Effect of Mother Tongue on Learning Kiswahili Language in Public Secondary Schools in Kwanza Sub-County, Trans-Nzoia County, Kenya

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Abstract
The study investigated the effect of Mother Tongue on Learning Kiswahili Language in Public Secondary Schools in Kwanza Sub-County, Trans-Nzoia County, Kenya. The study was guided by Weinreich’s (1953) theory of first language acquisition and second language learning. The theory focuses on interference defining it as those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilingual as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. This theory has been applauded by linguists such as Gass and Selinker (2008) who assume that in the SLA, learners create a language system known as an Interlanguage. In this study, survey design was used to explore effect of interlanguage on learning of Kiswahili language in public secondary schools in Kwanza Sub-County, Trans-Nzoia County. Data collection involved administration of questionnaires, observation schedule, interview schedule and document analysis. In this research, stratified sampling was used in selecting schools. Schools sampled were: four streamed, three streamed, double streamed and single streamed. The principals and teachers of Kiswahili of sampled schools were sampled purposively. Simple random sampling technique was used in the selection of streams in multiple streamed schools. The form three students were simple randomly selected to form part of the sample. Descriptive statistics was used in analyzing data. These included percentages and frequencies. The study found out that the use of interlanguage negatively affected the learning of Kiswahili language. In addition, the study established that both teachers and students had positive attitude towards Kiswahili language. Therefore, teachers should capitalize on the positive attitude to assist students do well in Kiswahili subject. The study also found out that school language policy negatively affected performance of Kiswahili language since it was biased giving preference to English use. The study also established that students were allocated limited time to speak in Kiswahili. The use of Sheng’ negatively affects the learning of Kiswahili in secondary schools. Lastly, teachers mostly used direct method and question and answer method than any other methods of teaching Kiswahili.

Key words: Sheng’, interlanguage, Kiswahili, code, fossilization, second language, target language, first language

Background to the Study
A language plays a major role in generating knowledge and producing new forms of behavior that distinguishes human from other creatures. Barasa, (2005) states that people must have knowledge of a language, know how to put this knowledge into patterns which either acquire and or learn. Learning Kiswahili as a second language (SL) has faced linguistic problems dating back to colonial era.

When Kenya attained self-rule in 1963, English was declared the official language. It was to be used in all important governmental sectors, education inclusive. Conflicts pertaining to issues of language started to emerge prominently in 1909 when missionary orders consulted the colonial administration on the question of the appropriate medium to be used in education. But problems related to language policy rarely seemed to trouble the
administration. It took ten years to respond. The response came through a commission. The then Director of Education told the Commission that teaching Kiswahili was a waste of time and resources (Gorman, 1974). The final ruling of this Commission was that regional vernaculars were to be used in lower primary school classes and English in upper secondary school classes. Policy-wise, the decision removed Kiswahili from the educational scene entirely, (Mukuria, 1995).

Soon after independence, an Education Commission was appointed in 1964 under the chairmanship of Professor Ominde. The Commission revealed that many Kenyans were in favor of English as a medium of instruction from the beginning class in primary school to the university. The Commission threw its weight behind English language arguing that it would expedite learning in all subjects by ensuring smooth transitions from “vernaculars,” and owing to its intrinsic resources (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1996). English was therefore introduced in beginners’ classes in primary schools through New Primary Approach (NPA), in which its learning was heavily emphasized. The commission also emphasized the use of MT and Kiswahili in the education system, at different levels and localities. As Mbaabu (1996) puts it, the success of NPA in Kenya which started as an experiment affected Kenya’s language policy.

The post–colonial language policy that accepted trilingual approach to education led to the interference of mastery skills in Kiswahili as the Mackay Commission of 1984 advised that MT be used in lower grades of primary schools, in areas where this was possible. The use of Kiswahili alongside with MT and English at different levels and localities led to disparity of mastering Kiswahili language, (Journal of Pan Africa, 2009).

In Kenya, the presence of Kiswahili and its role cementing national unity cannot be underscored. Kiswahili is used in most of the public rallies and is broadcasted by radio and television stations (Mukuria, 1995). It is becoming a language of communication in official domains but very little is being done to secure its status as a national cum official language. It is true when Rubagumya, (1994) points out that African’s language policies have got into this position because of the relationship between language and power. He accuses the elite for collaborating with former colonial powers to perpetuate their hold on power by putting education beyond the masses who cannot come to grips with the language of instruction. English is seen to be a language for elite and not for common purpose like uniting Kenyans.

Whitely 1969 as cited by Chimerah, (1998) pinpointed out that Kiswahili language policies sluggish because English was upgraded as the ‘civilized language’ while African languages (Kiswahili among them) were downgraded as primitive, the opposite of civilize. Africans wanted to be associated with civilization and this retarded the development of Kiswahili. It can be deduced from the foregoing observations that language policy in Kenya with regard to Kiswahili during the period 1962-1984 was marked by ambiguity and uncertainty, (Mbaabu, 1996).

The development of Kiswahili in Kenya and her neighbor Uganda is determined externally by Tanzania because Tanzania has language planning institutions which her neighbors do not have. Almost all new technical terms in Kiswahili come from Tanzania. Tanzania has several bodies including the Institute of Kiswahili Research and the National Kiswahili Council that deal with lexical modernization and expansion unlike Kenya, (Mbaabu, 1996). Lack of proper language institutes and agencies to address the correct use of Kiswahili has led to a compromise has between correct language use and getting-by variations, (Ryanga, 1996).
Taking into account that ‘incorrect’ usage is mediation and a challenge to the dominance of English and Kiswahili, one can deduce that people are after all appropriating the practices for their own situation. The ‘wrong’ writings by SL learner could be a way of drawing from the dominant Kiswahili, MT and English to express themselves in their own easy ways.

Schumann (1974) as cited by Mayor and Pugh, (1987) adopted the sensible assumption that in a free learning situation, it is through attempting to communicate that a learner acquires his or her grammar. He or she develops his or her interlanguage (IL) system in response to the communicative needs. If the learner experiences no needs, he will not learn the language. His or her IL grammar will fossilize as his or her needs would be satisfied.

Kenya lacks language planning bodies to evaluate and monitor the procedure of accepting the chosen norm. It is unfortunate that Kenya relies on Tanzania for standardization of Kiswahili. As the language acquires new words, there is need for language experts to give guidance on this important issue of standardization which Kenya is lacking, (Mbaabu, 1996).

Statement of the Problem
Kiswahili as Kenya’s national and official language is not making the expected progress due to the negligence and reluctance by the government and language expertise. The stagnation of Kiswahili was boosted by colonial language policies in Kenya that supported the use of English at the expense of local languages, Kiswahili being one of them. This was worsened by the Kenya Education Commissions that recommended the use of mother tongue, Kiswahili and English at different levels and localities (Mazrui&Mazrui, 1996). This trilingual approach to education retarded the development of Kiswahili as it was made an optional subject in primary and secondary schools.

Mukuria, (1995) points out that there were no clear policy guidelines on the role of Kiswahili and schools did not bother to offer in the curriculum. The omission of Kiswahili from the curriculum explains why it was perpetually treated with neglect and hatred (Allan, 1979). As a national language, it is too simplistic to assume that a language is ‘national’ so long as it is spoken across ethnic boundaries. The commitment has to be such that the chosen language becomes part of citizens’ identity.

The introductions of isimujamii (sociolinguistics) in Kiswahili syllabus has given learners a lot of freedom to switch-code, code mix and sometimes borrow words from mother tongue (MT) and English but give those words different meanings. Language is dynamic and it grows and develops its lexical by borrowing words from other languages, and invents new words to meet the communicative needs in the changing society (Obanya, 1999). In such cases, learners of Kiswahili fail to acquire the correct rules of Kiswahili grammar, morphology, syntactic and semantics hence transfer some features of first language (L1) to second language (L2) or overgeneralize target language (TL) rules in speaking or writing the TL creating innovations.

Literature Review
There has been a wide range of research investigating linguistic challenges facing Kiswahili like Momanyi, (2009) and Ogechi, (2005) focused on Sheng’ and its effect on Kiswahili language; Kembo-Sure and Ogechi, (2006), studied language planning and Mbaabu, (1996) researched on language policy and more others whose work has been captured in literature review. The researcher found it difficult to address linguistic problems by use of one
approach. Although Shitemi and Mwanakombo, (2001) used a multidisciplinary approach in their study just as in this study, the researcher tried to establish the impact of all those challenges in the light of interlanguage. Furthermore, we have those who did similar research but either in English, Spanish or Russian such as Weinreich, (1953), Richards, (1974 & 1989) and Gass&Slinker, (2008) just to mention a few. Their findings though vital but may not reflect the reality in learning of Kiswahili language.

Kiswahili being a TL, it means that there is only one norm of dialect within the inter-lingual focus of attention of the learner (Richards 1989). Learners attempt to utter statements that are not identical to the corresponding set of utterances which the native speaker can produce had he/she attempted to express the same meaning as the learner. Richards highlights 5 central processes that exist in the latent psychological structure and activated when one attempts to learn a SL. This include: language transfer; transfer training; strategy of SL learning; strategies of SL communication and overgeneralization of TL linguistic material.

Language transfer which Coulter, (1968) as cited by Richards (1989) refers to it as common to many SL learners. He talks about linguistic item, rules and sub-systems that occur in IL performance as a result of the influence of the MT on TL. Musau, (1992) noted that learners of a SL resort to transfer. This means that they utter or write Kiswahili with features which are directly attributed to their native language. He says that in Kiswahili, habitual tense or recurrent action is usually marked by the morpheme (hu-) which is used for all classes in singular and plural. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kiswahili</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person singular</td>
<td>Mimi hula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person singular</td>
<td>Wewe hula</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In many Luhya dialects, habitual action is usually marked by the morpheme (-nga) which is suffixed to the verbal route. Some of learners from the Bantu community transfer these errors to their Swahili. For example: anakulanga for hula, (Mbaabu, 1995). Kiswahili speakers whose mother tongue is closely related to Kiswahili encounter such errors verbally and also in writing. For instance, the Bantus whose dialect resembles Kiswahili will experience positive transfer as Lado, (1957) puts it in his theory of Contrastive Analysis. He says that individual tend to transfer the forms and meanings, the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture as illustrated in the example below. For example embuli-embusi which can be transferred in Kiswahili as mbusi/mbuli instead of mbuzi. Another example is where some sounds seem to be similar in pronunciation like in Lubukusu as cited by Mbaabu, (1988) that Bukuusu speakers use [s] instead of [t] as in this example: samini- thamini; salasini- thelathini .Such influence is transferred on written skills in Kiswahili. Lado, (ibid) he observed that most difficult areas are those that differ most form the L1. Therefore, he suggested that language teaching should concentrate on the points of difference but requires conscious understanding and massive practice.

Native language transfer might be one source of errors but Corder, (1974) highlighted other sources of errors like developmental and communicative errors. In developmental source of errors, second language is believed to have natural errors while in communicative, learners make errors by use of wrong expression forms. Richard, ( 1974) talked about the learner creating an IL by using learning strategies such as overgeneralization ,simplification, learning transfer of training and language transfer.
According to Richards, (1974) overgeneralization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language. The study was limited to only overgeneralization and language transfer. Musau, (1992) found out that learners made overgeneralization of few concords and dispensing with the rest. He gives examples of concords of classes (I-ZI) usually extended to cover nouns of other classes resulting in errors like the ones shown below as shown in table 1.

Table 1: Errors resulting from Overgeneralization of Concords

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Erroneous form</th>
<th>Appropriate form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kiatuimepotea (singular) <em>The shoe got lost</em></td>
<td>Kiatukimepotea (singular) <em>The shoe got lost</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viatuzimepotea (plural) <em>The shoes got lost</em></td>
<td>Viatuvimepotea (plural) <em>The shoes got lost</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mtiumevunjika (singular) <em>The tree is broken</em></td>
<td>Mtiumevunjika (singular) <em>The tree is broken</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mitizimevunjika (plural) <em>The trees are broken</em></td>
<td>Mitizimevunjika (plural) <em>The trees are broken</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from Musau 1992:10

The above observation was important to this study because similar errors occur among the Kiswahili learners in Kwanza Sub-County, Trans-Nzoia County. These errors may of course pass unnoticed by SL learner speakers so long as they are communicatively successful. Bickerton, (1974) who acknowledged that learning a SL do not start from a scratch but from some simple register of MT, Pidgin, Creole or IL. These registers may be innate. This concurs with Corder and Selinker who regarded errors as a device that a learner uses in order to learn. Though errors are widely accepted and considered to be a common thing in the process of SL acquisition, it is seen as a factor affecting learning of Kiswahili and its performance in national examinations.

The study was based on the interlanguage theory developed by Selinker (1972) but it has been advanced over years to improve its efficiency. He introduced the interlanguage concept in his paper (1972) which was built on the previous work of Corder and Lado. He proposed that IL is based on three principles: overgeneralization form patterns found in the language being learned, transfer of form patterns found in the native language of the learner and fossilization. These principles result in system’s unique linguistic organization.

He further noted that in a given situation, the utterance produced by a learner of a TL are different from native speaker had they attempted to convey the same meaning. He observed that IL can be complicated, accurate or fluent in one discourse domain than in another. For instance, in a spontaneous conversation: a learner may produce a statement like “me no” instead of “not me”. In his study, he regards errors to be a device that SL learner uses in learning TL (Selinker, 1992). He describes the process of learning acquiring L2 as a journey from NL to TL.

Interlanguage theory focuses on the process of examining learner’s current abilities in L1 and their progress towards the TL. It is a continuum between the first language and the TL along which all learners transverse (Larsen, et al, 1992).
Figure 1. The Interlanguage Continuum

According to this approach second language learning is “a creative process of constructing a system in which the learner is consciously testing hypothesis about the target language from a number of possible sources of knowledge (Brown 1980). The learner can create an interlanguage by using learning strategies such as overgeneralization, simplification, strategies of learning, transfer of training and language transfer. Students overgeneralize the learned rules and apply these to the similar situations. For example, past simple of the regular verbs in English is made by adding “ed” or “d” to the infinitive verb form; however, this rule cannot be applied to irregular verbs since another principle is required to get the past form. Students overgeneralize it and say “goed” instead of went. This is inevitable to Kiswahili learners who are influenced by linguistic structures from their MT.

Brown, (1980) defines fossilization as a relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person’s second language competence. This refers to certain errors that the learner continues to produce in an attempt of acquiring L2. Selinker, (1972) states that fossilization is a psychological phenomenon since “many of these fossilized phenomena reappear in IL performance when the learner’s attention is focused upon new and difficult intellectual subject matter.”

Furthermore, the theory appears to have developed theories of language contact and language acquisition, examined non-standard speech varieties with the aim of scientifically explaining the errors and significance of these errors. Therefore, the theory was recommended for this study since it combined several factors that contribute towards the existence of IL in the process of acquiring TL. It holds the idea that IL is dynamic, whose rules are not static and can be altered at any time. It also varies from person to person depending on nature of input, environment and exposure. The theory viewed language development as a combination of several factors including nature of input, linguistic environment, internal processing of the learner and influence between L1 and L2.

Methodology
The study employed survey design to explore the effect of interlanguage on learning of Kiswahili language in public secondary schools in Kwanza Sub-County, Trans-Nzoia County. A research design is the overall plan for collecting data in order to answer the research question. It constitutes the blue print for the collection, measurement and analysis of data, (Jack and Norman, 2010).

The survey technique provided descriptive data on opinions of respondents and the present conditions concerning teaching and learning of Kiswahili. The design was applicable in assessing the current status of mother tongue and its effects on the learning of Kiswahili language.

The key variable in this study was mother tongue which was treated as independent variable. The independent variable according to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) is the variable that a researcher manipulates. Dependent variable refers to the criteria variable being the outcome.
of the study which occurs as a result of manipulation of the independent variable. Kiswahili was treated as dependent variable. It attempts to indicate the total influence arising from the effects of the independent variable. It therefore varies as a function of the independent variable.

In this research, stratified sampling was used to divide the schools into subgroups such as gender composition of schools. These were boys, girls or mixed schools. The schools were further categorized in streams as follows: single, double, triple and four streams. A simple random sampling was used to select 30% of form three students from each category of schools. The accessible population of form three students was 1200. Therefore 30% of this was 360 students. 20 teachers of Kiswahili were sampled purposively because every form three class sampled, the teacher teaching that class was automatically part of the sample as well as 20 Principals who were purposively sampled as every school has on principal. This is shown in table 2.

Table 2: Sampled frame

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Category</th>
<th>Pop</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single streamed</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double streamed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three streamed</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four streamed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>1200</strong></td>
<td><strong>360</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sampled size= 400 (33.3%)

Data collection involved administration of questionnaires, observation schedule and interview schedule. In this research, stratified sampling was used in categorizing of schools. The schools were categorized as four streamed, three streamed, double streamed and single streamed. The principals and teachers of Kiswahili of sampled schools were sampled purposively. Simple random sampling technique was used in selecting of 30% of form three students in every category. The study targeted 20 schools, 360 students, 20 teachers and 20 principals. Descriptive statistics was used in analyzing data collected by use of questionnaires and observation schedule.

Results

Three types of respondents’ categories were involved in the study as shown in table 3.

Table 3: Respondents Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers of Kiswahili</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>400</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed Data (2019)

From table 3 it is evident that the majority 360(90%) of the respondents involved in the study were students. This was attributed to the fact that the study directly dealt with students respondents because they are the most affected with effect mother tongue on learning.
Kiswahili at secondary school level. Thus it was imperative for teachers to understand the effect of mother tongue on learning Kiswahili to enhance understanding of certain concepts and skills in Kiswahili language. However, it is worth noting that crucial information in this study came from principals and teachers of Kiswahili. This was attributed to the assumption that they initiate the use of grammatical Kiswahili rather than mother tongue as they interact with learners; whether formally (in class) or informally (in other settings). The study treated principals and teachers of Kiswahili as just “one” and subjected them to the same questionnaire.

The study focused on effect of mother tongue on learning Kiswahili language. Respondents were subjected to a number of assertions eliciting information regarding the topic of investigation. The responses from principals, teachers and students are reflected in Table 4.

**Table 4: Principals and Teachers Responses on assertion that MT enhances learning of Kiswahili**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother tongue enhances learning of Kiswahili language</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students are allowed to speak language of their choice</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students transfers L1 grammatical rules to Kiswahili hence creating grammatical errors in TL</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students mother tongue languages have a lot of similarities to Kiswahili</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Filed Data (2019)**

From Table 4, 5(25%) of principals agreed that MT enhances learning of Kiswahili while 15(75%) disagreed, 5 (25%) of teachers agreed with 15 (75%) disagreed,60(16.7%) of students strongly agreed, 30 (8.3%) agreed that MT enhances learning of Kiswahili, while 200 (55.6%) students disagreed and 70 (19.4%) strongly disagreed. Cumulatively, 90 (25%) supported the claim that MT enhances learning of Kiswahili and 270(75%) rejected the statement. Those who agreed may be they based their argument that learning of a SL does not start from a scratch but from some registers like pidgin, Creole and MT.

On issue of students cherishing MT which but undermine learning of Kiswahili language, the following were the responses from teachers, principals and students in Table 4, 5 (25%) of principles strongly agreed, 15 (75%) disagreed; 10 (50%) of teachers strongly agreed as 5
(25%) agreed. Cumulatively, 75% of teachers supported the statement. 216 (60%) strongly agreed while 108 (30%) agreed. Cumulatively, 90% of students agreed that use of MT undermine learning of Kiswahili. 36 (10%) disagreed. Those respondents who agreed with the claim could be teaching or learning in schools where language policies are not strictly administered unlike those who disagreed.

In addition, the study intended to establish whether students transferred native grammatical rule to Kiswahili. From Table 4, the results were as follows: 5 (25%) of principals agreed, 5 (25%) were undecided and 10 (50%) disagreed. 20(100%) of teachers strongly agreed while 130 (50%) strongly agreed, 108 (30%) agreed, 36 (10%) disagreed and 36 (10%) strongly disagreed. Cumulatively, 80% of students acknowledged that students tend to transfer grammatical rules from their MT on Kiswahili. This was an indication that teachers identify errors caused by MT influence on learning Kiswahili and students are aware of them.

Ten (50%) of principals strongly agreed that students’ MT languages have similarities to Kiswahili while 10 (50%) disagreed same to teachers who 10 (50%) strongly agreed and 10 (50%) disagreed. 90 (25%) strongly agreed, 60 (16.7%) agreed. 100(28%) were undecided as110 (30.3) strongly disagree. This results show that schools in the area enroll students from different ethnic groups.

Interview schedule was used to compliment questionnaires as collection tools. Twenty teachers were interviewed after lessons had been taught during observation. The researcher also interviewed the principals of the twenty schools sampled. Data was collected through note taking. All teachers and principals agreed that use of MT does not enhance learning of Kiswahili as students seemed to be affected by MT. This fact is supported by nature of schools in the area of study that were day schools. It can be deduced from this point that students use their MT regularly after school than standard Kiswahili. Teachers said that grammatical errors are due to overgeneralization of rules of TL, transfers of structures from MT to Kiswahili.

The study was guided by Interlanguage Theory which was developed by Selinker, (1972) and has been advanced over years to improve on its validity. From the study, it was found out that SL learners cannot avoid making errors and mistakes as it is a way of learning. Therefore majority of teachers of Kiswahili and students involved in the study acknowledged that mother tongue negatively affects the learning of Kiswahili at secondary school level. This finding concurs with Musau (1992) who noted that learners of a second language (Kiswahili in this case) resort to language transfer. This means that they utter or write Kiswahili with features which are directly attributed to their native language (mother tongue). In addition, habitual action among Bantu speakers’ is marked by the morpheme (-nga) suffixed to the verbal root. Therefore some learners from Bantu community may transfer these errors to the Kiswahili; for example anakulanga for Yeye hula, (Mbaabu 1995).

The study found out that the use of mother tongue was cherished by learners. This was indicated by 90% of students who supported the claim that students cherished MT but undermine learning of Kiswahili. Students 10% further disagreed with the statement in question. This supports what Wanyonyi, (1991) noted that some learners preferred using Kiswahili during Kiswahili lesson but switched to MT when they left the class. The remaining 10% of students could be they speak Kiswahili even outside the class and that is why they are disagreeing with the claim in question.
In addition, the study found out that MT affects acquisition of Kiswahili which was attributed to the fact that learners are likely to transfer phonetic inventory of their mother tongue into learning Kiswahili. This was supported by 288(80%) of students and 20(100%) of teachers. This could be a case of positive transfer as noted by Lado(1957) and Mbaabu (1995) that Bantus whose dialect resembles Kiswahili may result to using mother tongue terms in place of Kiswahili words; for example, the word mbusi instead of mbuyi particularly for those students whose mother tongues have structures similar to Kiswahili dialects. However, Corder (1974) points out that native language transfer is not the only source of errors but there are others like where a learner uses a wrong form to express himself or herself may be because of anxiety or excitement and others are a natural part of a SL. This could be the reason why principals 15 (75%) never supported the claim that students transfer grammatical rules of their mother tongue to Kiswahili.

Conclusion
The trilingual situation in Kenya has promoted the growth of interlanguage in Kenyan education institutions and other social places. The fluency in Kiswahili has been challenged by the influence of MT, emergence of sheng and more so the biasness of school language policy towards use of Kiswahili in learning institutions. Any language of wide communication involving different linguistic groups must ultimately change due to MT influence and culture. This means that a language will no longer depend on the standard speech or the correctness exhibited by the originated dialects of the language. This has called for departure from the norms of the Kiswahili language both by native and non-native speakers who tend to assimilate the language into their own speech patterns.

From the study, teachers can limit the influence of MT on Kiswahili, by identifying, classifying and interpreting the unacceptable forms of patterns in Kiswahili and recognize the source of those errors to be able to concentrate on those that seem difficult. It was established that L2 learners make errors not only because of native language transfer, but also because of overgeneralization of concord rules and simplification of their speeches through code mixing and code switching. Kiswahili growth and development can be successful if Kiswahili researchers are incorporated in the development of corpus in order to give guidance on the language norms.

Recommendations
The study makes the following recommendations:
1. Curriculum developers should revise Kiswahili syllabus to make it teachable and manageable for the teachers and students.
2. Schools should organize debates in Kiswahili to enhance mastery of the language to encourage.
3. National leaders, parents, students and teachers of Kiswahili to engineer towards securing the status of Kiswahili and rating it highly alongside other languages.

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