

JIMMA UNIVERSITY

College of Social Science and Humanities

Department of English Language and Literature

MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

**Mother Tongue Interference and Teachers' Strategies to Minimize
Learners' English Speaking Problem: The Case of Tarcha Secondary
School grade nine Dawurotsuwa Native Speaking Students**

By,

Zenebe Haile Boronko

**October 25, 2022
Jimma, Ethiopia**

**Mother Tongue Interference and Teachers' Strategies to Minimize
Learners' English Speaking Problem: The Case of Tarcha
Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa Native Speaking
Students**

By,

Zenebe Haile Boronko

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Master
of Arts (MA) in TEFL**

**College of Social Science and Humanities, Department of English
Language and Literature MA in TEFL
Jimma University**

October 25, 2022

Declaration Confirmation and Approval

Research Title:

Mother Tongue Interference and Teachers' Strategies to Minimize Learners' English Speaking Problem: The Case of Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa Native Speaking Students

Declaration

I, the under signed, that this thesis is my original work and has not presented for any other university and all the materials used in the thesis have been properly acknowledged.

By: Zenebe Haile Signature: _____ Date _____

Confirmation and Approval

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a thesis advisor.

Principal Advisor:

AsnakechDemissie (PhD)
Name

Signature

Date

Co-advisor:

BikilaAshenafi (PhD)
Name

Signature

Date

Thesis Evaluators:

External Examiner

Name

Signature

Date

Internal Examiner

Name

Signature

Date

Chairperson

Name

Signature

Date

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisors, Dr. Asinakech Demissie and Dr. Bikila Ashenafinext to God. Without their help, this research would not have taken the current form. Their intellectual guidance, deep criticism and insightful ideas were of immense assistance in finishing this work. It is important to thank them for their encouraging words and kind interactions.

Furthermore, without the participation of many other people, this research would not have been possible. In particular, the principals and teachers of Tarcha and Gozoshasho Secondary Schools' respondents who agreed to participate in the study deserve my sincere gratitude. Being welcomed into their school and classes was a great blessing for me. Tarcha Secondary School and Gozoshasho (Turi) Secondary School students, who were in grade nine, should also be acknowledged. I have heartfelt thanks to JU Community Primary School's principals and teachers for their guidance with stationary. This study was a pleasure to do thanks to their excitement and collaboration.

I want to express my gratitude to my instructors who helped me learn new things throughout my time studying at this university in general and who were always patient and supportive of my academic work when I sought their advice.

Also, I have special thanks for Mr. Asaminew Herana (JU staff and PhD candidate) because he was guiding me without hesitating as my elder brother and the nearest friend whenever I needed him during the research work.

Last but not least, I want to express my sincere gratitude to my lovely parents and families for their prayers for my wellbeing and success in all endeavors as well as for their ongoing monitoring, moral support, and financial assistance throughout my time at university in general and the course of this research in particular.

Abstract

This study is aimed at investigating mother tongue interference and strategies to minimize English speaking problem. To achieve the objective, descriptive survey research design with mixed research methods was used. The study focused up on Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native students and English teachers in the school. The researcher selected the school due to its accessibility. Also, the researcher believed that selected grade nine because the grade is where the students begin to learn all subjects in English and the sections (A, C & E) were selected purposively to conduct the study because the sections were on opposite and suitable to collect the data without interrupting learning and teaching process. The population was 201. From this population, 6 were teachers and 195 were grade nine students. In the sample, 6 teachers (100%) and 140 students were involved. From 140 students, 110 students were selected by using simple random technique for questionnaire and 30 students were selected from clustered as higher, medium and lower achievers randomly for pronunciation and speaking test. Pronunciation test was given to test phonological interference, and speaking test was to test grammatical interferences. In addition, questionnaire was given to check the students' perception on the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English sounds and grammatical structures. Interview was given to teachers to obtain further data. The data obtained from the pronunciation test, speaking test, questionnaire and interview were presented and analyzed independently. Then, all the results of the items from the four tools were triangulated at the discussion section. The finding points out that Dawurotsuwa native students were interfered phonologically was due to the sound /v/, /f/, /r/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /s/, /θ/ and /ð/ and the diphthongs such as: /ɪə/, /eɪ/, /eə/, /ɔɪ/, /ʊə/, /aʊ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, and /ɔɪ/. The cause for grammatical interference was using MT grammar rules for English. The phonological interference was occurred in three ways: changing, replacing and adding sounds. The most revealed grammatical errors were tense, word order, articles and agreement. Lack of the students' speaking practice, the teachers' less attention to make students practice English speaking, lack of teaching aids like videos and audio to show practically the sounds' pronunciation and correct English grammar forms were the main pronunciation and grammatical related problems, and it is recommended that it's advisable the student to distinguish the sounds in early grades; differentiate the difference between the languages' sound pronunciation and grammatical structures of both phrases and clauses.

Table of Contents

Contents	Pages
Declaration:.....	i
Approval Sheet:.....	i
Acknowledgements:.....	ii
Abstract:.....	iii
Table of Contents:.....	iv
List of Table	v
List of Abrvation.....	vi
Chapter I: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	5
1.3 Research Question.....	8
1.4 Objectives of the Study.....	9
1.4.1 General Objective of the Study.....	9
1.4.2 Specific Objectives of the Study.....	9
1.5 Significance of the Study	9
1.6 Delimitation of the Study.....	10
1.7Limitation of the Study	10
1.8 Operational Definition of Key Terms	10
1.9 Organization of the Study	11
Chapter II: Review of Related Literature.....	12
2.1. Introduction.....	12
2.2 Definition of Speaking	12
2.3 The Importance of Speaking	13
2.4 Characteristics of Speaking Skill	14
2.5 Definition of Mother Tongue Interference.....	15
2.6 Historical Background of Mother Tongue Interference.....	16
2.7 Mother Tongue Interference Errors	17
2.7.1 Interlingual Error.....	17
2.7.2 Intralingual Error.....	18
2.7.3 Integration	20
2.8 Positive and Negative Transfer of a Language	20
2.9 Types of Language Interference	21
2.9.1 Lexical Interference.....	
2.9.2 Phonological Interference	21
2.9.3 Grammatical Interference	22
2.10 Strategies to Minimize Mother Tongue Interference	24
2.11 Phonology of the Dawurotsuwa and English.....	26
2.11.1 Dawurotsuwa Consonant Phonemes.....	26

2.11.2 The Consonants of English	27
2.11.3 The Consonants which Do not Come in the Beginning of Dawurotsuwa Words.....	28
2.11.4 The Consonant which Do not Found in Dawurotsuwa	28
2.11.5 Dawurotsuwa Vowel Phonemes	28
2.11.6 English Short and Long Vowels	29
2.11.7 The Diphthongs of English	30
2.11.8 The Trip-thongs of English.....	31
2.11.9 Dawurotsuwa Orthographic Symbols and their English Equivalents and their Phonetic Representations	33
2.12 Dawurotsuwa Grammar	33
2.12.1 Syntax: Clause Structure.....	33
2.12.2 DawurotsuwaPositive Sentence Form.....	33
2.12.3 DawurotsuwaNegative Sentence Form.....	34
2.12.4 Dawurotsuwa Interrogative Form	34
2.12.5 Dawurotsuwa Yes/ No Questions	34
2.12.6 Dawurotsuwa ‘Wh’ Questions:.....	34
2.12.7 Indirect Object in Dawurotsuwa Sentence.....	35
2.12.8 Prepositions in Dawurotsuwa Sentence	35
2.12.9 Sentence with Copulas.....	35
2.12.10 Dawurotsuwa Sentence Construction for Past and Future	36
2.12.11 DawurotsuwaRelative Clauses Construction	37
2.12.12 DawurotsuwaSentence in Commutative Case	38
2.12.13 Dawurotsuwa‘If’ Clauses	39
2.12.14 Verb Complements	40
2.12.15 Embedded Sentences as Subjects.....	41
2.12.16 Indirect Commands	41
2.12.17 Indirect Statements.....	41
2.12.18 Conjunction.....	42
2.12.19 Comparatives	42
2.12.20 Adverbial Phrases	43
2.12.21 Phrases with ‘-n’/ as ‘by’ and ‘with’	43
2.12.22 Phrases with Locational Nouns.....	44
2.13 Language Learning Strategies.....	44
2.13.1 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies.....	44
2.13.2 Classifications of Language Learning Strategies.....	44
2.13.2.1 Direct Language Learning Strategies.....	44
2.13.2.2 Indirect Language Learning Strategies	46

2.14 Theoretical and Conceptual Frame Work.....	47
2.14.1 Theoretical Frame Work.....	47
2.14.1.1 Language Learning Theories.....	47
2.14.1.2 Theories of Second Language acquisition.....	49
2.14.2 Conceptual Framework.....	51
Chapter III: Research Methodology.....	52
3.1. Introduction.....	52
3.2 Research Design.....	52
3.3 Research Setting.....	52
3.4 Sours of Data	54
3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique.....	54
3.5.1 Sample Size.....	54
3.5.2 Sampling Technique	54
3.6 Data Collection Instruments.....	55
3.6.1 Pronunciation Test	56
3.6.2 Speaking Test.....	56
3.6.3 Questionnaire	56
3.6.4. Interview	56
3.6.5 Pilot Study.....	57
3.7 Data Collection Procedures.....	58
3.8 Methods of Data Analysis.....	58
3.9 Ethical Considerations	59
Chapter IV: Data Analysis and Discussion.....	60
4.1 Introduction.....	60
4.2 Analysis of Data Obtained through Pronunciation Test	60
4.3 Analysis of Data Obtained through Speaking Activity.....	66
4.4 Analysis of Data Obtained through Student Questionnaire	72
4.5 Analysis of Data Obtained through Teachers Interview	77
4.6 Discussion of Data	81
4.6.1 Dawurotsuwa Mother Tongue Speech Sounds which Interfere Students’ English Speaking....	82
4.6.2 What Types of Phonological Interferences mostly Occur in Dawurotsuwa Native Students'English Speaking?	83
4.6.3 The grammatical interference which occur due to MT interference in Dawurotsuwa Native Students’ English Speaking Skills.....	83
4.6.4 The Reasons for the Occurrence of MT Interference in Dawurotsuwa Native Students’ English speaking	83
4.6.5 The Strategies which Should be Used by Teacher to Overcome Mother Tongue interference.	84
4.7 Finding of the Study.....	85
4.7.1 Which Dawurotsuwa Mother Tongue Speech Sounds Interfere in the Students’ English Speaking?.....	85
4.7.2 What Types of Phonological Interferences mostly Occur in the Dawurotsuwa Native	

Students' Speech in English?.....	85
4.7.3 What Types of Grammatical Interference Occur due to Mother Tongue Interference in Students' English Speaking Skills Learning?	86
4.7.4 What are the Possible Reasons for the Occurrence of this Interference in Students' English Speaking?.....	86
4.7.5 What Strategies are Used by the Teacher to Overcome Mother Tongue Interference?.....	86
Chapter V: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation	88
5.1 Introduction.....	88
5.2 Summary of the Study	88
5.3 Conclusion	89
5.4 Recommendations.....	90
References.....	91
Appendix A.....	96
Appendix B.....	97
Appendix C.....	98
Appendix D.....	99
Appendix E.....	103

List of Tables

Tables	Pages
Table 2.1 The Consonant Phonemes of Dawurotsuwa.....	26
Table 2.2 The English Consonant Phonemes	27
Table 2.3 Dawurotsuwa vowel phonemes	29
Table 2.4 Dawurotsuwa Orthographic Symbols and their English Equivalents and their Phonetic Representations	32
Table 2.5 Dawurotsuwa Clause structure.....	33
Table 4.1 The Way Interference Occurred due to Consonant Sounds	61
Table 4.2 Diphthongs Related Interference on English Speaking	64
Table 4.3 Grammar Related Errors Analysis	66
Table 4.4 Tense Related Interference	66
Table 4.5 Word Order Related MT Interference	67
Table 4.6 Article Related MT Interference	68
Table 4.7 Agreement Related MT Interference	69
Table 4.8 Preposition Related MT Interference	70
Table 4.9 Pronounce MT Related Problem	70
Table 4.10 Frequency, Percentile and Mean Value of Students' Perception on Similarities and Difference between Sounds, Phrase and Sentence Structure of Dawurotsuwa and English Language	72

Lists of Abbreviations

Daw- Dawurotsuwa (the language of Dawuro society)

EFL- English as Foreign Language

Eng- English

ESL- English as Second Language

FL-Foreign Language

Fut- Future tense indicator

L1- First Language

L2- Second Language

MT-Mother Tongue

Obj- Object of the sentence

SPSS- Statistics Package for Social Science

Subj- Subject of the sentence

S.W.R.S- South Western Regional State

V1-present form (infinitive)

V2- simple past form

V3- past participle form

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In the forthcoming sections of this chapter: the background of the study, statement of the problem, the research questions, objectives of the study, significances of the study, delimitation of the study and operational definition of key terms are discussed.

1.1 Back ground of the study

Speaking skill is one of the four major language skills. Through speaking, a speaker can transfer message correctly and efficiently about what he or she has read, listened and observed to listeners. As Clifford (1987) pointed, speaking is a skill which is worthy of attention in both first and second language because individuals who learn a language are referred to as the speakers of that language. In addition, according to Nunan (1995), learning the speaking skill is the most important aspect of learning a second or foreign language.

Speaking skill is the base for successful communication. According to International Seminar on English Language & Teaching (2017), speaking is defined as the act of employing auditory symbols to express one's thoughts, ideas, and feelings. As a result, speaking is considered the most important of the four language skills since it allows the learner to create successful communication in that language, which is often the primary goal of learning any second language.

Based on Communicative Language Teaching Theory, the main aim of learning and teaching second language (TL) is to master and develop the language (L2) speaking skill and to use the language practically and pronounce as the native speakers. As it is cited on English Language Teaching (2009), Communicative Language Teaching is a method of teaching second/foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as both a means and an end goal. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) focuses on assisting students in using target languages in a variety of situations, as well as mastering language functions, perfecting grammatical structures, and achieving native-like pronunciation. This indicates that the effectiveness of a foreign language learning program is determined by how well students have developed their communication ability. Successful learners can be characterized as those who can apply their knowledge of both formal and sociolinguistic parts of a language to communicate effectively. Any method of instruction that aids students in developing communicative competence in a real-world setting is considered acceptable and

desirable. Thus, in the classroom, CLT frequently takes the form of pair and group work, which requires negotiation and cooperation between learners, fluency-based activities, which encourage learners to develop their confidence, role-plays, and judicious use of grammar and pronunciation, all of which are focused activities.

However, most probably mother tongue interference occurs on second language (TL) learning. The term "Mother Tongue interference" refers to the impact of one's native language on the learning of a second or foreign language. It can be found at various levels of language, including phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical. Phonological interference is defined as items from the first language that influence the second, such as stress, rhyming, intonation, and speech sounds. Grammatical interference is the influence of one language on another in terms of word order, pronouns and determinants, tense, and mood. The borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another is referred to as lexical interference, whereas orthographic interference refers to the spelling of one language changing the spelling of another (Berthold, 2007).

Interference is a negative impact of first language (L1) on second language (L2). This scenario occurs when a second language learner uses his native language (L1) actively in the same time. Related to this point, Weinrich (1994), mentioned interference is the influence caused by the learner's language background on the process of learning another language. Furthermore, having two active languages causes interference by suppressing the language that is tasking inappropriately or promoting the activation of the language they wish to utilize. Because virtually all new talents are gained by building on old ones, skill study has long been fascinated by the phenomena of transfer. The influence of a language learner's native language on their production of the language they are learning is known as language interference. It signifies that the speaker's primary language has an impact on his or her second or third language (Dedy, 2017).

So, second language learners are traced or interfered to develop their L2 speaking skills due to different reasons like: the second language learner's L1 learning habits, the transfer of L1 linguistic elements and structures to L2 or the difference between first language (L1) and second language (L2). These reasons can lead the second language learners to L1 interference.

According to Behaviorist Language Teaching Theory, Learning is a process that takes time to develop. The greater an individual's knowledge and skills, the more likely his new learning will be

impacted by his previous experiences and actions. An adult rarely, if ever, learns something completely new; regardless of how difficult the endeavor, he will begin with the knowledge and habits he has acquired in the past. As a result, most, if not all, learning includes the transfer of skills from one environment to another. In this way, learning research and transfer research are complementary (Postman, 1971).

For the cause of language interference some scholars pointed out that first language learning habits and language transfer. Corder (2001) points out that when people acquire a second language, they already have a first language (L1), and the rules they learned and understood in the first language are applied in the second (L2). As a result, people develop habits of applying the rules of their native language to their second language, resulting in mistakes. In addition, Ellis (2001) described interference as ‘transfer’ of L1 features and laws on to over the acquisition of an L2. However, both first and the later scholar ideas are not clear and complete because for both L1 habits and language transfer can have advantages.

The difference between the learner’s L1 and the second language (L2) can be the cause for second language (L2) interference. The majority of second language mistakes are caused by the learner's presumption that the second language forms are identical to the native language forms (Al-Khresheh, 2010).

Similarly, according to Hirut (2007), there are basic differences between Dawurotsuwa and English, especially phonologically and grammatically. When it is seen phonologically, some English consonant, diphthong and triphthong sounds are not found in Dawurotsuwa on both consonant and vowel sound charts. The consonants which do not found in Dawurotsuwa are: /v/, /ʒ/, /ð/, and /θ/. In addition, the sounds /f/ and /r/ do not come on word initial position in Dawurotsuwa. Vowel sounds (diphthongs) such as: /eɪ/, /oə/, etc are not found in Dawurotsuwa. When we see the grammatical difference, Dawurotsuwa sentence structure is different from English. Dawurotsuwa sentence structure is: **Subject-Object-Verb**, but the English sentence structure is: **Subject-Verb -Object**. For instance, when we see a sentence in Dawurotsuwa and English form, Daw: ‘*Gaammu itti mentsaa wod’eedda.*’ Eng: ‘The lion killed a buffalo.’ So, the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English is: the object of the Daw. sentence ‘*itti mentsa*’ is preceded the subject of the sentence ‘Gammuu’ (lion), but Eng. sentence, the verb of the sentence ‘killed’ /wod’eedda/ preceded the subject ‘lion’/ Gammuu in English sentence (Bender, 1976).

In addition, English word orthography and pronunciation are not similar, but according to Dawurotsuwa, there is no difference between orthography and words' pronunciation. For example, the word 'know' pronounced as /nəʊ/. In this word, the sound /k/ is silent and the sound /o/ and /w/ pronounced as /əʊ/. However, there are no such spelling and pronunciation rules in Dawurotsuwa (Bender, 1976).

Similarly, Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students are not free from L1 interference on learning English speaking skill. Based on the researcher's observation as a school teacher, Dawurotsuwa native speaking students trouble to pronounce different words which include /r/, /f/ and /v/ sounds. For example: pronouncing the word '*verb*', as '*berb*', for the word '*observe*', they pronounce as '*obserbe*'. Similarly, when they pronounce the word '*from*', they pronounce it as '*prom*', for the word 'comfortable', they say 'comportable', and again when pronouncing different words with /r/ sound they mispronounce. For instance, for the word 'regular', they say 'iregular', for the word 'radio', they say 'iradio'. The main reason for this problem is absence of these sounds in Dawuro language (Firew & Tezera, 2004).

Earlier in the 20th century, mother tongue (L1) was taken as vital tool to teach second language (EFL). A good example among the method is "The Grammar Translation Method" and "Bilingual Method". However, nowday it is seen as it can be impact for mastering second language. Based on Contrastive Analysis, the role of the first language (L1) in the classroom has been a recurring concern in decades of foreign language (L2) instruction. A long-running and wide-ranging discussion rages on about the practical and theoretical implications of the L1's clear influence on the L2 under study. Although many people believe the L1 should not be utilized in the classroom, some researchers, instructors, and students believe it has a place and advocate for its use as a communication and educational tool (Ellis, 1986).

Some approaches (methods) like: Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and Biligual Method (BM) to L2 instruction have recognized the L1's function in language pedagogy for more than a century, but most techniques have mandated that it be barred in the classroom. The Grammar Translation Technique of the early twentieth century completely accepted the usage of the L1 in the L2 classroom; this method required the painstaking translation of L2 texts into the L1 in addition to the intensive study of vocabulary and grammatical rules. This strategy was eventually criticized for doing "absolutely nothing to improve" a student's language communicative abilities. Following

methods, such as the influential Audio-lingual Method, which took its cue from behaviorism and treated L1 interference errors (also known as negative language transfer) as bad habits to be eradicated through drills, memorization, and strict limitations on the use of the L1, obligated the near total use of the L2 to teach the L2. Contrastive analysis was used to identify the L1 structures that interfered with L2 production in order to minimize errors through practice (Mozlan, 2015).

Mozlan (2015) pointed that, new approaches to language learning in the 1970s and 1980s viewed the usage of the L1 as undesirable. When cognitive psychology argued that people learn their second language in the same way they learned their first, new approaches emerged that proposed an L2 learning environment rich in social and communicative features. In these methods, the L1 was only employed infrequently.

Therefore, the objective of this study was to investigate the Dawurotsuwa interference on native students' English speaking skill particularly phonological and grammatical interferences and point the strategies should be used to minimize the problem.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Language interference stands for negative transfer of feature and elements of one language to another. According to Dulay et al. (2002), there are two forms of transfer: positive transfer and negative transfer. Negative transfer refers to instances of transfer that result in inaccuracy due to the difference between previous habitual behavior and the new behavior being taught. Positive transfer, on the other hand, is the proper utterance since both the first and second languages have the same structure, whereas interference is the negative transfer from the original language.

The negative transfer shows when the second language learners directly take the elements and rules of their L1 and using or performing them in their L2 acquisition. As Sriprabha (2015) mentioned the majority of L2 learners subconsciously transmit L1 language rules, such as sound system and word order, to L2. As a result, they have a strong mother tongue impact since their original language sounds have not yet been replaced by the sounds of the second language. Similarly, Berthold et al. (2007) explained that when distinct aspects are transferred to another at various levels, such as phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical, the L1 interference might be exhibited on L2 acquisition.

Similar to the above notions, most of the time L2 learners frequently rely on their mother language while attempting to develop their L2 abilities, and as a result, most of them experience mother tongue interference when attempting to master the four macro skills of writing, reading, speaking, and listening (Abrego, 2013).

Likewise, the researcher as observed, students at Tarcha Secondary School are not exceptional, as they struggle with their ability to speak in English because these students have the option of speaking their native language (Dawurotsuwa) and English alternatively, the likelihood of mother tongue influence in their English speaking is significant.

Therefore, this study aimed to investigate Dawurotsuwa interference on Tarcha Secondary School grade nine native speaking EFL learners on English speaking skill and teachers' strategies to minimize problem.

There are different researches which have been done on mother tongue interference both nationally and internationally. For instance, from nationally conducted studies, Gebeyanesh (2016) has done on 'Mother Tongue Interference into Learning EFL: Analysis of Afaan Oromo Interference into Learning EFL Orthography and Pronunciation: A Case of Batu Secondary School'. The design which used for this study was both quantitative and qualitative methods. The objective of the research was investigating the interference of Afaan Oromo on EFL students' orthography and pronunciation. The major finding of the research was teachers' low concern to teach and the students' ignorance to learn proper orthography and pronunciation of English. Further more, weak methodologies of teaching EFL, lack of ideal situations to use EFL, the dominant influence excreted from Afaan Oromo in everyday communications, lack of sufficient learned EFL elements, origin similarity of Latin alphabets between the MT and EFL, and low concern given to learning EFL orthography and pronunciation in the education curriculum were taken as the causes of MT interference. However, the research hasn't revealed the cause of interference beyond pronunciation and orthographic interference and the difference between L1 and L2 phonological and grammatical manner which might lead to the interference. So, what makes different the current study is: it focused on Dawurotsuwa. The researcher used descriptive survey research design and the objective was to investigate Dawurotsuwa interference related to phonological and grammatical.

Tamiru et.al (2015) is one of the national researchers and has conducted research on ‘‘ Mother Tongue Interference in English Language Writing at Derge Secondary School: The Case of Grade 9 Students’’. The design of the research was descriptive survey. The purpose of the study was to find out if there are any patterns of mother tongue interference in Derge Senior Secondary School grade nine students’ written English. The finding of the study was: items such as spelling errors, grammar errors and word order were caused by negative interference of the L1 in students’ TL writing. However, the study hasn’t put the main reasons beyond for spelling, grammar and word order error, and also hasn’t distinguished the types of each error and strategy to minimize the MT interference. So, the point that makes the current study different is mainly focused on Dawurotsuwa and phonological and grammatical interference and reveals the main causes of MT interference and distinguish the types of error and pointing the strategies to minimize the interference.

Other local researchers are, Aynalem & Wondimu (2016), and they researched on ‘‘Impacts of Conscious and Planned Instruction to Overcome Mother Tongue Interference in the Learning of English Language: The Results of Quasi Experimental Study’’. The aim of the study was investigating the Impacts of conscious and planned instruction to overcome mother tongue interference in the learning of English. The finding of the study was the students in the experimental group pronounced the words containing ‘B’ ,’P’ ‘F’ and ‘V’ sounds more than the students in the controlled group. However, the current research design is descriptive survey and the objective is to investigate Dawurotsuwa interference on native speaking grade nine students’ English speaking related to phonological and grammatical interferences. In addition, the study sees not only a few consonant sounds but researches about the causes and types of phonological interference as well as the most serious problems about grammatical interference.

Similarly, different studies have been researched in foreign countries. Mekonge (2017) conducted research on ‘‘Factors affecting students’ acquisition of speaking skills in English among secondary schools in Turkana east district, Kenya’’ The aim of the study was to identify the factors affecting the acquisition of speaking skills in English amongst secondary school students. The design of the study was descriptive survey design. The result was concluded that schools lacked variety of instructional resources. Age of enrolment in school affected acquisition of speaking skills. Teachers did not employ enough teaching methods that could give students opportunities to practice speaking good English. However, the objective of the current study is to investigate Dawurotsuwa language

interference on Dawurotso native speaking grade nine students' English speaking skill related to phonological and grammatical interferences. However, since Dawurotsuwa and Kenya languages are different, and it needs further study to identify the causes of Dawurotsuwa interference on English speaking skill.

From international researchers Rini (2018) conducted on "Interference of students' Buginese language toward the English speaking skill". The aim of the research was to reveal the interference of students Baginese language toward the English speaking skill of English Education department at Makassar Muhammadiyah University. The design of the research was descriptive method. The finding of the study was Balinese students were interfered on accent and grammar rules due to Bagine language. Whereas, the current study focuses across grammatical interference, researches about phonological interference and looks about the causes that leads to MT interference and find strategies to minimize the native language (Dawurotsuwa) interference on English speaking skill.

The above researches and different similar researches have been done both nationally and internationally. However, none of the studies focused on the interference of Dawurotsuwa on students' learning English speaking skills specially related to interference of phonological and grammatical which this study aimed.

Hence, the study was intended to investigate phonological and grammatical interference of Dawurotsuwa on Tarcha Secondary School grade nine native speaking students' English speaking skill and to identify the causes and types of interference which occurs due to phonology and grammar and to suggest the possible strategies for EFL teachers to minimize the students' speaking problems.

1.3 Research Questions

The purpose of this study is investigating interference of mother tongue (Dawuro language) on students' learning English language speaking skill. Specifically, the study aimed to answer the following basic questions.

1. Which speech sounds interfere in the students' English speaking?
2. What types of phonological interferences mostly occur in the Dawurotsowa native students' speech in English?

3. What types of grammatical interference occur due to mother tongue interference in students' English speaking skills learning?
4. What are the possible reasons for the occurrence of this interference in students' English speaking?
5. What strategies should be used by the EFL teacher to overcome mother tongue interference?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate the interference of Dawrotso (language) while students are learning English speaking and the teacher's strategies used to minimize the L1 interference.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study are:

1. to identify the Dawurotsowa speech sounds that interfere when Dawurotsuwa native students speak in English
2. to distinguish the types of phonological interference that occur due to Dawurotsouwa on students' English speaking skills
3. to differentiate the grammatical interference that happen when the Dawurotsuwa native students learn English speaking skills
4. to point out the main reasons for students' mother tongue interference when learning English speaking
5. to suggest the possible strategies which could be used to overcome the Dawurotsuwa interference on students' English speaking skills

1.5 Significance of the study

The primary beneficiaries from the findings of this study are Dawurotsuwa native speaking students and the EFL teachers, the curriculum developers and researchers who conduct similar studies. So, the study is hoped to bring mechanisms to minimize the mother tongue interference and the EFL teachers use the mechanisms to minimize their students' mother tongue interference problems. In addition, it serves as a stepping board for the further study on similar study on this area, and the

curriculum developers can use the outcome of this study as an ingredient for the curriculum designing works. In order to access the research finding for the target audience, the research will be published on a known publisher, and put in different universities' libraries. Also as alternative the researcher will put on his twitter page.

1.6 Delimitation of the Study

This study was limited to Dawuro Zone, Tarcha Secondary School, grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students and the English teachers in the school. Even though there are different MT interferences, in order to get detailed information for the study and to make the study manageable in size, time, as well as financial constraints, the researcher focused upon phonological and grammatical interference. In addition, the researcher planned to research the rest parts of this study on the future after completing this research.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

It is accurate to say that the study contains limits, just like other empirical studies do. Only a few teachers who teach English as a foreign language have participated in the study, and few students haven't complete the questionnaire. Due to time and other resource limitations, the study is also limited to the Tarcha Secondary School. As a result, the study's conclusions cannot be applied to all high schools in the Dawuro Zone or elsewhere.

1.8 Operational Definition of Key Terms

In order to avoid the ambiguity and redundancy and to have clarity for this study, operational definitions were given for the following words or phrases according to the notion or idea of this study.

Borrowing: shows using words or phrases or expressions of Dawurotsuwa for English.

Code switching: it is the alternative uses between Dawurotsuwa and English language either on form of word, phrase or sentences while speaking.

Code-mixing: it is when a teacher or student mix languages (Dawurotsuwa and English) during conversation. Which means, using words from the two languages (Dawurotsuwa and English) during any speech act or conversation.

Dawuro: represents both people and the place where people live

Dawurotsuwa- the language of Dawuro society

Interference: According to this study, interference is regarded as the conflict or mismatch of two language rules such as: Dawurotsuwa and English.

Language transfer: it refers using the different rules and language items such as: sounds, accent, lexical etc. from Dawurotsuwa to English language.

Target language: This refers English language that Tarcha grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native students seek to master.

1.9 Organization of the Study

This study is organized in to five chapters. Chapter one contains an introduction which includes statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, limitation of the study and organization of the study. Chapter two deals with review of related literature in which important issues related to the study were discussed .Chapter three illustrates the various research methods employed in this study. Chapter four dealt with data analysis and interpretation. Finally, chapter five provides summary, conclusion and recommendation.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter the relevant literature related to the study was reviewed. Specifically, definition of mother tongue interference, interference errors, positive and negative transfer of a language, types of language interference, strategies to minimize mother tongue interference and the process to overcome mother tongue influence, phonology of the Dawurotsuwa, are discussed in different sections.

2.2 Definition of Speaking

There are a lot of definitions of the word "speaking" that were arranged by the researcher's in language learning. In Webster new world Dictionary, speaking is to say words orally, to communicate as by talking, to make a request, and to make a speech. According to Chaney, (1998), speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non- verbal symbols in a variety of contexts. Despite its importance for many years teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking, just as repetition of drills or memorization of dialogue.

Speaking is considered as one of the most important skills that people need for communication in any other foreign language. Because English language has been used universally for all type of communications for this reason English speaking skill should be taught and developed a long with the other skills so that communication achievement can be enhanced with native speakers and non-native speakers of English (Boonkit, 2010).

Speaking skill is significant because it allows students to perform several activities such as oral presentations and every day conversations Socheath (2010), defines speaking as "A productive skill that requires students or learners to produce words or saying". It is used to communicate between one to another by speech or saying. Bygate (1987) defined 'speaking' as skill and the ability in using oral language to explore ideas, intentions, thoughts and feelings to other people as a way to make the message clearly delivered and well understood by the hearer. Joyce (1997) defined speaking as an interactive process of making meaning that includes producing, receiving, and

processing information. Bygate (1987), defined speaking as the production of auditory signals to produce different verbal responses in listeners. It is regarded as combining sounds systematically to form meaningful sentences.

According to Howarth (2001) & Abd El Fattah Torky (2006) defined speaking as a two-way process is including a true communication of opinions, information, or emotions. This top-down view regards the spoken texts as the collaboration between two or more persons in the shared time and the shared contexts.

Generally, the scholars put their ideas by conforming the use of speaking skill to meaningful communication and specially, since English language is an international language, speaking skill enable the students to perform several activities like: oral presentations and every day conversations. If so, Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotso native speaking students should develop their speaking skill in English and should be free from their mother tongue interference to become fluent and accurate speaker.

2.3 The Importance of Speaking Skill

Humans are programmed to speak before they learn to read and write. In any given, human beings spend much more time interacting orally with language rather than using in its written form because it is one of the abilities that are needed to perform a conversation. English speaking is not an easy task because speakers should now many significant components like pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension. Learners should have enough English speaking ability in order to communicate easily and effectively with other people. Rivers (1981), studied the use of language outside the classroom situation and understood that speaking is used twice as much as reading and writing combined.

According to Brown (1994) listening and speaking are learners' language tools. According to Efrizal (2012) & Gilakjal (2016), expressed that speaking is of great significance for the people interaction where they speak everywhere and every day. Speaking is the way of communicating ideas and messages orally. If we want to encourage students to communicate in English we should use the language in real communication and ask them to do the same process.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that in the traditional methods, the speaking skill was ignored in the classrooms and the emphasis was on reading and writing skills. For example in the grammar-translation method reading and writing were the important skill and speaking and listening skills were not of great significance.

According to Ur (2000), from all the language skills called listening, speaking, reading, and writing, speaking is the most important one that is very necessary for the effective communication. The significance of speaking is indicated with the integration of the other language skills. Speaking helps learners develop their vocabulary and grammar skills and then better their writing skill. Students can express their emotions, ideas, say, stories, request, talk, discuss, and show the various functions of languages. Speaking is of vital importance outside the classroom. Therefore, language speakers have more opportunities to find jobs in different organization and companies.

The fact that learning speaking is very important because it is the skills which engages learners to participate in the process of oral communication. It has also problem (Bygate, 1989, Harmer, 1991 & Nunan, 1998). likewise, speaking is a very important part of second language learning , because the ability to communicate in a second language clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the learners in school and later in life. The scholars strengthen the above idea by indicating how' and" why" speaking must be taught.

Therefore, learning and developing English speaking skill is very significant for Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students to become successful speaker both in the school and out of the school and wherever they go in their life. However, Dawurotso interference is obstacle for the native students and to be free and become successful speaker, the students learn and practice well on English speaking.

2.4 Characteristics of Speaking Skill

According to Mazouzi (2013), learners, activities should be designed based on equivalence between fluency and accuracy achievements. Both fluency and accuracy are important elements of communicative approach. Classroom practice can help learners develop their communicative competence so they should know how the language system works appropriately. The first characteristic of speaking performance is fluency and it is the main aim of teachers in teaching speaking skill. According to Hughes (2002), fluency is the learners' ability to speak in

understandable way in order not to break down communication because listeners may lose their interest. In addition Hedge (2000), expressed that fluency is the ability to answer coherently by connecting the words and phrases, pronunciation sounds clearly, using stress and intonation.

The second characteristic of speaking performance is accuracy. Learners should be fluent in learning a foreign language. Therefore, teachers should emphasize accuracy in their teaching process.

So, based on the above points, Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students have to learn and practice English speaking skill well till become fluent and accurate speaker and should be free from their mother tongue interferences.

2.5 Definition of Mother Tongue Interference

Language experts have proposed a few meanings of interference. Weinrich used the word "interference" to describe the occurrence of several language systems spoken by bilingual speakers when using a language. Interference, according to Weinrich (1994), is the divergence from the linguistic standard in usage as a result of bilingualism. Interference, according to Dulay et al. (1982), is the automatic transfer of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language owing to habit. Interference is the divergence of the target language as a result of the speaker's knowledge of many languages. They divide interference into two categories: psychological and sociolinguistic interference. Psychological refers to the effect of previous habits when learning new ones, whereas sociolinguistic relates to language exchanges when two language groups come into touch.

Meanwhile, Hayi (1985), using Valdman's point of view in 1966, postulated that interference is a barrier in the study of language acquisition of a second language as a result of speaker's habits on first language (L1). As a result, certain negative aspects from the mother tongue are transferred to the target language. To put it another way, the speaker incorporates undesirable aspects of the first language into the target or second language. According to Nababan (1991), speakers only experience interference when they talk or write in a second or foreign language.

While Ellis (1997: 51) refers to interference as 'transfer,' which he defines as the influence of the learner's native language on target language learning. He claims that learners' judgment of what is

transferable and their level of development in target language acquisition influence transfer. He emphasizes the need of distinguishing between errors and mistakes, and draws a clear distinction between the two. Errors, he claims, reveal gaps in the learners' knowledge; they arise when they can't figure out what is correct. Mistakes are failures in performance that occur when learners are unable to apply what they have learned in a specific situation.

Essentially, interference emerges at the level of the bilingual interpreter, particularly the oral interpreter, depending on how well and properly he or she knows and masters the source and target languages, as well as how frequently he or she utilizes and switches between them. Interference is a result. The difference in grammar or structure between the source language, or first language, and the target language, or second language, is the most significant source of interference (Yusuf, 1994).

Interference, according to Lott (1983), is errors in a learner's use of a second or foreign language that can be traced back to the learner's mother tongue or first language. To put it another way, language learners adapt the structure of their native language to the target language. Interlingual factor, over extension of analogy, and transfer of structure are three elements that create language interference.

Therefore, the researcher took and defined the negative influence of Dawurotsuwa on Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking students' English speaking skill because the students use the experience of Dawurotsuwa sound pronunciation to pronounce English sounds in English words, and use Dawurotsuwa grammar rules while speaking English.

2.6 Historical Background of Mother Tongue Interference

The study of two languages with the goal of uncovering structural similarities and differences is referred to as contrastive analysis. Contrastive Analysis was popular in the 1960s and early 1970s as a way to explain why some aspects of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others (Mozlan, 2015).

Contrastive analysis is a method for explaining why some aspects of second language acquisition are more difficult to master than others. This strategy is founded on the premise that the greater the

gap between the student's mother tongue and the target language, the more difficult it will be for the learner to acquire certain structures or things (Mozlan, 2015).

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis asserts that the degree of difference between the learner's first and second languages can be used to predict or uncover the difficulty of second language acquisition. However, there are a few issues with this theory. One issue is that this concept does not account for many of the errors that a student makes when learning a second language. Another issue with this idea is that it predicts interference errors when none exist (Eric, 2008).

According to Lado's *Linguistics across Cultures* (1957), items of a target language that are comparable to the learner's first language are easy to learn, and learning elements in a target language that are not the learner's primary language will be tough. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis argues that this is the case (Mozlan, 2015).

There are two versions of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH): a strong version and a weak one. According to the strong version, the quantity of errors a target language learner may encounter can be equivalent to the degree of difference between the learners L1 and L2. The weak version argues that the number of errors a target language learner makes is proportional to the amount of interference he or she is exposed to (Mozlan, 2015).

Based on the above theory, it was very important and the researcher used the theory to analyze the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English language related to phonology and grammar rules. Because, once it is identified, it is simple to find mechanisms and solve Dawurotso interference on Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students' English speaking skill.

2.7 Mother Tongue Interference Errors

2.7.1 Interlingual Error

Interlingual mistakes include interference, language transfer, and cross-linguistic interference. Interference (negative transfer), according to Lado (1964), is the detrimental impact of the mother tongue (L1) on the performance of the target language (L2). Language transfer, which is triggered by the learner's first language, results in interlingual mistakes. Interlingual is a term used to describe when a student of a foreign language makes a mistake in the target language as a result of his

mother tongue. The majority of second language mistakes are caused by the learner's presumption that the second language forms are identical to the native language forms. Al-Khresheh is another researcher (2010). He claimed that literal translation is the source of interlingual mistakes.

a. Transfer Error: Error induced by mother tongue interference. A learner who is unfamiliar with the rules of the target language will apply the rules he learned in his mother tongue.

c. First language Interference: Learners make mistakes when they try to figure out the structure of the target language rather than transferring models from their native tongue.

c. Literal Translation: When a learner translates a statement or idiomatic expression from his original language into the target language word for word, mistakes occur.

Similarly, as per the researcher's observation, Dawurotsuwa native-speaking grade nine students in Tarcha Secondary School use Dawurotsuwa grammar rules while speaking English. Due to that, mother tongue interference occurs. So the researcher initiated this study to conduct and solve the problem.

2.7.2 Intralingual Error

Errors are caused by a variety of factors, including interference with the student's own language. Students may make mistakes in the target language because they are unfamiliar with it and are having difficulty utilizing it. Intralingual interference, according to Richard (1974), refers to items generated by learners that demonstrate generalization based on partial exposure to the target language rather than the structure of the mother tongue.

Overgeneralization, ignorance of rule constraints, insufficient application of the rules, and erroneous concept hypothesized or semantic mistakes are all classified as intralingual errors by Richard (1974).

a. When a student builds a deviant structure based on his familiarity with other structures in the target language, this is known as overgeneralization. Littlewood (1984), gives the example of adding 's' to even irregular plurals to make them plural, as well as generalizing the '-ed' past form.

b. Ignorance of Rule Restrictions: According to James (1998), ignorance is particular in the sense that one is generally said to be ignorant of structure; a student of a second language does not obey

the target language's structure. The student makes this sort of blunder when he or she fails to notice the limitations of current frameworks. Some rule restriction mistakes can be explained in terms of analogy and may be the outcome of rule role learning.

c. Incomplete Rule Application: This mistake might arise when a student fails to fully apply the rules owing to the stimulus language.

d. Learners' incorrect comprehension of target language item differences leads to inaccurate conceptualization, according to the hypothesis. The incorrect comprehension of target language item differences by learners leads to inaccurate concept hypotheses.

Interference can be defined as the transmission of phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical components from one language to another at various levels (Berthold, Mangubhai & Batorowicz, 1997). Phonological interference is defined by Berthold et .al (1997) as things from the first language that influence the second language, such as stress, rhyming, intonation, and speech sounds. Grammatical interference occurs when one language influences the other in terms of word order, pronouns and determinants, tense, and mood. The borrowing of words from one language and transforming them to sound more natural in another is referred to as lexical interference, whereas orthographic interference refers to the spelling of one language changing the spelling of another.

The most prevalent source of error is while learning a foreign language when the native tongue interferes, resulting in Interlingual Error; however, interference may also occur in other contexts (as in multilingualism). Certain perceiving and performing habits must be created in order for learners to speak L2 (or FL) with the intonation of his L1 or the word order of his L1 and so on, and phonological interference affect in creating L1 to L2 sounds.

As it is mentioned above by different scholars, the researcher observed that Dawurotsuwa native students in Tarcha Secondary School when they intended to speak English used different grammar rules, different phrase structures, and word order in a sentence by depending on Dawurotsuwa rules and structures.

2.7.3 Integration

Integration is a language containing features of a loan, usage, and citizenship. Acceptance of additional linguistic features in a specific language as integration status takes time and is a somewhat protracted process. Due to the fact that a country's culture is bilingual, there existed a bilingual or even multilingual language. The influence of a language speaker's mastery of two or more languages was the transfer of linguistic features, both good and negative. Negative transfer would result in interference, but positive transfer would result in the integration of the two languages, which is favorable since the absorption of aspects of a language that can merge with absorbent systems.

Based on the above points, Dawurotsuwa is the dominant language in the area and the students speak Dawurotso both in the school and out of the school and there is no chance to speak English except in the classroom. So, the students affect negatively by their MT habits when trying to speak English. In addition, Dawurotsuwa and English share similar orthographic symbols and their phonetic representation. So, the students mispronounce different English words through Dawurotso experiences. Therefore, the similarity became cause to negative interference.

2.8 Positive and Negative Transfer of a Language

The impact of one language on the acquisition of another is known as language transfer. There are two forms of language transmission: positive and negative transfer.

Positive transfer (also known as integration) occurs when the native and target languages have the same form. The term table, for example, has the same meaning in both French and English. Negative transfer (also known as interference, linguistic interference, or cross-linguistic interference) occurs when a native-language pattern or rule is used in the target language, resulting in a mistake or improper form. It is the impact of the learner's first language on their ability to produce the new language. The impact can affect any part of language, including: grammar, vocabulary, accent, and spelling. Its most commonly mentioned as a cause of mistakes or negative transfer (Dulay et al. 2002).

When we see the transfer of Dawurotsuwa into English, it is seen as negative transfer. Because when Dawurotsuwa native speaking students use Dawurotsuwa grammar rules, Dawurotsuwa pronunciation experiences, accent etc during speaking English, lots of errors happen.

2.9 Types of language interference

2.9.1 Phonological Interference

Weinreich (1953) defined three types of interference: lexical, grammatical, and phonological interference. Because it is productive by nature, phonological interference is the most visible of the sorts. The perception-production relationship is one well-known hypothesis on this. The Speech Learning Model was proposed by Flege (1995). In his conclusion, only the language's unique features would be perceived as a new L2 category in learners' minds. When the L2 category is different and the production is correct, it signifies the learner has correctly detected a new phonetic category. As a result, it's critical to foresee if the learners' L1 will interfere with their L2 acquisition in order to allow for improved target language learning.

Crystal (2003) suggests that phonological interference may be divided into three groups. Sound addition, omission, and replacement are the three types. When an L2 learner adds another sound or phoneme to the ostensibly phonetic, they fall into the first group. When pronouncing the word 'know,' for example, learners add the phoneme /k/. As a result, instead of saying /n/, students say /kn/. This issue might be caused by a lack of exposure to the target language and a lack of knowledge of the phonological rules of the target language (Wardani & Suwartono, 2019). Furthermore, Dawurotsuwa words are typically pronounced as they are written, making it difficult to adjust to the new phonological characteristic in the target language. Sound omission is the second type. When an L2 student falls into this group, he or she is more likely to misspell phonemes that should be uttered. It's most common in diphthongs that have been shortened to short vowels, such as out /t/ sounded as /t/ or home /hm/ spoken as /hm/. Last but not least, sound substitution is a type of phonological interference. By substituting the usual phoneme with a different phoneme, this category may be recognized. The substitution is similar to how the phoneme / is substituted by /e/ in the word dad /dd/, resulting in /ded/ meaning dead.

Similarly, phonological interference is a big problem for Dawurotsuwa native students in Tarcha Secondary School, especially when they were learning English speaking. As per researchers' observation, they pronounce the sound /f/ as /p/ and /v/ as /b/ in English words. This shows the sound replaced. In addition, the native speakers add the sound /i/ or /e/ when they pronounce an English word that begins with /r/ and /s/ sounds. So, the problem was related to adding sounds. The other is the omission of sounds. Due to the absence of diphthongs in Dawurotsuwa, the native

speakers omit and change the diphthongs into vowels. In general, Dawurotsuwa native-speaking grade nine students interfered phonologically when trying to speak English.

2.9.2 Lexical Interference

Lexical interference is defined as "any changes generated by interlanguage connections in the construction of the lexical inventory, as well as in the functions and usage of lexical-semantic units, and in their semantic structure" in most circumstances (Mental Enlightenment Scientific-Methodological Journal, Volume 2020).

Lexical interference happens in three ways, according to Semchinsky: 1) in the direct borrowing of lexical units; 2) in the structure of foreign language lexical units; and 3) in the borrowing of the values of their linkages with plan of expression units. Zhluktenko, on the other hand, distinguishes three primary types of lexical interference: Borrowing comes in three forms: borrowing, tracing, and semantic interference.

Weinreich makes no distinction between lexical interference and a weakness in one of the contact languages. Lexical interference and lexical borrowing are terms used to describe both of these events. Interference is the incorrect use of the contact correlation, whereas borrowing is one of the ways to enrich the language's lexical composition. The following is how lexical interference occurs: When a native speaker of language 'A' notices that some words in language 'A' frequently correspond to terms in language 'B', he forms a mental image of some correspondences. However, when this relationship is broken in language 'B', the speaker assumes it based on prior experience and mechanisms inherent in his home tongue, and completes it using the established analogy to make up for the gap. When a term is borrowed, it undergoes a meaning modification to the receptor language's linguistic system. It is well known that as borrowed words cross linguistic boundaries, their Semitic substance (and, as a result, contextual compatibility) changes, as evidenced by the phenomena of "false friends of the translator." By analogy with his home language's lexical paradigm, a speaker can extend or narrow the meaning of the original word, resulting in a grammatical error.

The types of interlingual interference are as follows: 1) Extrovert (i.e., speaking in a foreign language) - Correspondents share just a formal similarity; they do not share the same content meanings. For example, an Uzbek native speaker may use the English word detective incorrectly

not only in the sense of 'detective (detective)' but also in the sense of a detective 'book,' which corresponds to the English roman policier (Mental Enlightenment Scientific-Methodological Journal, Volume 2020).

2) Introversive (that is, from a foreign to a native language) - correlations share not only formal but also significant parallels. The English word actor, for example, has two meanings: 'actor' and 'participant in a scenario or event,' neither of which is found in Uzbek. If an Uzbek native translates "the actors of these great debates" as "the actors of these great debates" instead of the correct "participants in these great debates," he may make an introversion mistake (Mental Enlightenment Scientific-Methodological Journal, Volume 2020).

The mechanism of lexical interference, considered in the context of lexical mixing, is realized in practice in the form of one of the following three phenomena:

- paronymy: erroneous mixing of similar words in the same language;
- diaparonymy: erroneous mixing of similar words in two or more languages ("false friends of the translator");
- paronymic attraction: deliberate replacement of similar words with each other in order to achieve a special stylistic effect

Eventhough Dawurotsuwa native speaking grade nine students interfered lexically during learning English speaking; this study didn't focus on lexical interference.

2.9.3 Grammatical interference

Mackey (1969), described grammatical interference as the first language impacting the second language in terms of misusing grammar due to incorrect subject verb agreement and deletion of word components. Grammatical interference, according to Lekova (2010), is defined as alterations in the structure and structural elements of a foreign language induced by semantic and formal resemblances and distinctions between the native and foreign language systems. To summarize, grammatical interference occurs when a first language is used in a second language environment, causing the language structure to be influenced due to the differences and similarities between the native and target languages (Ekawati, 2018).

FL is influenced by grammatical interference in terms of tense categories, mood, sentence structure, word order, pronouns and determiners, and so on. Many English learners (FL) change the order of

subject, predicate, and object, resulting in interference. Weinrich (1953) divides grammatical interference into three categories: 1) morpheme transfer (s- ending in English third person singular forms); 2) grammatical relations in a certain word order; 3) functions or meaning of grammatical forms (singular-plural agreement) (Alexandra & Radyuk, 2019).

When second language learners apply the grammatical pattern they learned in their first language to the target language, this is known as grammatical interference. There are two types of grammatical interference. The first type of interference is morphological interference, which absorbs affixes from foreign languages. Second, syntactical interference refers to the syntactic of one language being absorbed by another. Syntactical interference is widespread in both Indonesian and English contexts. For example, because of the Indonesian structure, 'girl lovely' is a mistranslation of 'beautiful girl.' Grammatical interference may occur in writing as a result of the negative transfer of structures from the original language, in this case Indonesian, to the target language, according to the concepts of grammar and interference. One of the approaches for determining grammatical interference in students' work is to do an error analysis. Furthermore, the grammatical interference in writing discovered by error analysis will reveal how L2 learners learn the language and how much they have acquired (Shahin, 2011, p210).

Based on the above idias, also, Dawurotsuwa native students interfered grammatically when trying to speak English. As per the researcher's observation, the students use Dawurotsuwa sentence structures or word order, the ways of Dawurotsuwa tense, and omit different morphemes when speaking English.

2.10 Strategies to minimize mother tongue interference

According to Sriprabha (2015), through different activities such as speaking practice, using different devices (like SMART mobile phone), listening to model speech and videos, reading a text loudly, each day memorizing some new words, participating on different English clubs, making plan for English practice, using standardized dictionaries etc. helps to minimize MT interferences.

Speaking Practice: Speaking practice is one of the most enjoyable and gratifying aspects of learning English. Once you have a basic command of the English language, there are numerous opportunities to swiftly develop your skills while having a great time. Here are ten best strategies for enhancing your spoken English while having fun! Speak up, speak up, Speak out.

Be self-assured and talk to as many individuals as possible. Make mistakes and don't be afraid to admit it! Your pronunciation and vocabulary will improve as you practice. Remember that speaking is a talent that, like learning a musical instrument or a new activity, can only be improved by doing it.

Technology should be utilized: When it comes to language acquisition, a smartphone can be a useful tool. It can be used to record yourself speaking and then listen back to hear how your English sounds to others. Utilize all of your favorite productivity applications to organize your practice time and keep track of all of the new terms you pick up.

Listen: To learn how to pronounce words, listen to English newscasts and songs. This is also a great method to pick up new words and phrases. You'll learn more if you pay attention! To improve your pronunciation and learn which words are stressed in a sentence, try mimicking what you hear.

Read the text aloud: Read the newspaper or a magazine to yourself. You could even play out a script from your favorite television program! This is a terrific technique to practice pronunciation since all you have to worry about is making sure your English sounds excellent, not sentence structure or grammar.

Each day, learn a new word: Choose a term you'd want to improve and practice using it in various sentences. Use the term until you've mastered it, and then use it frequently.

Movies to Watch: Watch English-language movies and keep track of new vocabulary and pronunciation. Enjoy yourself by imitating the actors.

Make new plans: Make friends with native English speakers or others who are studying the language and swap notes. Discuss what you've learned and share your views.

Participate in fun English activities: Join a reading group or take an English cookery class! Whatever you like doing, make sure you do it in English and express it to others. Practicing English will be more enjoyable if you use it to talk about things you like.

Have a discussion: In English, debate all of the things that interest you with your friends. To make your point, try to utilize as much terminology as possible, and pay close attention to the other points so you can successfully counter them.

Make use of a dictionary: There are several wonderful dictionary applications that you can take everywhere with you on your Smartphone, and online dictionaries frequently contain audio samples so you can verify your pronunciation, but be careful not to grow overly reliant on these technologies. Try pronouncing the words first, and then double-check to see whether you were correct!

2.11 Phonology of the Dawurotsuwa and English

2.11.1 Dawurotsuwa Consonant Phonemes

There are about twenty five consonant phonemes in the Dawuro language. As Hirut (2007) put on chart, there are 25 identified consonant phonemes in the language. However the consonant phoneme /f/ hasn't been included in the chart. Hirut as mentioned the sound /f/ doesn't come in the initial position of any Dawurotsuwa word but it comes in the middle of words. They are shown in the table below.

Table 2.1 The consonant phonemes of Dawurotsuwa

		Bilabial	Labiodental	alveolar	palatal	velar	Glottal
Stop	voiceless	P		t		k	ʔ
	voiced	b		d		g	
	implosive ejective	p'		d'		k'	
Fricative	voiceless		f	s			H
	voiced			z	ʃ		
	ejective			s'			
Affricate	voiceless	t ^s			tʃ		
	voiced				dʒ		
	ejective				c'		
Nasal		M		n			
Lateral				l			
Flap				r			
Semivowel		W			j		

Source: Adopted from Sigurd Hanserud (2018)

2.11.2 The consonants of English

According to George (2003), the following diagram gives an overview of the consonants of English for both Received Pronunciation (standard British English) and General American (standard American English).

Table 2.2 The English consonant phonemes

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar (post-alveola)	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Unvoiced (-v) Voiced (+)	-v +v	-v +v	-v +v	-v +v	-v +v	-v +v	-v +v	-v +v
Stops (plosives)	p b			t d			k g	ʔ'
Fricatives		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Affricatives					tʃ dʒ			
Nasals	m			n			ŋ	
Lateral (approximant)				l				
Approximant	w ²			r		j		

Adapted from: Language Studies, Phonetics (2019-04-29).Linköping University)

Example: Words formed by English consonant phonemes

/p/	put, supper, lip	/ʃ/	show, washing, cash
/b/	bit, ruby, pub	/ʒ/	leisure, vision
/t/	two, letter ³ , cat	/h/	home, ahead
/d/	deep, ladder ³ , read	/tʃ/	chair, nature, watch
/k/	can, lucky, sick	/dʒ/	jump, pigeon, bridge
/g/	gate, tiger, dog	/m/	man, drummer, comb
/f/	fine, coffee, leaf	/n/	no, runner, pin
/v/	van, over, move	/ŋ/	young, singer
/θ/	think, both	/l ⁴ /	let, silly, fall
/ð/	the, brother, smooth	/r/	run, carry, (GA car)
/s/	soup, fussy, less	/j/	you, yes
/z/	zoo, busy, use (=verb)	/w/	woman, way

Adapted from: Language Studies, Phonetics (2019-04-29).Linköping University)

2.11.3 The consonants which do not come in the beginning of Dawurotsuwa words

As Dawit (2016) cited Hirut (2007) and described that all consonants in the language, except /r/, take word initial position. However, the language has no native word beginning with /r/. Hence, foreign words in it which begin with /r/ get preceded by a vowel.

Example:

/roman/	[ʔoroman]	‘Roman’
/rajde:o/	[ʔiradiona]	‘radio’
/roza/	[ʔoroza]	‘Rosa’

Similarly, the sounds /f/ doesn't come in the beginning part of any Dawuro words, so the native speakers change the sound /f/ into /p/ sound.

Examples:

/from/	[prom]
/four/	[pour]
/flower/	[plower]

2.11.4 The consonant which do not found in Dawurotsuwa

There are some English sounds which are not found in Dawurotsuwa. As it is give in the above Consonat Table, the sound /v/, /θ/, /ð/ and /z/ are do not found in Dawurotsuwa. Due to that the native speakers mispronounce the sounds when they are speaking or reading the English words with these sounds. For example: they replace /b/ into /v/, /z/ into /θ/, /ð/ into /z/ and /dʒ/ into /z/ (Hirut, 2007).

Examples:

/verb/	[berb]
/them/	[zem]
/this/	[zis]

2.11.5 Dawurotsuwa vowel phonemes

Dawurotsuwa vowel phonemes are mainly five in number. However, according to the long and short characteristics of the phonemes, they divided in to short and long vowels. So, there are five short and five long vowels. The phonemes are categorized in the table below in terms of high-low and front -back tongue position (Hirut, 2007).

Table 2.3 Dawurotsuwa vowel phonemes

	Front	Central	Back
High	i/i:		ɔ/u:
Mid	e/e:		o/o:
Low		a/a:	

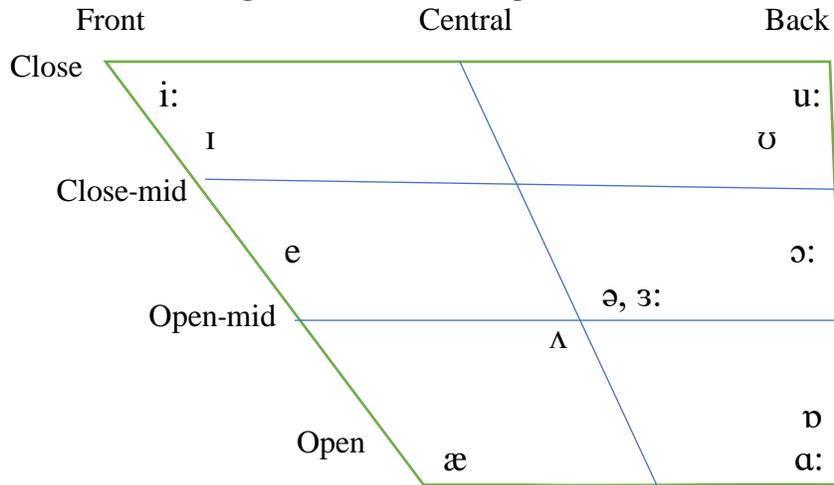
Source: adapted from Hirut (2007)

- Vowel length also has a phonemic value as is shown below.

/a/ vs /a:/	/k'an tʰa/	'short'
	/k'an tʰa:/	'woumb'
/i/ vs /i:/	/pi:s'e/	'to comb'
	/pi:s'e/	'to peel'

In the above example, /a:/ and /i:/ have phonemic roles because length differences between /i/ and /i:/ and also between /a/ and /a:/ have resulted with meaning shifts between the minimal pairs.

2.11.6 English Short and Long Vowels



Adapted from: *Language Studies, Phonetics (2019-04-29).Linköping University*

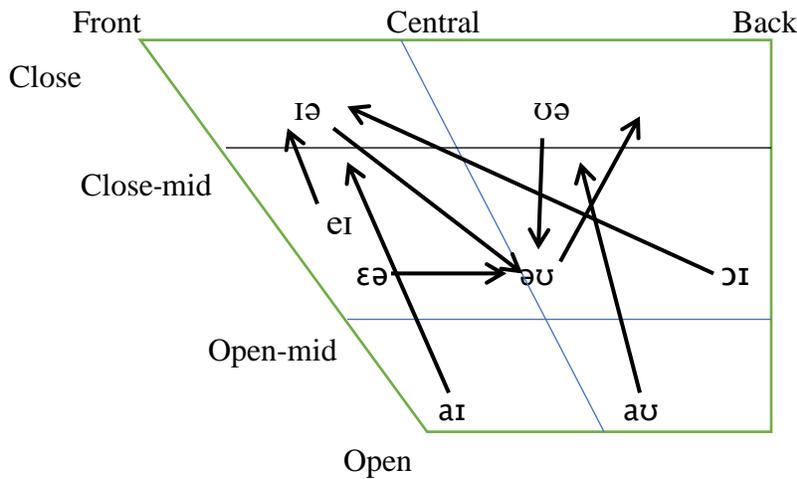
Examples: Words which are formed from English Short and Long Vowels

/iː/	<i>eat, sleep</i>	/ʌ/	<i>under, enough, butter</i>
/ɪ/	<i>silly, baby (in final positions¹)</i>	/ɑː/	<i>father, calm, can't⁴, car⁵, apart⁵</i>
/ɪ/	<i>it, swim</i>	/ɒ/ ⁶	<i>odd, want, cough</i>
/e/	<i>edge, lead (=bly), said</i>	/ɔː/	<i>or⁷, daughter, more⁷</i>
/æ/	<i>apple, man</i>	/ʊ/	<i>put, full</i>
/ɜː/ ²	<i>earn, bird, occur</i>	/uː/	<i>ooze, shoe, suit</i>
/ə/	<i>above, support, possible, Africa, mother³</i>		

Adapted from: Language Studies, Phonetics (2019-04-29).Linköping University)

2.11.7 The Diphthongs of English

The table above shows the diphthongs of RP (Received Pronunciation). The arrows show the direction of the glide between two vowels. The most significant differences between British and American English are explained in the notes below (George, 2003).



Adapted from: Language Studies, Phonetics (2019-04-29).Linköping University)

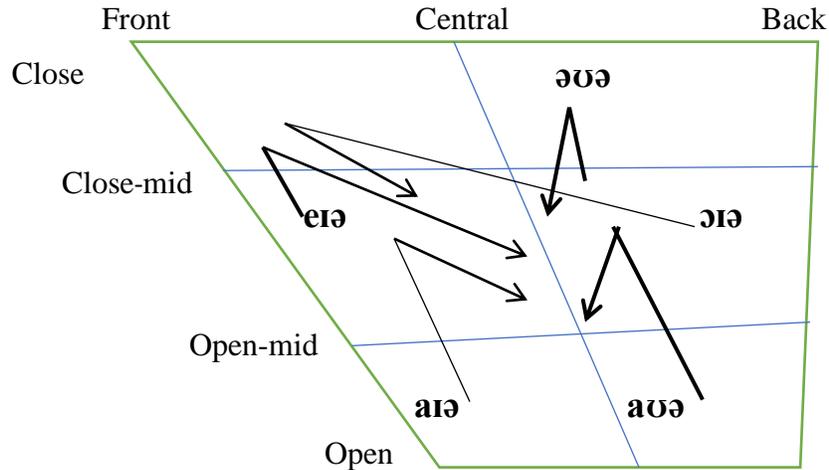
Examples: words which are formed through the Diphthongs of English

/eɪ/	<i>ache, pay</i>	/ɛə/	<i>air¹, dare</i>
/aɪ/	<i>I'm, right</i>	/ʊə/	<i>pure¹, tour</i>
/ɔɪ/	<i>oil, noise</i>	/aʊ/	<i>out, cow</i>
/ɪə/	<i>ear¹, here</i>	/əʊ/	<i>own², coat</i>

Adapted from: Language Studies, Phonetics (2019-04-29).Linköping University)

2.11.8 The Trip-thongs of English

According to George (2003), the table above shows the triphthongs of RP (Received Pronunciation). The arrows show the direction of the glides between three vowels. The most significant differences between British and American English are explained in the notes below.



Source: Adapted from (*Language Studies: Phonetics (2019-04-29).Linköping University*)

Examples: words which are formed from the Trip-thongs of English

/eɪə/	layer ¹ , bayonet	/əʊə/ ²	mower ¹ , lower
/aɪə/	fire ¹ , higher	/aʊə/	hour ¹ , shower
/ɔɪə/	lawyer ¹ , royal		

2.11.9 Dawurotsuwa orthographic symbols and their English equivalents and their phonetic representations

Dawurotsuwa orthographic symbols and English are similar. Also, there is similarity of phonetic representations between Dawurotsuwa and English. Dawit (2016) put Dawuro orthographic symbols and their English equivalents and their phonetic representations in Table 2.4 blow.

Table 2.4 Dawurotsuwa Orthographic Symbols and their English Equivalents and their Phonetic Representations

Local representations (capital letters)	Local representations (small letters)	English representations	Phonetic symbols
A	A	A	a
B	B	B	b
C'	c'	Ch	c'
CH	Ch	Ch	ʧ
D	D	D	d
D'	d'	D	d'
E	E	E	e
F	F	F	f
G	G	G	g
H	H	H	h
I	I	I	i
J	J	J	dʒ
K	K	K	k
K'	k'	K	k'
L	L	L	l
M	M	M	m
N	N	N	n
NH	Nh	H	ɸ
NY	Ny	Gn	ɲ
O	O	O	o
P	P	P	p
P'	p'	P	p'
R	R	R	r
S	S	S	s
SH	Sh	Sh	ʃ
S'	s'	S	s'
T	T	T	t
TS	Ts	Ts	tʰ
V	V	V	v
W	W	W	w
Y	Y	Y	j
Z	Z	Z	z
ZY	Zy	zi/si	ʒ
'	'	'	ʔ

Source: Adopted from Dawit Bekele (2016)

2.12 Dawurotsuwa Grammar

2.12.1 Syntax: Clause Structure

Dawurotsuwa sentence structure is different from English sentence structure. According to Hirut (2007), the sequence of a positive sentence classes is *Subject- Object/ Complement-Object*, whereas, the English structure is *Subject-Verb-Object/ Complement*.

Table 2.5 Dawurotsuwa Clause structure

No.	Sentence forms	Dawuro Sentence Structure	English Sentence Structure
1	Positive	<u>I</u> <u>k'umaa</u> <u>meedda</u> . <u>He</u> <u>food</u> <u>ate</u> . Sub- Obj-V	<u>He</u> <u>ate</u> <u>food</u> . Sub- V- Obj
2	Negative	<u>I</u> <u>k'umaa</u> <u>mibeenna</u> . <u>He</u> <u>food</u> <u>eat-didn't</u> Sub- Obj- V	He didn't eat food. Sub- help.V- obj
3	Question	<u>I</u> <u>k'umaa</u> <u>meeddee?</u> <u>He</u> <u>food</u> <u>ate</u>	Did he eat food? Help.V-Sbj-mai.V-Obj

Source: Adapted by the researcher

2.12.2 Dawurotsuwa Positive Sentence form

Dawurotsuwa positive sentence form

1. Miyatta maataa maw.
Cow-the grass eat.
Sub - Obj - V
2. Ta sooluwa maanaw koyay.
I Injera eat-to want.
Sub - Obj - Comp- V

English

- The cow grazes grass.
Subj - V - Obj
- I want to eat Injera.
Sub - V- Comp- Obj

In the above sentences, in Dawurotsuwa sentence, the sentence structure is *Subject* of the sentence comes first, then comes *Object/ Complement* of the sentence and finally *Verb* comes at the end part of the sentence. However, as we can observe in the English sentence, the *Subject* of the sentence comes first then *Verb* comes and finally *Complement/Object* comes.

2.12.3 Dawurotsuwa Negative Sentence Form

According to Bender (1976), in Dawurotsuwa sentence structure, the negatives are formed by suffixing the non-past negative suffixes to the stem ‘gid-kke’.

Example:

<u>Dawurotsuwa Negative sentence form</u>	<u>English Negative form</u>
1. <u>Taani goshancha gidikke.</u> <u>I farmer not-am</u> <i>Sub Comp. V</i>	<u>I am not a farmer.</u> <i>Sub- V- Comp.</i>
2. <u>Neeni goshancha gidakka.</u> <u>You farmer not-are</u> <i>Sub - Comp. - V</i>	<u>You are not a farmer.</u> <i>Sub -V- Comp</i>

When we compare the above Dawurotsuwa sentences with English, the structures of the language sentences are different. Dawurotsuwa sentence structure suffixes ‘-kke’ on verb root, but the English sentence adds the word ‘*not*’ after the verb of the sentence.

2.12.4 Dawurotsuwa Interrogative Form

Dawit (2016) as described about the interrogative form of Dawurotsuwa sentence, to form interrogative form especially for “Yes/ No” question, ‘-i/-ni/ -di’ is suffixed on the main verb of the sentence. In addition, the structure of the sentences which hold interrogative pronouns (‘Wh’) is: *Wh + Verb* or *Subject + Wh + Verb*.

2.12.5 Dawurotsuwa Yes/ No Questions

<u>Dawurotsuwa interrogative form</u>	<u>English interrogative form</u>
1. <u>Ne maatsaa ushaaddi?</u> <u>You milk drank</u>	Did you drink milk?
2. <u>Ne k’umaa maaddii?</u> <u>You food ate</u>	Did you ate food?

In the above Dawurotsuwa sentences, to show the interrogative form, the suffix ‘-id’ is added over the main verbs of the sentences. However, in the English sentences to show the interrogative for, the helping verb ‘did’ came in the beginning part of the sentences.

2.12.6 Dawurotsuwa ‘Wh’ Questions:

<u>Dawurotsuwa interrogative form</u>	<u>English interrogative form</u>
1. <u>Ooni Aa s’eeledee?</u> <u>Who him saw</u> <i>Wh - Obj - V</i>	Who saw him? <i>wh -V- Obj</i>

2. Hak'an I Aa be'eedee?
where he him saw
wh Sub-Obj- V

Where did he see him?
wh- h.v -Sub- m.V-Obj

In the above examples, the interrogative pronouns: [hak'a:n] 'where' and [ooni] 'who' are used for asking questions.

2.12.7 Indirect Object in Dawurotsuwa Sentence

According Bender (1976), to Indirect objects follow direct objects, and adverbals precede verbs.

Examples:

Dawurotsuwa interrogative form

English interrogative form

1. I guutsa shaluwa taw immeedda.
He some money to-me gave
Sub-Adj- Obj1- Obj2- V

He gave me some money.
Sub-V- Obj2-Adj- Obj1

2. I taw shaluwa tal'eedda.
he me-to money lent
Sub-Obj2- Obj1- V

He lent me money.
Subj-V- Obj2- Obj1

2.12.8 Prepositions in Dawurotsuwa Sentence

Bender (1976), as described: postpositional phrases with '-pe' 'from', seem to be a partial exception to this rule, in some cases they can precede the object rather than follow it.

Dawurotsuwa interrogative form

English interrogative form

1. I mashshaa saas'iniyappe akkeedda.
He knife box-the-from took.
Sub- Obj - Adv - V

He took the knife from the box.
Sub -V - Obj -Adv-

2. I na'aa mitsabolla-ppe wotseedda.
He child tree- top- from lowered.
Sub-Obj - Adv - V

He lowered the child from the tree.
Sub- V- Obj - Adv

In the above example sentences, according to the Dawurotsuwa sentence structure, adverbs take place after object of sentence or before verb of sentence. In addition, the indicator of adverb '-ppe' suffixed to noun.

2.12.9 Sentence with Copulas

In the affirmative present, the zero copula is used with an equational; the sentence order is Subject followed by predicate (Bender, 1997).

Examples:

Dawurotsuwa interrogative form

English interrogative form

1. Ta goshanchaa.

I am a farmer.

I farmer
Sub- V

Sub-V- Cp

2. Neeni lo''a.
You nice
Sub- V

You are nice.
Sub- V- Cp

In the above sample Dawurotsuwa sentences, the word '*goshanchaa*' and '*lo''a*' are used as both Verb and complement of the sentences. However, in the English sentences, the equivalent word '*farmer*'/*goshanchaa*/ and '*nice*'/*lo''a*/ are used as only the complement of the sentences.

2.12.10 Dawurotsuwa Sentence Construction for Past and Future

According to Bender (1997), non-zero couplas are used for the *affirmative past* and *future*, '*shin*' and *gidana*' respectively, both invariable.

Examples:

Dawurotsuwa interrogative form

English interrogative form

1. Ta goshancha shin. (past)
Sub - V- PT

I was farmer.
Sub-V- Cp

2. Ta goshancha gidana. (future)
Sub - V- Fu

I will be a farmer.
Sub- V- Cp

In the above Dawurotsuwa sentences, in sentence no.1: the word '*shin*' after the verb of the sentence or at the end of the sentence to show past tense. In addition, in the 2nd sentence the word '*gidana*' is used to show past tense and came at the end of the sentence.

According to Dawit (2016), verbs which represent the future tense do not have person markers. Instead, independent nouns or pronouns are used together with them. This means that they obligatorily use a subject noun or pronoun to distinguish the person. Yet, to mark the future tense, the verb suffixes the morpheme [*-a:na*] to its root.

Examples:

Dawurotsuwa interrogative form

English interrogative form

1. Ta maana.
Sub- V

I shall eat.
Sub-Fu-V

2. Ne maana.
Sub- V

You(SG) will eat.
Sub- Fu-V

3. [*?a m -a:na*]
she eat –FUT

She will eat.

Example:

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Daw: Ta hayik'ide'iya asaa s'eelaaddi. | 2. Daw: Ta deeshshaa wod'idiya bitaniya eray. |
| Eng: I dying men saw | Eng: I goat killing man know |
| (I saw the man who is dying.) | (I know the man who is killing the goat.) |

- The affirmative continuous is formed by suffixing “*-iya, -de'e/-de'ay*” to the verb stem.

Example:

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Daw: Ta hayik'ide'iya asaa s'eelaaddi. | 2. Daw: Ta deeshshaa wod'idiya bitaniya eray. |
| Eng: I dying men saw | Eng: I goat killing man know |
| (I saw the man who is dying.) | (I know the man who is killing the goat.) |

- The affirmative future and the affirmative habitual are both formed by suffixing “*-iya-wa*” to the verb stem.

Examples:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| 1. Daw: Ta hayik'iya asaa eray. | 2. Daw: Hini yee deeshshay na'ay kaysotanawa. |
| Eng: I will-die men know | Eng: That the-goat the-boy will-steal |
| (I know the men who will die.) | (That is the goat which the boy will steal.) |

The affirmative past is formed suffixing ‘*-edda*’.

Examples:

- | | |
|---|--|
| Daw: Ta booraa wuu'e-edda bitaniya ta erikke. | Daw: Ta zino shammo kormmay bayeedda. |
| Eng: my ox stole man I don't-know | Eng: I yesterday bought the-bull lost |
| (I don't know the man who stole my ox.) | (The bull which I bought yesterday is lost.) |

- The affirmative present is formed by suffixing ‘*-iya*’ and the future by suffixing “*-ana-hania/-iya*”.

Examples:

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Daw: Ta kiitaa bayizziya asaa koyikke. | Daw: Ta booraa wuu'ana haniya kayisuwa oyikaaddi. |
| Eng: I work destroy man don't-want | Eng: my ox going to-steal thief caught |
| (I don't want the man who destroys work.) | (I caught the thief who is going to steal my ox.) |

2.12.12 Dawurotsuwa Sentence in Commutative Case

As Dawit (2016) described the commutative case which denotes the notion ‘*with*’ or ‘*accompanied by*’ is marked by the suffix [*-n:a*]. The example sentences are directly copied from his work.

Examples:

1. [ʔi bari mic'a -t: -i -n:a ka:ʔ -e:]

he self sister -F,-DEF -NOM -COM play -3MS

'He plays with his sister.'

- The same element [-n:a] also uses to refer the meaning 'through'.

2. [ʔi maskot -i -j -a -n:a kes: -e -d: -a]

he window -DEF -EPN -ACC -COM pass out -3MS -PT -3MS

'He passed out through the window.'

- It is also noticed that [-n:e] which represents 'and', has a role of conjunction in compounds.

Examples:

1. [kabad -i -n:e abab -i ʔifa -n:e ʔifa]

Kebede -NOM -COM Abebe -NOM brother -COM brother

'Kebede and Abebe are brothers.'

2. [mi:z -e -n:e dors -a -j ʔit:ip:e hem -e -t: -e]

cow -NOM -COM sheep -NON -DEF together keep -3PL -FEM -3PL

'The cows and the sheep are being looked after together.'

2.12.13 Dawurotsuwa 'If' Clauses

According to Bender (1976) mentioned '*If clauses*' in past time are formed by suffixing '*-intto*' for other person and thing, '*-tantto*' for first person and '*-ontto*' for plural form:

Examples:

1. **Daw:** Taw shalu de'intto booraa shamay.

2. **Daw:** Ta zaaruwa eraytantto new odayishin.

Eng: me-for birr have-if ox buy

Eng: I answer-the knew-if you would-tell

(If I have birr, I buy ox.)

(If I knew the answer, I would tell you.)

Daw: Unttuttu poo'ishin yeedinentto kifiliya gelinoshin.

Eng: they early had come-if class-the would entered

(If they had come early, they would have entered the class.)

Daw: Ne oo oochantto iza new immaw.

Eng: you her ask-if, she you give

(If you ask her, she will give you.)

2.12.14 Verb Complements

The verb stem of the embedded sentence is suffixed with ‘-ewa’ if the subject of the embedded sentence is different from the subject of the matrix sentence and the embedded sentence is the complement of a verb like ‘ude-’/ ‘to make, force’, ‘koy-’/ ‘to want’, ‘dos-’/ ‘to like’, and ‘od-’/ ‘to tell, command’. The order of the elements in the embedded sentence remains the same as in an unembedded sentence; if the subject of the embedded sentence is a pronoun, then the object form or independent form is used.

Example:

Daw: Nu I k’umaa maanadaa udeeddo.	Daw: Ta I soolluwa miyawa koyay.
Eng: We he food eat-to made.	Eng: I he Injera eat-to want.
Daw: Ta I meec’iyawa dosay.	Daw: Ta I baanada odaaddi.
Eng: I he wash-to like.	Eng: I he go-to told

- If the subject of the embedded sentence is the same as the subject of the matrix sentence, then forms with ‘-wa’ are not used, but rather forms with ‘-naw’.

Examples:

Daw: Ta sooluwa ma-anaw dosay.	Daw: Ta sooluwa ma-naw koyay.
Eng: I Injera eat-to like	Eng: I Injera eat-to want
Daw: I asaa bora-naw dosee.	
Eng: He people insult-to likes	

- This construction is also used for purpose clauses:

Examples:

Daw: Amareedda assay neena be’anaw yeedino.	Daw: Hara ogii kiiteta-naw de’ii?
Eng: some people you see-to came	Eng: other way do-to is-there

When a verb is the complement of ‘*’esssa-naw / ek’a-naw’*’/ *to stop*’ it is suffixed only by ‘-a’.

Examples: Daw: Ta kiitaa essaaddi.	Daw: Ta ushshaa essaadi.
Eng: I working stopped	Eng: I drinking stopped
Daw: I haasayaa esseedda.	
Eng: He talking stopped	

2.12.15 Embedded sentences are as subjects

- When an embedded sentence functions as subject of a sentence, the same of the verb in the embedded sentence is suffixed with either “*-ewa* or *-wa*”, in free variation:

Example:

Daw: Asaa wod’iyawe lo’’enna.

Eng: people killing good isn’t

Daw: Wordduwa haasayiyawe neena goyiyawa udee.

Eng: lies telling you crazy makes

2.12.16 Indirect Commands

- There are two ways of forming an indirect command in the affirmative: by suffixing ‘*-ga*’ to the stem of the verb in the embedded sentence or by suffixing ‘*-anadan*’

Examples: 1. **Daw:** Ta Aa bo-ga odaaddi.

Eng: I he go-to told

2. **Daw:** Ta Aa yo-ga odaaddi

Eng: I he come-to told

3. **Daw:** I ta yaanadan odeedda.

Eng: he me come-to told

4. **Daw:** I na’ay yaanadan odeedda.

Eng: he boy- the come-to told

- Negative commands are apparently formed by suffixing “*-oppa-gi*”:

Examples: 1. **Daw:** I taana yooppa gi odeedda.

Eng: he me come-not-to told

(He told me not to come.)

2. **Daw:** I neena yooppa geedda

Eng: he you come-not-to told

(He told you not to come.)

Daw: I Aa yooppa geedda.

Eng: he him come-not-to told

(He told him not to come.)

2.12.17 Indirect Statements

- There is apparently no change in the form of an embedded sentence in past time.

Example:

Daw: I taana beedda geedda.

(He said that I had gone.)

Eng: he me went said

Daw: Hara assay Aa s’eeli-beyiko geeddino.

Daw: I taana bide’ee geedda.

Eng: other people him didn’t-see said

Eng: he me going said

(Othere people said that they didn't see him.)

(He said that I am going.)

Daw: I taana bee geedda.

Daw: I taana beeddagi k'oppeeda, shin ta babeyikke.

Eng: he me will-go said

Eng: he me went thought, but I didn't go

(He said that I will go.)

(He thought I went, but I didn't go.)

2.12.18 Conjunction

In general conjoined phrases are formed by suffixing '-ne' at the end of all but the last of the elements to be conjoined. In the event that verb phrases are conjoined, especially rules apply with respect to tense and person marking.

1. Noun + Noun

'-ne' is suffixed to the end of all but the last of the noun phrases to be conjoined. This applies whether the noun phrases to be conjoined are in subject or object position.

Example:

Daw: Aawuunne na'ay golle beeddino.

Daw: Ha na'ayinne yee naatta wad'eteddino.

Eng: The man and his son went home.

Eng: This boy and that girl fought.

2. Verb phrase + verb phrase

When two or more verbs phrases are conjoined, and all have the same time reference, there is no change in the form of the final verb phrase. '-ne' is suffixed to the appropriate '-i and -a verb stem in preceding verb phrases; there are no tense markers for preceding verbs.

Examples:

Daw: Kanay ashuwa miinne saketisheedda.

Daw: Ta golle gelanne gisaashaaddi.

Eng: The dog ate the meat and got sick.

Eng: I arrive home and slept.

- But it is possible to leave conjunctions to join when two actions happen together.

Example: Daw: Aawuu bunaa ushii beedda.

Daw: Ta laas'aa ma kalaaddi.

Eng: Father drank coffee and went.

Eng: I ate lunch and filled.

2.12.19 Comparatives

Comparative sentences have basically the same structure as non-comparative sentences, except that in all cases the noun referring to the item compared is suffixed by '-pe'/'from' and comes immediately after the subject of the sentence.

Example: Daw: Attuma asaappe daruwa mac'c'a assay ootsiino.

Eng: men-from more-than women-the work.

(The women works more than men.)

Daw: Kasaahunne kabbadappe adduk'k'ee.

Eng: Kasahun Kebede-from is-tall

(Kasahun is taller than Kebede.)

- The noun being compared comes after the subject even when it is in a direct or indirect object relation with the verb.

Example:

Daw: Ta soolluwappe wos'iya dosay.

Eng: I Injera-from stew like

(I like stew better than injera.)

Daw: Au taabuppe daro shaluu de'ee.

Eng: to-him my-father-from much money has

(He has more money than my father.)

2.12.20 Adverbial phrases

Phrases with '-aw' / to him, '-ew' / to you (2nd person singular), and '-iw' / to her

Examples:

Daw: I taw guutsa shaluwa immeedda.

Eng: He to-me some money gave

He gave me some money.

Daw: Ta geleshshuwa new yederssaaddi.

Eng: I baboon-the for-you chased

(I chased the baboon for you.)

Daw: Na'ay naatiw mayuwa shammeedda.

Eng: boy-the girl-for cloth bought

(The boy bought clothe for the girl.)

2.12.21 Phrases with '-n' / as 'by' and 'with'

Adverbial phrases with '-n' show instrument, agent, or means.

Examples:

Daw: I mashashan deeshshaa shukeedda.

Eng: he knife-with goat stabbed

(He stabbed the goat with a knife.)

Daw: Ta kanan sa'etaadi.

Eng: I dog-by was-bitten

(I was bitten by dog.)

Daw: I paran beedda.

Eng: He horse-with went

(He went on a horse.)

2.12.22 Phrases with Locational Nouns

There are several locational nouns, of which the commonest seem to be '*giddo*'/ inside, '*bolla*'/ top, and '*-pe*'/ from.

Examples:

Daw: Booray golle giddon de' ee.

Daw: Bitanii haatsaa giddo kunddeedda.

Eng: ox-the home inside is-there

Eng: man-the water inside fall

(The ox is in the home.)

(The man fell in the water.)

Daw: I mitsappe guppeedda.

Eng: he tree-from jumped

(He jumped from a tree.)

2.13 Language Learning Strategies

2.13.1 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

Scholars have defined language acquisition strategies in a variety of ways. Learning methods were defined by Brown (1980, referenced in Abdalmaujod, 2013) as those that may directly support learning. Additionally, Chamot (2004, quoted in Abdalmaujod, 2013) described language learning strategies as the procedures, methods, plans, and activities that students employ to speed up their retention of linguistic as well as non-linguistic knowledge. The language learning process is also described by Oxford (1990, P. 8) as "particular actions made by the learners to make the learning easier, faster, more pleasurable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to other settings" (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

2.13.2 Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies are divided in to two main categories such as direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies include: Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation strategies, whereas, indirect strategies contain, Metacognitive, Affective and Social strategies (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

2.13.2.1 Direct Language Learning Strategies

A. Memorization Strategy:

A memorizing strategy is a method for retrieving and transferring knowledge needed for future language use, which helps you remember things more easily. With the use of memorization,

learners can retain crucial knowledge acquired via their education. Using this technique, the students are able to retrieve the material when it is required for use in the future. A semantic map, which depicts the connections between a group of nouns or verbs, is one example of how to do this (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

Even though, memorization learning strategy has its own advantage as one of the language learning strategies, it doesn't have that much roles to the current study. Because, the focus of this study is not about obtaining a new linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge of language but its aim is to minimize mother tongue interference and pointing the strategies.

B. Cognitive Strategy:

Cognitive techniques are employed to assist students in correctly manipulating the target language or activity by utilizing all of their processes. They include reasoning, analysis, and drawing of conclusions. For example: using exercises to practice the language and a dictionary to locate challenging words. In addition, Oxford (1990) defined cognitive strategy as enabling the learner to understand and produce new language in many different ways. For example, through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally. According to Oxford's finding, this strategy is the most popular and it centers on practice, and high school and college students of foreign or second language use more cognitive strategies than other strategies. (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

Therefore, since this strategy focuses on practice and analysis of the structures of a second language, the strategy is directly related to the current study because the goal of this study was to reduce mother tongue interference and to identify potential solutions to the problem. The core cause of mother tongue interference is L1 habits and the difference between L1 and L2. So, the only solution to minimize the habit is to practice and analyze the difference between the languages.

C. Compensation Strategy:

The students use a compensatory method to make up for the vocabulary-related knowledge gaps in the target language. Even though they have a restricted vocabulary, the learners can still speak and write in the target language thanks to the technique. For instance, they can compensate for their lack

of vocabulary by inventing words or by using linguistic hints to guess meanings (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

This strategy focuses up on vocabulary and the way they can be used to guess meaning of words through clues. However, the current research is related to mother tongue interference. Therefore, this strategy do not relate to this study.

2.13.2.2 Indirect Language Learning Strategies

A. Metacognitive Strategy:

Students use metacognitive strategies to help them center, organize, plan, and evaluate their learning, which gives them more control over their own learning. Additionally, students will have the option to develop their ideal learning tactics and modify them if necessary. Overviewing previously studied material, for instance, and choosing in advance what to focus on (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

Even though the strategy has its own role to helps second language learners as a strategy, it doesn't match to the current study because the learners who were focused on this study aren't matured enough to learn the second language by themselves.

B. Affective Strategy:

Techniques that assist students in managing their feelings, attitudes, motives, and values are referred to as affective strategies. Because they help learners control their emotions, these techniques have a significant impact on language learning. For instance, students can use praise to reward themselves for accomplishments and laughter to unwind (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

Based on this strategy the mother tongue interference can be minimized. So, the researcher believes that this strategy is relevant to the current study, the EFL teachers who teach Dawurotsuwa native students can use this strategy to minimize the MT interference on English speaking.

C. Social Strategy:

Students that use social strategies actively seek out opportunities to be exposed to settings that allow for practice. These tactics are crucial since language learning is a social activity that necessitates constant interaction with others. To improve their language abilities, students could, for

instance, ask clarifying questions to clarify their comprehension or to ascertain a fact, or they could collaborate with classmates or other speakers of the target language, including native and native-like speakers (Abdalmaujod, 2013).

However, the strategy doesn't work for this study because based on this strategy, to make practice with native speakers or native like speakers, there should have English speakers around Dawurotso native speaking students but there are no English speakers the dominant language both in the school and out of the school is Dawurotso language.

2.14 Theoretical and Conceptual Frame Work

2.14.1 Theoretical Frame Work

2.14.1.1 Language Learning Theories

There are different language learning theories. However the researcher took as sample the three major language theories such as: Behaviorism theory, Cognitivism theory and Constructivism theory.

A. Behaviorism Theory

B.F. Skinner established behaviorism theory. This theory states that imitation serves as the foundation for learning. Specifically, the students attempt to mimic the pronunciation of others. The way that students act and pronounce words, for instance, is an attempt to emulate their teachers. Another illustration is when a baby attempts to emulate his parents and siblings by saying "mama, papa," which helps a child acquire words and make attempts at speaking. Positive and negative reinforcement, according to Skinner, are related to learning. When a teacher says, "That's good, excellent," in response to a student's answer, it is clear that the students will do everything in his or her power to react the next time and hear those motivating words (SIM, 2021).

According to Dai and Chen (2007), the behaviorist theory of learning generally places more emphasis on how something is learned than what is learned. According to the principle, language acquisition involves habit building; hence teachers should employ various techniques to remedy their pupils' mistakes. Making mistakes is terrible and should be avoided because they lead to negative habits. It is more useful to teach language skills verbally before writing them down. The meaning of words can only be learned in a linguistic and cultural context, and analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis.

Hence, this theory directly relates with this study and based on the theory, it is possible to minimize the interference of Dawurotsuwa interference on Tarcha Secondary School grade nine native speaking students' English speaking problem specially phonological and grammatical interference. So, the teachers who teach grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students can use different mechanisms like: repeating, drill practice, imitation, rewarding and creating habit to minimize Dawurotsuwa interference.

B. Cognitivism Theory

Cognitivism theory is founded by Canny. It comes as a reaction to the behaviorist thoughts, which ignores Human's innate ability to acquire the language. Cognitivism believes that humans are creative not just imitative. Learners are viewed as very active participants in the process of learning. This theory emphasizes the idea of making knowledge meaningful and helping learners to organize and relate the new information to the existing knowledge in memory. The best way to apply this theory is to ask questions to help students refine their thinking (Karen, 2014).

In contrast, cognitivist approaches in both education theory and second language acquisition theories emphasize the importance of thought processes in learning. Learning, including language learning, is seen as a process involving memory, thinking, reflection, abstraction, and metacognition. Important in cognitive language learning processes is that input is first transformed to intake and then may be transferred from the short-term memory to long-term memory. Learners' possibilities to make their own hypotheses about language and individual learner strategies are seen to be essential in cognitivist approaches (Ally, 2004; Mitchell & Myles, 2002). In contrast to behaviorist approaches, computer or Internet based cognitive approaches do not judge and evaluate everything the students do nor reward them with congratulatory messages, lights, or bells (Warschauer, 1996). What is important is how learning content and tasks can be presented in various ways in the online environment in order to subsequently be stored in the learner's long-term memory. As a consequence different online strategies and many various types of tasks enhancing input processing should be developed for online second language teaching based on cognitivist approaches.

Eventhough the scholars put evidences about the role of cognitive theory on learning a language, the researcher believed that the best theory is Behaviorism theory to minimize L1 interference.

C. Constructivism Theory

One of the theories of language is Constructivism and it relates second language learning and cognitive developing levels of the language learners' instruction of the learners with others. SIM (2021), mentioned that Piaget was the creator of constructivism. It is self-evident that people's linguistic skills increase as they mature and are exposed to other cultures and languages. This theory holds that the first forms of learning come through experiences and social interaction.

According to Xiaofei (2018), constructivism sees learning as an interpretative, circular, nonlinear process that involves engaged students engaging with their immediate physical and social environments (Fosnot, 2005). Cognitive constructivism and sociocultural constructivism are the two dominant constructivism schools. Cognitive constructivism theory which emphasizes the individual learning process and how a person generates and develops his knowledge via experience and it is derived from the work of J. Piaget. L. S. Vygotsky's sociocultural constructivism emphasizes the social environment of learning. Although Vygotsky and Piaget both downplayed the importance of social influences and Piaget did not emphasize the activity and reflection of individual students, they each contributed to a good narrative of learning that completes the other (Cobb, 2005; Dimitriadis & Kamberelis, 2006).

However, this theory does not match with this study because to learn a second language through sharing experience and interaction, there should have L2 speakers around the learner. The problem is to minimize Dawurotsuwa interference, there is no experienced English speaker around the students. The only solution is using the strategies of Behaviorism theory.

2.14.1.2 Theories of Second Language Acquisition

There are different second language theories which were discovered by different scholars. However, the researcher took the three major L2 learning theories such as: The contrastive (analysis) hypothesis (CAH), Creative Construction Hypothesis (CCH) and Interlanguage Hypothesis (ILH).

A. The Contrastive (Analysis) Hypothesis (CAH)

The contrastive hypothesis, often known as the "contrastive analysis hypothesis" or CAH, served as the foundation for most of the 1950s research on second language acquisition (SLA). This theory suggests that one of the main causes of errors throughout the second language acquisition process was interference. The contrastive theory saw instances of interference between L1 and L2 as the outcome of (linguistic) habits that were transmitted from the mother tongue to the language to be learned, in accordance with a behaviourist perspective of language acquisition (stimulus-and-response model). In light of this, the contrastive analysis suggested that most learning errors may be predicted by properly contrasting the two languages under comparison (similar language patterns => positive transfer; divergent language patterns => negative transfer) At that time, contrastive linguists focused mostly on enhancing pairwise language comparison-based foreign language instruction (Ellis,1986).

The contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) theory is directly related to this study because Dawurotsuwa interference which influences English speaking of Tarcha Secondary Dawurotsuwa native speaking grade nine students is caused by the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English syntax and grammar rules. Therefore, to minimize the problem it is needed to distinguish the difference between the languages.

B. Creative Construction Hypothesis (CCH)

In the 1970s, the CCH first appeared. It was founded on a critical assessment of the function of interference in the learning of second languages. The CCH asserts that a learner's original language has no effect on their ability to pick up new languages. Additionally, the CCH maintained that there are few differences between learning a first language and learning a second language. Both processes, according to Heidi C. Dulay and Marina K. Burt, are influenced by creative creation, which means that each learner continually forms assumptions regarding the linguistic patterns being studied. These assumptions are supported by data from the target language. Only 3% of learner errors could be accounted for by interference, according to a research by Dulay and Burt (Ellis, 1986).

This theory focuses only on positive transfer of L1 linguistic elements to L2. However, it is important to see the about the negative transfer of of L1 linguistic elements to L2 learning process. The negative transfers become cause to interferences on L2 learning. So, this theory doesn't match with this study.

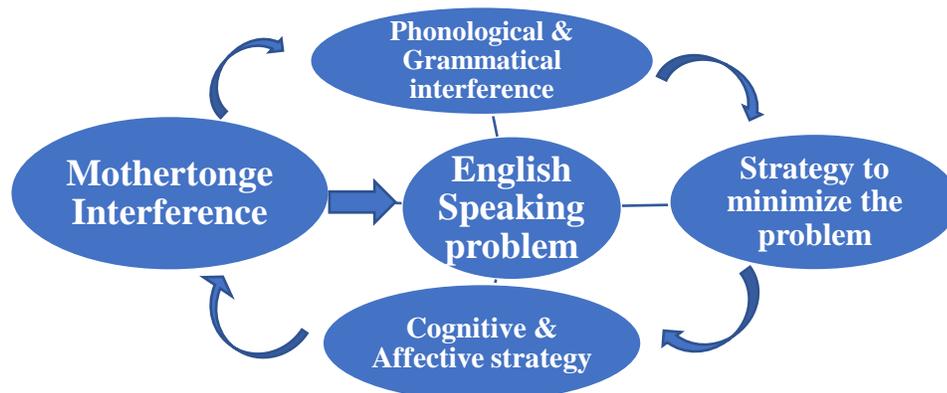
C. Interlanguage Hypothesis (ILH)

The ILH was most notably formulated by Larry Selinker in 1972 and included interference as a possible source of error. It is explained that learners access a particular linguistic system when they try to acquire another language. This systematic set of rules is called interlanguage and differs from both the native and the target language. It approximates the target language during the learning process. However, interlanguage is thus regarded as a dynamic and constantly changing learner language (Ellis, 1997).

Based on the this theory, the Dawurotsuwa interference which influences Dawurotsuwa natives' English speaking skill is caused by the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar rules and the absence of some English sound in Dawurotsuwa. So, this theory also relates with this study.

2.14.2 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework shows mother tongue interference on English speaking and the strategies to minimize the problem (interference) the types of strategies should be used. In addition, the framework indicates English speaking is influenced by mothertongue which are phonological and grammatical. Then, it points the strategies should be used. Also, the strategies are pointed such as cognitive and affective language teaching strategies.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The primary goal of this research is to look at the mother tongue interference and teachers' strategies to minimize learners' English speaking problem: The case of Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking students. The chapter discussed the research design, participants, sampling strategies, the research setting, data collecting tools, data collection processes, and methods of data analysis. In addition, the researcher made base pragmatic research paradigm to conduct the research.

3.2 Research Design

According to Creswell (2009), combining quantitative and qualitative research method leads to a more comprehensive knowledge of study issues. As a result, a descriptive survey research design and mixed research methods or qualitative and quantitative data methodologies were employed to develop reliable findings.

3.3 Research Setting

This research is conducted in South Western Regional State, Dawuro Zone, Tarcha Town, in Tarcha Secondary School grade 9, sections A, C, and E. Dawuro (Dawuro) is a zone in the South West Ethiopia Peoples' Region (Amharic: የደቡብ ምዕራብ ኢትዮጵያ ህዝቦች ክልል) of Ethiopia. It is located at about 500km southwest of Addis Ababa, the capital of Ethiopia and 319 km of Hawassa, the capital of the SNNPR and 164 km from Jimma. Dawuro is bordered on the south by Gamo Gofa Zone, on the west by the Konta special woreda, on the north by the Gojeb River which defines its boundary with the Oromia Region, Jimma zone, on the northeast by Hadiya and Kembata Tembaro Zones, and on the east by Wolayita Zone; the Omo River defines its eastern and southern boundaries. The administrative center of Dawuro was Waka before it was transferred to Tarcha (wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, 2022).

Dawit Bekele (2016) as mentioned and cited that the name Dawuro, according to information from the zone's culture, tourism and communication department, refers to both the place and the people. While referring the place, it is meant by a place where the Dawuro people live. The language which

Dawuros speak is known as *Dawurotsuwa* [dawurot^suwa] or ‘Dawuro language’. It is the language which is widely spoken in the area. It belongs to the Omotic language family under the North Omoto cluster together with Wolayitta, Gamo, Gofa and others are grouped together (Fleming, 1976). Tarcha is the main town of the zone. The zone’s administration and offices of different government departments are found there and it is located at Mareka district fourteen kilometres east of Waka town. It is 589 km. away from Addis Ababa if travelled through the direction of Jimma, 596 km. through the direction from Hawassa, 514 km through the direction of Shashemene via Wolayitta Sodo, also relatively at the shortest distance through Butajira-Hosaena-Wolaiyitta Sodo direction. It is also 279 km. far from Hawassa which is the capital of the Southern Nations and Nationalities People’s Regional State (SNNPRS).

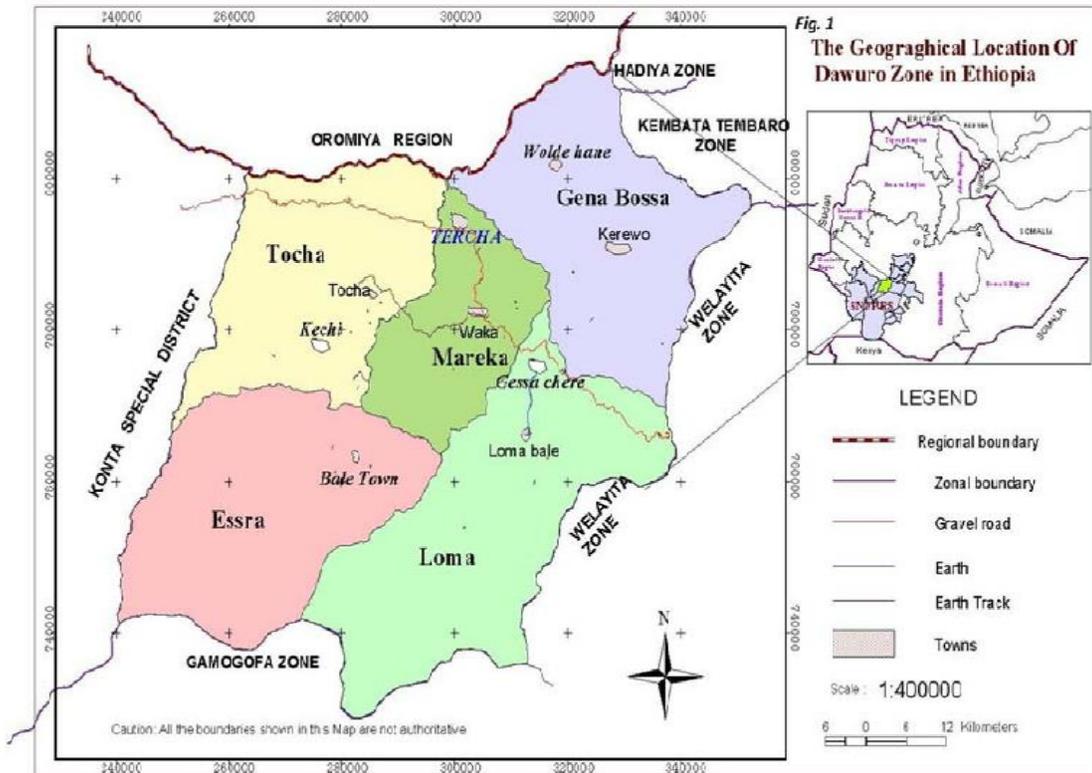


Fig. 3.1 The map of Dawuro Zone in South Western Regional State
Adapted from Torboko (2010)

The first reason for the school selection is accessibility of the school for the research activities. The second reason is that the researcher believed to obtain diverse and important data from the school

for the research because there were diverse students which were coming around the town and the border rural kebeles. The third reason is that researcher is familiar with the school and the town.

Rationale for choosing grade nine was that from grade one up to eight, students learn all the subjects in their native or Dawurotsuwa except English and Amharic. So, the researcher believes that the MT interference influence can be leveled in the grade. In addition, the researcher believes that if Dawurotsuwa native students minimize their mother tongue interference in grade nine, they won't be troubled in the next grades to speak English.

3.4 The Sours of Data

Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students and EFL teachers in the school are used as the source of data. The grade nine sections A, C and E were chosen through non-probability sampling technique or purposive sampling technique because the sections are on suitable shift. So that it is suitable for both data collecting process and to use students as source of data without interrupting their regular classes.

The researcher used only primary data to obtain relevant and important data for the study because the study focuses on MT (Dawurotsuwa) interference on speaking skills, especially the interference of phonological and grammatical. So, the secondary data is not needed for the study.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

3.5.1 Sample size

The study's target group was Tarcha Secondary School grade nine students. There were six sections in the school. However, the researcher chose only three sections: A, C and E in order to make the research manageable. In each section, there were 65 students and the total number of the students was 195. Also, there were six English teachers in the school, and the researcher used the six teachers as additional source of data. Generally, the researcher used 110 students for questionnaire, 30 students for pronunciation test and speaking test and six English teachers for interview. Totally, the sample size of the study was 146.

3.5.2 Sampling technique

The researcher used purposive sampling technique to pick up grade nine and section 'A', 'C' and 'E' from other grades and sections. The total number of student in the three sections was 195 and

based on the information which was given from the school and the students as mentioned, all the students (100%) are Dawurotsuwa native speakers and none of them are non-native.

From 195 (100%) students, the researcher selected 110 students for questionnaire. To choose the students for questionnaire, the researcher used simple random sampling approach. Sugiono (2000) explains that random sampling gives an equal chance to the population of being included in a sample and the probability is not affected. In addition, the researcher believed that the sample size was enough to earn the expected data for the study. To check whether Dawurotsuwa is the students' native or not the researcher checked the students' document and rolement in school office.

The researcher also selected 30 students for pronunciation test and speaking activities through clustering sampling method plus lottery method. Louise (2020) mentioned that cluster smpling technique increases the feasibility of the process for researchers because every cluster is a direct representation of the people being studied and it is easy to include more subjects in the project as needed to obtain the correct level of information. The researcher clustered the students in to three groups as higher achievers, medium achievers and lower achievers based on their first semester achievement result. Afterward, the researcher selected 10 students from each group (higher, medium and low achievers) totally 30 students using lottery method. Then, the researcher gave the pronunciation test for 20 students and speaking test for the rest 10 students. This process took place in order to minimize the bias.

The researcher also used the English teachers for interview in order to obtain qualitative data. There were six English teachers in the school. The researcher chose all the teachers through purposive sampling techniques because the teachers were limited in number.

3.6 Data collection instruments

The required information for this study was acquired through four sets data gathering tools. Thus, words' pronunciation test, speaking activity, questionnaire and interview were the tools used to gather data. The researcher prepared pronunciation test for selected students because these items reflect MT interference related to phonological interference. In addition, speaking activity was given for the students in order to obtain the data related to grammatical interference, and questionnaire also was given for the students to obtain quantitative data across pronunciation test

and speaking activities. Finally, in order to support the study and to obtain qualitative data, data was collected from the teachers through interview.

3.6.1 Pronunciation test

Pronunciation test was one of the methods used to gather data related to mother tongue interference. Therefore, the researcher presented different words for pronunciation test for twenty students which were selected through clustering and lottery method. Then, the researcher recorded the students' voice and transcribed the words as they pronounced according to IPA and also analyzed the MT interference related to phonological interference.

3.6.2 Speaking test

The researcher prepared simple sentences on MT for ten randomly selected students from the clusters and administered to translate in to English sentences. When the students speak, the researcher recorded their voice without interrupting. Finally, the researcher analyzed the students' speech to assess their mother tongue interference related to grammatical interference. So, the students' voice was recorded and analyzed to check the grammatical interference.

3.6.3 Questionnaire

To gather primary data for the study, questionnaire was developed based on review of the literatures in the study. Koul (1996) defined that a questionnaire is widely used in educational research to obtain information about certain conditions and particles as well to enquire opinions and attitudes of individuals or groups. The questionnaire was constructed by the researcher in English for students and translated into Dawurotsuwa in order to reduce language ambiguity. The questionnaire consisted of close-ended items. Close-ended questions, such as Likert or rating scale were used because it is suitable for large scale survey as they are quick for respondents to answer. They are also easy to analyze using statistical techniques.

3.6.4. Interview

In addition to the pronunciation test, speaking activities and questionnaire, a semi-structured interview was conducted with six English teachers. Malasa (2007) stressed that the use of semi-structured interviews allow interviewees to express themselves in a more relaxed atmosphere. This helped the researcher to get in-depth responses and more significant information about the issue

under investigation. It was held with the respondents were in the time adjusted through common consensus between researcher and the respondents. Based on this point, the teachers were selected through purposive sampling technique and the researcher believes that they give helpful data for the study since they are teaching in the school as well as experienced on teaching English. An interview tends to be the most favored by researcher as it allows respondents to express themselves to provide information as much as possible. Similarly, an interview helps to obtain relevant data that could not be handled by questionnaire and essential to check the information already obtained. To this end, the researcher has applied semi-structured interview for the respondents because it was believed to provide sufficient information for the study.

3.6.5 Pilot study

Pilot study was carried out with objective of checking whether or not the items of the questionnaires are easily comprehensible by the respondents and could enable the researcher to gather the required information. In other words, before the administration of the questionnaire to the respondents and the collection of actual data from target school (Tarcha Secondary School), pilot test was conducted in near school called Gozo Shasho Secondary School which is found in Tarcha Town Zuriya Woreda. This school was selected since it has some common characteristics with the sample school (Tarcha Secondary School) of the study area.

Accordingly, the draft questionnaire was distributed to 44 students in the pilot (Gozo Shasho Secondary School). After the questionnaire was filled and returned. The reliability of the items was measured by using Cronbach Alpha. According to Jwan (2010) a reliability coefficient of 0.71 is considered high enough for the instruments to be used for the study. Hence, the reliability was more than .71. Also the validity was checked by three Dawurotsowa teachers who were specialized on MA in Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) and have more than fifteen years work experience on teaching both Dawurotsuwa and English on the base of face and content validity. Hence, in terms of face validity the researcher consulted with the experienced EFL teachers face to face. Whereas, regarded to content validity the researcher checked validity of relivence contents through SPSS version 20 softwre. After the reliability and validity were checked, the obtained reliability result and questionnaire were submitted to the advisor for comment and approved.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

In this study, data was collected from Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native speaking students and the English teachers in the school in the academic year of 2014 E.C/2022 G.C through the following procedures. To collect data through pronunciation test, different relevant consonant and vowel word lists were prepared and each and every student read turn by turn. While students were reading the words, the voice of students was recorded. These activities were aimed to obtain data related to phonological interference. Similarly, for grammatical interference, authentic and simple sentences were prepared in Dawurotsuwa and let students speak turn by turn and the students' voice was recorded. In addition, to obtain additional data and make clearer the outcome of the study, questionnaire was given for the rest grade nine students. First, purpose of the study and the specific as well as general directions in the questionnaire was explained for the respondents by the researcher. Then, the prepared questionnaire was administered to students. Finally, interview held with grade nine English teachers of the school. The interview data was recorded on tape recorder by the researcher.

3.8 Methods of Data Analysis

The researcher followed the following data (errors) analyzing procedures such as: collection of data, identification of errors, classifications of errors and quantification of errors (Corder, 1981). So, word pronunciation tests were given to the participants, and their voices were recorded. The researcher then looked into the data he had gathered about phonological interference, classified the errors, and attempted to interpret the data as objectively as possible. After that, the researcher investigated the errors by picking the error items and ultimately used a distribution table categorize the errors into different types of errors.

Similarly, related to grammatical interference, speaking transcripts from the oral tasks were used in the data analysis techniques. After that, all of the data were grouped into grammatical interferences categories. According to James (1998) grammatical faults grouped into two categories: syntax and morphology. Clause errors indicate full phrases that enter the structure of clauses and phrase structure errors (Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase, and Preposition Phrase). Sentence mistakes are errors that occur when clauses are selected and combined into larger components. Inter sentence mistakes occur when the conjunctive and sentence connectors are misused. Similar to lexical errors, morphology errors occur. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and

prepositions are the five lexical word types in English. The results were ranked from most common to least common grammatical interferences based on the data collected from the subjects.

The data which obtained from questionnaire was analyzed through statistical package for the social science (SPSS) Version 20. The data that was collected from the field was fed into Computer Software. Then, the percentage and mean score was calculated. Frequency was used to show the numbers of respondents who responded for each item with regard to topic of the study whereas mean score was used to indicate the extent of respondents' agreement or disagreement to each item.

Finally, the qualitative data that was gathered through semi-structured interview from the English teachers was analyzed through narration.

3.9 Ethical considerations

The researcher gave insight understanding for the respondents that they give relevant information for this study and it need to get successful and genuine information for the study purpose. The researcher also had to obtain the official letters from Jimma University in order to formally approach the school where the research was conducted. This helped the researcher get useful data from the school stockholders and concerned respondents. Moreover, the researcher also should behave ethically and morally in way that the participants' information. Finally, the researcher should have to used and bound to the ethically considerations and the concerned bodies were informed about the consent signed to ensure self -awareness and confidentiality.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The chapter deals about data analysis and interpretation. The data gathered through pronunciation test, speaking activities and questionnaire were presented by table form, but the data obtained through interview were presented through narration form. The data which were gathered through pronunciation test, speaking activities and questionnaire were from the selected grade 9 students and the data that gathered through interview was from the school teachers (English teachers). The total number of respondents that participated in the study were 146 and from these students 110 were used as respondents to questionnaire and the rest 30 participated in the pronunciation test and speaking activities. Again, from these students 20 of them took the pronunciation test and 10 students participated in speaking activities. In addition, 5 male and 1 female teachers totally 6 teachers participated in the interview. From the teachers, 4 were MA holders and the rest 2 were BA graduates. The teachers have more than 15 years work experience except the female teacher who has 5 years experience.

4.2 Analysis of Data Obtained Through Pronunciation Test

Based on recorded script which was read by students, it is pointed that the word interfered through Dawurotsuwa as students' first language are described in Table 1. Table accounts a couple of words which receive interference students' mother tongue, known as Dawurotsuwa.

Table 4.1 the way interference occurred due to consonant sounds such as:
/v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/

No	English Words	The Words Correct Pronunciation	The ways Interference occurrence	Changed Sounds
1	Former	/fɔ:mə/	/pɔ:rməri:/	/f/ sound to /p/ sound
2	Ratio	/ræi.ʃi.əʊ/	/rɛ:ʃɔ:/	/r/ became /ir/
3	Volume	/vɒl.ju:m/	/bɔ:ləm/	/v/ changed into /b/
4	Although	/ɔ:l'ðəʊ/	/ɔ:ltaʊg/ /ɔ:lɪzɔ:/	/ð/ changed into /t/, /z/ & /s/
5	Farmer	/fɑ:mə/	/pɑ:rməri:/ /pɑ:rmər/ /pɑ:rmər/	/f/ changed into /p/
6	Radio	/ræidi.əʊ/	/ərə'di:ʒɔ:/ /rɛ:diɔ/	/i/ added on /r/=ir
7	Involve	/ɪn'vɒlv/	/ɪnbɒlb/ /ɪnbɔ:li:b/	/v/ changed in to /b/
8	Throw	/θrəʊ/	/zəraʊ/ /tɪraʊ/ /sɪrɪw/	/θ/ changed into /z/, /t/ & /s/
9	Leisure	/leɪʒə(ɪ)/ /li:ʒə(ɪ)/	/le:ʒər/ /ləsər/ /li:sər/	/ʒ/ changed into /dʒ/ & /s/
10	Effort	/'ɛfət/	/ɪpɔ:t/ /ɪpɔ:ɪ/	/f/ changed into /p/
11	Direct	/d(a)'ɪrɛkt/ /də'ɪrɛkt/	/daɪrɛkt/ /daɪrɛkt/	Unstressed /r/ stressed
12	Equivalent	/i'kwɪvələnt/	/ɪku:bɑ:lənt/ /ɪkɒbɑ:lənt/	/v/ changed into /b/
13	Three	/θri:/	/sɪri:/ /ze:r/	/θ/ changed in to /s/ & /z/
14	Father	/'fɑðə/ /fɑ:ðə(ɪ)	/pɑ:zər/	/f/ changed into /p/ /ð/ changed into /z/
15	Information	/ɪnfə'meɪʃən/	/ɪnpɔ:rmɛ:ʃɪn/	/f/ changed into /p/
16	Those	/ðəʊz/	/zɔ:s/ /zɒs/	/ð/ changed into /z/
17	Prove	/pɹu:v/	/pɪrɔ:b/ /pɪrɒb/	/v/ changed into /b/
18	Allusion	/ə'lu:ʒən/	/alu:ʃɪn/	/ʒ/ changed into /ʃ/
19	Though	/ðəʊ/ /ðu:/	/təʊ/ /taʊ/ /səʊ/	/ð/ changed into /t/
20	Hoof	/hʊf/ /hu:f/	/hɔ:p/ /hu:p/	/f/ changed into /p/
21	Bar	/bɑ:/	/bɑ:r/ /bɛ:r/	/r/ silent become stressed
22	Observe	/ɒb'zɜ:v/ /əb'zɜ:v/	/ɒbsərb/	/v/ changed into /b/
23	Vision	/vɪ.ʒ(ə)n/	/bi:ʃɪn/ /baɪsi:n/	/v/ changed into /b/ /ʒ/ changed into /ʃ/
24	Bath	/bɑ:θ/ /bæθ/	/bɑ:z/ /bɛz/	/θ/ changed into /z/
25	Switch off	/ɒf/ /ɔ:f/	/ɪswɪ:ft.ɔp/ /ɪsi:ft ɔ:p/	/i/ added on /s/ and became = is /f/ changed into /p/
26	Scholar	/'skɒlə/ /'skalə/	/ɪskɔ:lɑ:ri:/ /ɪskɒlɑ:r/	/i/ added on /s/ and became = is
27	Measure	/'meɪʒ.ə/ /meɪ.ʒə/	/mɛ:ʒər/ /masəri:/	/ʒ/ changed into /s/ & /dʒ/
28	With	/wɪθ/ /wɪð/	/wi:z/	/θ/ or /ð/ changed in to /z/
29	Portion	/pɔ:ʃən/ /pɔ:ɪʃən/	/pɔ:ɔtən/	/ʃ/ changed into /t/
30	Voltage	/vɒʊltɪdʒ/	/bɒltədʒ/ /bɔtɛ:dʒ/	/v/ changed into /b/
31	Worth	/wɜ:θ/ /wɜθ/	/wɔ:rz/ /wɔ:ɪs/ /wɒd/	/θ/ changed into /s/ & /d/
32	Authentic	/ɔ.'θɛn.tɪk/ /p.'θɛn.tɪk/ /	/aʊtəntɪk/	/θ/ changed into /t/
33	Pleasure	/pleɪʒə/ /'pleɪʒə/	/pli:sɪr/ /plɛ:dʒər/ /pli:sɔr	/ʒ/ changed into /dʒ/ & /s/

As it is shown in the above Table 4.1, Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking students during the pronunciation test when they were pronouncing words with /v/ sounds, they pronounced the sound /v/ as /b/. However, these sounds are completely different in terms of their place of articulation and manner of articulation. As it was explained in the literature part, the sound /b/ is bilabial and stops sound whereas the sound /v/ is labiodental and fricative sound (Yule, 1996).

The reason for the interference was that the sound /v/ is not found in the Dawurotsuwa. As Hirut (2007) mentioned, the chart of the consonant phonemes of Dawurotsuwa does not include the sound /v/. The researcher recognized that when the sound /v/ comes in the beginning, middle, and end parts of English words, the students pronounce the sound /v/ as /b/.

Based on the above Table 4.1 information, Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students pronounce the sound /f/ as /p/. According to the students' pronunciation test results, when the students were pronouncing different English words with /f/ sounds during the test, they were changing the sound /f/ into a /p/ sound. However, the sounds /f/ and /p/ are apart in the dimension of both place of articulation and manner of articulation. The sound /f/ is labio-dental and fricative, but the sound /p/ is bilabial and stop's sound. The reason for the problem is mother tongue interference. As the researcher described and cited Hirut (2007) in the literature part of the study, the sound /f/ doesn't come in the beginning part of any Dawurotsuwa words. So Dawurotsuwa native speakers haven't experienced the /f/ sound and it interferes when pronouncing any English words with the /f/ sound, especially when the sound occurs in the beginning part of English words.

According Table 4.1, the students pronounce the sound /ʒ/ as /ʃ/ or /s/ sound. However, the sound /ʒ/ is completely different from both the /ʃ/ and /s/ sounds. The sound /ʒ/ is voiced and is an alveo-palatal and fricative sound; whereas, the sound /ʃ/ is voiceless and a post-alveolar fricative sound. Similarly, the sound /s/ is voiceless, alveolar, and fricative. The main reason for the mispronunciation of the sound /ʒ/ is that it is not found in Dawurotsuwa language consonant phonemes. Due to that, the Dawurotsuwa native speakers mispronounce words with a /ʒ/ sound (Hirut, 2007).

The sound /θ/ is voiceless, dental, and fricative. As it is described in the above Table, the students during the pronunciation test, as their sound record was analyzed, pronounced the sound /θ/ as /t/.

/z/ or /d/, while the sound /θ/ is completely different from the sounds. The sound /s/ is voiceless, alveolar and fricative sound; the sound /d/ is voiced, alveolar and plosive sound; the sound /t/ is voiceless, alveolar plosive sound; the sound /z/ is voiced, alveolar and fricative sound. The cause of the problem is that as Dawit (2016) mentioned, the sound /θ/ is not found in the Dawurotsuwa. Therefore, Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students mispronounce any words with the sound /θ/.

As the pronunciation test result reflected in the above table, the Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students pronounced the sound /ð/ as /z/, /t/, and /s/ during the pronunciation test. The main reason for the students' mispronunciation of the sound is the absence of the sound /ð/ in their language (Dawurotsuwa) (Hirut, 2007), and they have no experience of using the sound. On the other hand, there is no word in the Dawuro language that includes the sound /ð/. So, the Dawurotsuwa native speakers are forced to use or change the sound to the nearest sounds when they encounter English words with a /ð/sound.

Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native students mispronounced English words with the sounds /r/ and /s/, particularly when these sounds occur at the beginning of any English word. As a result of the pronunciation test pointed out in the table, students add /ɹ/ or /ə/sounds when they read or pronounce any English words that begin with /r/ and /s/ sounds.

Generally, based on the information in the above table Dawurotsuwa native speaking students made errors such as: changing, replacing and adding sounds due to their mother tongue when they were pronouncing different English words with the sounds like: /v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/.

Changing a sound shows as it is described in the table, changing a consonant sound in to another consonant. Also replacing a sound indicates putting a sound in the place of another sound and adding means putting a sound over a word unnecessarily. Therefore, it points great problem with students related to English speaking skills, especially word pronunciation. Due to the mispronunciation of sounds in a word, may leads to voiding the meaning of the word or meaning of a word. In addition, miscommunication can be occurred between a speaker and a listener.

Table 4.2 Diphthongs related interference on English speaking

No .	English Words	The words Correct Pronunciation	The ways Interference occurrence	The Changes Occurred
1	Here	/hɪə(ɪ) /hɪə/	/hɛ:r/ /hi:r/ /hɛr/	Diphthong to vowel
2	Near	/nɪə(ɪ)	/ni:r/ /nɛ:r/	Diphthong to vowel
3	Idea	/aɪ'dɪə/ /aɪ'di.ə/	/aji:dɪjə/ /ajdɪjə/	Diphthong to vowel
4	Make	/meɪk/ /	/mɑ:k/ /mɛ:k/	Diphthong to vowel
5	Take	/teɪk/	/tæk/ /tɛk/	Diphthong to vowel
6	Weight	/weɪt/	/wɛ:ɡɪt/ /wəjɪt/	Diphthong to vowel
7	Where	/wɛə(ɪ)/ /wɛɜ:/	/wer/ /wɛr/	Diphthong to vowel
8	Bear	/bɛ:(ɪ)/ /bɪ:ə(r)/	/bɪr/	Vowel to vowel
9	Hair	/hɛə/ /hɛə/ /hɛ:/	/hɛɪr/	Diphthong-vowel/ long to short vowel
10	Cat	/kæɪt/ /kat/	/kʌt/ /kɑ:t/	Diphthong to vowel
11	Flat	/flæɪt/	/pɪlɑ:t/ /fɪlɪt/	Diphthong to vowel
12	Can	/kæɪn/	/kɑ:n/ /kʌn/	Diphthong to vowel
13	High	/haɪ/	/hɪɡɪh/ /həjɪ/	Diphthong to vowel
14	Eye	/aɪ/	/i:/ /əjɪ/	Diphthong to vowel
15	Pie	/paɪ/	/pi:/ /pɪ/	Diphthong to vowel
16	How	/haʊ/	/hɑ:w/ /haw/	Diphthong to vowel
17	House	/haʊs/	/hɑ:wʊs/ /hɔ:s/	Diphthong to vowel
18	Cloud	/klaʊd/	/klɔʊd/ /kɪlɔɪd/	Diphthong to another
19	Hello	/hə'ləʊ/ /hɛ'ləʊ/	/hələʊ:/ /hələʊ/	Diphthong to vowel
20	Although	/ɔ:l'əʊ/	/ɔ:lɪzə:/ /əlɪzə:/	Diphthong to vowel
21	Toast	/təʊst/	/tu:sɪt/ /tɔst/	Diphthong to vowel
22	Cure	/kjʊə(ɪ)/ /kjɔ:(ɪ)/ /kjɜ:(ɪ)	/ku:r/ /kʊr/	Diphthong to vowel/ vowel to short vowel
23	Pure	/pjʊə/ /pjɜ:/	/pu:r/ /pʊr/	Diphthong to vowel/ other vowel
24	Tour	/tɔ:(ɪ)/ /tʊə(ɪ)/ /tɜ:/	/tu:r/ /tʌʊr/	Diphthong to vowel
25	Boy	/bɔɪ/	/bɔ:j/ /bɔj/	Diphthong to vowel
26	Avoid	/ə'vɔɪd/	/ʌbɔɪt/ /əbɔjɪd/	Diphthong- diphthong/ Vowel
27	Voice	/vɔɪs/	/bɔjɪs/ /bɔ:k/	Diphthong to vowel

Even though vowels do not challenge Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native students that much as consonant sounds, diphthongs such as: /ɪə/, /eɪ/, /eə/, /æ/, /ɔɪ/, /ʊə/, /aʊ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, and /ɔɪ/ some challenge them. As it is displayed in the above Table 4.2, students mispronounced the

diphthong sounds in the words. The students made errors when they were pronouncing the diphthong sounds in the different words, through ways such as: changing a diphthong into a vowel, and a diphthong into another diphthong.

For instance, the diphthong /ɪə/ in the word 'here' is pronounced as //hɪə(ɪ)/ but the students were pronounced as /hɛ:r/ and /hi:r/. The student changed the diphthong /ɪə/ into the vowel /ɛ:/ and /i:/. Similarly, the diphthong in the word "near" is pronounced as /nɪə(ɪ)/ but the students were pronounced as /ni:r/ and /nɛ:r/. The students changed the diphthong /ɪə/ into /i:/ and /ɛ:/. Again, the word 'Make' pronounced as /meɪk/ but the students pronounced as /mɑ:k/ and /mɛ:k/. The error is that the student pronounced the sound /eɪ/ in the word as /ɑ:/ and /ɛ:/ which means they changed the diphthong to vowel sounds. In addition, the student changed a diphthong to vowels when pronouncing. The word "cat" is pronounced as /kæt/ or /kʌt/, but the students pronounce it as /kʌt/ and /kɑ:t/. As result, the diphthong /æ/ or /a/ was replaced by the vowels /ʌ/ and /ɑ:/.

In the word 'avoid' is pronounced as /ə'vɔɪd/. The sound /a/ in the word pronounced as /ə/ and /oi/ as /ɔɪ/. However, the students pronounced the word as /ʌbɔɪt/ and /abɔɪd/. The students changed the sound /ə/ in to /ʌ/ and the sound /ɔɪ / in to /oɪ/ and /ɔɪ/ in their pronunciation. So, the sounds in the word are pronounced incorrectly. The changes were that the vowel was changed into another vowel and the diphthong was changed into another diphthong.

The errors which were made by the students in the words when they were taking the pronunciation test related to diphthongs were mainly the result of the absence of the sounds in their mother tongue (Dawurotsuwa). Dawit (2016) cited the charts of both vowel sounds and consonant sounds. Hence, there are no diphthongs in the Dawurotsuwa.

4.3 Analysis of Data Obtained through Speaking Activity

Table 4.3 Grammar Related errors Analysis

Category	No.	Sub Categories	Freq.	Perc.	Rank
Morphological Errors	1	Tense	55	26%	1
	2	Word order	51	25%	2
	3	Articles	50	24%	3
	4	Agreement	25	12%	4
Syntactical Errors	5	Preposition	16	8%	5
	6	Pronoun	10	5%	6
Total			207		

Table 4.3: The identification of 6 subcategories of grammatical interference shows that the students have the greatest problems in tenses 55 (26%). The second and third most prevalent errors were word-order 51 (25%) and perception of using articles 50 (24%), and the fourth risky problem was agreement 25 (12%). Also preposition 16 (8%) and pronoun 10 (5%) obtained from syntactical errors shows there is interference of grammar due to the students' native language (Dawurotsuwa) on students' learning English speaking skill.

The main cause of this problem is the difference between Dawurotsuwa grammar rules and English grammar rules. English has different forms for the present, past, and future tense. However, there are no identical verb forms for present, past, and future tenses in the Dawurotsuwa. According to Dawit (2016), sometimes the forms of past and future verb forms are the same in the Dawurotsuwa, but sometimes '-adi', '-ada', '-edo', '-edino', etc are added at the end of base verbs to show the past tense.

Table 4.4 Tense related interference

Sentence in MT	L1 interference on L2	Expected on L2
1 .Nu wontta Timirtte golle baana.	We are go school tomorrow.	We will go to school tomorrow.
2. Dolanggo Tarc`c`a wontta wontta bee.	Dolango is go to Tarcha day to day.	Dolango goes to Tarcha every day.
3. Nu wontta ittisaa baana.	We tomorrow one area go.	We will go somewhere tomorrow.
4. Ta so oosuwa ootsaad.	I homework do.	I did the homework.
5. Nu zino timirtte golle beeddo.	We yesterday classroom go .	We went to school yesterday .

In the above Table 4.4, in the MT sentence no.1, the tense is simple future, but the students mentioned the sentence idea in English as “*We are go school tomorrow*”. However, in the sentence the verb should be “will/ shall go” instead of “*are go*”. Similarly in the MT sentence no.2, the tense is present simple tense and which expresses repeated action while the students described the idea in English as “*Dolango is go to Tarcha day to day*”. The problem is the verb form should be ‘*goes*’ instead of ‘*is go*’. Another is in the MT sentence no.3 the tense is simple future tense. Whereas the students expressed the idea of the sentence through English as “*We tomorrow one area go*”, but the normal form of verb form should be “*will/ shall go*”. In the MT sentence no.4, the word ‘*ootsaad*’ is *V2* form in the MT sentence. However, when students were changing this sentence into English, they didn’t realize they should use the English *V2* form ‘*did*’. Also in MT sentence no.5, the tense is simple past tense, but the students used the verb form ‘*go*’ instead of ‘*went*’.

Therefore the way the students used the tenses in the English sentences shows there is MT interference (Grammatical) on students’ learning English speaking skill. The cause is as it is described in literature part, the difference between tense (verb) form(s) of Dawurotsuwa and English which means: there are no helping verb in Dawurotsuwa to show different tens forms.

Table 4.5 Word order related MT interference

Sentence in MT	L1 interference on L2	Expected on L2
1. Nu ubba wode timirtte golle beetto.	We everyday come to school.	We come to school every day .
2. Ta soo-oozuwa ootsaad.	My homework did .	I did the homework.
3. Na’ay izo ha’’i ha’’i s’eellee.	He girl now see she .	The boy looks her repeatedly.
4. Itti na’ay kifile gidдон de’ee.	One child classroom present .	There is a boy in the classroom.
5. Nu wontta ittisaa baana.	We are tomorrow one area go to .	We will go somewhere tomorrow .
6. Na’ay izo ha’’i ha’’i s’eellee.	Boy she seeing now now.	The boy looks her repeatedly.
5. Nu zino timirtte golle beeddo.	We yesterday classroom go .	We went to school yesterday .

As it is displayed on the above table 4.5, students applied directly the MT word order on Eng. sentences. Students used the MT sentence’s word order on no.1 ‘**Nu ubba wode...** (Sub. + Adv)’ for the English sentence “ *We everyday...* (Sub. + Adve), but according to English sentence

structure (word order), adverb do not precede subject of a sentence. Similarly, in sentence no.2, students put the verb ‘*did*’ at end part of the English sentence because based on their native language a verb comes at the end part of a sentence. Again in the sentence no. 3, similar to the MT sentence word order in the sentence: ‘‘ *Na’ay izo...*’’ (Sub + Obj), they constructed the English sentence as ‘‘ *He girl...*’’ (Sub + Obj), but according to English grammar, object of a sentence do not precede subject of the sentence. For the sentence no.5, the students also used their native word order rules. They constructed the English sentence as: ‘‘*We are tomorrow...*’’ (Sub + be +Adv). The reason for error is in the MT sentence the ‘‘ *Nu wontta...* (Sub + Adv) adverb preceded the subject of the sentence. So, the students applied the MT sentence’s word order on the English sentence.

The cause of the errors in the students’ sentences was the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English sentence structure. According to Dawit (2016), the word order of a Dawurotsuwa sentence is: *Subject-Object-Verb*. Hence, Dawurotsuwa native students applied structure to English sentences. This is the reason why such grammatical interference happens.

Table 4.6 Article related MT interference

Sentence in MT	L1 interference on L2	Expected on L2
1. Tanggi geyappe booraa shammeedda.	Tanga is ox buy.	Tanga bought an ox from the market.
2. Dolango Tarc’c’a wontta wontta bee.	Dolango sometime go the Tarcha.	Dolango goes to Tarcha every day.
3. Itti na’ay kifili gidдон de’ee.	One person found in class.	There is a boy in the class.

In the above Table 4.6, in the English sentence on no.1: "*Tanga is ox buy.*" the students didn’t use both the definite and indefinite articles. However, in the sentence which they ordered to be translated into English, the *geya/market* is a noun that the speaker and the listener know before. , so it needs the defining article "the". In addition, the word "*booraa/ox*" in the sentence is an unknown noun and it needs the indefinite article "*an*" but they didn’t used. Also, in sentence no. 2, the students used the definite article "*the*" with the proper noun "*Tarcha.*" Similarly, in the 3rd sentence, they said "*one person*" instead of saying "*a person/a boy*".

According to Dawit (2016), the errors related to articles in the students' speech were that there are no articles in Dawurotsuwa as opposed to English. English has three major articles such as: a, an, and the. Therefore, the native students left the articles where an article is needed in a sentence or used them inappropriately where they weren't needed.

Table 4.7 Agreement related MT interference

Sentence in MT	L1 interference on L2	Expected on L2
1. Iza <u>ubba wode</u> ... baw. <i>Sub- Adv - V</i>	She is <i>always go</i> ... <i>Sub- hV- Adv- V</i>	She always <i>goes</i> ... <i>Sub- Adv- V</i>
2. Ta <u>soo oosuwa ootsaaddi</u> . <i>Sub- Obj - V</i>	<u>I am done</u> my homework. <i>Sub- V - obj</i>	<u>I have done</u> the homework. <i>Sub- V- Obj</i>
3. I ... s'eellee. <i>Sub- V</i>	He <i>see</i> ... <i>Sub-V</i>	He <i>sees</i> ... <i>Sub-V</i>

As it is shown in above Table 4.7, in the first sentence "*She always go*," there is agreement error because the subject '*She*' is 3rd person singular so the verb should be '*goes*'. Similarly, in the sentence no.2, "*I am done*," has agreement error. Based on the MT sentence, the expected tense in the English sentence is present perfect. For present perfect tense, when the subject of a sentence is 3rd person singular, the verb comes with "*has+ V3*" and for the rest of the subjects the verb comes with "*have+ V3*". However the student used '*V*' form without helping verb. So, it should be "*I have done*" instead of "*I am done*". Also, in the 3rd sentence, "*He see*..." there is agreement error between the subject '*He*' and the verb '*see*'. According to English grammar, when the subject of a sentence is 3rd person singular, the suffix "*-s/-es/-ies/ 's*" is added to the verb. Hence, based on this point the verb should be '*sees*'.

The main reason the errors which the students have done is due to the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar rules related to '*agreement*'. As English there are no identical agreement indicators in the Dawurotsuwa (Bender, 1971). Therefore, Dawurotsuwa native students make agreement errors in their speech.

Table 4.8 Preposition related MT interference

Sentence in MT	L1 interference on L2	Expected on L2
1. I geya appe booraa shameedda.	He has bought ox in market.	He has bought an ox from market.
2. Iza c'ora wode yaa baw	She everyday in go	She always go to there.
3. I Tarc'c'a wontta wontta bee	He Tarc'c'a in day to day	He go to Tarcha every day.

As it is pointed out on Table above 4.8, while students were expressing the Dawurotsuwa sentence on no.1 "*I geya**appe** booraa shameedda*" into English, they described as "*He has bought an ox **in** the market*". The students used the preposition '*in*' incorrectly because in the Dawurotsuwa sentence "geya**appe**" '*-ppe*' is preposition and it substitutes the English preposition "*from*". Similarly, in sentence no.2, '*yaa*' is a Dawurotsuwa preposition and it is equivalent to '*to*' in English, but the students used '*in*' instead of '*to*' in their sentence. Again, in sentence no.3, "*I Tarc'c'a **in** day to day,*" the preposition "in" is used incorrectly in the sentence. The correct preposition should be "to" instead of in.

As Bender (1976) described, the English preposition and Dawurotsuwa are not the same. Dawurotsuwa preposition affixes '*-pe*' or '*-ko*' on the noun stem. In addition, sometimes *zero* prepositions are used in a sentence or in another word; nouns are used as prepositions by themselves in a sentence. Hence, the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English leads Dawurotsuwa native-speaking EFL learners to prepositional interfere when they learn to speak English.

Table 4.9 Pronoun MT related problem

Sentence in MT	L1 interference on L2	Expected on L2
1. Na'ay izo ha''i ha''i s'eellee.	He see now always that woman .	The boy looks her repeatedly.
2. I Genna Arbba Arbba bee.	I am Gena Friday go.	He goes to Gena every Friday.
3. Ta soo oosuwa ootsaaddi.	My homework do.	I did the homework.
4. Na'ay izo ha''i ha''i s'eellee.	Boy she seeing now now.	The boy looks her repeatedly.

In the above Table 4.9, in MT sentence column, in sentence no. 1, the pronoun '*Na'ay*' is the subject of the sentence and equivalent to the English pronoun '*The boy*', and '*izo*' is the object of

the sentence and it substitutes the English pronoun '*her*'. However, the students used '*that*' instead of '*her*' in the English sentence. Similarly, the pronoun '*I*' in the MT sentence no.2 is equivalent to the English pronoun '*he*' but the students used the pronoun '*I*' incorrectly in English sentence. Because the the MT pronoun '*I*' is 3rd person singular and should be substitute with the equivalent '*he*' in the English sentence. Again in English sentence no.3, the pronoun '*Ta*' is 1st person singular and equivalent to the English pronoun '*I*', but the students used it incorrectly as '*My*'; in the MT sentence no.4, the pronoun '*izo*' is equivalent to '*her*' in English while students used the pronoun '*she*' in the sentence correctly.

Based on the study, the main reason for using incorrect pronouns in the speech is the difference between English and Dawurotsuwa ways of using pronouns. It's possible that the students had no prior experience with English pronouns.

4.4 Analysis of Data Obtained through Students' Questionnaire

Table 4.10 Frequency, percentile and mean value of students' perception on similarities and differences between sounds, phrase and sentence structure of Dawurotsuwa and English

No	Items	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree		Mean	St. deviation	Total
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
1	The Dawurotsuwa sounds and English sounds are similar.	13	11.8	16	14.5			43	39.1	38	34.5	3.70	1.385	110
2	All the sounds in Dawurotsuwa are found in English.	8	7.3	7	6.4	6	5.5	49	44.5	40	36.4	3.96	1.157	110
3	There are similar sounds both in Dawurotsuwa and English.	39	35.5	25	22.7	3	2.7	20	18.2	23	20.9	2.66	1.604	110
4	There are some English sounds which trouble to read and pronounce.	2	1.8	5	4.5	2	1.8	42	38.2	59	53.6	4.37	0.876	110
5	You use Dawurotsuwa words pronunciation experience to pronouncing English words.	5	4.5	13	11.8	3	2.7	64	58.2	25	22.7	3.83	1.057	110
6	If your answer is 'Yes' for the question no. 5, are all the English words pronunciation ways are similar with Dawurotsuwa words pronunciation?	9	8.2	4	3.6	7	6.4	53	48.2	37	33.6	3.95	1.136	110
7	Dawurotsuwa and English words' spelling and their pronunciation are similar?	11	10.0	17	15.5	9	8.2	53	48.2	20	18.2	3.49	1.240	110
8	Dawurotsuwa and English words' spelling and their pronunciation are not similar.	10	9.1	20	18.2	13	11.8	38	34.5	29	26.4	3.51	1.305	110
9	Dawurotsuwa and English phrase structure are similar.	8	7.3	12	10.9	4	3.6	36	32.7	50	45.5	3.98	1.263	110
10	Every word has equivalent meaning both in Dawuro and English based on word structure.	11	10.0	20	18.2			32	29.1	47	42.7	3.76	1.420	110
11	Dawurotsuwa and English sentence structure are similar.	12	10.9	7	6.4	3	2.7	45	40.9	43	39.1	3.91	1.289	110
12	When you tend to speak English, you are guided by Dawurotsuwa speaking rule.	8	7.3	10	9.1	7	6.4	57	51.8	28	25.5	3.79	1.142	110
13	If your answer is 'Yes' for the question no. 12, is there no difference between Dawurotsuwa grammar and English grammar.	14	12.7	12	10.9	8	7.3	45	40.9	31	28.2	3.61	1.342	110
14	Mother tongue has only positive influence on learning English.	7	6.4	11	10.0	15	13.6	44	40.0	33	30.0	3.77	1.170	110
15	The English teacher prepares pronunciation lesson and encourage us to practice.	35	31.8	23	20.9	5	4.5	20	18.2	27	24.5	2.83	1.625	110
G.Mean												3.674	1.2674	

A perfect perception leads to a perfect implementation, whereas misunderstandings become causes for negative outcomes. Based on this idea, the researcher prepared about 15 (fifteen) items in a questionnaire in order to check the perception of Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students.

The result of the respondents in the above Table 4.10 shows that for item no. 1, 43 (39.1%), the respondents agree that both Dawurotsuwa and English sounds are similar. Again, out of the total respondents, 38 (34.5%) strongly agreed that both Dawurotsuwa and English sounds are similar. Also, the mean value is 3.70, and it shows the majority of the respondents believe in the similarity of the two languages. Therefore, based on the students' responses, it appears that the students lack knowledge on how to identify the difference between the two languages' sounds.

For the item no.2 in the above Table 4.10, "All the sounds in English are also found in the Dawurotsuwa", 49 (44.5%) of the respondents agreed on that. In addition, out of the total number of respondents, 40 (36.4%) strongly agree that all the sounds in English are found in the Dawurotsuwa. Again, the mean value on the item shows 3.96 and it also points out that the idea is supported by the respondents. So, in short, the respondents' information on the table points out that the students have misunderstandings about the sounds that are found and absent in their language (Dawurotsuwa) and in English.

In the Table 4.10, about the similarity between Dawurotsuwa sounds and English sounds in item no. 3, 39 (35.5%) of the respondents answered that they strongly disagreed with the item's idea. In the second stage, 25 (22.7%) of the total respondents chose to disagree with the item. While 20 (18.2%) chose 'Agree' and 23 (20.9%) selected "strongly agree."

The aim of the item was to distinguish whether the students knew about the similarity between the two languages or not. However, based on the students' responses, the students have a lack of perception based on knowledge of identifying the sounds' similarity and difference between Dawurotsuwa and English languages. The mean value (2.66) also points to the items incline. Whereas, related to this item in no.3, Dawit (2016) put together the chart which shows the similarity of two language sounds and orthographic symbols and their phonetic representations. This can be one of the causes for Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students.

The response to the item no. 4 in the above Table 4.10, related to the challenges of some English sounds for Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students to read or pronounce, 59 (53.6%) respondents answered by selecting "strongly agree." On the second level, 42 (38.2%) of the whole respondents selected 'Agree'. The mean value also shows 4.37 and it points out that there are great problems with Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students' ability to read and pronounce English sounds.

Hirut (2007) mentions that some English sounds challenge Dawurotsuwa native speakers, especially for Dawurotsuwa native speakers. As it is mentioned in the study in the literature part, some English sounds challenge Dawurotsuwa native speakers, and she gave the sounds like/f/,/v/, and/r/. Similarly, Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students reflected the problem on questionnaire item No.4.

64 (58.2%) respondents for item no.5 in the table 4.10, selected 'agree' and mentioned that they use their first language experiences to read or pronounce English words. On the second level, 25 (22.7%) of the total numbers, chose to "strongly agree" to mention that they rely on their mother tongue experiences when they intend to pronounce English words. In addition, the mean value is 3.83, which supports the students' answer.

Therefore, based on the respondents' perception, it is clear to understand that Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students have more than a 75% chance of interfering with their mother tongue when they try to speak English since they use their first language experience while pronouncing any English words.

For the item no.6 about similarity and difference between Dawurotsuwa and English word pronunciation, 53 respondents, or 48.2% of the whole percentile, mentioned that Dawuro language words' pronunciation and English words' pronunciation are similar. Also, 37 (33.6%) respondents answered by choosing "strongly agree." The mean value is 3.95. Therefore, based on the respondents' answer, Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students do not know that there is a difference between Dawurotsuwa and English word pronunciation.

Sigurd (2018) mentioned that even though Dawurotsuwa and English orthographic symbols and their phonetic representations are similar, the English orthographic symbols are pronounced in different ways. However, Dawurotsuwa sound symbols have single-way pronunciation.

For the item no.7, for the point of whether Dawurotsuwa words are spelled correctly or not, 53 (48.2%) respondents chose 'agree' for the point. Again, 20 (18.2%) respondents mentioned through choosing "strongly agree." The mean value of 3.49 also highly points out the respondents' perception.

For item 8 about the similarity between English words' spelling and their pronunciation, a significant number of respondents 38 (34.5%) selected 'agree' and 29 (26.4%) respondents chose 'strongly agree'. Which means, from the total respondents 67 (61%) respondents believe English words' spelling and their pronunciation are similar. This point that the students have misunderstanding or it shows hasty generalization about the idea. In addition, the reason for the respondents' perception is that they see English words' pronunciation rules as their first language's word pronunciation rules.

For the item related to similarity between Dawurotsuwa and English phrase structure on item no.9, 50 (45.5%) respondents selected "strongly agree" and 36 (32.7%) of the whole respondents chose "agree". The mean value (3.98) also shows that the respondents strongly believe that the English and Dawurotsuwa phrase structures are the same. Therefore, based on the respondents' answer, Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking students do not know as there is a wide difference between Dawurotsuwa and English phrase structure.

According to Bender (1976), the phrase structure of Dawurotsuwa and English are not the same. The Dawurotsuwa phrase structure is: noun + preposition, for example: *kifil gidдон*= [*kifilə-gid'ɔn*]= *kifile*-noun and *gidдон*-preposition. When this phrase is changed to English, "in the classroom" is a preposition, "the" is an article, and "classroom" is a noun. So, there is a difference between Dawurotsuwa phrase structure and English.

On item 10, 47 (42.7%) respondents chose "strongly agree" as Dawurotsuwa words and English words have equivalent meaning. Similarly, 32 (29.1%) respondents also selected 'agree' for the item. The mean value (3.76) points out that most of the respondents believe that Dawurotsuwa

words and English words have equivalent meanings. Based on the respondents' answer to item no.10, the students who are Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students in Tarcha Secondary School have a lack of knowledge about the difference between two languages related to the meaning of words. Al-Khresheh (2010) claimed that literal translation is the source of interlingual mistakes. So, it is clear that Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking EFL students are negatively affected by their mother tongue due to their perception of the meaning of words.

45 (40.9%) respondents selected 'agree' for item no.11. In addition, 43 (39.1%) agreed strongly. The mean value is 3.91. So, most students believe that the structure of English sentences is similar to Dawurotsuwa sentence structure. Based on the respondent's decision, it is possible to judge that Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking grade 9 students do not know the difference between Dawurotsuwa sentence structures and English sentence structures. Therefore, the students are simply distracted by their mother tongue while they are speaking English. According to Bender (1976), Dawurotsuwa sentence structures and English sentence structures are different. Dawurotsuwa sentence structure is: *subject-object/complement-verb*, whereas English word structure is: *subject-verb-object/complement*. If the students were unable to distinguish the difference between the language's structure and their own, they simply interfered with their first language when they tried to speak English.

For the point in item no.12, whether students depend on their mother tongue when they tend to speak English or not, 57 respondents, or 51.8%, mentioned by choosing 'agree' that they depend on their mother tongue speaking rules when they tend to speak English. On the second level, 28 respondents, or 25.5 percent, selected "strongly agree." The mean value (3.79) also shows that students depend on their MT. Hence, Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking grade 9 students are interfered with through their mother tongue due to their dependence on MT.

On item 13, about the difference between the Dawurotsuwa and English grammar, the most part, which means 45 respondents, or 40.9 percent, mentioned their agreement by selecting 'agree'. Similarly, 31 respondents, or 28.20% of the respondents, chose to "strongly agree" to the idea in the item. Again, the mean value points out that the students have misconceptions about two languages' grammar. Therefore, it is possible to decide that Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa

native-speaking students do not know that there is a difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar.

Item number 14 was about the mother tongue's influence on speaking English positively or negatively. On this point, the respondents reflected that the mother tongue has a positive influence on learning English. Based on the analysis, 44 (40.0%) agreed that their mother tongue has a positive influence on learning English and 33 (30.0%) respondents strongly agree that MT has a positive influence. Further, the mean value (3.77) points out that the respondents believe that MT has a positive influence on English learning.

However, any mother tongue has both positive and negative influences on learning a second language. According to Dulay et al. (2002), there are two forms of transfer: positive and negative transfers. As a result of a lack of knowledge about the positive and negative effects of the mother tongue, Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students were hampered by their mother tongue. So, they have to learn the difference between the positive and negative influence of their mother tongue.

Item 15 concerns whether or not Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students practice English pronunciation. For item 35 (31.8%), the respondents mentioned that they chose "strongly disagree" as they were not practicing and encouraged by their English teacher. In addition, 23 (20.9%) respondents selected 'disagree' for the point. On the other hand, 27 (24.5%) showed "strongly agree" and 20 (18.2%) agreed with 47 (42.7%) as their teacher was encouraging them to practice English pronunciation. However, the majority of the respondents, which means 35 'strongly disagree' plus 23 'disagree', together 58 respondents, or 52.7%, shows that there was a lack of practice on English pronunciation. Therefore, in Tarcha Secondary School, the students were not being guided by their English teachers. So, it is difficult to minimize mother tongue interference without practice and sustainable effort.

4.5 Analysis of Data Obtained from Interview

In order to consider further information about mother tongue interference on learning English speaking skills in Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native speaking students in EFL classes, the researcher employed a semi-structured interview which could support the responses

gathered through the pronunciation test, speaking activities, and questionnaire. Hence, seven interview questions were administered for a total of six English language teachers, and each of them was interviewed separately. The interviews took about 25–30 minutes for each teacher. Teacher A (TA), Teacher B (TB), Teacher C (TC), Teacher D (TD), Teacher E (TE), and Teacher F (TF) were the names of the interviewees. The process of interviewing was held through the recording of both voice and video and note-taking of the interviewees while explaining his/her ideas. The results of the teachers' interview were discussed as follows: The interviewees were separately asked if they recognized the mother tongue interference while they were teaching English in grade 9.

Hence, the researcher asked the respondents the interview item no.2: "Have you ever realized mother tongue interference on students' English speaking skills, especially related to phonologically and grammatically?" For the question, all the interviewees said that they realized a lot of mother tongue interference both phonologically and grammatically on students' speaking skills while they were teaching in their teaching years.

For item no.3, "Related to phonological interference, which sounds challenge students during speaking?", teacher A (TA) listed as examples the sounds /f/, /v/, and /r/. In addition, the teacher gave examples of the word '*for*' and the students' pronunciation of the word '*por*'. Similarly, teacher B added that the MT letters with *prim* like: *c*, *d*, and *s*' are challenges for our students because these letters are similar to the English letters like: *c*, *d*, and *s*. However, the phonological manner of the letters in English and Dawurotsuwa are completely different and the students most of the time try to pronounce them in their mother tongue phonological manner. The teacher added that the sound /*ch*/ is also challenging for Dawurotsuwa native students. The sound /*ch*/ in the Dawurotsuwa stands for only the IPA sound /*tʃ*/ but in English it has different phonological systems, like in the words 'church', 'chemistry', and 'character'. The rest of the interviewees raised similar ideas and agreed upon this item.

For the item no.4: 'Why such sounds challenge Dawurotsuwa native speaking students during they speak English?' Teacher B (TB) pointed as the main reason for interference that the two languages' (Dawurotsuwa and English) alphabet or letter became cause to the students' interference. In addition, the teacher gave as reason to the problem was the flexibility of sounds pronunciation in English words. The teacher gave as example for the point the sound /*o*/ in the word

'*come*' and '*home*', *church* and *chemical*, etc. on other hand, as the teacher said the absence of some sounds in Dawurotsuwa which are present in English are another causes for the students challenge. So, students try to pronounce English words as they adopted in their mother tongue. As result, the MT interference occurs. Teacher C (TC) also raised the absence of some sound in students language as reason why phonological interference occur during students learn English speaking.

The teacher F (TF) put it as the reason for phonological interference on Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students' English speaking was the difference between the two languages' orthographical and pronunciation manner. As the teacher mentioned, the Dawurotsuwa word orthography and pronunciation are completely the same. However, English word orthography and pronunciation are usually completely different. Hence, when the students apply their MT words' pronunciation experience to English words' pronunciation, the MT interference happens. Also, teacher D (TD) supported these reasons and added a unique reason for these points.

According to teacher D (TD), the reason for item no.4 is that students had been learning from grade 1 up to grade 8, only in their mother tongue, except for English and Amharic subjects. Therefore, students joined high school or grade 9 without distinguishing the difference between the two languages' sound phonology.

For item no.5, teachers E (TE) and C (TC) both gave the same reason: "What types of grammar problems frequently occur due to mother tongue on students' English speech?" As the teachers mentioned, the core reason for the grammatical interference for Dawurotsuwa native students is the difference between Dawurotsuwa grammar and English grammar. Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students do not know the difference between the two languages. They have a lack of knowledge about the difference between the two languages. Teacher C (TC) discussed that there are differences between Dawurotsuwa sentence structures and English sentences; Dawurotsuwa phrase structures and English phrase structures are, in most cases, completely different. Teacher C (CT) gave as an example, Dawurotsuwa sentence structure is: ***Subject-Object/Complement-Verb***, but English sentence structure is: ***Subject-Verb-Object/Complement***. As the teacher mentioned, most of the time, Dawurotsuwa native students apply Dawurotsuwa sentence structures to English when they

try to speak English, and then grammatical interference occurs in their speech. Teacher E (TE) supported this idea and gave similar examples to support the point.

Teacher C (TC) added that the adverb of frequency in the Dawurotsuwa is constructed through doubling and an adverbial word. For instance: "**ha**"; **i-ha**"*i/repeatly*", "*wontta-wontta/everyday*", "*guura-guura/everyday morning*" etc. However, Dawurotsuwa native students, during their English speech, try to directly translate the adverbs of frequency of Dawurotsuwa to English, like: "*ha*" "*i ha*" "*i*" into "*now now*", "*wontta wontta*" into "*day day*", "*guura guura*" into "*morning morning*". Hence, the grammatical interference occurs. The other teachers also supported this point with similar examples and reasons.

For item no.5, teacher A (TA) commented that due to the difference between the Dawurotsuwa and English, word orders in a sentence make students make grammatical related errors. The teacher gave the following example sentence to show the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English sentence structure. (Daw: Ne maaddi? / Eng: Have you eaten?) When we compare the two sentences, they are both interrogative sentences, but in the Dawurotsuwa sentence, the subject of the sentence comes first, then the verb comes next. However, in the English sentence, the helping verb came first, then the subject of the sentence, and finally the main verb. So, there are two points which show the difference between the language sentences. The first difference is the word sequence in the sentences. The other difference is that in Dawurotsuwa sentences there are no helping verbs and different verb forms which show the tense of the sentence; whereas in the English sentence there are helping verbs and a V3 form which shows the tense of the sentence. Therefore, when students speak without distinguishing the difference between two languages, grammatical errors or interference happen. The other teachers also supported his ideas.

For item no.6: "What is the main reason for Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students' MT interference related to phonological and grammatical problems?", teacher A (TA) commented that the problem of MT interference is not only the problem of the students but also the teachers, who are not free from the problems. The other reason is that the teachers' teaching methods and techniques do not help students avoid the MT-related problems because they use passive teaching methods and techniques. The students are listeners and writers.

Teacher B (TB) suggested that teachers do not allow students to practice speaking skills. Most of the time teachers use only talk and chalk during the class lessons. In addition, the contents and lessons in the textbook are prepared without considering the influence of MT and are not authentic, which helps students engage in participating in speaking practice. Related to this point, teacher D (TD) added that there is a lack of different devices like audio and video to show students some model native speech and word pronunciation practice in addition to the text book.

For item no.7: "What strategies should be used to minimize mother tongue interference in English speaking?" The teachers pointed out different ideas. Teacher F (TF) said to minimize the MT interference, the teachers should make an effort and use participatory teaching techniques. Some teachers skip speaking lessons in the textbook, and it is a big mistake because one of the ways used to notice the MT interference is through speaking practice. So, English teachers should focus on speaking lessons.

Teacher E (TE) said to item 7, to minimize MT interference, teachers should use different materials like different model audio and video speeches. In addition, different co-curricula like English club, English day, mini-media club, and different teaching aids should be present in the school.

Teacher A (TA) suggested on this item that the students have to learn about the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English sounds and grammatical rules in the early grades. Teachers should teach, showing practically the difference between the two languages. Teacher D added that the teachers themselves should be good models for their students. Teachers should be free from MT interference. When it's needed, teachers should have different training related to speaking skills. Also, the other teachers share this idea.

4.6 Discussion of the Analysis

Under this topic the analyzed points of the items in study explained matched with the research question in the study. The core ideas included as follows.

- Dawurotsuwa speech sounds which interfere students' English speaking
- The phonological interferences mostly affect Dawurotsuwa native students' English speaking skill

- The grammatical interference which occur due to MT interference in Dawurotsuwa native students' English speaking skills
- The reasons for the occurrence of MT interference in Dawurotsuwa native students' English speaking
- The strategies which should be used by teacher to overcome mother tongue interference

4.6.1 Dawurotsuwa Speech Sounds which Interfere Students' English Speaking

Phonological interference is defined by Berthold et.al (1997) as things from the first language that influence the second language, such as stress, rhyming, intonation, and speech sounds. There are some consonant and vowel sound which challenge Dawurotsuwa native speaking students.

Based on the result of pronunciation test, as the recorded voice, analyzed and displayed on table 1 and 2, Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking students mispronounced the consonant sounds: /v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/ and the diphthons such as: /ɪə/, /eɪ/, /eə/, /æ/, /ɔɪ/, /ʊə/, /aʊ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, and /ɔɪ/. In addition, the questionnaire results points on the item no. 1 up to 5, more than 75% of the respondents mentioned that the difference between Dawuro language and English sounds affects their speaking skill in English. Specially, on item no.5, 64 (58.2%) respondents chose 'agree' as they use MT word pronunciation experiences to pronounce any English words. Similarly 25 (22.7%) respondents selected 'strongly agree' to show that they use MT sound pronunciation experience. This shows that Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking grade 9 students have lack of perception to distinguish the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English sounds.

In addition to the students' data, the teachers who were interviewed pointed some sound which challenge students as example such as: /f/, /v/, /r/ and the sound which are with prim like: /cʰ/, /dʰ/, and /sʰ/. The reason which given by teachers were the absence of some sounds in their MT and lack of knowledge about the difference between the two language sounds. On this point, all the interviewees were gave similar idea.

Therefore based on the students' and the teachers' data results Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native speaking students phonologically interfered through MT due lack of

perception of distinguishing the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English sounds and their pronunciation in the words.

4.6.2 What Types of Phonological Interferences Mostly Occur in Dawurotsuwa Native Students' English Speaking?

The pronunciation result shows on the table 1, phonological interferences mostly occur in the Dawurotsuwa native students' speech in English are: Changing, adding and replacing sounds.

- A. **Replacing sounds:** the sound /f/ does not come in the beginning part of in any Dawurotsuwa word. Due to that the students when pronouncing change the sound /f/ in to /p/ sound. Also, the sound /v/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/ are not found in Dawurotsuwa. Therefore, the native students change the sound /v/ into /b/, /θ/ in to /t/ or /d/, /ð/ in to /z/ or /s/, and /ʒ/ in to /dʒ/.
- B. **Adding sounds:** Among the sounds, when the sound /s/ and /r/ come at the initial part of the English words, the students were pronouncing the words by added /r/ and /ə/ on the words.
- C. **Changing sounds:** the diphthongs are not found in Dawurotsuwa. Due to that, Dawurotsuwa native EFL students change diphthongs in to short and long vowels.

4.6.3 The Grammatical Interference which Occur due to MT Interference in Dawurotsuwa Native Students' English Speaking Skills

Based on speaking activity, when the researcher analyzes about 207 grammatical errors was found on students' speech or in students' English sentences. From 207 errors, 55 (26%) were related to Tense errors, 51 (25%) were related to word order errors, 50 (24%) were articles related errors and 25 (12%) errors were related to agreement. In addition, in the questionnaire item no.13, 45 (40.9%) of the respondents mentioned their decision through selecting 'agree' and 31 (28.2%) chose 'strongly agree'. The students answer points that the students do not know the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar.

4.6.4 The Reasons for the Occurrence of MT Interference in Dawurotsuwa native Students' English Speaking

One of the reasons of phonological interference on Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native speaking students is the lack of experience on practicing some English sounds because some sounds are not found in their language. As it is described in literature part in this study, some sounds are like: /v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/ and diphthongs are not found in Dawurotsuwa (Hirut, 2007).

The difference between Dawurotsuwa and English word, phrase and clause structure is one of the causes to interference on Dawurotsuwa native speaking students' English speaking.

Also, the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar is another reason for students' MT interference on English speaking. Dawit (2016), described that word order of a Dawurotsuwa sentence is: *Subject-Object-Verb*. However, the English word order in a sentence is: *Subject- Verb – Object*. Hence, Dawurotsuwa native students applied Dawurotsuwa word structure on English sentences and due to that MT interference occurs.

The influence of the environment is another reason for MT interference on Tarcha Secondary School students. There is no access to practice or speak English for the students.

The English teachers' teaching methods and techniques also cause to MT interference in Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native students. Teachers use only the oldest language teaching methods. They use frequently talk themselves simply give not and leave the class. There is no opportunity practice pronunciation or speaking skill.

Lack of different teaching aids like: reference books, audio, video devices and in addition, there were no different clubs such as: English club, English day, mini-media and so on. So, there was no access for students to practice and minimize MT interference problems.

4.6.5 The Strategies should be used to Overcome Students' Mother Tongue Interference

In the interview the teachers as suggested the following strategies should be used to minimize mother tongue interference that occur on Dawurotsuwa native students.

- Students should distinguish the difference between Dawurotsuwa phonemes and English in primary levels.
- Students have to learn the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English word, phrase and sentence structures.
- The students should know the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar rules.
- Teachers should use active teaching methods in order to engage students in English speaking practice.
- The teachers should focus on pronunciation lessons specially on interfering sounds.
- Different devices like audio and video should have in the school to show the pronunciation lessons and model speeches.

- Different clubs such as English club, English day, Literature club etc should present in the school.
- The text book should be prepared considering the mother tongue interference and include lesson which helps to minimize the MT interference.

4.7 Findings of the Study

4.7.1 Which Dawurotsuwa Speech Sounds Interfere the Students' English Speaking Skill?

The data results point that Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students due to their mother tongue interference mispronounced any word which include the sounds /v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ /ʒ/,and /ch/, among the consonant sounds and any word which includes the diphthong such as: /iə/, /ei/, /eə/, /æ/, /ɔɪ/, /ʊə/, /aʊ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, and /ɔɪ/. The reasons the interference related to the sounds is:

- the sounds such as: /v/, / θ/, / ð/ and /ʒ/ are completely not found in Dawurotsuwa and none of Dawurotsuwa words include these sounds.
- the sounds /f/ and /r/ do not come in the initial of any Dawurotsuwa words. So the native students trouble or mispronounce and add 'i-'sound in the beginning part of any English words with /r/ sound specially, in the initial part of words. Again, the students change the soud /f/ into /p/ when they pronounce any English words with /f/ sounds.
- When the students pronounce an English word which has /s/ in the initial part of the word, they add /i-/ on the word.
- Diphthongs completely absent in Dawurotsuwa and the students when pronouncing the words with diphthong changes in to vowel sounds.

4.7.2 What Types of Phonological Interferences Mostly Occur in the Dawurotsuwa Native Students' English Speech?

Based on the results of the pronunciation test data analysis, Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking students were interfered phonologically on their English speaking skill by replacing a sound, changing a sound and adding a sound while pronouncing English words.

- Dawurotsuwa native speaking students replaced the sound /p/in the place of /f/ and /b/ in the place of /v/ when they were pronouncing the English word with /f/ and /v/ sounds.

- Dawurotsuwa native speaking students changes the sound /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/ in to other sounds when the sounds come in any English words. They changed the sound /θ/ in to /t/, /z/, /d/ and /s/ sounds. Similarly the student changed the sound /ð/ in to /z/ and /d/ sounds.
- The students added /i/ and /ə/ sounds in the initial part of English words which were begin with /r/ and /s/ sounds.
- The students changed all the diphthongs in to vowels in the pronunciation test.

4.7.3 What Types of Grammatical Interference Occur(s) due to Mother Tongue Interference in Students' Learning English Speaking Skills?

The result of data analysis points that Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students interfered due to their mother tongue via the following grammatical interferences.

1. Tense related grammatical interference
2. Word order related grammatical interference
3. Articles related grammatical interference and
4. Agreement related grammatical interference

4.7.4 What are the Possible Reasons for the Occurrence of Interference in students' speaking in English?

According to the result of data analysis, Tarcha Secondary School grade 9 Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students interfered on learning English speaking skill due to the following reasons.

- lack of experience on practicing some English sounds because the sounds are not found in their language. The sounds are: /v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/ and diphthongs.
- the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English word, phrase and clause structure
- the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English related to word order in a sentence
- the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English the ways articles are used
- difference between two languages rules of subject and verb, noun and pronoun agreement

4.7.5 What Strategies should be Used by Teachers to Overcome Mother Tongue Interference?

During the interview, the teachers mentioned that they do not use any strategies to minimize the MT interferences due to different reasons, such as: lack of time, lack of students' interest, lack of experience for teachers, lack of different devices like video and tapes to teach pronunciation, and so

on. However, the researcher pointed two language learning strategies such as: cognitive and affective strategies in order to minimize mother tongue interference (phonological & grammatical) that occurs in Dawurotsuwa native students.

According to Oxford (1990), cognitive strategy centers more on practice and gives more opportunity to high school and college L2 learning students. Therefore, based on this language learning strategy the teacher in Tarcha High School should implement the following activities to minimize Dawurotsuwa interference on native students.

- practicing structures and sounds formally
- practicing in naturalistic settings, and
- reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures),
- outlining, analyzing and synthesizing the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English
- through reasoning and note-taking about the rules of both sound phonology and structures

Affective language learning strategy plays great role in learning L2. According to affective strategy, if students manage their feelings, attitudes, motives, and values, they will be successful on their L2 learning. So, based on this strategy the teacher should perform the following activities.

- Teacher should motivate students to practice speaking English
- Teacher have to reward students when they try to pronounce a sound or a word correctly
- Teacher should make feel free students about making mistakes both on pronunciation and grammar but have to correct immediately the mistakes directly or indirectly
- Teachers have to prove the advantages of fluent and accurate speaking in order students have positive attitude

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary, conclusion, and recommendation about the study in this chapter. Then after, the main results or findings of the study are given in summary form. Finally, the core findings of the study are pointed out in conclusion form and the practicable recommendations are given based on the findings of the study.

5.2 Summary of the study

The main aim of the study was to describe mother tongue interference and teachers' strategies to minimize learners' English speaking problems: the case of Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native-speaking students in the academic year of 2014 E.C./2022 G.C. To achieve the aim of the study, the following questions of the research were focused on in this study.

1. Which Dawurotsuwa speech sounds interfere in the students' English speaking?
2. What types of phonological interferences mostly occur in Dawurotsuwa native students' English speaking?
3. What types of grammatical interference occur due to mother tongue interference in students' English speaking skills learning?
4. What are the possible reasons for the occurrence of this interference in students' English speaking?
5. What strategies should be used by the teacher to overcome mother tongue interference?

The researcher collected relevant data through a pronunciation test, speaking activities, a questionnaire, and an interview. The data collected via the pronunciation test was analyzed by transcribing the recorded voices of the students based on International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and comparing them with the English Oxford dictionary words' transcription and displayed on the table. Similarly, the data collected through speaking activity was analyzed, picking up the errors based on English and Dawurotsuwa grammar rules via frequency and percentage. The data gathered through the questionnaire was analyzed in frequency, percentage, and mean value. Finally, the data obtained from the interview was analyzed in narration form.

5.3 Conclusion

Based on the analyzed data which were gathered through Pronunciation test, speaking activity, questionnaire and interview, the study distinguished, defined and grouped the interference of Dawurotsuwa on native grade 9 students' English speaking skill. Therefore, the researcher has drawn the following important points.

- Dawurotsuwa native students are interfered when they are pronouncing the sound /v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʒ/.
- Dawurotsuwa native speaking students are also interfered due to diphthong sounds.
- Phonological interference was occurred through changing the sounds, replacing the sounds and adding the sounds.
- Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native students do not know the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar rules.
- The most thoughtful grammatical interference which occurred on Tarcha Secondary School grade nine Dawurotsuwa native students' English speech are tense, word order, articles and agreement.
- The EFL Teachers in Tarcha Secondary School do not use Communicative Teaching Methods.
- Tarcha Secondary School students haven't got chance to practice English sounds pronunciation.
- There is lack of different devices like audio and video in the school to teach students pronunciation lessons.
- Based on teachers' interview, the teachers themselves are not free from the MT interference.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the discussions and conclusions made, the researcher forwarded the following recommendations.

- The EFL teachers should prepare different words which contain the sound /v/, /f/, /r/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /s/, /ə/, /ð/ and the diphthongs and make students practice till students become perfect.
- Teachers should give students sufficient drills, speaking activities, and opportunities for oral and visual practice to correct grammatical interferences due to their Dawurotsuwa.
- English teachers should encourage students to use English in class and with their friends to reduce the frequency of mistakes brought on by negative L1 transfer,
- The EFL teachers should use different model videos and audios to correct Dawurootsuwa interferences related to phonological and grammatical.
- The EFL teachers should present different listening lessons in order to students correct their errors due to Dawurotsuwa interference.
- Teachers should correct each student's errors as well as those on the blackboard so that they may demonstrate to their students where their errors are.
- It is advised that teachers discuss the causes of a negative transfer with their students,
- Teachers should discuss with their students about the importance of learning how to pronounce words and sounds correctly in English.
- The EFL teachers should make clear to their students that there is no universal grammar, orthographic, spelling, or pronunciation norms between Dawurotsuwa and English.
- EFL teachers should refrain from adding any MT-related notions and just use the English language when speaking with their students.
- Teachers can help their students to talk more effectively and continuously by integrating more speaking activities in English beginning in the lower grades.
- Different clubs like English, Literature, and Min-Media should exist in the school since they allow students to practice speaking English and share knowledge and experience each other.
- For EFL teachers, the government should offer a variety of English training possibilities, as doing so motivates them to deliver successful lessons in the classroom.
- The school should provide diverse devices like: audio, video, and other sound systems in order to the teachers use them to teach students about the correct pronunciation of the sounds and grammar rules which became Dawurotsuwa interference on learning speaking English.

References

- Abrego, M. (2013). The Level of Interference of English Learners' Mother Tongue with their Learning of Prepositions: Case of English Composition II Students of Foreign Language Department at the University of El Salvador, (Thesis). University of El Salvador.
- Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research (ASSEHR), volume 110 Fifth International Seminar on English Language and Teaching (ISELT 2017))
- Al- Khresheh, M.H. (2010). Interlingual Interference in the English Language Word Order Structure of Jordanian EFL Learners. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 16 ((1), 105-116
- Alexandra Galkina and Alexandra V. Radyuk. 2019, Grammatical interference in written papers translated *Language and Culture* Vol 3 Issue 3 (2019) pp. 89-102
- Aynalem Dana and Wondimu Tegegne (2016). The Impacts of Conscious and Planned Instruction to Overcome Mother Tongue Interference in the Learning of English Language: The Results of Quasi Experimental Study. *Wolaita Developmental Association, Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics*. An International
- Bender, M. L. (2000). *Comparative Morphology of the Omotic Languages*. München: LINCOM Europa.
- Berthold, M., Mangubhai, F. and Batorowicz, K.(1997). *Bilingualism and Multiculturalism: Study Book*. Distance Education Centre, University of Southern Queensland: Toowoomba, QLD.
- Brown, H Douglas (1980). *Principles and Practice of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall
- Chamot, A.U. 2004 Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching. *Journal of Foreign language teaching*. Vol. 1, No. 1,PP. 14-26 National University of Singapore.
- Contrastive Analysis. (June 17, 2015). Wikipedia. Retrieved from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Contrastive_analysis
- Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). Retrieved from csuni.edu website <https://www.csun.edu/~ghagopian/Documents/CAHContrastiveAnalysisHypotheseses.pdf>
- Corder, Stephen Pit. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Dai, J., & Chen, Z. (2007). *Contemporary English language teaching: Theory and practice*. Hefei: University of Science and Technology of China Press.
- Dawit B. (2016). *Language Documentation Based Lexical Study of the Earlier Dawuro Kingdom*, Addis Ababa Ethiopia.
- Dawit Bekele (2017). *Lexical Study of Dawuro*. LINCOS Language Research 10. München: LINCOS.
- Dedy Subandowo (2017). *The Language Interference in English Speaking Skill for EFL Learners*. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research (ASSEHR)*, volume 110 Fifth International Seminar on English Language and Teaching (ISELT 2017)
- Dedy Subandowo (2017). *The Phonological Interference in EFL Reading*. *Journal of English Language, Literature, and Teaching* Volume 05, No. 1, May 2020
- Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S. (1982). *Language Two*, University press, New York.
- Dulay, H. C., Burt, M. K., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language two*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- English Language Teaching* (2009). Vol.2, No. 4, December
- Ekawati, P.A. (2018). *Analysis of grammatical interferences in the oral communication, PIBBI participants*. *Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra*, 18(1),16-27. doi: 10.17509/bs_jpbsp.v18i1.12143
- Ellis, Rod (1986). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. 2nd, improved Edition. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, p. 22.
- Ellis, R. 1997, *Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Firew Samuel and Tezera Kifitaw (2004): *Baaso Dawurotsuwa Haasayaa Wogaa*.
- Flege, J. E. (1995). *Second language speech learning: Theory, findings, and problems*. In W. Strange (Ed.), *Speech perception and linguistic experience: Issues in cross-linguistic research* (pp. 233-277). Timonium, MD: York Press.
- Fleming, Harold (1976). 'Omotic Overview', in M.L. Bender (ed.), *The Non-Semitic Languages of Ethiopia*, Michigan State University, Michigan, pp. 298-323.
- Gebeyanesh Mamo (2016). *Mother Tongue Interference into Learning English as a Foreign Language: Analysis of Afan Oromo Interference into Learning EFL, Orthography and Pronunciation* *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics*

- Hirut Woldemariam. (2001). Demonstratives in Dawuro. *Afrikanistische Arbeitspapiere*. Special issue on North-East Africa linguistic and literary studies. Vol. 65. (pp. 157- 130 167).
- Hirut Woldemariam, (2007). Some Aspects of the Phonology and Morphology of Dawuro. *Folia Orientalia* Vol. 42. Cracow: Polish Academy of Sciences. (pp. 71-122).
- Hirut, W. (2014). Writing both difference and similarity: towards a more unifying and adequate orthography for the newly written languages of Ethiopia: the case of Wolaitta, Gamo, Gofa and Dawro. Addis Ababa University , Addis Ababa Ethiopia.
- James, Carl. (1998). *Error in Language Learning and Use*. London: Longman
- Jwan, J. (2010). *Conducting Quantitative Research: Current Trends & Developments: Moi University 5th Campus Wide Research Workshop*
- Komisah, A. (2009). *The Interaction of language, Topic and Speakers: Code-Switching in Class Room Discourse*.
- Koul, L. (1996). *Methods of Educational Research*. New Delahi: Hinduston: offset Printers.
- Krashen, S. (2004). *The power of Reading: Insights From the Research*. Heinemann: Ports Mouth.
- Kuln, T.S. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago press.
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures*. Ann Harbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Lado (1964). *Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach*. McGraw-Hill.
- Lekova, B. 2010. "Language Interference and Methods of its Overcoming in Foreign Language Teaching". *Trakia Journal of Sciences*. 8 (3). 320-324.
- Littlewood, W. (1984). *Language Acquisition Research and its Implications for the Classroom*. Chapter 3 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Little wood, W. (2007). *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lott, D. (1983). Analysing and counteracting interference errors. *ELT Journal*, 37(3), 256-261.
Doi: 10.1093/elt/37.3.256
- Maisamari ,M.A (2003). *Implication of Mother Tongue Education for Teaching of English*.
- Malasa, D. P. (2007). *Effective School Leadership: An Exploration of Issues Inhibiting the*

- Effectiveness of School Leadership in Solomon Islands' secondary schools, Thesis, University of Waikato, New Zealand.
- Mazlan (2015). Contrastive Analysis Theory. Sribd.com. Retrieved from 3
- Mazouzi, (2013). Analysis of Some Factors Affecting learners oral performance A case Study. Melaku Mengistu. (2004). Community Attitude towards the Implementation of Awgni as a Medium of Instruction in the Primary Schools of Awi Administrative Zone (Master's thesis). Addis Ababa University.
- Mother-Tongue Interference in the Acquisition of English Articles by L1 Arabic Students (2016). Journal of Education and Practice ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222-288X (Online) Vol.7, No.3,
- Nababan. (1991). Sociolinguistik. Jakarta: Gramedia Pustaka Utama
- Okesina, M. (2020). A critical review of the relationship between paradigm, methodology, design and method in research. IORS Journal Handbook of qualitative research of Research & Method in Education, 101): 57-68.
- OXFORD, R. L. (1990). Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know. Boston : Heinle & Heinle Publishers, 1990. 343 p. ISBN 0-8384-2862-2.
- Review of the Influence of L1 in L2 Acquisition, Studies in Literature and Language Vol. 9, No. 2, 2014, pp. 57-60
- Richard. (1974). Error Analysis: Perspective on second language acquisition. London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Richards, J.C (1990). Conversationally Speaking Approaches to the Teaching of Conversation. In Jack. C. Richards. The Language Teaching Matrix. New York : Cambridge University press 67-85.
- Richards, J.C & Rogers , T.S (2001) Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University press
- Shahin and Buletin Poltanesa (2011: 210). International Journal of Engineering & Technology Vol. 22 No. 1 (Juni 2021) p-ISSN 2721-5350 e-ISSN 2721-5369, 7 (4.36) (2018) 497-500).
- Sriprabha M. (2015). Study on Mother Tongue Influence in English Communication. Inter J. Eng. Lit. cult. 3(11):296-300.
- Tamiru Olana, Tigist Zeleke and Ketema Jiregna (2015). Mother Tongue Interference in English

Turaeva (2020),The problem of lexical interference of languages in speech. Mental Enlightenment Scientific-Methodological Journal Volume 2020

Torboko Chachiro Tsadiku (2014). የዳዊር ክልል አደረጃጀት ችግል እና የስምዓናዊያን ሴራዎች. ዳዊር ታርጭ.

UGWU, Ekere and Chioma (2021).Research Paradigms and Methodological Choices in the Research process. Journal of applied Information Science and Technology

Wardani, N.A. & Suwartono, T. (2019). Javanese Language Interference in the Pronunciation of English Phonemes. Celtic: A Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching, Literature, & Linguistics, 6(2). 14-25

Weinrich, U. (1953). Languages in contact. New York, NY: Publications of the Linguistic Circle of New York.

Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia (2022). South West Ethiopia Peoples' Region (SWEPR)

Yusuf, S. (1994). Teori Terjemah: Pengantar ke Arah Pendekatan Linguistik dan Sociolinguistik. Bandung: Mandar Maju.

Appendix A
Jimma University
College of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of English Language and Literature

Pronunciation Test-1

The words which included the sounds such as: /v/, /f/, /s/, /v/, /f/, /s/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/ and /z/ to check the phonological interference due to consonant sounds.

No	English Words	The Words Correct Pronunciation	The ways Interference occurrence	Changed Sounds
1	Former			
2	Ratio			
3	Volume			
4	Although			
5	Farmer			
6	Radio			
7	Involve			
8	Throw			
9	Leisure			
10	Effort			
11	Direct			
12	Equivalent			
13	Three			
14	Father			
15	Information			
16	Those			
17	Prove			
18	Allusion			
19	Though			
20	Hoof			
21	Bar			
22	Observe			
23	Vision			
24	Bath			
25	Switch off			
26	Scholar			
27	Measure			
28	With			
29	Portion			
30	Voltage			
31	Worth			
32	Authentic			
33	Pleasure			

Appendix B

Jimma University
College of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of English Language and Literature

Pronunciation Test-2

List of words with diphthongs to test phonological interference related to diphthongs

No.	English Words	The words Correct Pronunciation	The ways Interference occurrence	The Changes Occurred
1	Here			
2	Near			
3	Idea			
4	Make			
5	Take			
6	Weight			
7	Where			
8	Bear			
9	Hair			
10	Cat			
11	Flat			
12	Can			
13	High			
14	Eye			
15	Pie			
16	How			
17	House			
18	Cloud			
19	Hello			
20	Although			
21	Toast			
22	Cure			
23	Pure			
24	Tour			
25	Boy			
26	Avoid			
27	Voice			
28	Go			
29	Coat			
30	Own			

Appendix C

Jimma University
College of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of English Language and Literature

Speaking test

No.	Sentences in Dawuro language	The way students translated in to English
1	Nu ubba wode timirtte keetsa yeetto.	
2	Iza c'ora wode yaa baw.	
3	Maahii worakana wod'eedda.	
4	Doolanggo Tarc'c'a wontta wontta bee.	
5	Na'ay izo ha'I ha'I s'eellee.	
6	Ta soo oosuwa ootsaadi.	
7	I Genna Arbba Arbba bee.	
8	Tanggi geyaappe booraa shameedda.	
9	Itti na'ay kifile gidдон de'ee.	
10	Nu wontta ittisaa baana.	
11	Ooni Aa s'eeledee?	
12	I na'aa mitsabollappe wotseedda.	
13	Aawuu laas'aa mii beedda.	
14	I taw guutsa shaluwa immeedda.	
15	A zal'anchashin.	

Appendix D

**Jimma University
College of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of English Language and Literature**

Questionnaire translated into Dawuro language

Tamaarato,

Ha ooshaa k’oppobay ‘Tarc’c’a 2^{tsa} Detsaa Timirtte Keeta 9^{tsa} Kifiliya Dawurootsuwan doonaa dooya naanaa 2^{tsa} Doonaa /English Language/ haasayaa bilaa tamaaruwa bolla gatsiya woy med’d’iya metuwanne astamaarii he metuwa billanaw go’’ettiya ogiya s’eelliyawan shiik’k’iya markkaa s’eelliyawa.

Hintte 2tsa doonaa /English speaking and reading skills/ haasayanne nabbabuwa bilaa dooyaa s’eelliyawan, duma duma k’antsa ‘Ee’ /Yes/ nne ‘Denna’ /No/ giya k’ofatuu s’adenna shiik’eedino. He diraw, hintte k’ofaa k’onc’c’issanaw ha /√/ mallaa itti itti ooshaa sintsanna wotsiyawn zaarite.

1. Timirtte keetsay: _____

2. Matumay: Attumawa Mac’c’awa

3. Laytsay: _____

4. Kifiliya detsay: _____

5. Ne koyro doonay: _____

Akeekite: Ha pilgetsaa k’oppobay tamaaratuu la’entso doonaa /English language/ haasaya bilaa English speaking skill/ tamaariya wode tamaaratuwa koyiro doonay /Mother tongue/ gatsiya woy med’d’iya metuwa bilussaa gidishin, gujankka ha metuwa billanaw astamaaratuu go’’ettiya ogiyakka ahanaassa woy demmanaassa. He diraw, hintte zaaruwa s’adenna zaran immiyawode, akeekan k’ofatuwa nabbabiide ‘*Loyitsam-ayettikke*’, ‘*Mayettike*’, ‘*Erikke*’, ‘*Mayettaynne*’ ‘*Loyitsa mayettay*’ giya zaaratuwan zaaruwa mallaa /√/ imettosan suure wotsanaw beessiita.

Pay	Immetta k'ofatuwa	Loyitsa mayettikk	Mayettike	Erikke	Mayettay	Loyitsa mayettay
1	Ubba Dawuro doonaa c'enggurssatuunne Inggilizeetsuwa c'enggurisatuu malattetiino?					
2	Ubba Inggilizeetsuwa c'enggurisatuu Dawuro doonan de'iino?					
3	Ooshaa payiduwa laa'uwan ne zaaruu 'Gidenna, de'ikino'' gidoope, ay c'enggurssatuu Inggilizeetsuwan de'iide Dawuro doonan baawento amareedawantta leemisuwadan s'aafi bessite.					
4	Inggilizeetsuwa k'aalatuwa nabbabayide Dawurotsuwa k'aalaa nabbabuwa dooyaa go''etay?					
5	Ne zaaruu ooshaa payiduwa oyidduwan 'Ee' gidoope, ubba Inggilizeetsuwa k'aalaa nabbabuwa hanotayinne Dawurootsuwawe malatettee ga k'oppay?					
6	Dawuro doonaa k'aalaa ispeelinggiinne nabbabuwa hanotay /pronunciation/ gakettii?					
7	Inggilizeetsuwa k'aalaa ispeelinggiinne nabbabuwa hanotay /pronunciation/ gakettii?					
8	Dawurootsuwa turaa waatsayinne Inggilizeetsuwa turaa waatsay ittimalee?					
9	Ne zaaruu ooshaa payiduwa hosppunuwan 'Ee' gidoope, Inggilizeetsuwa k'aalaa turaa waatsayinne Dawurootsuwawe malatettee ga k'oppay?					
10	Dawurootsuwa haasayaa meegaa waatsayinne Inggilizeetsuwa haasayaa meegaa waatsay ittimalee?					
11	Ne zaaruu ooshaa payiduwa tammuwan 'Ee' gidoope, Inggilizeetsuwa haasayaa meegaa waatsayinne Dawurootsuwawe malatettee ga k'oppay?					
12	Ne Inggilizeetsuwa doonaa haasayanaw k'oppayidde, Dawurootsuwa haasaya ogiyan maadettay?					
13	Ne zaaruu ooshaa payiduwa tammanne laa'uwan 'Ee' gidoope, Dawurootsuwa haasayaa maarayinne Inggilizeetsuwa haasayaa maaray ittimalee ?					
14	Ne koyro doonay 2 ^{tsa} doonaa tammariya wode ubba wodekka maaduwa pe'atishin k'ohuu baawa.					
15	Inggilizeetsuwa asttamaari ubba wode haasaya bilaa dichanayida dentsetseenne kooshatuwanne k'aalatuwa nabbabiya ogiya tamaarssee.					

Appendix D
Jimma University
College of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of English Language and Literature

Questionnaire

Dear Students,

This questionnaire is designed for gathering data regarding “ Magnitude of mother tongue interference and teachers’ strategies to minimize learners’ English speaking problem: the case of Tarcha Secondary School Dawurotsuwa native speaking students”

In order to identify your speaking skill experience of English, different short points are presented blow. Therefore, to show your choice put this /√/ sign under the options such as: “Strongly disagree”, ‘Disagree’, ‘Nuetral’, ‘Agree’ and ‘Strongly agree’ in the given space.

1. School: _____

2. Sex: Male Female

3. Age: _____

4. Grade Level: Grade: _____

5. Your first language: _____

Note that: This study is aimed to solve students’ problem related to mother tongue influence on learning English speaking skill. In addition, it will bring strategies for teachers in order to use to minimize the problem. Therefore, when you give your answers for the questions, you have to read the questions well and carefully put yours sign in the given space.

No.	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	The Dawuro language sounds and English sounds are similar.					
2	All the sounds in Dawuro language are found in English.					
3	There are similar sounds both in Dawuro language and English.					
4	There are some English sounds which trouble to read and pronounce.					
5	You use Dawurotsuwa language words pronunciation experience to pronouncing English words.					
6	If your answer is 'Yes' for the question no. 4, are all the English words pronunciation ways are similar with Dawuro language words pronunciation?					
7	Dawurotsuwa and English words' spelling and its pronunciation are similar?					
8	Dawurotsuwa and English words' spelling and their pronunciation are not similar.					
9	Dawurotsuwa and English phrase structures structure are similar.					
10	Every word has equivalent meaning both in Dawuruwa and English based on word structure.					
11	Dawurotsuwa and English sentence structure are similar.					
12	When you tend to speak English, you are guided by your mother tongue speaking rule.					
13	If your answer is 'Yes' for the question no. 12, is there no difference between Dawuro language grammar and English grammar.					
14	Mother tongue has only positive influence on learning English.					
15	The English teacher prepares pronunciation lesson and encourage us to practice.					

Appendix E
Jimma University
College of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of English Language and Literature
Interview for grade nine English teachers

1. How long have you been teaching English in grade 9?
2. Have you ever realized mother tongue interference on students' English speaking skill specially, related to phonologically and grammatically?
3. Related to phonological interference, which sounds challenge students during they speak English?
4. Why such sounds challenge Dawurotsuwa native speaking students during they speak English?
5. What type of grammar problem occur frequently due to mother tongue on students' English speaking?
6. What do think as reason for the problem?
7. What strategies have been using to minimize mother tongue interference on English speaking?

Results of the Interview

- As the interviewees answered for the question no.1, of the six interviewees, five interviewees were served morethan fifteen (15) years and one of them them served for only five years in the school.
- For the question no. 2, the interviewees mentioned that they relized Dawurotsuwa interference (Mother tongue interference) when they trying to speak English.
- In the item no. 3, as the interviewees listed the sounds which were cause for phonological interference are like: /r/, /f/, /v/, /ch/, and the letters with prim and the diphthongs.
- As the interviewees responded for the question no.4, the absence of some English sounds (which challenges the student) in Dawurotsuwa. Also, since the orthographic symbols of both Dawurotsuwa and English are similar, the students pronounce such sounds based on Dawurotso experiences.
- For the question no. 5, the interviewees mentioned that students frequently troubles on word order and tense forms.
- According to the interviewees, the main reason is the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English grammar rules and lack of experience.
- For the question no.7, the interviewees mentioned that the students should learn the difference between Dawurotsuwa and English sounds in early grade. Also, the text book should be prepared considering the mother tongue interference. The training should be given for the teachers...and so on.