wells and Coffey (2005) discuss how learners' wrong responses might be correct answers to related but different questions.

The CAPS documents give clear guidelines on the different avenues that are to be used by teachers in their teaching of writing to EHL learners, and provides information on assessment, however, no guidance is given on how teachers are to give feedback. In other words, the CAPS documents seem to be adequately procedural in terms of how writing should be taught, and there seems to be meager information on how teachers should handle learners' written texts and the errors that they make (Lukashamateni, 2013).

2.8 SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE REVIEWED

In summary, the literature reviewed shows that adjectives and their comparative degrees in particular are part of English grammar which cannot be disregarded by ESL learners. Such errors are also commonplace among native English speakers. The large samples used in most of the literature reviewed make the results of the studies credible as the respondents are likely to be representative of the full diversity of the populations from which they came. Among English second language learners, one of the major causes of adjective errors is inter-lingual transfer, which refers to the negative influence that results from similarities and differences between the native language and the target language.

2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed, inter alia, the main sources of adjective errors, types of adjective errors, significance of errors as well as the theoretical framework. All the areas discussed above are appropriate to the current study and have provided the discussions of key notions on the topic. Chapter three focuses on the research methodology.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the research design, population and the sampling procedures. According to Kanyepi (2015), “Methodology can be defined as a description of processes, concepts, or ideas as they relate to a particular discipline or field of enquiry.” The chapter explains the processes of data collection and analyses as well as the methods which were used to collect the data to facilitate clarity in the findings. The discussions also focus on data interpretation.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

Mohajan (2017:2) defines a research approach as a plan of action that provides direction to carry out a research study, systematically and effectively. The three major research approaches are quantitative (structured) approach, qualitative (unstructured) approach, and mixed methods research (Creswell 2009:1). All researchers must involve an explicit disciplined and systematic approach to obtain reliable results. An appropriate research approach, according to Creswell (2007) is an effective strategy to increase the validity of social research.

The study looked into the use of adjectives by Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in Man’ombe Circuit, Limpopo Province. It adopted a mixed research approach and a descriptive case study research design in order to realise its objectives. Burke (2007: 123) defines a mixed-methods research as, “The type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of quantitative and qualitative research approaches, for example, the use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis and inference techniques, for broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.” Mixed methods provide opportunities for convergence and corroboration of results that are derived from different research methods. Complementarity enables elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification of results from one method with the results from another (Greene, 2018). The study adopted

mixed methods in order to use quantitative and qualitative methods in combination, to gain a deep understanding of the problems and phenomena which, either approaches alone may not be able to provide.

Quantitative methods gather data that are numerical in nature and are mathematically computed, and they rely on structured data collection instruments that fit diverse experiences into predetermined response categories (Kabir, 2016). These methods produce results that are easily summarised, compared, and generalized. Quantitative methods are used to gather data that is concerned with numbers and anything that can be measured (Nunan, 2001:87-92). Presentation of results is done by means of statistics, tables and graphs (Mungungu, 2010). The study chose quantitative methods in order to produce results that are quantifiable and measurable in order for them to be summarized, compared, discussed and presented. For this study a standardised test was employed to gather quantitative data. The standardised test sought information on problems learners encounter in their use of adjectives. The researcher calculated the proportion of errors for each category of errors and will present them graphically and using pie charts.

Qualitative methods gather information that cannot be measured or expressed in numbers but is, usually, descriptive in nature (Kabir, 2016). In other words, the data gathered will be in the form of words and sentences. Qualitative research is a non-numerical examination and interpretation of observations, for the purpose of discovering meanings and patterns of relationships (Babbie, 2010). It involves the systematic collection, organization, description and interpretation of textual, verbal or visual data (Hammarberg, 2016). One advantage of qualitative data collecting methods is that, they produce in-depth and illustrative information for one to understand the various dimensions of the problem under analysis. Boeige (2010) asserts that qualitative research produces rich, descriptive data that need to be interpreted through the identification of themes and categories leading to findings that can contribute to theoretical knowledge and practical use; this is similar to the aim of this study. In this study, rich descriptive data were obtained from learners' descriptive compositions. The 20 selected learners wrote a composition, based on comparing and contrasting given animals, for example, the differences and similarities between a baboon and a monkey. The errors made by the learners were

classified, coded and separated to identify their types. The errors were then arranged according to themes.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is the plan and structure of an investigation used to obtain answers to research questions, and it provides the glue and holds the research project together (Kanyepi, 2015). It provides the procedures for collection, analyses, and interpretation of data so that the research problem can be resolved (Yin, 2015) The researcher basically used a descriptive case study design in order to undertake an in-depth analysis of the written compositions and describe any interventions taken, clearly. The case study design allowed for in-depth analysis of the classroom context in which the use of adjectives occurred, thereby, enhancing the description of the errors (Ganapathy, 2013). It, thus, allowed for an in-depth investigation and a detailed insight into the particular phenomenon of the study and diverse characteristics of the concerned population (Kaufman, 2004). This strategy was particularly helpful as it generated large quantities of data, which made the analysis possible (Baker, 2011).

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

Coder's (1974) five steps in error analysis research were used to analyse data. Content analysis is a research tool which can be used systematically to analyse written, verbal, or visual documentation (Wilson, 2011). It is used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts or sets of texts (Colorado State University, 2016) Qualitative content analysis generates data that is valid, reliable, and replicable (Gheyle and Jacobs, 2017) Analysing texts incorporates coding content into themes, similar to how focus-group or interview transcripts are analysed. According to O' Leary (2014), types of texts are legion, for instance, agendas, handbooks and students' transcripts. Texts can be defined broadly as books, book chapters, essays, interviews, discussions, newspaper headlines, articles, historical documents, speeches, in effect, any occurrence of communication language (Colorado State University, 2016). He goes on to say that a plethora of research texts can be used, but by far, the most common is likely to be written documents. Content analysis is an efficient and effective way of gathering data because

texts are manageable, and in addition to that they are stable and non-reactive data sources; this means that they can be read and reviewed multiple times and they remain unchanged by the researcher's influence (Bowen, 2009: 31). The research study adopted content analysis, in the form of an evaluation of descriptive compositions as a data gathering instrument because they are manageable, stable and non-reactive data sources.

The 20 selected learners wrote, each one of them, a composition, comparing and contrasting given animals, which look similar, for example, a baboon and a monkey. The errors made by the learners were classified, coded and separated to identify their types; the errors were then arranged according to themes

3.5 RESEARCH SETTING

According to Nephawe (2019: 76), "Research setting refers to the place where the data are collected." In the context of this study the setting was Manómbé Circuit. The study was carried out in four independent primary schools in the Man'ombe Circuit of Mopani District in Limpopo Province and its Head Office is in Giyani. The racial make up of the population of Mopani District is 98% Black Africans, 0,1% Coloured, 0,2% Asiatic, and 1,3% White (Mopani District Municipality, 2013: 14) The majority of English Home Language learners in Mopani District of Limpopo Province are Xitsonga first-language speakers and a few of them speak Sepedi and Tshivenda as their first languages. Most of the learners only speak English in the classroom, consequently, their English Language Proficiency (ELP) is very limited (Makhubele, 2015)

The language of teaching and learning (LoLT) used in the four selected independent schools is English and most of the English teachers are foreigners from Zimbabwe and Ghana who neither speak Xitsonga nor Sepedi. In these primary schools, English is the medium of instruction from Grade 1 to 7 and Xitsonga is taught as a subject from Grade 3 to 7. The classes are relatively small, compared to the classes in public schools, with an average teacher pupil ratio of 1: 25.

A research conducted by the Department of Education in 2010 found that numerous learners of different ages and grade levels, at primary school level, can neither read nor

write (Department of Basic Education Report, 2010). The research found that competent readers only constituted 14%, 33% were slightly competent in reading and writing, while the majority of them, who constituted 53%, were completely incompetent in reading and writing. According to Makhubele (2015), this is caused by the fact that there is almost no sustained and meaningful exposure to English outside the classroom for the majority of the learners. Their English Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), therefore, is inadequate for the purposes of formal learning across the subjects, leading to weak performance.

The compositions were written in class, under the researcher's supervision. All the learners were given the opportunity to finish writing the compositions. They were however, not allowed to discuss with anyone.

3.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

3.6.1 Population

A research population refers to a group of individuals who have the same characteristics (Creswell (2012). Watt and Van den Berg (2002) define population as the full set of all the possible units of analysis; the population is also sometimes called the "universe of observations". Leedy in Kanyepi (2014) views population as a group of individuals who have one or more characteristics that is of interest to a researcher. He describes it as the set of all items from which we want to gather data, and a sub-set of that population is a sample. The population for this study, includes all the 81 Grade 7 non-native English Home Language learners in the 4 independent schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District.

3.6.2 Sampling

The sample of a study is a sub-group of a population that the researcher plans to study in generalising about the target population (Creswell, (2012). Systematic random sampling was used to select participants; this is a flexible way of selecting a probability sample from a finite population (Kalton, 2017). A systematic sample can be obtained by selecting a random start between 1 and k from a list of population and then taking every

element thereafter. Man'ombe Circuit has 4 independent primary schools, offering English Home Language both as a subject and as the language of teaching and learning (LoLT). The Circuit has 81 Grade 7 English Home Language learners and the researcher randomly listed the eighty- one learners and chose every fourth learner. The sample constitute 25% of the Grade 7 English Home Language learners in the Circuit. Twenty (20) learners participated in the study; 5 learners from each school and they were Grade 7 English Home Language learners enrolled in the four independent schools for the 2020 academic year, in accordance with the requirements as stipulated in the CAPS.

3.7 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Three data collection instruments were used, and these were a standardized test, a questionnaire and, content analysis. Content analysis was undertaken on learners' descriptive compositions. The questionnaire was used to gather biographical data. Tparticipants were instructed to put a tick in the spaces provided. A standardized test was used to gather quantitative data and content analysis to collect qualitative data. The standardized test sought information on problems learners encounter in their use of adjectives. The researcher calculated the proportion of errors for each category of errors and presented them graphically. Descriptive compositions sought to gather qualitative data and they were adopted as a data gathering instrument because they are manageable, stable and non- reactive data sources. This means that they can be read, and reviewed multiple times and they remain unchanged by the researcher's influence (Bowen, 2009: 31)

3.8 DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEST

The researcher developed a standardized test of 20 questions on correct usage of adjectives of various types from the list of adjectives from "*An English Handbook and Study Guide for Primary Schools*". The researcher requested curriculum / subject advisors in Mopani District to moderate the test. Subject advisors are education professionals who are specialists in specific subject areas, and one of their key duties is to moderate School Based Assessments (SBA) (Government Gazette, 2017). The subject advisor takes responsibility forthe moderation of school-based assessments across all

the schools in the district. Moderation of assessment is a quality assurance activity performed to uphold principles of assessment, such as fairness, reliability and validity (Parboo, 2011).

The researcher ensured that the test met the following criteria, in accordance with the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act 27 1996) by asking curriculum advisers in Mopani District to moderate the test.

1. All tasks are aligned to the CAPS.
2. Assessment tasks and tools are valid, fair and practical.
3. The instructions relating to assessment tasks and tools are clearly stated.
4. The assessment must be free of any bias.
5. The language of the assessment task is in keeping with the language level of the learners for whom it is designed.
6. The cognitive levels at which the assessment tasks are pitched are consistent

3.9 QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

The researcher developed a standardized test of 20 questions on correct usage of adjectives of various types from the list of adjectives from *An English Handbook and Study Guide for Primary Schools, Matricand Beyond (Lutrin and Pincus, 2015)*. The standardized test was used to analyse adjective errors committed by sampled English Home Language learners. The errors were quantified by being presented graphically using pie charts and bar graphs. They were then scrutinized, and categorized and conclusions drawn on the types of errors committed. A pattern of errors was then established in order to understand their types and causes so as to make recommendations for their remedy.

The researcher travelled to the sampled schools and administered the test to the participants. In the test, they were supposed to choose the correct adjective usage from multiple-choice questions set by the researcher. The test scripts were collected as soon

as the candidates had finished writing and they were marked against the test memorandum; this assisted in identifying the adjective errors that were committed by the research participants. The test scripts were then given to a statistician for further analyses and the garnered data were then enumerated, presented graphically before recommendations were made. A pattern of errors was established to understand their types, causes, and ways in which they can be remedied. The number of errors for each question was enumerated and computed for ranges, means and frequencies. The researcher established the possible causes of the errors, basing on the types of errors committed and the literature review, thereafter, recommendations on what could possibly be done to address the recurrence of errors were made.

3.10 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

For content analysis the respondents wrote one descriptive essay in which they compared and contrasted any two animals of their choice. The advantage of content analysis is that texts are genuine, reliable and not of unquestionable authorship (Robson, 2011). Content analysis is particularly applicable to descriptive case studies- intensive studies producing rich descriptions of a single phenomenon, event, organization or program (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994). The essays of between 200 and 250 words were written under the researcher's close supervision. All the learners were given enough time to finish writing to ensure that rich data is collected.

3.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

3.11.1 Validity

According to Golafshani (2003) validity determines whether the research instrument only measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure (Babbie, 2014). The test developed in this study intended to measure Grade 7 learners' competence in their use of different types of adjectives in sentences. To enhance the validity of the test it was moderated by English subject advisors in Man'ombe Circuit to determine its validity.

For the qualitative approach, the researcher ensured that the four qualities of trustworthiness, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability were upheld during essay writing.

3.11.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which results are consistent over time as an accurate representation of the total population under study. If the results of a study can be produced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable (Golafshani, 2003). The test was pilot-tested twice on non- native Grade 7 English Home Language learners in independent schools in Man'ombe Circuit, who were non-research participants, to determine its reliability.

3.11.3 Pilot Study

In the current study, a pilot study was carried out with five non-native English Home Language learners, who had not been sampled. The term “pilot study” (also called a feasibility study), refers to a mini version of a full- scale research instrument, such as a questionnaire or a standardised test (Kairamo, 2011). Pilot studies are a crucial element of a good study design. The purpose of a pilot study is to test logistics and gather information prior to the larger study. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) concur with the above view by saying that a pilot study is necessary as a check for many aspects of research including bias in the procedures.

3.12 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Corbin and Strauss (2008) data analysis refers to the process of examining and interpreting data to derive meaning, gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge. It is the process of inspecting, rearranging, modifying and transforming data to extract useful information from it. Data analysis involves working on information to uncover patterns and trends (Mungungu, 2010). Baxter and Jack (2008: 556) assert that data analysis can increase the level of quality in research findings.

3.12.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

In qualitative research, data analysis is concerned with the analysis of codes, themes and patterns in the data (Taylor and Bogdan, 1997). The researcher marked all the research participants' written compositions. He then classified, coded and separated the adjective errors in order to identify their types. The researcher used inductive coding by creating codes for different adjectives that emerged in the participants' compositions. Where codes did not match the researcher recoded all the responses again. A system of numbers was used to code the different types of adjectives. The types of errors were then arranged according to themes. The researcher then identified which themes came up the most.

3.12.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis is the transformation of numerical data into usable statistics, hence, a process of using measurable data to formulate and uncover facts in research (Defranzo, 2011). Qualitative data analysis is the process of using empirical data that has been gathered, to employ statistical operations to determine causal and correlative relationships between variables (Memidovski and Crossman, 2020). The adjective errors committed by learners in the standardized test were quantified, scrutinized and grouped and conclusions were drawn based on the types of adjective errors committed. A pattern of errors was then established for the researcher to understand their types, and causes, and to suggest recommendations for their correction. The number of errors per question were quantified and then computed for the range, mean and frequency. Graphs were used to depict the errors for easy analysis.

3.13 CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 has described the methodology and design of the research project. It further described, inter alia, the population and sample that were employed to garner quantitative and qualitative data. Chapter 4 is dedicated to the data analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter centred on the research methodology, data collection and research techniques that were adopted in the study. The data were collected and then processed in response to the research problems posed in Chapter 1 of this research project. This chapter will deal with the presentation and analysis of data. Qualitative data were obtained from 20 Grade 7 learners' written descriptive compositions and quantitative data were obtained from a standardized test that was written by the same research participants. Both the compositions and the standardized test were reviewed by the researcher in line with the research questions indicated below:

1. What are the types of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non- native English Home Language learners in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District?
2. What are the characteristics of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non- native English Home Language learners in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District?
3. What are the causes of adjective errors committed by Grade 7 non- native English Home Language learners in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District?

4.2 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The quantitative research approach makes observations more explicit, easier to aggregate, compare and summarise data; it opens up the use of statistical analyses ranging from simple averages to complex formulae and mathematical models. In addition, the quantitative approach allows results to be analysed and compared with similar studies. After the standardised test had been administered, the learners' scripts were marked. An analysis of each category of errors was done and the number of errors committed, per-error category, was quantified and the errors from different categories were compared and computed using frequency tables and graphs.

The data garnered is presented below in the form of frequency tables and bar graphs showing the frequency of wrong responses for every error category. The data was

collected from a test that covered ten areas in the use of adjectives. The data is shown in tables and bar graphs which are explained and interpreted; the causes of the errors are then established. In addition, remedial actions required to alleviate the errors for each adjective category and to minimise their recurrence are suggested.

To commence the presentation of the results, firstly, the biographical information of the participants is presented using tables; pie charts and bar graphs will then be used to present the errors committed by the respondents.

Figure 4.1: Participants by Gender

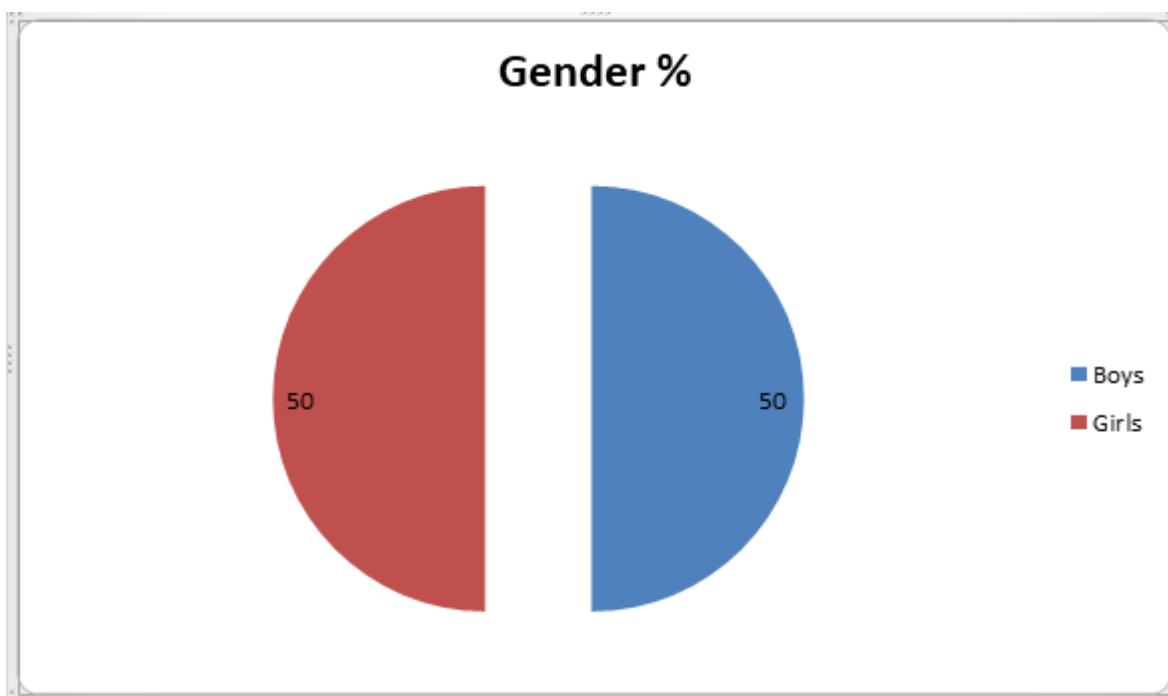


Figure 4.1

50% of the participants were males and the other 50% were females.

Figure 4.2: Participants According to Language

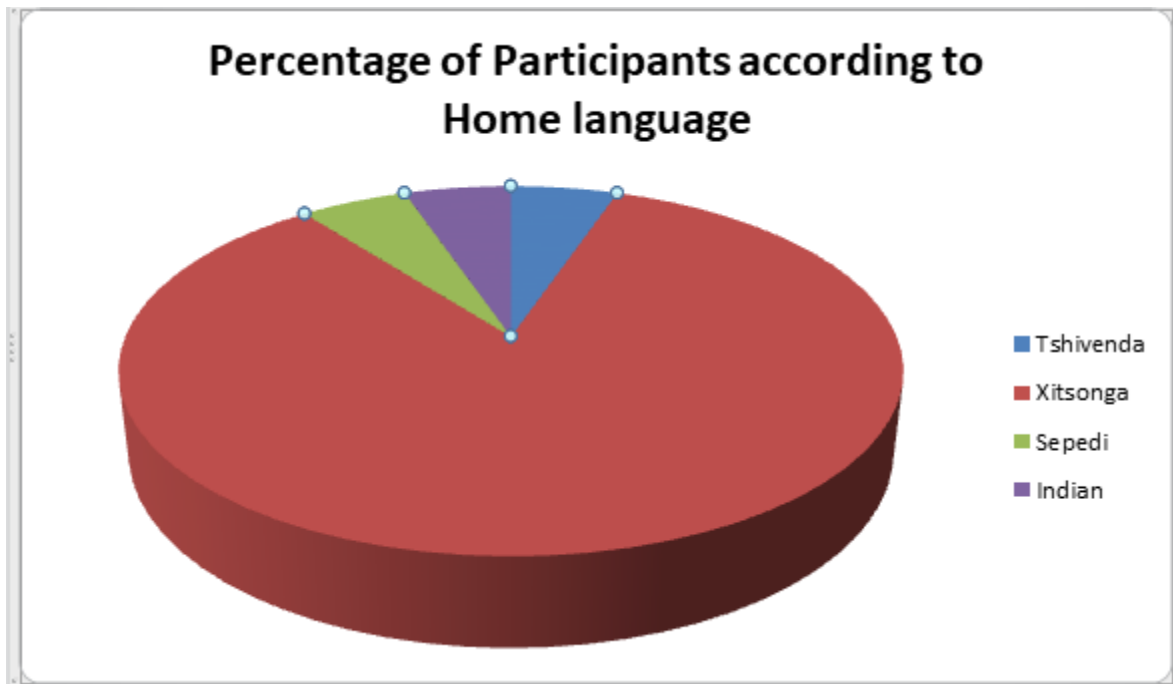
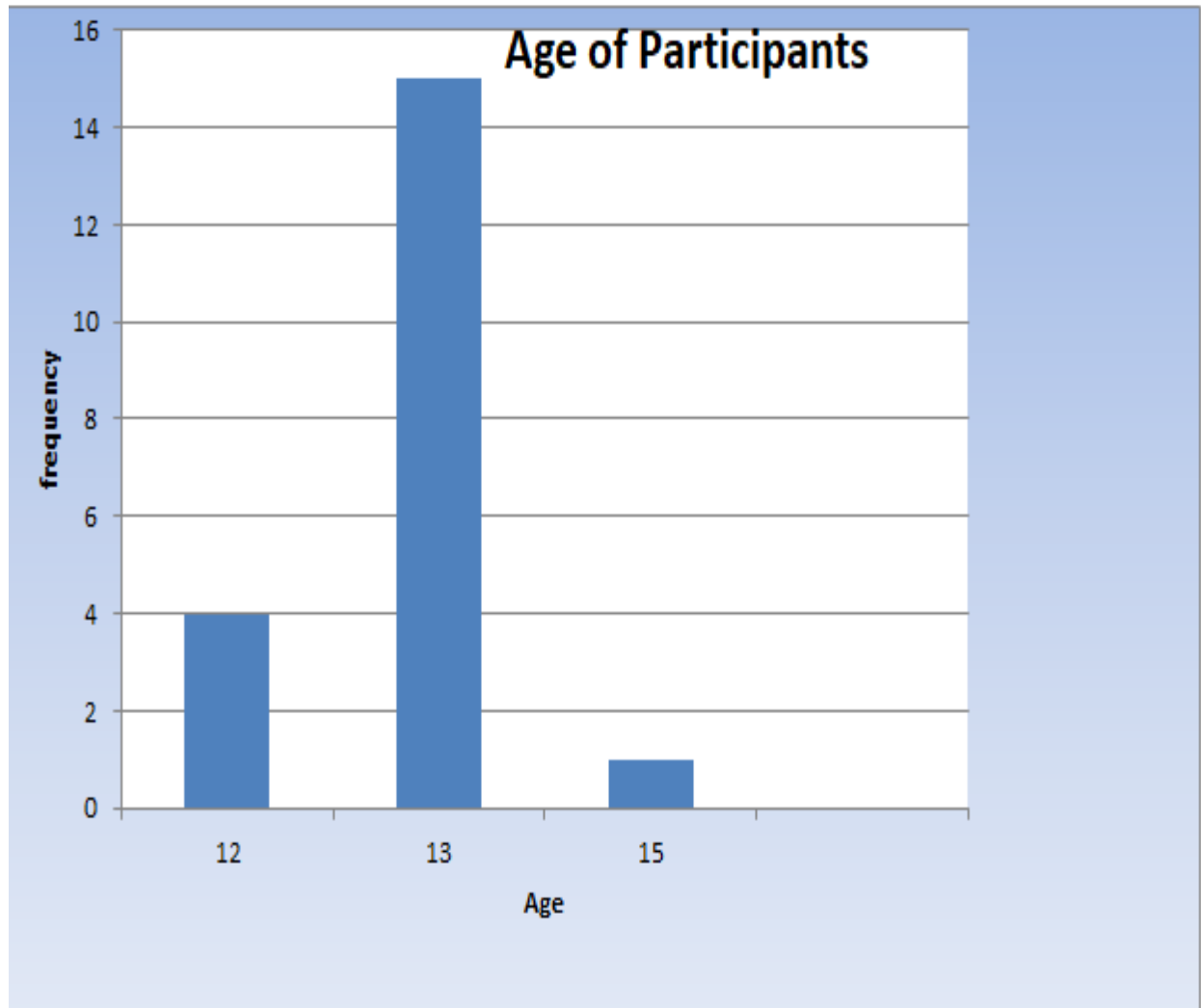


Figure 4.2

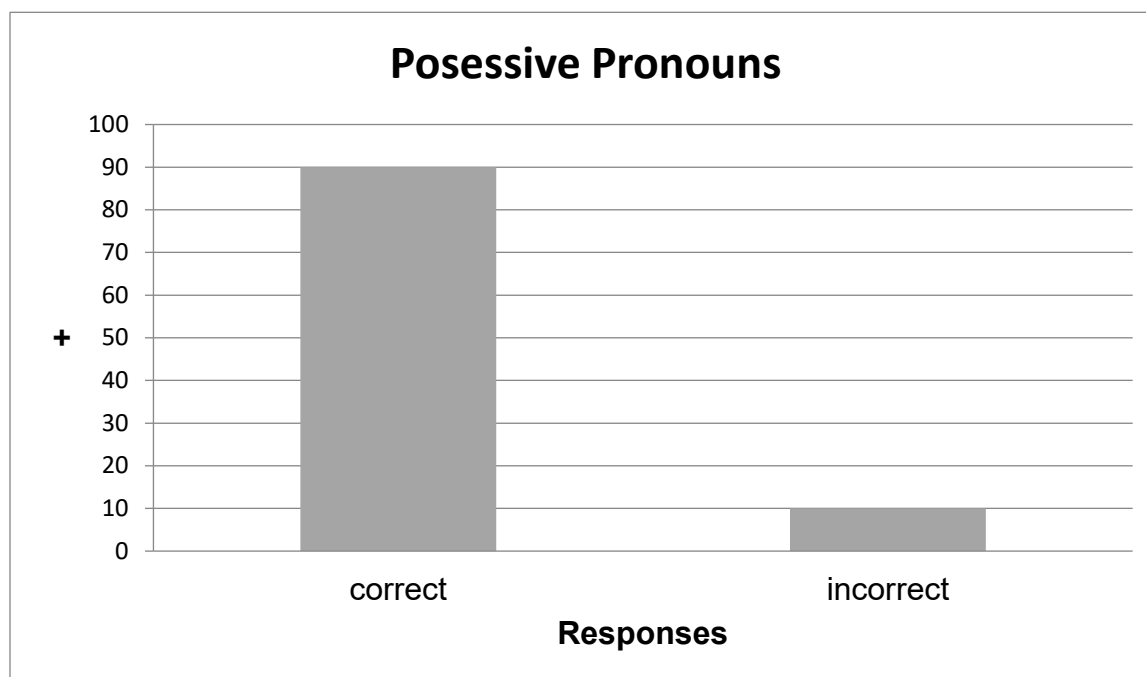
Out of the 20 respondents who participated in the research study, 1 was a native Tshivenda speaker, 17 of them spoke Xitsonga, 1 spoke Gujarati and 1 Sepedi, as their primary languages.

Figure 4.3: Participation by Age



The above graph shows the ages of the learners who participated in the research study; 4 were twelve years old, 15 were thirteen and 1 was aged fifteen.

Figure 4.4: Errors in the Use of Possessive Pronouns



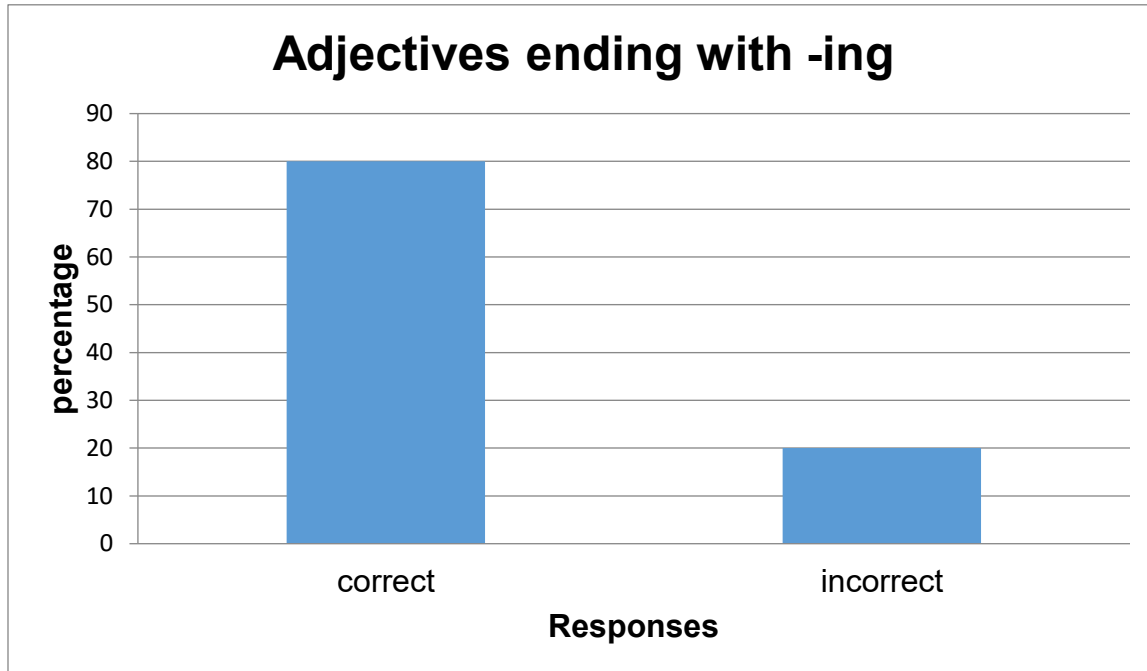
Who's/ Whose book is on the table?

The graph in Figure 4.4 above shows the responses to the question on possessive pronouns. It recorded 90% correct responses compared to 10% incorrect. The few learners who gave wrong responses confused **whose** with the contraction of **who is**, **who's**, which has got an apostrophe. **Whose** is the possessive pronoun form of **who** and it is incorrect to write **who's** with an apostrophe as a possessive pronoun. This error is caused by the fact that the learners' mother tongue does not have a possessive pronoun system coupled with the fact that **whose** and **who's** are almost pronounced in the same way; this causes learners to think that **who's** is a possessive pronoun (Sabandowo, 2015). The errors might be a performance error attributed to the carelessness of the learners when they rush through their work. This finding is in line with Saragih's (2019) research which found that carelessness was one of the causes of the learners' errors. The other cause of this error was hypothesising false concept, which is brought about by false comprehension of the distinction between **whose** and **who's**. This is an example of a developmental error.

Figure 4.5: Errors in the Use of Adjectives ending with -ing

The teacher taught us a very interested/ interesting game.

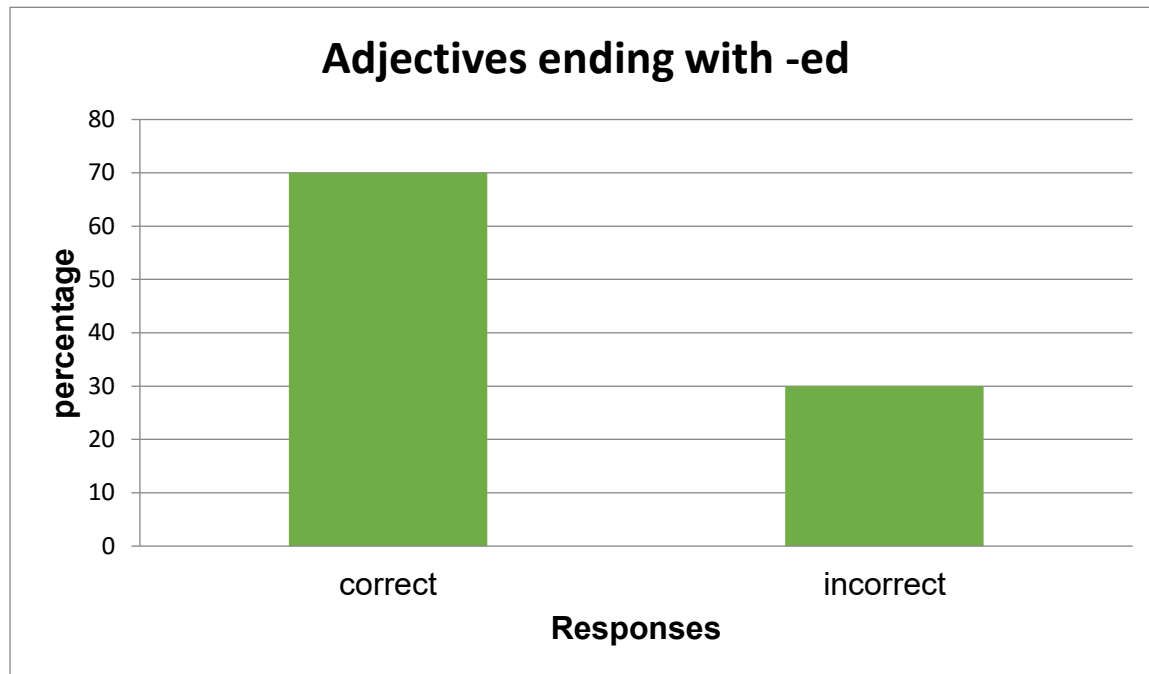
Figure 4.5. depicts the results of a question on the use of adjectives ending in **-ing**. 80%



of the participants were aware of the correct adjective choice, while the remaining 20% made the wrong choice, which indicates that they had not mastered such adjectives. Adjectives ending in **-ed** generally describe emotions, “The captain was very **worried**.” In other words, they explain how people feel. Adjectives ending in **-ing** are used to describe particular characteristics or aspects of a noun, for instance, “The bowl was quite **striking**.”

The reason for making this error might have stemmed from insufficient learning on the part of the respondents. Notwithstanding the fact that the percentage is low, the 20% who chose the wrong answer is cause for concern and needs to be closely examined for informed intervention. The results seem to affirm El Shaban’s(2017) study that ESL learners misuse adjectives ending with **-ing**. This kind of error is intra-lingual as it is not brought about by mother-tongue interference. The results are also in line with the study by Kennison *et al.*, (1998) that found that this type of adjective error was caused by insufficient learning.

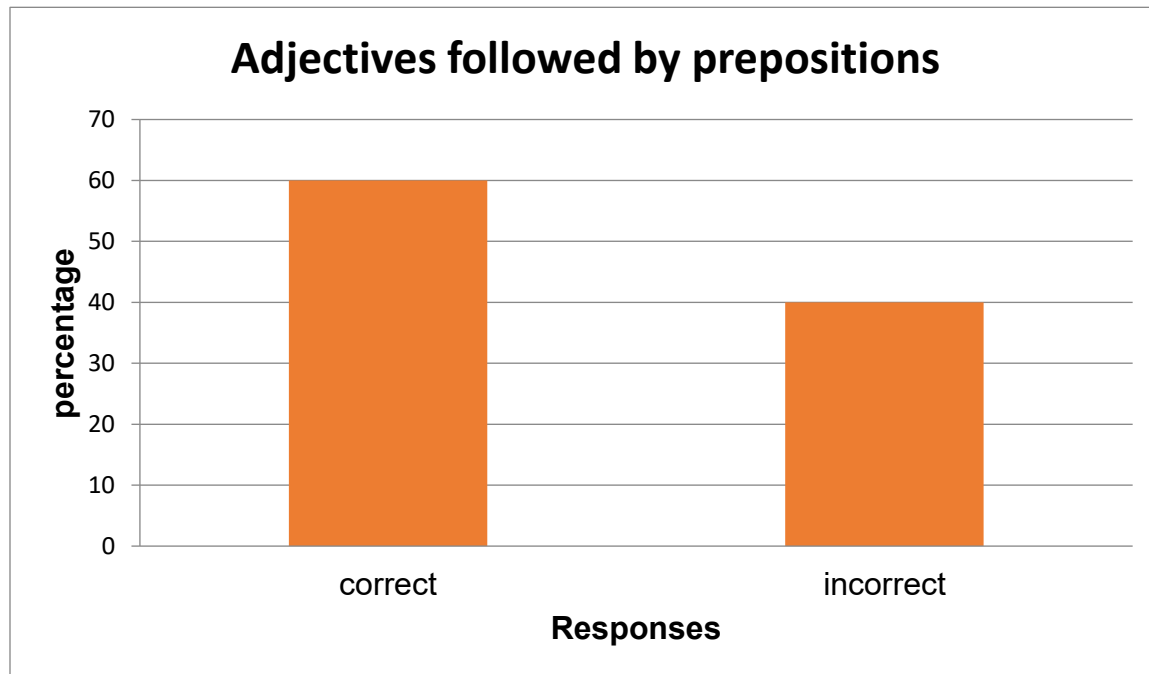
Figure 4.6: Errors in the Use of Adjectives Ending With -ed



My mother watched the game because she is interested/ interesting in soccer.

Figure 4.6 presents a question on the use of adjectives ending with –ed. The graph shows that 70% of the learners got the correct answer while 30% made the wrong adjective choice; this seems to have resulted from incomplete learning of such adjectives by the respondents. An adjective ending in –ed is used to describe feelings or emotions. It is used to describe a temporary condition. Adjectives ending with –ing describe causes. The significant percentage (30%) of the learners misusing adjectives ending with –ed which is in line with El Shaban’s (2017) study which revealed that ESL learners could not use these types of adjectives. This is an example of an intra-lingual error, as it is not a result of mother-tongue interference. It is a competence error as the learners do not know the correct forms. This affirms the findings of Kennison *et al.*, (1998) which revealed that the errors made by the learners were a result of lack of knowledge of the correct forms.

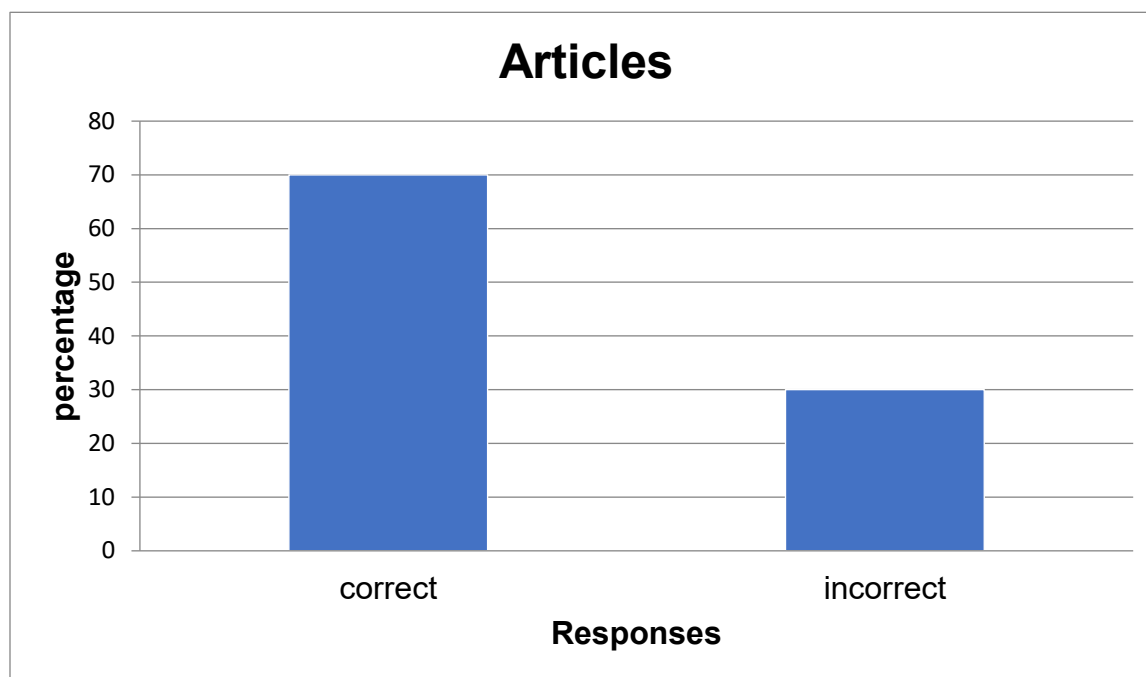
Figure 4.7: Errors in the Use of Adjectives Followed by Prepositions



A leopard is similar to/ with a cheetah

Figure 4.7 presents a question on adjectives followed by prepositions; 60% of the respondents were able to make the correct choice while the remaining 40% lacked such competence. Due to the fact that the Xitsonga preposition '*an*' can be translated both as *to* and *with*, the participants might have got swayed into thinking that *with* is correct in this context. This error stems from the influence of the mother language which is brought about by the differences between Xitsonga and English, as explained in the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis. This seems to affirm Saragih's (2019) study that one of the causes of errors was interference of the mother tongue.

Figure 4.8: Errors in the Use of Articles as Adjectives

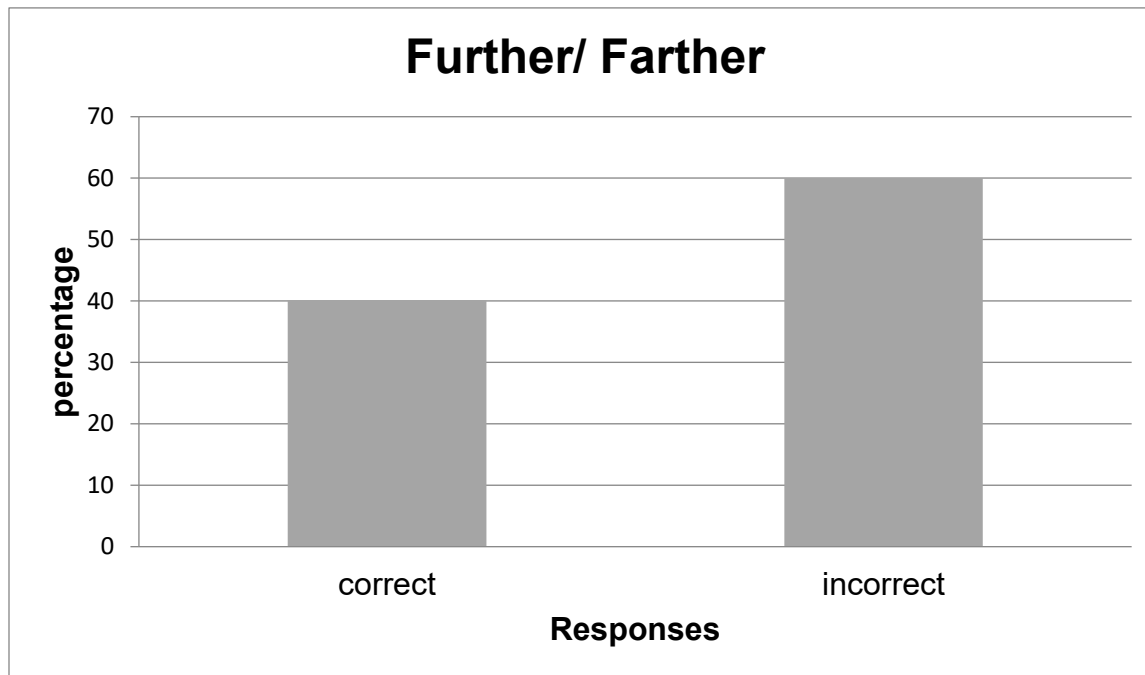


Mr. Sadiki is (a/an/the) the principal of Nyukani High School.

Figure 4.8 depicts a question on articles functioning in a similar manner to adjectives; 70% of the participants were conversant with the use of articles while 30% demonstrated lack of such competence. Articles pose serious problems to some Xitsonga-speaking English Home Language learners, because unlike English, Xitsonga does not have an article system. Definiteness and indefiniteness expressed, respectively, by the articles, *a/n* and *the*, before nouns in English are absent in Xitsonga and other Bantu languages like Tshivenda. The use of articles causes confusion among Xitsonga – speaking English Home language learners as the absence of indefiniteness and definiteness expressed by the articles, causes some of the learners to have the notion that there is no difference in these articles, hence, can be used arbitrarily. They, therefore, become confused as the use of articles is non-existent in their own language, Xitsonga. The error can be identified as being caused by the interference of the mother tongue. This finding seems to affirm Harb's (2014) study which found that errors in the use of articles were attributed to the interference of the mother tongue. The error was also caused by an incomplete understanding of how definite and indefinite articles are to be used in English. This finding

is also in line with Polite, Leonard and Roberts' s (2011) study which revealed that the article errors made by ESL learners were a result of inadequate understanding of how the English article system is to be used.

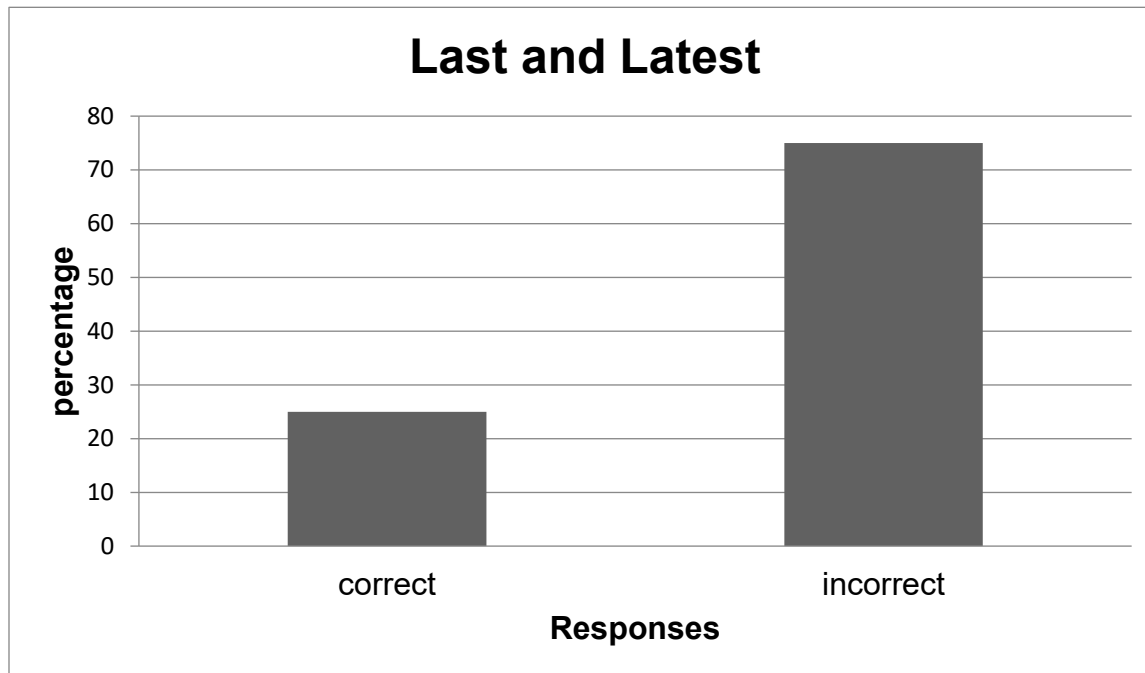
Figure 4.9: Errors in the Use of Farther/ Further



Thohoyandou is (further/ farther) from Johannesburg than Mokopane

The graph in Figure 4.9 presents a question on the two adjectives, '**farther**' and '**further**' which many people wrongly, use interchangeably. Less than half of the respondents made the correct choice, while 60% made the wrong choice. **Further** is used when talking about non-measurable advancement, and when looking for a verb to discuss distance, while **farther** is the superlative term for **far** when one talks about physical, metaphorical and physical distance. This is an example of a competence error as the learners do not know the correct forms. The learners made use of an arch form in the sense that they used **further** to mean both **farther** and **further**. The results seem to affirm that the use of irregular comparative adjectives, such as **further** is problematic to English L2 learners, and this is in line with Mohammed's (2008) study which yielded the same results. The learners in his study lacked the ability to use irregular adjectives. This is an example of a competence error since it is caused by learners' lack of understanding of the correct form.

Figure 4.10: Errors in the Use of Last/Last



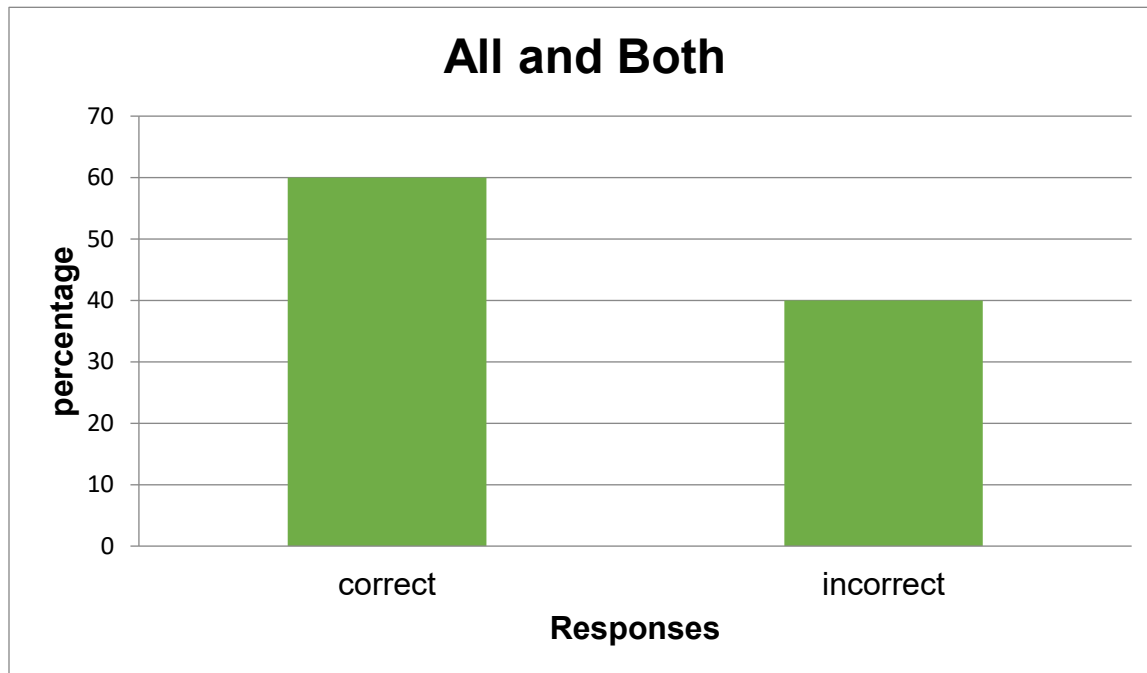
Tell me the (latest/ last) news

Figure 4.10 depicts a question based on the use of the adjectives **last** and **latest**. This question vexed most of the learners, as 60% of them made incorrect choices as only 40% made the correct choice. **Latter** is used to refer to the second of two persons or things that have been mentioned; when more than two persons have been mentioned the word **last** is used. For instance,

1. He preferred the oranges to the apples, because the **latter** were not as juicy.
2. He watched the three plays and liked the **last** one most.

This result shows that ESL learners have problems with these adjectives. The cause of the error is intra-lingual interference.

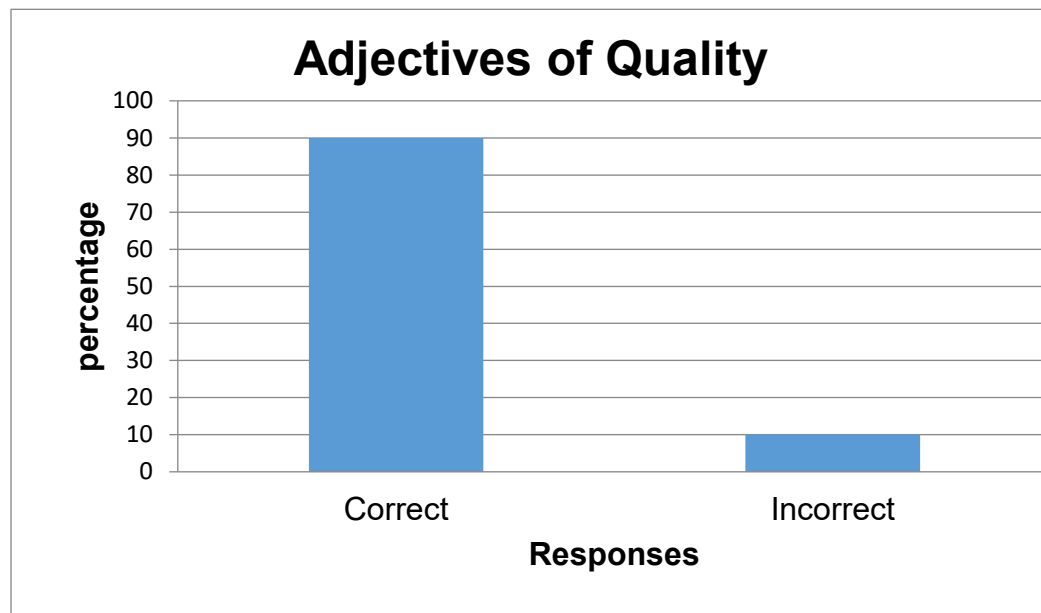
Figure 4.11. Errors in the Use of All and Both



All/ Both of the two schools are independent

Figure 4.11 above shows the results of the question on the use of **both** and **all**. Some learners tend to use the two adjectives interchangeably. **All** refers to the totality of something – including but not limited to a group of any size. **Both** only refers to all units in a group of two units; the difference between **both** and **all** is that **both** only applies to groups, and only to groups of two. The wrong choice was a result of direct translation from the mother tongue into English, so this is an example of inter-lingual transfer. The result depicted in the graph above seem to affirm the CAH's major claim that second language learners' errors are primarily caused by the interference from the old habits of the mother tongue.

Figure 4.12: Errors in the Use of Adjectives of Quality

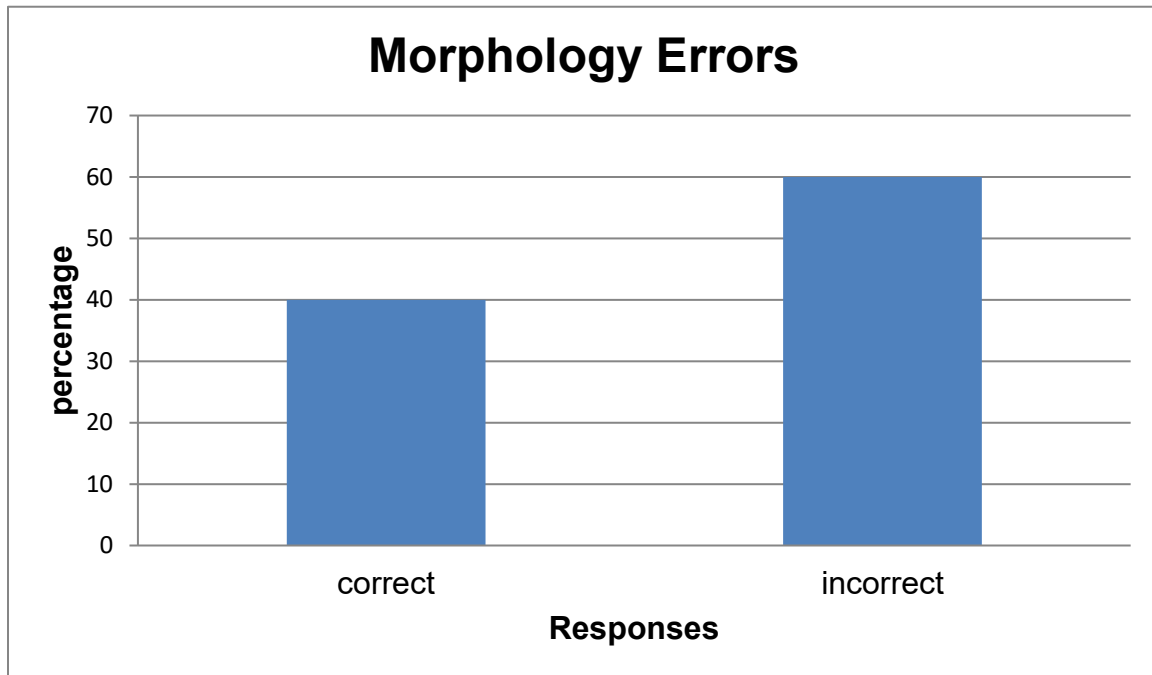


Question: Fill in the sentence with an appropriate adjective

1. Susan rested under a tree because she was very _____ A angry B. beautiful C. strong D. tired

The result on the above question in Figure 4.2 indicates that 90 % of the participants are proficient in their use of adjectives of quality while the remaining 10% lacked such competence. The respondents who used wrong adjectives produced sentences which were unintelligible. Failure to use adjectives can also be caused by semantic problems because for learners to be able to use adjectives appropriately, they must also be semantically competent. This is an example of an intra-lingual error since it is developmental. One of the learners filled in the gap with the word **angry** and the other one with the word **naughty**. This result seems to affirm the point made by Singh *et al.*, (2017) that some of the learners lack knowledge in their use of adjectives of quality. The percentage of learners who displayed incompetence in the use of quality adjectives is low, however, it is still worrisome and there is a need for appropriate intervention to minimize the recurrence of such errors.

Figure 4.13: Morphology Errors

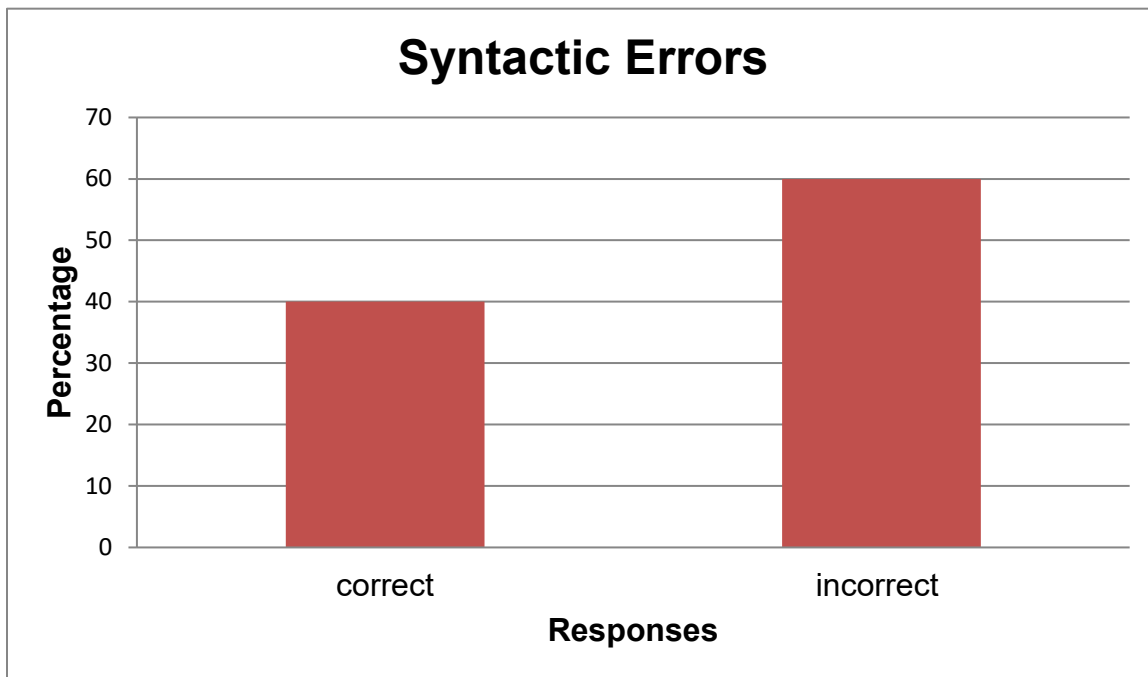


Question 2: Susan wore a ____ dress at the party.

A. colourness B. colourly C. colourful D. colourfull

The graph above shows that the question on the morphology of adjectives was one of the difficult questions. Most of the respondents chose option D above as the correct answer which indicates that they are not aware of the fact that the suffix **-ful** always ends with a single **'l'**. The results are in line with Abaker's (2017) research findings that some learners were not aware of the derivational processes in forming adjectives. The learners' lack of background in the morphology of English adjectives could be brought about by the linguistic distance between Black South African adjectives and English ones. The morphology of adjectives of the learners' mother tongue differs significantly from that of English adjectives. The learners were not aware of the derivational processes for forming adjectives.

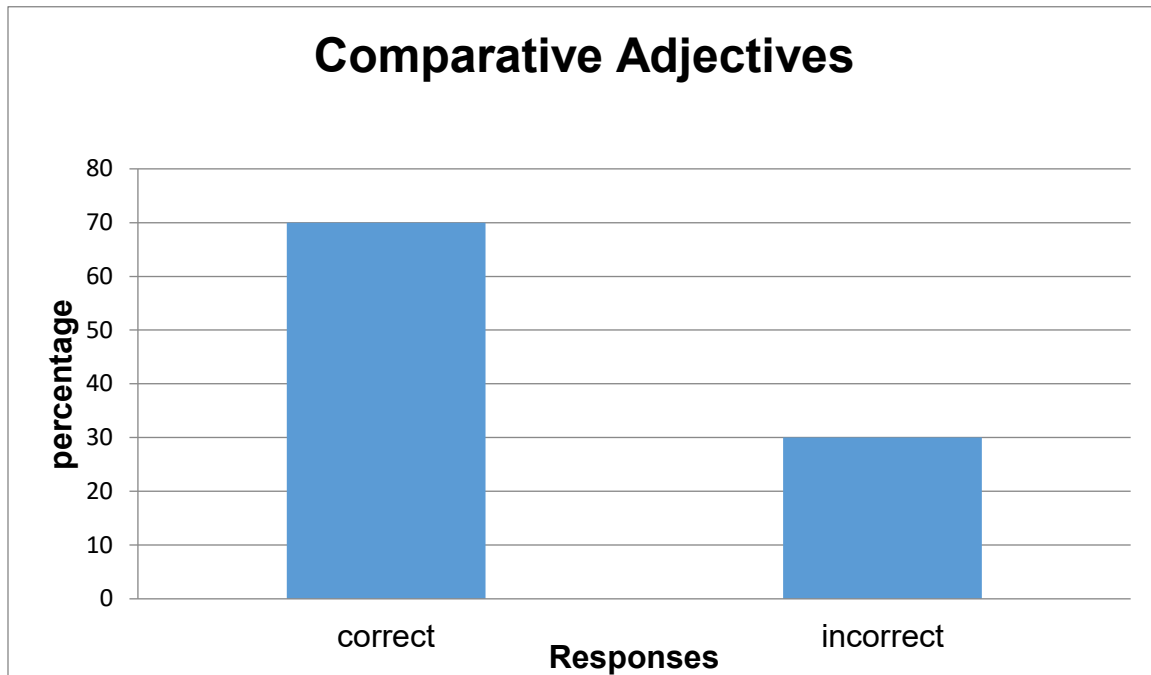
Figure 4.14: Syntactic Errors



Question: Uncle John is really _____ man A. an old sweet, B. old sweet, C. a sweetold, D. sweet old

The results in Figure 4.14 indicate that 60% of the respondents made incorrect choices and 40% made right choices. The results show that the respondents could not order the adjectives correctly. The difficulty may have been caused by the fact that in the respondents' home languages, adjectives always come after nouns while in English adjectives can be used attributively. The results seem to affirm the outcomes of El-Shaban (2017) and Abubaker *et al.*, (2017) studies that some L2 speakers sequence adjectives wrongly. In both studies, the results revealed that students' native languages influenced their adjective position and order.

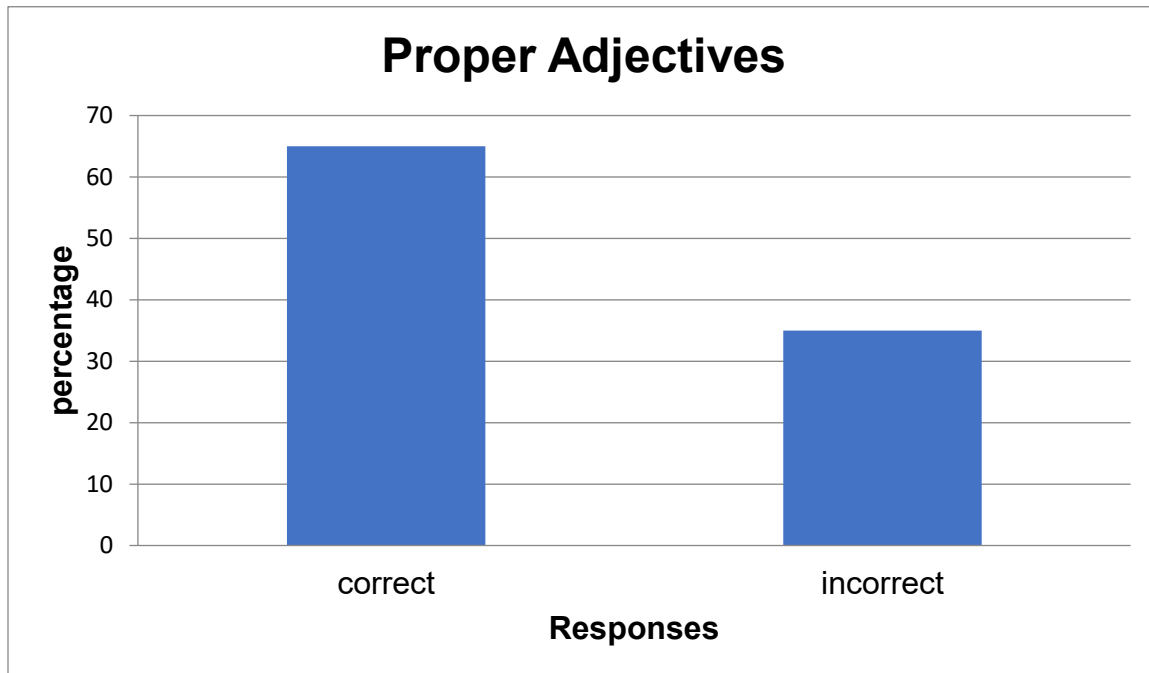
Figure 4.15: Comparative Degree Errors



Question: Eliot Jones is _____ than his brother. A. clever B. cleverest C. cleverer D. clevest

The above question sought to test learners' competence in their use of comparative degree markers; 30% of the learners used the word **clever** as a comparative adjective and erroneously chose option D as their answer. Learners tend to think that all adjectives ending in **-er** are comparative degree adjectives, therefore, some were not aware that the word **clever** is a positive degree adjective; hence they used it as a comparative degree adjective. The results concur with Pu and He's (2016) research findings that ESL learners had problems with the use of comparative degree adjectives. The error was a result of the influence of the mother tongue.

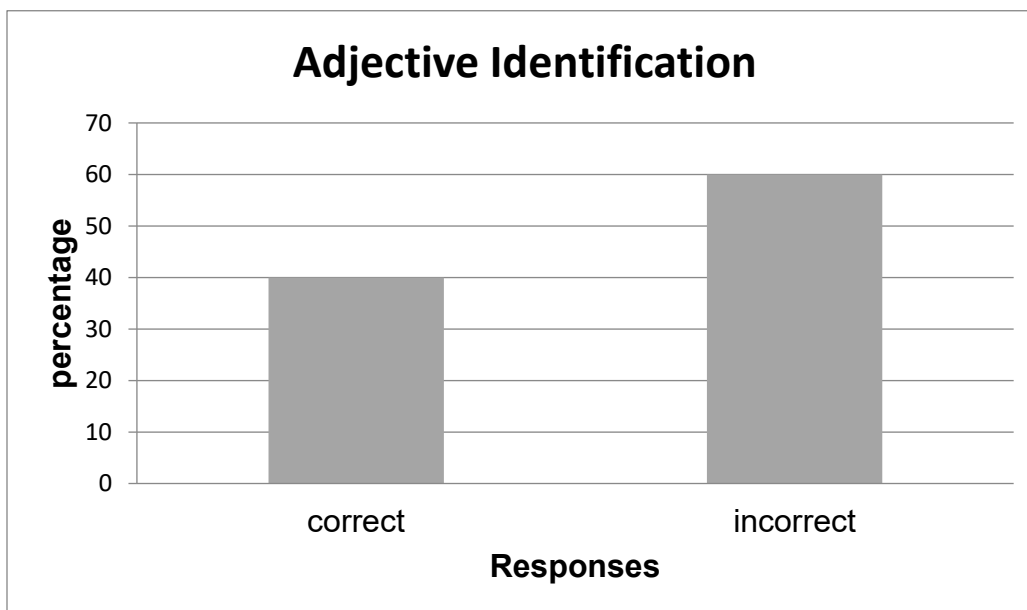
Figure 4.16: Proper Adjective Errors



Question: The _____ army defeated the French. A. Britain B. England C. British D. british

In Figure 4.16 on the above question, 35% of the responses were wrong while 65% of them were correct. This is an indication that a significant number of learners were not aware of the formation of adjectives as well as the fact that proper adjectives always begin with capital letters. Some of the respondents chose the word *british* as their answer while others chose option A, which is a noun. The latter group of respondents could not distinguish between adjectives and words from other word classes. Out of the 35% wrong responses, 25% of the respondents chose D while the remaining 10% chose option A. The possible explanation for the errors in the above question is ignorance of rule restrictions. The results are in line with Abaker's (2017) findings that some learners are not able to differentiate between adjectives, adverbs and nouns.

Figure 4.17: Adjective Identification Errors

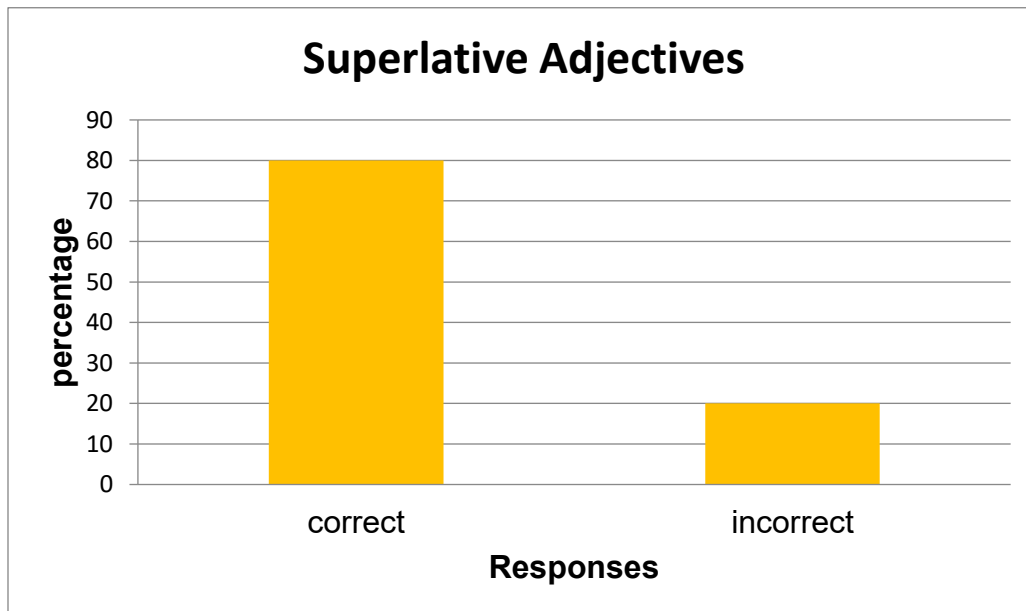


Question: Underline the adjective in the following sentence.

Canals have been dug to draw water from the low- lying areas. A. canals B. draw C. low-lying

In Figure 4.17 above, 60% of the respondents were not conversant with adjective identification while only 40% were able to identify them. Learners were unable to differentiate among adjectives, adverbs and nouns. The results concur with Abaker's (2017) study that learners could not differentiate among adjectives, adverbs and some nouns because they were not aware of the derivational processes for forming adjectives. These respondents were also not aware of the derivational processes of forming adjectives. This error is an example of an intra-lingual error.

Figure 4.18: Superlative Adjective Errors

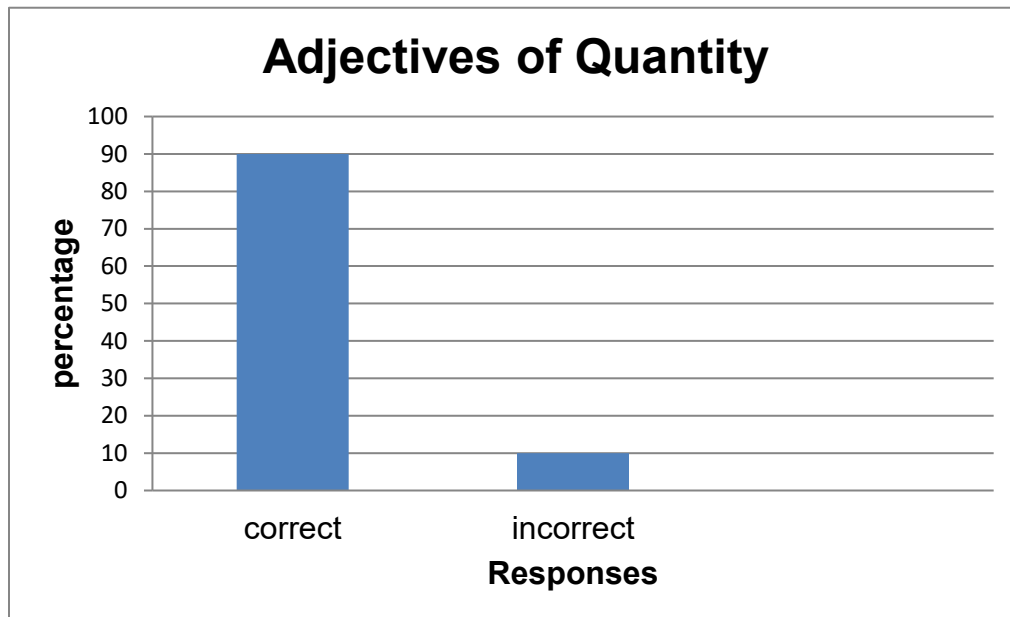


Question: Tony is the _____ person I know.

- A. Sociablest B. more sociable C. most sociable D. social

The findings in Figure 4.18 above, are that 80% of the respondents chose the correct option while the remaining 20% were unable to do that. In the sentence more than two objects are being compared, which means that the word **most** must precede the adjective **sociable**. The word **most** is used as a superlative degree marker and it always collocates with polysyllabic adjectives. The results seem to affirm Bazos and Aydin's (2014) study that some of the learners misuse the comparative and superlative degree markers **more** and **most** respectively. The results are also in line with Singh, Ruzak and Singh's (2017) study that some of the participants cannot construct comparative and superlative adjectives. This is an example of an intra-lingual error.

Figure 4.19: Errors in the Use of Adjectives of Quantity

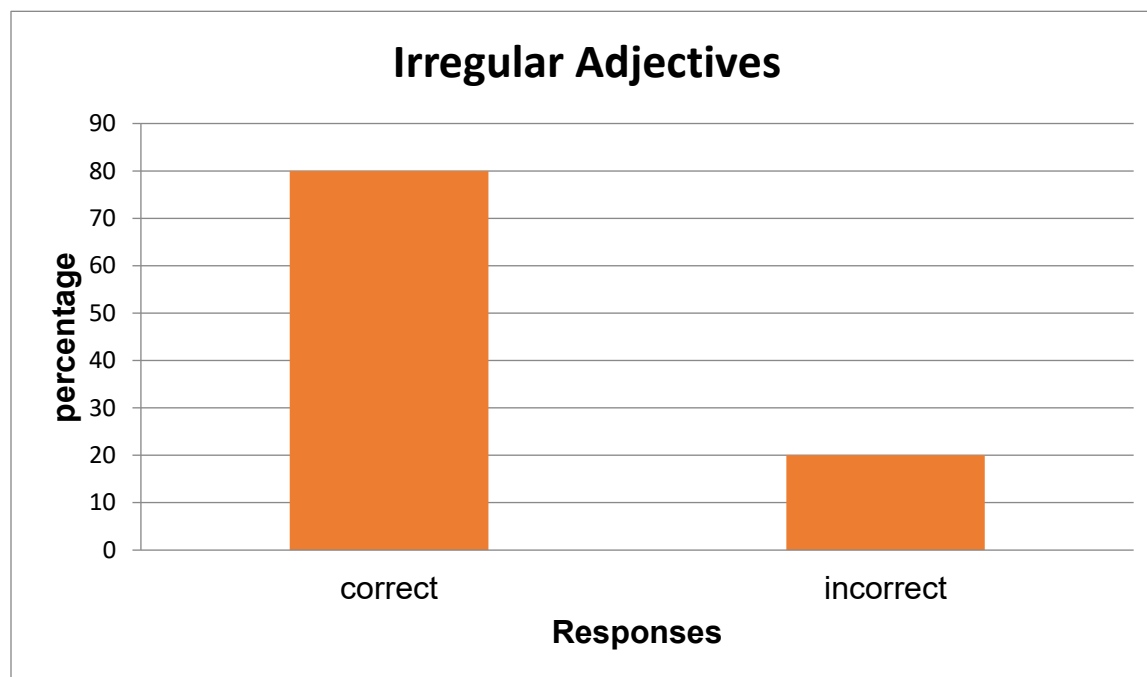


Question: Jennifer has a few/little money.

Figure 4.19 above presents errors in adjectives of quantity and it recorded 90% correct responses as compared to 10% incorrect ones. **Few** is an adjective that must always be used with countable nouns while **little** is always used to describe uncountable quantities.

Few learners were not familiar with adjectives of quantity, perhaps, due to inter-lingual transfer. When translated into the learners' mother tongue, the same adjectives can be used to describe quantity in both countable and uncountable nouns. **Few** is an adjective that must always be used with countable nouns, while **little** is always used to describe uncountable quantities. The cause of the error is in line with the study by Abubakar *et al.*, (2017) which revealed that students' native language influenced their use of English adjectives.

Figure 4.20: Errors in the Use of Irregular Adjectives



Write the correct form of the adjective in brackets.

Jennifer is (**bad**) than her father.

The graph in Figure 4.20 above presents a question on irregular adjectives. A significant percentage of the learners that is 80% demonstrated their ability to use irregular adjectives, compared to only 20% who lacked such competence. The learners who failed the question changed the word **bad** to **badder**, which does not exist. This result concurs with Mohammad (2008), that ESL learners extend the rules of regular to irregular adjectives when forming comparative and superlative adjectives. The error was caused by the fact that the learners' mother tongue does not have irregular adjectives. The other reason is that the learners overgeneralised the use of comparative and superlative degree markers, hence, constructing wrong sentences.

Figure 4.21: Errors in the Use of Demonstrative Adjectives

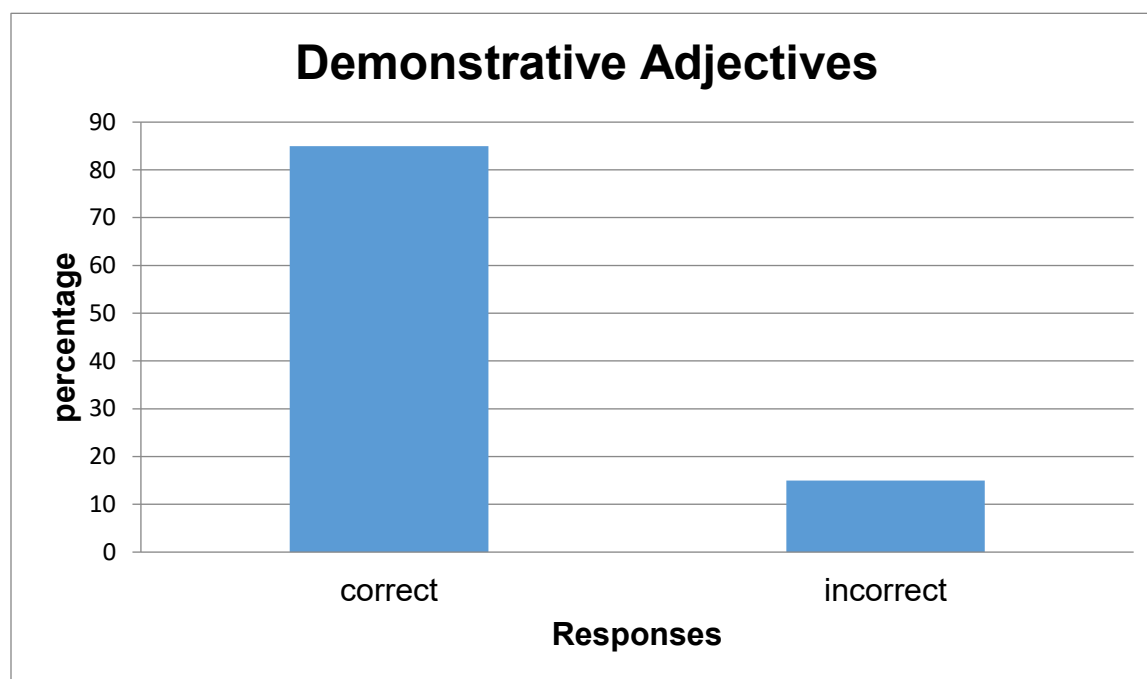
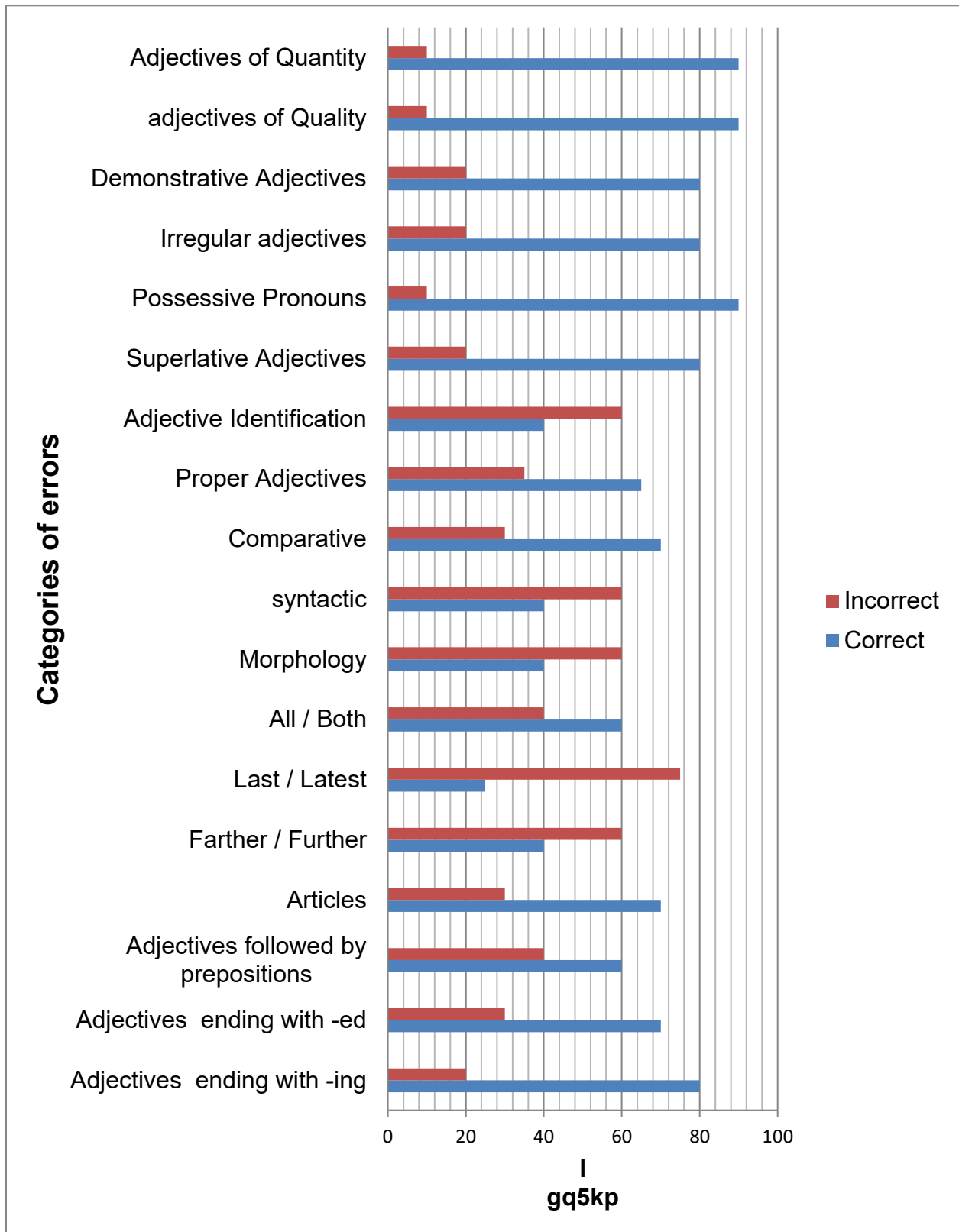


Figure 4.21

Question: Can you see _____ goats over there? A. that B. these C. those D. this

The bar graph in Figure 4.21 above, indicates that 80% of the respondents were able to choose the correct demonstrative adjective while 20% of the respondents lacked the ability to do so. Demonstratives tell **who** or **what** is being talked about. Some of the demonstratives were problematic to some of the learners. **This** and **these** are demonstratives that show nearness, while **that** and **those** are indicate the opposite; this and **that** are singular adjectives while **these** and **those** are plurals. This error was a result of ignorance of rule restrictions and it is intra-lingual. The results reported here are consistent with those identified in the literature review (Kennison *et al.* 1998). The learners, therefore, did not conform to the rules of using demonstrative *adjectives*

Figure 4.22: Summary of All Error Categories Recorded



The graph in Figure 4.22 displays all the adjective error categories recorded in this study. The data reveals that the questions on the use of **latest/ last**, **syntactic errors**, **morphology**, and the use of **further/farther**, as well as adjective identification recorded the highest number of errors. This is in comparison to the questions on adjectives of **quantity**, **possessive pronouns** and **adjectives of quality** that recorded the least number of errors. The errors in this study were caused by both intra-lingual and inter-lingual transfer.

Pedagogical Implications of Quantitative Data Analysis

Like qualitative analysis, quantitative data analysis revealed that the errors committed by non-native English Home Language learners were predominantly inter-lingual, although a few intra-lingual ones were made. According to the above bar graph, the largest number of errors committed were concerned with morphology, comparatives and adjective identification errors. These three categories of errors committed by the respondents are closely related. For in order for learners to construct comparative degree adjectives, they need to be conversant with their morphology; proficiency in the morphology of adjectives enhances learners' adjective identification skills.

4.3 ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA

4.3.1 Presentation and discussion of findings

After the participants' written compositions had been marked, the error identification and categorisation process was done by the researcher, assisted by two qualified English Home Language teachers from two of the selected schools. The researcher then trained two teachers in the identification and categorization of errors before commencement of the processes. An analysis of each learner's written composition indicated several adjective errors. Ten categories of errors emerged from the data and these were: mis choosing, omission of markers, duplicative use, wrong sentence structure, overuse, wrong regular adjectives, syntactic errors, morphological errors and semantic errors. Based on these findings of the study, it is evident that Grade 7 non – native English Home Language learners do commit both inter-lingual and intra-lingual errors as illustrated by the summary of the categories of errors shown in the Table below. Examples of inter-

lingual and intra-lingual errors made by the research participants are presented separated in the Tables.

Table 4.1: Intralingual Errors from Learners' Written Compositions

CATEGORY	ERROR MADE	TARGET SENTENCE/ PHRASE/ WORD
Duplicative use	A horse is more stronger than a donkey.	A horse is stronger than a donkey.
Morphological Errors	A cheetah is a beautifull animal. A cheetah is a beautiful animal.	A cheetah is a beautiful animal. A cheetah is a beautiful animal.
Wrong Part of Speech	A cheetah is a gracefully animal. A donkey brays loud.	A cheetah is a graceful animal. A donkey brays aloud.

Table4.2: Inter-Lingual Errors from Learners' Written Compositions

CATEGORY	ERROR MADE	TARGET SENTENCE/ PHRASE/ WORD
Omission of Markers	A cheetah is agile than a leopard. A monkey is clever than a baboon.	A cheetah is more agile than a leopard A monkey is cleverer than a baboon.
Syntactic Errors	A cheetah is enough fast to break a city speed limit.	A cheetah is fast enough to break a city speed limit.
Wrong Collocations	I can't believe how much stubborn a monkey is.	I can't believe how stubborn a monkey is.
Misuse of plural markers	Leopards and cheetahs belong to the cat's family. A cheetah is faster than others cats.	Leopards and cheetahs belong to the cat family A cheetah is faster than other cats.

Omission of Articles	Cheetah is the fastest animal in the world.	A cheetah is the fastest animal in the world.
Wrong comparative adjective Markers	A donkey is the shortest of the two animals.	A donkey is the shorter of the two animals.
Wrong adjective of quantity	A leopard has less sports than a cheetah.	A leopard has fewer sports than a cheetah.

Data analysis involves working on information in order to uncover patterns and trends in data sets; data interpretation involves explaining those patterns and trends. After marking the learners' compositions, the researcher noted that the most persistent errors made by non-native English Home Language learners were caused by inter-lingual transfer. These errors were made by more than 60% of the participants. The causes of each of the errors presented in the Table above are discussed below. Firstly, the causes of intra-lingual errors are discussed, then a discussion of the causes of inter-lingual errors follows.

4.3.1.1. Errors caused by Intra-lingual Transfer

- **Duplicative Use**

The respondents exhibited problems with the formation of comparative adjectives. They did not conform to the rules for adjectives in the comparative degree. After adding the suffix *-er* to some positive adjectives, they still used them with the word *more*. They were not aware of the fact that *more* does not collocate with monosyllabic adjectives. The results seem to affirm Pu and He's (2016) findings which showed that their participants had problems with the use of the words *than* and *more*. The sentences below were some of the respondents.

1. *A cheetah is more bigger than a leopard.
2. *A horse is more stronger than a donkey.
3. *A monkey is more clever than a baboon.

- **Morphological Errors**

The respondents also did not understand the morphological rules for adjectives, consequently, they misspelt some of them. These mistakes were caused by inadequate

learning of the rules. Learners need a lot of written and spoken practice in order to master morphological rules. Below are some of the morphological errors made by the learners,

1. **A cheetah is beautifull*
2. **A cheetah is a beautyful animal*
3. **A full-grown cheetah is about seventy- five centimetres high.*

The respondents were not aware of the fact that the prefix **-ful** in words like **beautiful** always ends in one “l”, as a result, they misspelt it. They also had not mastered the rule for forming adjectives from nouns such as **beauty**. The consonant “y” must be dropped and be replaced by the vowel “i”. The respondents also had problems with the formation of compound adjectives, as sentence number 3 above reflects. The results seem to concur with those of Hassen’s (2016), that the respondents faced difficulty in adjective construction. English and the participants’ home languages employ different processes and structures in forming the adjective structure of the various types. The cause of errors was interference of the participants’ mother tongue.

- **Wrong Part of Speech**

Some of the respondents used adjectives and adverbs interchangeably as they seem not conversant with the morphology of adjectives and adverbs. As a consequence, they could not distinguish between some adverbs and adjectives. The results seem to concur with Abaker’s (2017) findings that ESL learners lacked the ability to differentiate among adjectives, adverbs and some nouns. A couple of mistakes made by some of the learners are given below.

1. **A cheetah is a gracefully animal.*
2. **A donkey brays loud.*

Other learners omitted the word **the** in sentences which had adjectives in the superlative degree.

4.3.1.2. Errors caused by inter-lingual transfer

- **Syntactic Errors**

Some of the learners committed syntactic errors. The following are some of the sentences constructed by the learners.

1. **A cheetah is enough fast to break a city speed limit.*
2. **A baboon has grey long fur.*
3. **A monkey is a little clever animal.*

In sentence number 1, the word **enough** must come after the word **fast**. **Enough** always goes after adjectives, adverbs and verbs. In sentence number 2 the word **grey** has to come after the word **long**. The adjectives in sentence number 3 are also written in the wrong order. The learners make such errors because their home language, Xitsonga, does not have rules for adjectival order so the students' home language influences their positioning and ordering of adjectives. In El Shaban's (2017) research study, Arab learners made similar errors which indicates that syntactic errors are commonplace among ESL learners of different native languages.

- **Omission of Markers**

The respondents also encountered difficulties in the use of markers. Most of the Learners omitted both the marker of analysis and the marker of synthesis, which is a clear indication that the use of comparative markers is really problematic for them. For instance, some of the respondents wrote the following sentences.

1. **A cheetah runs fast than expected.*
2. **A monkey is clever than a baboon*

In the above sentences, the learners omitted the comparative degree marker **-er**. In fact, **fast** ought to be changed to **faster** and **clever** to **cleverer**. Some of the learners mistook the word **clever** for a comparative adjective because of the fact that it ends with **-er**. Like in the research by Singh *et al.*, (2017), the learners could not apply conventional rules forming comparative forms of adjectives. Some learners omitted the word **the** in

sentences which were in the superlative degree. The following incorrect sentences are from the learners' compositions.

1. **A cheetah is fastest of all the animals in the world.*
2. **A monkey is funniest of all the animals.*

In both sentences the article **the** was omitted and this kind of error is caused by the influence of the Home Language. The respondents' mother languages have no article system so the learners were confused by the use of articles as they are a new phenomenon to them.

- **Wrong Collocations**

Some adjectives that are word-partners sound natural to native speakers but pose a problem to second language learners. In this study the respondents also committed collocation errors, one of which was the following.

1. **I can't believe how much stubborn a monkey is.*

In the above sentence, **how much** is wrongly used. **How much** can only be used before nouns, never before verbs. The correct sentence should be "**I can't believe how stubborn a monkey is.**"

- **Misuse of Plural Markers**

The learners tended to misuse plural markers in nouns that function as adjectives to modify other nouns. Below are some of the errors that were made by the respondents.

1. **A leopard belongs to the cat's family.*
2. **A cheetah can run faster than others cats*

In sentence number 1 and 2 above the italicised words are nouns that are functioning as adjectives, so, they must not be pluralised because adjectives before nouns are always singular in English even though the noun, they are describing is plural. The error was a result of mother tongue interference.

- **Wrong Comparative Adjective Markers**

Quite a number of learners did not observe the rules for adjectives in the comparative degree. Like in Zawareh (2012) research, some of the respondents lacked the ability to construct comparative and superlative sentences. Below are sample sentences from learners' compositions'

1. **A donkey is the shortest of the two animals*
2. **A cheetah is fastest than a leopard*

In the sentences above the respondents used superlative adjectives to compare two animals, instead, of the comparative degree adjectives; this is a clear testimony that they did not understand how comparative and superlative adjective markers work as they are non-existent in their mother language. Such errors can also be attributed to lack of classroom practice, and insufficient learning resources.

- **Wrong Adjective of Quantity**

Adjectives of quantity were also problematic for the learners as some of them misused them and below are some of the respondents' sentences from their compositions.

1. **A cheetah has much spots.*
2. **A leopard has less sports than a cheetah.*

In sentence number 1, the respondent used the adjective **much** instead of the **many**. The word **much** is used with uncountable nouns while **many** is used with countable ones. The above errors were caused by negative influence of the mother tongue as the learners' Home language uses the same adjectives with countable and uncountable nouns.

- **Omission of Articles**

Some of the learners omitted articles while some misused them. Below are some of the sentences from their compositions. In sentences 1 and 2, the articles **the** and **a** were omitted, respectively.

1. **Cheetah is fastest animal in the world*

2. **Baboon has long tail*

Articles pose a problem to some non-native English Home Language learners because unlike English, their native language does not have an article system. Definiteness and indefiniteness which are expressed, respectively, by the articles, **a/n** and **the** before nouns in English, are absent in Bantu languages. The use of articles brings some confusion to non-native English Home language learners as the absence of indefiniteness and definiteness expressed, respectively, by the articles “the” and “a/n” in their own languages, causes them to have the notion that articles are optional. The error was caused by the interference of the mother tongue. This finding seems to affirm Harb’s (2014) study which found that errors in the use of articles can be attributed to the interference of the mother tongue and an incomplete understanding of how definite and indefinite articles are to be used.

4.3.1.3 *Pedagogical implications of the qualitative and quantitative data analyses*

The qualitative data analysis revealed that adjective errors committed by the respondents in this study were due to both intra-lingual and inter-lingual transfer. The errors that featured most prominently were morphological, formation of comparative degree adjectives and adjective identification errors. The Quantitative data analysis portrayed that errors in the use of further/farther, syntactic errors, morphology errors as well as errors in the use of latter/last recorded the highest number. It can be concluded that learners have problems with the rules governing the formation of adjectives, especially, the use of comparative and superlative degree markers. Teachers, therefore, must give them brief grammar rules to help them remedy their errors resulting from overgeneralisation and wrong analogy. The study has shed light on the manner in which non-native English home language learners learn rules of the target language. It further reveals how error analysis can help identify, in a systematic way, the specific problems encountered by learners in their use of adjectives and in the learning of English Home language in general. It has provided information on common trouble spots in the learning of adjectives and this can be used in the preparation of teaching and learning materials.

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has been largely about the presentation, analysis and discussion of both qualitative and quantitative data obtained from non – native Grade 7 English Home Language learners in Man’ombe Circuit. The chapter has attempted to highlight the various types of adjective errors as they were identified in learners’ written descriptive compositions and on ten categories of errors in the standardized test. Most of the errors committed by the respondents were caused by inter-lingual transfer, also known as “negative influence” of the mother tongue. In the opinion of the current researcher, the adjective errors made by the learners adversely affect their written and spoken language as well as their performance in all subjects whose LoLT is English. There is need, therefore, for teachers to ensure that non-native English Home Language learners are exposed to LoLT in their early years of schooling. Error analysis and collaborative learning must be encouraged to enhance learners’ ability to learn from their own errors.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with data presentation and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data obtained by way of content analysis as well as quantitative data obtained from a standardised test. In this chapter, a brief summary of the research project is presented. The findings from the literature review and the learners' written reports as well as the standardised test will be presented. The research concludes by giving recommendations which contain practical suggestions on how to remedy the adjective errors committed by non – native English Home Language learners in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District, thereby, minimise their recurrence.

5.2 SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to present an analysis of adjective errors committed by non-native English Home Language learners in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District. The research study was triggered by learners' repeated failure in descriptive essay writing. This is an aspect dismally failed by Grade 7 learners in Limpopo Province in 2017 and 2018. EHL teachers were, therefore, blamed for not teaching the language effectively, as most learners could not express clearly in their descriptive compositions. Their grammar, especially their use of adjectives was poor and their vocabulary was very limited.

The research adopted a systematic random sampling and it was conducted in four independent primary schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District. A sample of 20 non-native English Home Language learners participated in the research, and all of them were Grade 7 learners.

Chapter 1 was mainly concerned with the introduction and background to the study, problem statement, aim of study, theoretical framework, ethical considerations, research methods, significance of the study and finally a chapter outline.

Chapter 2 focused on a literature review on types and causes of adjective errors made by EHL learners and how they can be remedied in order to prevent their recurrence in learners' written texts.

The overriding purpose of Chapter 3 was to describe the methodology and design of the research study. The descriptions focused on the population and sample that were employed to collect data using mixed methods; content analysis was employed in collecting qualitative data and a standardised test for the quantitative data. Systematic random sampling was used to select participants.

Chapter 4 focused on data analysis, which was done by identifying and categorising non-native EHL learners' adjective errors, which they had made in their descriptive compositions. The analysis was done by calculating the proportion of adjective errors, made by the learners, for each category, in the standardised test, and presenting them graphically. In addition to that, the chapter also dealt with the interpretation of results that subsequently led to the findings and recommendations.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

The research questions were answered by themes which emerged from the content analysis as well as from the information shown on graphs and pie charts. The quantitative data revealed that errors on the use of further/farther, syntactic errors, morphology errors, as well as errors on the use of latter/last recorded the highest number. The qualitative data showed that morphology errors, errors on formation of comparative degree adjectives and adjective identification were in line with the findings from literature review. They are discussed below.

5.3.1 Intra-lingual Errors

For both qualitative and quantitative data analysis, some of the errors committed were brought about by intra-lingual interference. Intra-lingual errors are those that are caused by faulty or partial learning of the target language. The respondents of the present research made numerous intra-lingual errors which were due to the learners' difficulty with adjectives in the English language. This might have been caused by the fact that

most learners are only exposed to English at school. The study was carried out in a rural environment where learners are historically disadvantaged. At home, they rarely communicate in English, hence, they lack both basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). There is need for teachers to help them acquire CALP so that they might have adequate communicative competence to enable them to understand and make use of grammatical rules in text creation.

5.3.2 Inter-lingual Errors

Most of the errors made by non- native EHL learners can be attributed to inter- lingual interference. More than 60% of the errors made by the respondents of the present research were caused by interference of the mother tongue. The analysis of data in the previous chapter testifies to this fact

Analysis of Errors made by the respondents, as mentioned in the previous chapter, are essential to the language teacher, as they furnish teachers with significant information which indicates the learners' progress. They also help teachers to focus attention on types of errors to be focused upon. The results of this study compare very well with research studies in the literature review. Findings indicate that the learners' errors were caused by both intra and inter- lingual interference.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made in order to remedy learners' adjective errors and improve their written and spoken language:

1. Learners must constructively correct and comment on each other's work to promote the sharing of ideas and active learning in class. This can be facilitated when learners are given group work, when groups report back on what they have done.
2. Learners must make brief summaries of grammatical rules so that they can refer to them constantly to minimize the recurrence of adjective errors.

3. Learners must use facilities such as liquid crystal displays (LCDs) and Computer-aided learning programs to support the learning of adjectives and words from other lexical categories.
4. Learners must also be encouraged to bring their own learning tools such as DVDs and tablets that they can use to learn, so as to practice and perfect their use of adjectives and words from other word classes.
5. Learners must read widely to broaden their vocabulary, in order to broaden their exposure and understanding of adjectives.
6. Teachers must meaningfully use learners' adjective errors to plan appropriate remedial action to minimise the recurrence of such errors.
7. Teachers should furnish learners with suitable learning aids and teaching materials to help them improve their grammatical skills.
8. Teachers must always put learners' repetitive adjective errors as samples on the board and guide them to correct them.
9. Teachers should reward EHL learners' efforts by giving constructive feedback to help learners improve and enhance their motivation.

5.5 RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- It is recommended that further research on the causes of EHL errors be conducted in other Districts and Provinces of South Africa, among EHL learners who speak languages, other than Xitsonga.
- Further research that can make a valuable contribution can also be conducted on the correlation between competence in adjective use and the ability to write quality descriptive texts.
- Further research on the misappropriation of EHL errors has to be conducted in urban schools. The current research was conducted in a disadvantaged rural setting.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The objectives of the research as they were outlined have been attained. The aim of the research was to present an analysis of adjective errors committed by non-native EHL in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District, Limpopo Province.

This chapter focused on the summary of the research project and the findings as well as the recommendations for remedying adjective errors among EHL learners in Mopani District.

The study has shed light on how EHL learners learn EHL. It has provided significant knowledge on the importance of errors that EHL learners make. The study has emphasised that errors are visible proof that learning is taking place, and they can help teachers plan meaningful lessons and teach effectively.

In the current study the errors made by the respondents were both intra and inter-lingual. It is recommended that teachers, university and college lecturers to implement the suggestions given above. This would definitely improve the standard of English in primary schools and subsequently improve matric pass rate in South Africa.

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ANNEXURE A: ETHICAL APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:

Mr A Ticharwa

STUDENT NO:

19020660

PROJECT TITLE: Misappropriation of adjectives by Grade 7 Non-native English Home Language Learners: A Case Study of four Independent Primary Schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District.

ETHICAL CLEARANCE NO: SHSS/20/ENG/05/0802

SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS

NAME	INSTITUTION & DEPARTMENT	ROLE
Dr MN Lambani	University of Venda	Supervisor
Mr VT Bvuma	University of Venda	Co - Supervisor
Mr A Ticharwa	University of Venda	Investigator - Student

Type: Masters Research

Risk: Risk to humans, animals, environment, or a sensitive research area

Approval Period: March 2021 – March 2023

The Research Ethics Social Sciences Committee (RESSC) hereby approves your project as indicated above.

General Conditions

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- The project leader (principal investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the RECC:
 - Annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project, and upon completion of the project.
 - Within 48hrs in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
 - Annually a number of projects may be randomly selected for an external audit.
- The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Would any change to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the REC. Would there be deviation from the project protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the REC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility, the REC retains the right to:
 - Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
 - To ask further questions; Seek additional information; Requires further modification or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process.
 - withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - Any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected.
 - It becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the REC or that information has been false or misrepresented.
 - The required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately.
 - New institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.

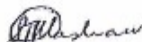
ISSUED BY:

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Date Considered: February 2021

Name of the RESSC Chairperson of the Committee: Prof Takalani Mashau

Signature:



UNIVERSITY OF VENDA OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR RESEARCH AND INNOVATION 2021-03-08 Private Bag X5050 Tlohasandou 0950

ANNEXURE B: LETTER TO PARENT/ GUARDIAN

House Number 1382

Section F Giyani

0826

9 March 2021

Dear Parent/ Guardian

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA FROM YOUR CHILD

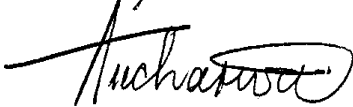
I am writing to request permission to gather data from your child. I am studying for a Master of Arts in English Language Teaching with the University of Venda.

The title of my research study is, "Misappropriation of Adjective by Grade 7 Non- native English Home Language Learners: A Case Study of Four Rural Primary Schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District." If permission is granted, the study will take place at Khanyisa Education Centre, in one of the classrooms and it will take no longer than three hours. Student participants will write a descriptive composition as well as a fifty item standardised test based on the correct use of adjectives. The information in the research will be kept confidential. The data will be made available only to the researcher. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link your child to the research. Your child will be given a consent form to be signed by you.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated.

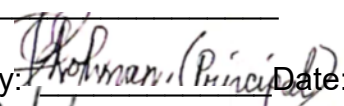
Yours faithfully

Addmore Ticharwa

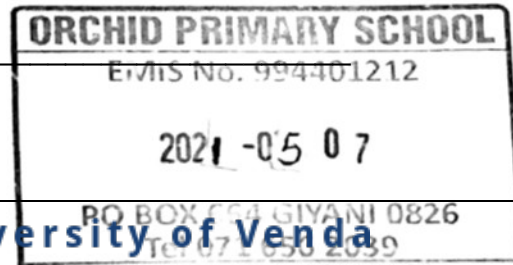


Email: addmoretichagwa@gmail.com

Cc Doctor M.N. Lambani

Approved by:  Date:

7 July 2021



ANNEXURE C: LETTER TO PRINCIPAL

House Number 1382

Section F

Giyani

0826

9 March 2021

The Principal
Khanyisa Education Centre
P.O Box
Giyani
0826

Dear Sir/ Madam

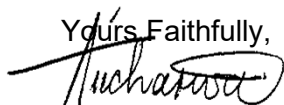
RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY AT YOUR SCHOOL

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at your institution, with Grade 7 English Home Language Learners enrolled for the 2020 academic year.

I am currently studying for the Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, with the University of Venda and I am in the process of writing my Thesis. The study is titled, "Misappropriation of Adjectives by Grade 7 non- native English Home Language Learners: A Case Study of Four Independent Rural Primary Schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District". I hope that the school management will allow me to recruit learners from your school to anonymously write a descriptive composition of two and half to three pages. They will also write a fifty-item standardized test based on the use of adjectives. Selected learners will be given a consent form to be signed by their parents or guardians (copy enclosed) and returned to the primary researcher.

If permission is granted, student participants will write both the test and the composition in the classroom on the school site and it will take no longer than two hours. The result of the study will remain confidential and anonymous.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated.

Yours Faithfully,


Addmore Ticharwa

email: addmoretichagwa@gmail.com

cc Doctor M.N. Lambani (Supervisor)

Approved by:

Date: _____

Print your name, title, signature and date here

ANNEXTURE D: RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH TOPIC: Misappropriation of Adjectives by Non-native English Home Language learners: A Case of Four Independent Rural Primary Schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District.

POSITION: Master of Arts in English Language Teaching Student, at the University of Venda

DEPARTMENT: English

CONTACTADDRESS:

Orchid Primary School

P.O Box 664

Giyani

0826

CELL: 0631047159

addmoretichagwa@gmail.com

I have read and clearly understood the information and I understand that participation in the study, by respondents is voluntary. I, therefore, grant my child permission to participate in the research study.

RESPONDET NUMBER 1

STUDENT NUMBER: 19020660

CC DR M.N. LAMBANI (SUPERVISOR)

NAME OF PARENT

DATE

SIGNATURE



STUDENT

DATE

SIGNATURE

ANNEXURE E: RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH TOPIC: Misappropriation of Adjectives by Non-native English Home Language learners: A Case of Four Independent Rural Primary Schools in Man'ombe Circuit, Mopani District.

POSITION: Master of Arts in English Language Teaching Student, at the University of Venda

DEPARTMENT: English

CONTACTADDRESS:

Orchid Primary School

P.O Box 664

Giyani

0826

CELL: 0631047159

addmoretichagwa@gmail.com

I have read and clearly understood the information and I understand that participation in the study, by respondents is voluntary. I, therefore, grant my child permission to participate in the research study.

NAME OF STUDENT _____

STUDENT NUMBER: 19020660

CC DR M.N. LAMBANI (SUPERVISOR)

NAME OF PARENT

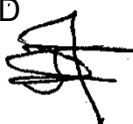
DATE

SIGNATURE

NAME OF CHILD

DATE

SIGNATURE



ANNEXURE F: REPLY FROM PRINCIPAL

Addmore Ticharwa
House Number 1382F
Giyani
0826

Dear Sir

Request for Permission to Conduct a Research at Orchid Primary School, South Africa

I am writing this letter with regards to the above subject.

You are hereby informed that your request to conduct a research study titled, **“Misappropriation of adjective errors by non-native English Home Language Learners: A Case Study of Four Independent Primary Schools in Man’ombe Circuit, Mopani District ”** has been granted. We appreciate your commitment to ensure confidentiality, anonymity and voluntary participation by the respondents. Ensure that the data collection process does not disrupt teaching and learning in the school.

Wishing you the best in your study,

Kind regards

J. Ruthann (Principal)



ANNEXURE G: RESEARCH INSTRUMENT FOR QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Composition Topics

Choose one topic and write a composition (300- 350 words).

1. Write a composition on similarities and differences between a dog and a cat
2. Compare and contrast a horse and a donkey
3. Write a composition on similarities between a cheetah and a leopard

ANNEXURE H: RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS FOR QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

1. Standardised Test on Adjectives & Memorandum

Read the instructions in each section carefully and respond appropriately.

SECTION A

In this section, choose the correct option from the words in brackets.

1. (Whose/ who's) book is on the table?
2. The teacher taught us a very (interesting/ interested) lesson
3. My mother watched the game because she is (interested/ interesting) in soccer.
4. A leopard is (similar to/ with) a cheetah.
5. Mr. Sadikiis(the/a/an) principal of Nyukani High School.
6. Thohoyandouis (farther/ further) away from Johannesburg than Mokopane.
7. Tell me the (latest/ last) news.
- 8.(All/ Both) of the two schools are independent.

SECTION B

Fill in with an appropriate adjective.

9. Susan rested under a tree because she was very _____
A. angry B. beautiful C. strong D. tired
10. Susan wore a _____ dress at the party. A. colouresome B. colourly
C. colourful D. Colourfull
11. Uncle John is really _____ man. A.an old sweet B. old
sweet C. a sweet old E. sweet old
12. Elliot Jones is _____ than his brother. A. clever B. cleverest C. cleverer
D. clevest
13. The _____ army defeated the French. A. British B. british C. Britain

SECTION C

Underline the adjective in the following sentences.

14. Canals have been dug to draw water from low –lying areas. A. canals B. draw C. low-lying
15. Tony is the _____ person I know. A. sociable B. more sociable C. most sociable D. socially
16. Jennifer has a little/ few sugar

SECTION D

Write the correct form of the adjectives in brackets.

17. Jennifer is (bad) than her brother.
18. Can you see (these) goats over there.
19. This bag is (big) than that one.
20. He failed the exam due to his (stupid)

2. Memorandum

1. Whose
2. interesting
3. interested
4. similar to
5. the
6. farther
7. latest
8. both
9. tired

- ,
10. colourful
 11. a sweet old man
 12. cleverer
 13. British
 14. low- lying
 15. most sociable
 16. little
 18. those
 19. bigger
 20. stupidity

ANNEXTURE I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS' BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Age: _____
2. Gender: _____
3. Grade _____
4. What is your father's native language? _____
5. What is your mother's native language? _____
6. Which language is the most dominant in your community? _____
7. Which language are you most comfortable with, when communicating? _____
8. What is your language of instruction? _____
9. What is your English teacher's native language? _____
10. Which language do most of your subject teachers speak? _____
11. What is the most dominant language in your class? _____