

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION WINNEBA

**L1 INTERFERENCE ON L2 PRONUNCIATION: A CASE STUDY OF T.I
AHMADIYYA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS 1A, ASANTE MAMPONG**



ROSINA ACHIAA ANNOH


2018

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**A DISSERTATION IN THE DEPARTMENT OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS,
FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION AND
COMMUNICATION, SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE
STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION WINNEBA, IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIRMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF
EDUCATION IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (TESL)
DEGREE**

SEPTEMBER, 2018

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Rosina Achiaa Annoh, declare that this dissertation, aside the quotations and references contained in published works, which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work and it has not been submitted either in part or in whole for another degree elsewhere.

Signature

Date

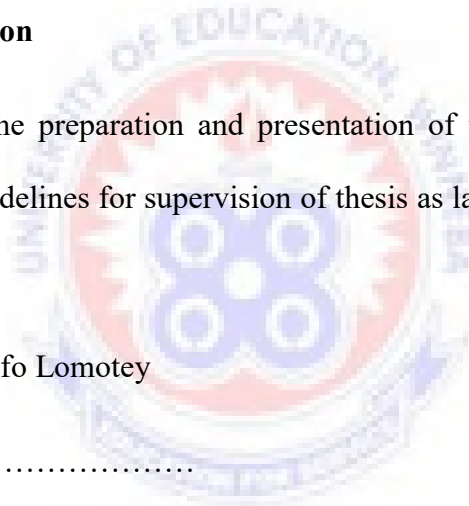
Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Name: Dr. Charlotte Fofu Lomotey

Signature:

Date:



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The greatest thanks goes to God Almighty for the grace and favour He has bestowed on me. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Charlotte Fofu Lomotey for her advice, encouragement and constant support in my work. Her understanding, patience and readiness to help during the period of the research are highly appreciated. It would be impossible to complete this research without her assistance and cooperation. Dr., words cannot express the gratitude I owe you. I pray to God for long life for you. A sincere thanks to my mother Mrs. Comfort Annoh and siblings; Seth Wiafe Annoh, Gifty Fosua Annoh, Godwin Agyei Annoh for their prayers and support throughout my study; your words kept me going and I am grateful. To my husband, Ebenezer B. Sarpong, I say may the Almighty God bless you immensely for everything. You have been supportive from day one. A wonderful thank you to my lecturers at the Department of Applied Linguistics, University of Education Winneba. You have contributed to my coming this far. I say a big thank you to everybody who helped in their own ways for this success. Words are not enough to express it; all I can say is, may you never lack in life.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late father, Mr. Kwaku Annoh, may you find rest wherever you are. It is also dedicated to my children; Kwasi Nhyira B. Sarpong and Afia Agyemang Sarpong.

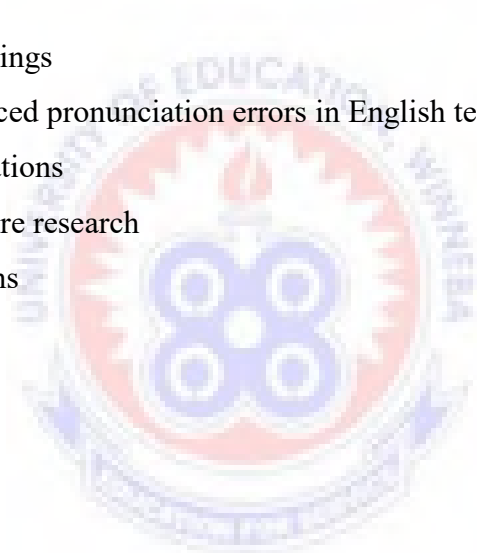


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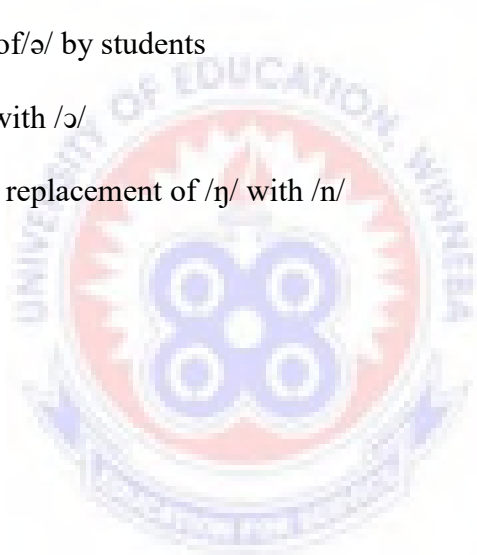
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ASBTRACT

The research work looked into the interference of L1 on L2 pronunciation in English in T.I. Ahmadiyya Junior High School 1A students, Asante Mampong. It discussed related works on the topic, the importance of pronunciation in English and motivation for the teaching of pronunciation. The work also discussed among other things students' reasons for not taking this aspect of the English language seriously. They attributed this lack of seriousness on their part to various reasons among which are inability to express themselves in the English language, late exposure to the sounds of the English language, inadequate learning materials, textbooks, and the greatest part being the influence of the mother tongue. The research revealed some of the causes of L1 interference on L2 pronunciation as; absences of sounds, spelling pronunciation and free variation of sounds. The results of the study proved that most students have so many challenges with respect to English. The author of this work used qualitative method of research in this study. This is because, it is said to be the most appropriate method when undertaking a research work in languages. The framework of this dissertation was the use of Contrastive Analysis to look at the challenges confronting students and teachers of English in T.I. Ahmadiyya Junior High School, Asante Mampong with respect to pronunciation.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the study

Pronunciation is very essential when it comes to communication, especially in oral work. Pronunciation can be defined as the act or results of producing sounds of speech, including articulation, stress, and intonation, often with reference to some standard or correctness or acceptability. Studies have shown that the students' L1 has a greater influence on the L2 (the English language) when it comes to pronunciation. Ellis (1997) refers to interference as a transfer which learners of L1 exert on L2. He argues that the transfer is governed by the learner's perception about what is transferable in relation to their stage of development in L2 learning. Pronunciation is the most important and also the most difficult problem that non-native speakers have to face when studying English. Improper pronunciation can lead to negative impression, misunderstanding, and ineffective communication.

In a world where people interact with one another on a daily basis, one cannot only use written language but speech as well. This means that speech plays an extremely important role in communication. For students to master English speech, they need to be taught how to produce speech sounds (that is, vowels and consonants), as well as non-segmental features of English. Apart from using it for their everyday interactions, English speech or oral English is examined as part of the English final examinations at the Senior High School. Unfortunately, it appears there is not much attention given to this aspect of English and this makes it difficult to determine how students are prepared for this crucial aspect of the language. For example, there is overwhelming evidence that most English teachers in Ghanaian schools do not teach the oral English, rather, they focus all their attention on only the grammar. A lot of factors may account for this. For example, most teachers usually feel uncomfortable and incapable to handle

spoken English and as a result, the test has been reduced to only listening comprehension with no emphasis on speaking.

Unfortunately, numerous teachers are not aware of the importance of pronunciation. In the first place, they emphasize the role of grammar and vocabulary learning in the acquisition of a second/foreign language. The overwhelming majority of English language teachers help students become competent above all in listening and reading (Harmer, 2000). Secondly, many of them think that pronunciation study is too difficult and worse, boring for young learners. Besides, teachers complain about the lack of high quality and suitable teaching and learning materials as well as the lack of time to practise pronunciation (Morley, 1991). According to Harmer (2000), teachers feel they have too much to do already and pronunciation teaching will only make things worse. Moreover, Harmer (2000) adds that there are teachers who claim that students acquire quite good pronunciation in the course of their studies without specific pronunciation teaching. Subsequently, Harmer (2000) claims that concentrating on sounds, showing where they are made in the mouth, making students aware of where words should be stressed, all these things give them extra information about spoken English. It helps them achieve the goal of improved comprehension and intelligibility.

Realistic goals of teaching pronunciation need to be addressed in order to develop communicative competence. According to Morley (after Wrembel, 2002), one needs to achieve the following:

- Functional intelligibility - developing spoken English that is easy to understand for listeners,
- Functional communicability - developing spoken language that serves communicative needs effectively, increased self-confidence - developing a positive self-image,
- Speech-monitoring abilities and speech-modification strategies that will allow students to develop intelligibility, communicability and confidence outside the classroom.

The overall aim is for learners to develop spoken English that will serve their individual needs and allow them to form a positive image of themselves as speakers of a second/foreign language. The problem of poor pronunciation could badly affect the performance of the students, it is therefore necessary for the learner to get a good foundation of good pronunciation skills in order to help him or her attain the necessary score and to get the experts in the fields of other professions. Pronunciation therefore is a huge influence on our successful communication in English. The English language has become the official language in all facets of the Ghanaian life and is considered prestigious by every Ghanaian. In a world where people interact a lot with one another on daily basis, one cannot only use written language, but speech as well. This attests to the fact that speech plays an integral role when it comes to communication. A lot of factors may account for this: Teachers usually feel incompetent and incapable to handle spoken English. The present day study was undertaken to provide feedback information regarding the pronunciation of students in T.I. Ahmadiyya JHS in Mampong in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

1.1 Statement of the problem

The Junior High School level is the level where students are required to speak and write English effectively. Their ability to master the English language will enable them pass their exams and also effectively communicate with people. The teaching and learning of pronunciation has been given a minimum look when compared to other aspects of English. The problem of students' pronunciation is all about how they started learning from their primary level. It is clear that teachers at the lower level find it difficult to teach pronunciation at that level. It therefore calls for language teachers to come together and help curb this problem at the basic level so that students will not suffer at the Senior High School level.

The ability for students to speak fluently largely depends on how they express themselves using the mother tongue (L1). The amount of vocabulary they have acquired

determines how fluent they become in speech. Second language acquisition relies on the first language (L1) for its generation. Students tend to interfere the acquisition of the L2 with the L1 when it comes to language learning, especially pronunciation. One of the reasons students are unable to pronounce some sounds in the second language is because those sounds are not found in the first language. Further observation and investigation show that most of the students feel shy to express themselves in the English language. They also lack confidence in speaking the English for the fear of mockery from their friends in case they commit errors. If this problem is not solved, it will affect students in their academic work and performance in the B.E.C.E.

From the aforementioned points, there is the need to investigate the interference of the L1 in L2 pronunciation among students of Asante Mampong T. I. Ahamdiyya J.H.S 1 students. The sounds being examined are /θ/, /ð/, /ɒ/, /ə/, /əʊ/, /v/, /l/, /r/. The main purpose of this study is to analyse how the L1 affects L2 in terms of pronunciation and suggest approaches to solve it. It aims at educating the general public about the effects of poor pronunciation and to offer useful suggestions with emphasis on ways and the appropriate use of teaching learning materials in teaching pronunciation.

1.2 Research objectives

This study seeks to examine the interference of L1 on L2 pronunciation of T.I. Ahmaddiya JHS 1A in Asante Mampong in the Ashanti Region. The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To investigate L1 interference errors in L2 pronunciation;
2. Examine how the L1 interference causes errors in L2 pronunciation.

1.3 Research questions

The study is guided by the following research question:

3. What are the L1 interference errors in L2 pronunciation?

4. How does L1 interference cause errors in L2 pronunciation?

1.4 Significance of the study

When this study is completed it would help teachers, learners of English and all those who use English to improve their poor pronunciation skills. It will also inform teachers about the problems students face in learning and speaking English. When this research is completed it will reveal the various challenges that students face in learning the pronunciation of words and the production of sounds in the English Language. Teachers would also be aware of the necessary teaching learning materials and techniques to be used in teaching pronunciation in the Lower, Upper and JHS levels in our various schools. The results of this research will serve as a source of reference on similar topics that they may want to write on.

1.5 Delimitation of the study

The study was delimited to the teaching of pronunciation in English. The study was further delimited to the study of only eight selected sounds in English. The study was delimited to T.I Ahmadiyya JHS Asante Mampong in the Ashanti Region due to time constraints. The students of JHS 1A were the target population in this study. This class was chosen to find out L1 interferes in the L2 pronunciation.

1.6 Organization of the study

The rest of the thesis is organised as follows: In Chapter 2 has been divided into three; concept of pronunciation, concept of errors and the literature review is presented. It also discusses what other writers have done on pronunciation. Chapter 3 describes the data and procedure adopted for the study, the description and discussion of the participants, data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. In this chapter, the analysis revealed that the students have difficulties in their speech due to a number of problems. Finally, Chapter 5 presents a summary of the results. In this chapter, the researcher brings to light ways

by which students' English speech could be better improved. One of such ways is the provision of good foundation regarding the production of the English speech sounds. The chapter finally concludes with implications for teachers as well as suggestions for future research.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter provides a foundation within which this research study is built. It has discussed the background to the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, the relevance of the study and the limitations. This work presents the past and present perspectives on pronunciation teaching. It summarizes the background of pronunciation teaching, emphasis on the interference of L1 on L2 pronunciation and the causes of these errors.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Good communication depends on proper pronunciation. Fairclough (1992) describes discourse as the situational context of language use involving the interaction between reader/writer and text. In his view he sees communication as the ability to use words correctly in terms of pronunciation for smooth transition and understanding between the writer and the reader and the text which is being read. It is strongly argued that if there are hitches during discourse due to improper pronunciation of words, deriving meaning from whatever is being said becomes very difficult. The language which is acquired during early childhood starting before the age of about 3 years is first language. First language has different names such as, mother tongue, native language and primary language (Avanika,2009). A second language acquisition process is needed for education, employment and other purposes, and it is typically an official or societal language. This chapter focuses on what pronunciation is all about, the concept of errors, mistakes, types of errors, and the interference of Twi on English language pronunciation. It also discusses common English phonological errors of Twi speakers as well as causes of L1 interference on pronunciation. Also, some approaches to the analysis of errors are discussed. The chapter ends with a discussion of some related studies.

2.1 Meaning of pronunciation

Pronunciation can be defined as the act or result of producing the speech sounds and intonation often, with reference to some standards of corrections or acceptability. Gilakjani (2012) states “the habit of producing a sound is required by repeating it over and over again and by being corrected when it is pronounced wrongly” (p. 119). We sometimes come across certain words that we find difficult to produce or not sure how to pronounce that, whether to

use the American or British English. Burns and Claire (2003) affirms that it is very important that speakers of the English achieve intelligibility, that is, the speaker produces sound patterns that are recognizable as English. Comprehensibility is also important for the listener to be able to understand the meaning of what is said and lastly, interpretability, the ability of listeners to understand the purpose of what is said.

The inability to achieve the above as stipulated by Burns and Claire (2003) in the pronunciation of English words during communication will make it boring to listen to such a speaker. This is because the listener would have to make an effort to understand what the speaker is trying to say, thereby, breaking the communication between the speaker and the listener. For example, a speaker might say “I will gain you” instead of “I will cane you”. Intelligibility will not occur here because of poor pronunciation. As a result of this the listener would not find the speaker comprehensible, because meaning is not available. Because the speaker is incomprehensible, the listener would also not be able to interpret.

One of the primary goals of teaching pronunciation in any course is intelligible pronunciation rather than perfect pronunciation. Intelligible pronunciation is an essential component of communicative competence (Morley, 1991 p. 488). In her opinion, the attainment of perfect pronunciation should no longer be the objective. Instead, Morley calls for setting more realistic goals that are reasonable, applicable and suitable for the communication needs of the learner. To her, the learner needs to develop functional intelligibility; the ability to make one’s self relatively easily understood, functional communicability; the ability to meet the communication needs one faces, increased self-confidence, and speech monitoring abilities and speech modification strategies. Therefore, it is vital that students learning English for international communication learn to speak it as intelligibly and comprehensibly as possible, not necessarily like natives, but well enough to be understood. Clear pronunciation is essential in spoken communication. Even where learners produce minor inaccuracies in vocabulary and

grammar, they are more likely to communicate effectively when they have good pronunciation. However, proper pronunciation is the reproduction of sounds in such a way that the intended message is passed easily and is properly understood by a speaker of the language in question.

2.2 Concept of errors

In Applied Linguistics, an error is a deviation from accepted rules of a language made by a learner of a second language. Such errors result from the learners' lack of knowledge of correct rules of the target language. A significant distinction is generally made between errors and mistakes which are not treated similarly from a linguistic viewpoint. The study of learners' errors was the main area of investigation by linguists in the history of second-language acquisition research.

2.2.1 Errors and mistakes

According to Ellis (2008), a 'mistake' is a deviation in a learner's language that occurs when learners fail to perform their competence. It is a lapse that reflects processing problems. An error, on the other hand, is a deviation in learners' language which results from lack of knowledge of the correct rule (pp. 971, 961). In linguistics, it is considered important to distinguish errors from mistakes. A distinction is always made between errors and mistakes where the former is defined as resulting from a learner's lack of proper grammatical knowledge, whilst the latter is seen as a failure to utilize a known system correctly. Brown (2006, p. 163) terms these mistakes as performance errors. Mistakes of this kind are frequently made by both native speaker and second language learners. However, native speakers generally are able to correct themselves quickly. Such mistakes include slip of tongue and random ungrammatical formations.

On the other hand, errors are systematic that, they occur repeatedly and are not recognizable by the learner. They are a part of the learners' interlanguage and the learner does

not generally consider them as errors. They are errors only from the perspective of teachers and others who are aware that the learner has deviated from a grammatical norm. That is, mistakes can be self-corrected with or without being pointed out to the speaker but errors cannot be self-corrected.

2.2.2 Types of errors

2.2.2.1 Developmental Errors

According to Ellis (1994), “developmental errors are errors similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language” (p. 165). For example, the following utterance made by a native Twi-speaking child learning English: *man eat every day*. The structure of the sentence may be classified as developmental because these are also found in the speech of children learning English as their second language. Two considerations underlie the interest in comparing L2 and L1 acquisition errors. This has to do with facilitating L2 theoretical development. As Ellis (1994, p. 58) mentioned, if the characteristics common to both L1 and L2 acquisition could be identified, theoretical inferences that have been drawn from the large pool of L1 research data may be applicable to L2 acquisition theory as well. The second consideration has to do with the role of the first language when learning a second. Since children acquiring a first language have not experienced learning a previous language, the errors they make cannot possibly be due to any interference from another language. When such errors are made by second language learners, it would be reasonable to hypothesize that mental mechanisms underlying general language development come into play, not the rules and structures of the learner’s native language.

2.2.2.2 Ambiguous errors

“Ambiguous errors are those that could be classified equally well as developmental or interlingual” Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982, p. 172). This is because these errors reflect the

learner's native language structure, and at the same time, they are of the type found in the speech of children acquiring a first language. For example, in the utterance 'I no have a car' by a native Spanish. The negative construction reflects the learner's native Spanish and is also characteristic of the speech of children learning English as their first language. The ambiguous category is particularly important in a comparative taxonomy. Assigning such errors to a separate category ensures the clarity of the findings resulting from a comparative error analysis and enables researchers to draw clear theoretical inferences from the rest of the data.

2.2.2.3 Misspellings

There are four types of misspelling: the first one is punctuation errors, among which the most frequent are overuse of the exclamation (!) by some writers; misordering of closing inverted comas; under or overuse of capitals; over inclusion of a comma between an antecedent and a restrictive relative clause; and misselection of the colon instead of the comma after the salutation in letters. The second one is typographic errors. People who are normally good spellers might be poor typists. Their problem is in automatizing the required temporal and spatial mechanisms that underlie skilled fingering on the typewriter, or keystrokes on the word-processor. In fact, in such an instance, we are dealing with mistakes rather than errors, and this probably explains why psychologists interested in skill learning have paid more attention to typing errors than applied linguists have.

The third is on dyslexic errors. Some of the errors dyslexics make are misspellings, for example, one may write *barc* for *bark*, and this is a misselection from two letters that can represent the same sound /k/ in English. Dyslexics also produce errors that are not misspellings but the misordering. Here, they can produce 'deb' for 'bed' reversing the letter (b) into (d) or doing what is called *strephosymbolia*. The fourth one is confusibles. An example is given by Carney (1994): 'to marry a devoiced woman'. Here, we realize that there is confusion between similar sounding morphemes and words. Perhaps literacy raises peoples' awareness of the

differences to the point where they can avoid such confusion in their writing. A lot of such could be seen written on cars and one of them is ‘to air is woman and to forgive is define’.

2.2.2.4 Lexical errors

Ander and Yildirim (2010) describe lexical errors are prevalent in vocabulary learning process, especially when another language is concerned as the most common type of errors in student’ output. Lexis is sharply different from grammar. Grammar is said to be organized in closed systems, to be systematic and regular. Lexis, by contrast, is said to consist of open systems, to be irregular and unsystematic. Lexis has begun to take a central role in language study. There are a number of reasons for this. In the first place, the boundaries between lexis and grammar are now seen to be less clear-cut than was assumed. Morphological aspects of words, which used to be treated as part of grammar, can just as well be viewed as part of the word. For instance, words of different form classes can be derived from the same root: calm→ calmness→ calmly.

To add to this, learners themselves believe that vocabulary is very important in language learning. It is the building blocks that ease the learning and speaking any language. The vocabulary one uses in a particular language may differ from the other. An example in English is *plant* (used a verb). The same word in Twi is *dua*. This particular word in Twi can always be used differently depending on the context. One can say ‘*dua bankye no*’ and at the same time ‘*fua bayerɛ no*’. *Dua* and *Fua* mean to plant something but here, depending on how you use it, it will tell others whether you are a native speaker or not. Though this view may not be correct, it is likely to influence learning. The more vocabulary one gains the more he or she expresses oneself well. For some learner groups, lexical errors constitute the most frequent category of error. Also, native speakers consider lexical errors in learners’ L1 to be more disruptive and irritating than other types. Finally, vocabulary carries a particularly heavy functional load, especially in early L1. There is little grammar in such L1, and the message

often has to be inferred, mainly from the lexical terms assembled for its representation. We classify lexical errors from two perspectives: formal errors and semantic errors. Formal errors include formal misselection, misformations and distortions while semantic errors refer to confusion of sense relations and collocational errors.

2.2.2.5 Interference errors

Interference errors refer to errors that occur when speakers or writers apply knowledge from one language to another. It is the transfer of linguistic features between languages and speech repertoire of a bilingual or multilingual individual, whether from first to second, second to first or many other relationships. It is most commonly discussed in the context of English language learning and teaching, but it can occur in any situation when someone does not have a native-level translation into a second language. Where the important units or structures of both languages are the same, linguistic interference can result in correct language production called positive transfer. Florez (1999) adds that interference or negative transfer from the first language is likely to cause errors in aspiration, intonation, and rhythm in the second or target language.

Other important reason for learners' errors in speech learning is the orthography. The orthography influences the acquisition of English phonetics and phonology. Akram (2010) notes that the sound and the spelling system of the mother tongue can deform the shape and the form of the word that distorts the pronunciation. However, language interference is most often discussed as a source of error known as negative transfer which occurs when speakers and writers transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages. Akram (2010) explains that it is a fact universally that mother tongue influences the learning of a target language.

2.2.2.6 Pronunciation errors

These are errors that have to do with the incorrect and inappropriate way of pronouncing words. Such errors may be due to the interference of mother tongue of the individual or the inability of the individual to correctly articulate the sounds of the L2. In cases when the same letter represents different sounds, an error is bound to occur. Some common pronunciation errors include pronunciation of “ed” after a ‘t’ and ‘d’; “es” after “s”, tʃ”, “dʒ”, “z”, and “ʃ”; when “o” is pronounced as “ʌ”; in the word some.

2.2.3 Summary

The essence of teaching the learning process is imparting knowledge aimed at bringing about positive changes in the learners. When errors thus occur or are noticed in the classroom, they help in complementing the teaching-learning process. Errors serve the following purposes. Errors serve as a subtle means of evaluation of the teaching-learning act to determine its success or otherwise. If students commit more errors during the course of or at the end of the lesson, in some aspect of the language, it shows that the objective set out by the teacher has not been achieved. On the contrary, if fewer errors are committed, the teacher is encouraged to build more on what the learners have learnt, after he has corrected the errors exhibited.

2.3 Interference of Asante Twi on English pronunciation/articulation

Tweedy (2012) specifies that “a learner’s first language can have an immense influence on the level of accentedness and intelligibility on a new language” (p. 12). It simply implies that as learners get ready to learn the second language there is a high possibility of the L1 interfering the L2. This interference can cause errors in the stress and intonation of the L2, hence the pronunciation of the learner (Zhang, 2009). Language teachers are of the view that before any child can learn the L2, they must be abreast of the sound system in the L1. Studies as well as experiences from teachers show that the learners’ first language plays a major

influence on learning the sound system of another language (Nation & Newton, 2009). Sharkey (2002) affirms that the second language searches through the learner's L1 helping the child to learn the Second language. This is the very reason why some non-native speakers are not able to articulate certain sounds due to the absence of these in their mother tongue. The following analysis provides the distinction between vowels and consonants in Asante Twi and that of the English in relation to those that are likely to cause interference.

2.3.1 Speech sounds

In English, there are 24 consonants (b, p, d, t, g, k, v, f, θ, ð, z, s, ʒ, ʃ, m, n, ŋ, l, r, dʒ, tʃ, h, j, w) and 12 vowels (ʌ, ɑ:, æ, e, ɜ:, ɪ, i:, ɒ, ɔ:, ʊ, u:) which have been classified by height, tongue position and lip rounding. English also has 8 diphthongs (aɪ, aʊ, əʊ, eɪ, ɔɪ, eə, ɪə, ʊə), making a total of 44 phonemes in all. On the other hand, Twi has 10 vowels and 24 consonants. Since most of the vowel and consonant sounds differ from the two languages, the L1 tends to interfere in the pronunciation of the L2. Learners must therefore learn and be able to articulate these while learning the L2. O'Connor (2003) discusses the possibility of learners of different language backgrounds facing challenges in the production of words. He argues that this can result in the interchange of consonants in their attempt to pronounce such words. Examples are '*foilage*' instead of *foliage* /'fəʊliɪdʒ/ and also insert vowels into clusters, for example, *main instead of man* /mæn/. These errors are important since they provide feedback to the teacher as to where their attention should be drawn to. The following are some likely sounds that are affected when it comes to interference.

/z/ - an alveolar fricative not found in Twi, and can result in errors in words such as *seal for zeal; sip for zip; price for prize; sink for zinc; cease for seize*.

/θ/ - a dental fricative which is not found in Twi but is present in English becomes very difficult for the L1 learner to produce words which involve this sound. They may tend to produce the sound which is closer to /θ/ in the L1 and this is /t/. The following would happen:

tree for three; tie for thigh; tread for thread; torn for thorn; team for theme; tick for thick and tank for thank.

/v/ - a labiodental fricative which is not found in the L1 creates a lot of problems when it comes to pronouncing words in the L2 which contain the /v/ sound. Example, *proof for prove; fail for veil; relief for relive etc.*

/l/ and /r/ - these are free variants that are present in Second Language, but Twi speakers interchange them which causes errors in their pronunciation. Examples are *rack for lack; free for flee; fry for fly; brunt for blunt; browse for blouse; grammar for glamour; fright for flight; breed for bleed, correct for collect etc.* When it comes to vowels, both Twi and English have similar sounds so the interference in vowels may not be that much as with consonants.

Table 2.1. Comparison of Twi and English sounds

	English	Twi
Syllable- initial Consonants	24 consonants b, p, d, t, g, k, v, f, θ, ð, z, s, ʒ, ʃ, h, m, n, ŋ, l, r, dʒ, tʃ (inclusive of glides) 2 glides (j, w)	24 consonants b, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, u, y, dʒ, ʃ, ʒ, ɲ, dʒ ^w , tʃ ^w , k ^w , ʃ ^w , n ^w
Syllable-final Consonants	20 consonants b, p, d, t, g, k, v, f, θ, ð, z, s, ʒ, ʃ, m, n, ŋ, l, dʒ, t	m, n
Vowels	13 monophthongs ʌ, a:, æ, e, ə, ɜ, I, ,i:, ɒ, ɔ:, ʊ, u: 8 diphthongs aɪ, aʊ, əʊ, eɪ, ɔɪ, eə, ɪə, ʊə	10 monophthongs a, e, i, o, u, ɛ, ɔ, æ, ɪ, ʊ

As can be seen from Table 2.1, the number of consonants in English and Twi do not differ much. The most conspicuous are the number of consonants used in the onset and coda of a syllable. English has comparable number of consonants in the onset and coda of a syllable.

Twi has 24 consonants in the onset, but only two consonants in the coda. It also has fewer syllable final consonants than English. It is presumed that Twi speakers will find realizations of consonants at the coda difficult to do.

Avery and Ehrlich (1992) posited learners of a language have different ways of speaking the target language. The way they speak is sometimes slightly different than the native speakers. This can be as a result of interference of native language or the ability of the learner to self-consciously work towards the achievement of the appropriate pronunciation of the target language. Oluwole (2008) investigated how the L1 influences students' poor performance in English language in the Junior High school Certificate examination in government schools in Western Nigeria. He found that the influence affects all aspects of English, including pronunciation. From the results, he argued that if the learners are familiar with the sound system of their L1, there is the tendency that there will be a carryover of the pronunciation of sounds into the L2. In this sense, as asserted by Senel (2006), it should be noted that interference from the first language is likely to cause errors in the pronunciation in the target language. To illustrate, this problem can occur when sounds in the L2 are not found in the L1 of the learner. For example, /ð/, /θ/ do not exist in Twi; speakers encounter pronunciation difficulties, especially with the words that include these sounds. Eventually, they end up producing those sounds in Twi closer to /θ/ and /ð/. Examples of such words are thin [tɪn] and that [dæt].

2.3.2 Suprasegmental features

Suprasegmentals relate to sounds at the macro level. A description of the suprasegmental features of speech extends across whole stretches of language (prosody). While languages such as Vietnamese or Mandarin are tonal, English is a stress-based language. Jenkins (2002) emphasizes that effective communicative pronunciation competence can be achieved through improving suprasegmental production in preference to segmental. Linking,

intonation and stress are important features for effective pronunciation at the suprasegmental levels (Burns, 2003). In English, words are linked and sounds blended between words in a way which is quite distinctive from that of other languages, and these features help us to manage the patterns of stress, unstressed and pitch change.

Linking refers to the way the last sound of one word is joined to the first sound of next word. To produce connected speech, words are run together to link consonant to vowel, consonant to consonant, and vowel to vowel. Some sounds are also shortened while others are left out altogether. Some sounds such as r, w, and j (y) are inserted to link adjacent words ending and beginning with a vowel: where are you?, you ought to, and Saturday evening. When words begin with an unstressed syllable, they are often pronounced as the schwa (ə) sound. Some sounds are so short that they virtually disappear (become elided): does (h)e like soccer? We might as well (ha)ve stayed at home. Derwing and Munro (2003) observe that even heavily accented speech is sometimes intelligible and that prosodic errors (that is errors in stress, intonation, and rhythm) appear to affect intelligibility more than do phonetic errors (that is, errors in single sounds). For this reason, pronunciation research and teaching focus on the sounds of the language (vowels, consonants) and on suprasegmental features.

2.3.3 Summary

The speech sounds of English and Twi have some similarities and difference. The difference normally interferes with the L2. Some sounds that are likely to be affected by the L1 are /z, θ, v, l, r/ etc. It is very necessary to know the sound system of the L1 to improve upon the learning of the sounds in L2. The introduction of letter sounds should be made at the early stages of the child's life to enable students grasp and improve upon as they move further in their academics.

2.4 Common English phonological errors for a Twi speaker

Due to difficulty in producing some vowel sounds, Twi speakers often commit the following errors: They confuse the following words - ship and sheep; bed, barred and bird; cat, cart, cut; bat, but and bet; rod, roared and road; pull and pool. Twi speakers have difficulty producing English “th” sounds since the /ð/ and /θ/ phonemes are not found in Twi. They commit the following errors: *day* for *they*; *tin* for *thin*; *tree* for *three*; *thank* for *tank*, *think* for *tink*; *teeth* for *teet*; *clout* for *cloth*; *mout* as in *mouth*; *dis* for *this*; *dee* for *thee*; *dose* for *those*; and in the cluster /tθ/ as in *eighth* which is produced as *eight*. They also tend to confuse /l/ and /r/ which are replaced by the /r/ in Twi, so the following errors are made: *rolly* for *lorry*, *grass* and *glass* are often confused; *pray* and *play* are also often confused. The /v/ is normally replaced with /f/ as in *shelve* which is produced as *shelf*; *fife* as in *five*. In effect, they speakers tend to devoice the final consonant sounds so they make the following errors; *write* for *ride*; *rice* for *rise*; *rope* for *robe*; *pick* for *pig*. Consonant clusters also cause difficulty for the Twi speakers so they make the following errors: *nest* for *next*; *knees* for *needs*; and *fat* for *fact*.

Table 2.2. Twi phonemes used to replace consonants in English

d and ð	d
t and θ	t
l and r	r
s and z	s
f and v	f
ŋ	ng

The above table shows how some sounds in L2 are replaced with the L1 simply because they might not be found in the L1 so students replace it with the nearest sound available to them, or they are used interchangeably.

Twi has a total of 10 vowels; five “tense” vowels (advanced tongue root), five “lax” vowels (retracted tongue root) they include a, e, i, o, u, ε, ɔ, æ, ɪ, ʊ. It has 24 consonants (15 primary: b, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, u, y and 9 diagraphs; ʃ, dʒ, ʒ, ɲ, dʒ^w, tʃ^w, k^w, ʃ^w). However, it has fewer vowel sounds, final consonant sounds and clusters than English. This makes these sounds in English very difficult to distinguish for a Twi speaker. Since Twi is a tonal and syllable-based language, their English tends to sound non-native. Twi speakers do not usually reduce the vowels of unstressed syllables. As a result, they tend to pronounce words exactly as they are spelt. Also, due to non-distinction in vowel length, they tend to pronounce all vowels short.

Whiteman (1970, p. 191) concluded four steps for conducting a Contrastive analysis (CA) for syntactical elements: description, selection, comparison and prediction. Archibald applied Whitman’s model and proposed a procedure for phonological comparison. First, a formal description of two languages is made or consulted. Second, a particular part of the languages is selected for analysis, such as segments (consonant and vowels). Third, the two systems are then compared. Areas of differences are sorted out. Finally, areas of the difficulty are predicted. This was the traditional starting point for conducting a Contrastive Analysis (CA). The elements that were missing from the second language would be assumed to cause difficulty (Archibald, 1998).

2.5 Causes of L1 interference on pronunciation

According to Lott (1983, 256), there are three factors that cause interference: the interlingual factor. Interlingual transfer is a significant source for language learners. This concept comes from contrastive analysis and identifies the negative interference of the L1 as the only source of errors. The sentence – *I like to read* is uttered as *I read to like* by many Hindi speakers (Pratima, 2010). In Hindi, the verb is pre-positioned while in English it is post-positioned. This type of error is the result of negative transfer of L1 rules to the L2 system.

Selinker (1992) identifies two highly significant contributions that Corder (1992) made in the field of second language acquisition. These are (a) the errors of a learner, whether adult or child, are not random, but are in fact systematic, and (b) the errors are not ‘negative’ or ‘interfering’ in any way with learning a target language; on the contrary these are considered positive factors. Researchers are interested in errors because errors are believed to contain valuable information on the strategies people use to acquire a language.

Commonly, errors are caused by the differences between the first and the second language. Such a contrastive analysis hypothesis occurs where structures in the first language which are different from those in the second language produce errors reflecting the structure of first language. Ellis (1997, p. 51) refers to interference as ‘transfer’, which he says is ‘the influence that the learner’s L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2. Because of the differences in the systems, especially grammar, the students will transfer their first language into the second language by using the L1 system. Secondly, the over-extension of analogy can occur. Usually, a learner wrongly uses vocabulary caused by the similarity of the elements in both first language and second language. For example, the use of cognate words (the same form of word in two languages with different functions or meanings) - month and moon.

Another way learners may transfer from the L1 into the L2 is the transfer of structure. There are two types of transfer according to Dulay et.al (1982, p. 101), positive transfer and negative transfer. Negative transfer refers to those instances of transfer, which result in error because old habitual behaviour is different from the new behaviour being learned. On the converse, positive transfer results in correct utterance, because both the first language and second language have the same structure. Interference (or negative transfer) is the deviation of target language as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. Therefore students will find it difficult in mastering the second language due to the interference, which is

influenced by old habits familiar with the L1 and the interaction of two languages in the communities.

The review suggests that the interference of the mother tongue has great impact on the learning of the second language. Therefore, English teachers must first know the child's L1 in order to improve upon it during the teaching and learning process. Knowing the child's L1 helps to identify the errors the child makes and how to help solve such a problem. Yiing (2011) posits that mother tongue interference can contribute to a large number of pronunciation errors made by students. Errors are the result of social, psychological and linguistic interactions that challenge researchers to establish a solid linguistic research paradigm capable of the descriptive or explanatory powers necessary for error analysis. Despite its weaknesses as a tool of research, it still provides hints at the possible connections between the classroom and the psycholinguistic questions of L1 and L2 acquisition. It also demonstrates the importance of further research and the training of teachers who are capable of approaching the analysis of errors in language form as well as errors of communication and function. It must be remembered, however, that errors are only a way of describing a language learner's performance and should not be allowed to ruin the successes of the language learner.

2.6 Approaches to the analysis of errors

There are four approaches to L1 interference in L2 learning. These are Contrastive Analysis (CA), which is the traditional approach, Error Analysis (EA); the contemporary approach, Interlanguage Analysis (IA) and Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) as the modern approach (Latiff & Bakar, 2007). In this study, the first two are discussed.

2.6.1 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is the study and comparison of any two languages. CA holds the view that the structure of the first language affects the acquisition of the second language (Lado, 1961). The theory originated from Lado's (1961) *linguistics across cultures* and underpinned linguistically and psychologically by structuralism and behaviourism respectively. Contrastive Analysis, which is the primary approach to the study of L1 interference, focuses on the comparison of the linguistic systems of the two languages, especially their sound and grammar systems, to find solutions to L2 instruction problems (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Contrastive Analysis is seen to be intuitively appealing because, as Brown (2006) indicates, there are many errors in the L2 which are attributed to the negative transfer of the native language to the target language. However, Contrastive Analysis (CA) as a theory was not successful in predicting difficulties (Hughes, 2000).

The moderate version holds the view that interference is more likely to occur when there is similarity between the items to be learned and the already known items (Brown, 2006). Despite these challenges, the idea of L1 interference continues to be applicable as part of Error Analysis in L2 acquisition.

2.6.2 Error Analysis (EA)

In reaction to the weaknesses found with CA, Error Analysis (EA) emerged in the 1960s to demonstrate that the errors L2 learners make are not always due to the learners' native language but due to other complex factors. The model holds the view that factors like communicative strategies and the quality of L2 instruction result in L2 errors (Hashim, 1992). Other sources of errors identified by Richards and Schmidt (2002) are overgeneralization, simplification, development, L1 interference, avoidance and overproduction. Error Analysis deals with the learners' performance in terms of cognitive processes and recognizes the input learners receive from the target language. The basis of Error Analysis is the fact that learners'

errors provide us with an understanding of the underlying process of L2 acquisition (Erdogan, 2005). Keshavars (1997) suggests that there are two branches of error analysis; theoretical and applied. Keshavars (1997), theoretical error analysis is concerned with processes and strategies of second language learning and the similarities with first language acquisition. Applied error analysis, on the other hand, deals with organizing remedial courses and devising appropriate materials and teaching strategies based on the findings of theoretical error analysis.

Error Analysis is also criticized as a model which confuses explanatory (process) and descriptive aspects (product) and also that the error categories lack precision and specificity; James (1998) indicates that EA does not take into consideration the strategy of avoidance in L2 learning. Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) identify six potential weaknesses in Error analysis. These are the analysis of errors in isolation, the classification of identified errors, statements of error frequency and identification of points of difficulty. The rest are the ascription of causes of systematic errors and the biased nature of sampling. Nevertheless, Error Analysis has added a layer to the analysis and classification of L2 students' errors. Error Analysis is reserved for the study of incorrect utterances produced by groups of learners' language.

2.6.3 Summary

Error Analysis deals with the analysis of errors in general as opposed to Contrastive Analysis which deals with studying only L1 interference errors in L2 learning. To sum up, CA and EA are useful theories in investigating the characteristic of pronunciation errors encountered by Twi speakers who learn English as second language. Ulla (1996) concludes that in order to improve language teaching, contrastive analysts viewed themselves as applied linguists in the structural tradition of linguistics, whereas error analysts regarded themselves learners of psycholinguistics as sited in Goa (2005). Therefore, with the present study the use of contrastive analysis is chosen over error analysis. In this study, the Contrastive Analysis

(CA) approach to the study of errors is used because it addresses the central aim of the study, which is to analyse L1 interference errors in students' L2 (English) pronunciation. One may argue for the use of the Error Analysis approach but it is not used because it is all encompassing involving analysis of all errors (L1 interference, communicative strategies, the quality of second language instruction and cognitive processes as sources of students' errors).

2.7 Related studies

Many research studies have been conducted on the pronunciation problems of ESL learners with diverse language backgrounds, all pointing to the influence of the mother tongue. Szyszka (2015) recognizes the importance of close contact with native interlocutors in developing a target language sound system. Therefore, when L2 learners seek to communicate, a higher level of L2 pronunciation attainment may be hypothesized. In support of this, Mikulastikova (2012) asserts that students who have already been exposed to some L2/L3 have greater chances to acquire a new language easier than students who have never encountered one. Thus, students who have the possibility to meet with native speakers lose the fear to communicate. This may be because native speakers provide a linguistic model and an appropriate feedback for students (Shoebottom, 2012). Such students have the opportunity to learn that language faster. Zhang (2009) however deviates a little from Szyszka and Mikulastikova as he argues that exposure can be a contributory factor, but it cannot be a whole and necessary factor for the development of pronunciation. In this sense, he believes that with the other factors interfering in pronunciation learning, exposure alone cannot make a learner successful.

It is emphasized that teachers must focus on two areas. First, learners must be made aware of aspects of their pronunciation that result in other people being unable to understand them. Second, learners must be given the opportunity to practise aspects of the English sound system which are crucial for their own improvement (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Firth (1992)

also notes that learners' achievement of a near perfect standard may individually vary to the degree in motivation, sensitivity to accuracy, age and education factors which are beyond a teacher's control. Language is a cognitive skill which includes productive skills and receptive skills as well as language components, namely vocabulary, structure and phonology (Wongsothorn & Pongsurapipat, 1992).

According to Fromkin and Rodman (2010), consonants are classified as bilabials, labiodentals, interdental, alveolars, palatals, velar and glottal according to the place of articulation. Consonants can also be distinguished as stop, nasal, fricative, affricate glide and liquid by the manner of articulation (p. 244). Phoneticians also categorize sounds as voiced or voiceless, when the vocal folds are apart so that air flows freely through the glottis into the oral cavity. The sounds are voiceless; otherwise, the sounds are voiced

Carter and Nunan, (2001) explain that Arab students face problems in the pronunciation of sounds that they are not familiar with. For example, /v/, /p/, and /ŋ/. O'Connor (2003) notes that the errors of pronunciation that learners of English from different language backgrounds make are systematic and not accidental. As such, he concludes that the main problem of speakers of other languages who speak English is the substitution of sounds. That is, they substitute sounds that they don't have in their native language, with other sounds which are close to them in the place of articulation. For instance, they replace /p/ with /b/ and /θ/ with /s/. In Arabic, the number of the sounds is less than the ones in English. There are 28 letters in Arabic, each of which representing only one sound. If the learner's L1 sound system does not have any of the 44 English sounds, he will face difficulty producing such a sound. For example, /ð, θ, p, v/ do not exist in Sudanese Spoken Arabic; Sudanese students pronounce them incorrectly.

Varol (2012) investigated the influence of Turkish on English learners' pronunciation. The findings of his study revealed that Turkish adult speakers of English face difficulties in

pronouncing /θ/, /ð/, /ɪ/ /ʏ/ and /æ/ as these sounds are absent in their native language. Bada (2001) also conducted a study on native language influence on the production of English sounds by Japanese learners. Bada's findings confirm that Japanese learners of English experience difficulty in pronouncing some English sounds including /l/, /r/, /θ/, /ð/, and /v/ due to L1 interference. Another study was conducted by Kwary and Prananingrum (2006), who investigated the influence of L1 on the production of L2 sounds among Indonesian university students. The findings showed that participants faced difficulties pronouncing a number of English vowels and consonants due to negative transfer. Along the same line, the results of Pal's (2013) study showed that Hindi speakers of English experience major difficulties in pronouncing /s/, /ʃ/, /z/, /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ as well as consonant clusters.

Hashim (2012) also found that among a few sounds he investigated, the pronunciation of English /d/ and /ð/ was most difficult for Java EFL learners. Similarly, Chan (2009) investigated the pronunciation problems of advanced Cantonese ESL learners in Hong Kong. The results showed that despite the fact that the participants were English majors and had studied English for at least thirteen years, they still had problems with pronouncing English sounds that did not exist in their native language. Another study on the influence of the L1 was conducted by Baloch (2013). The findings of this study showed that Arabic learners of English replace /p / with / b / as a result of interference. Since Arabic lacks the consonant /p/, speakers replace it with the closest sound in their native language, in this case, with /b/.

2.8 Conclusion

Errors serve as a subtle means of evaluation of the teaching-learning act to determine its success or otherwise. If students commit more errors during the course of or at the end of the lesson, in some aspect of the language, it shows that the objective set out by the teacher has not been achieved. On the contrary, if fewer errors are committed, the teacher is encouraged to build more on what the learners have learnt, after he/she has corrected the errors exhibited.

Therefore there is the need to consider both positive and negative influence of errors. In the literature reviewed, it came up that a lot of works has been done on the negative influence of the first language on second language acquisition. There is therefore the need to investigate and find out whether or not the Twi language has negative influence on the learning of English as a second language in terms of pronunciation.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Research can shed light on issues we did not even know (Freeman, 2011). He further stresses that research is a systematic way of asking questions we had not realised even needed. This chapter has discussed methods and procedures employed in the gathering of data for the study. The discussion focuses on the research design, data source, and population of the study, the sample size and the research site. The rest of the discussion focuses on sampling technique, data collection strategies, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The study is a case study, chosen because it enables the researcher to analyse the school's setting and the speaking of English by students in JHS 1A of T.I Ahmadiyya in Asante Mampong. Robson (1993,) states that a case study is a strategy for doing research, which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomena (p.146). The author further states that a phenomenon is seen as a process of event, persons or things of interest to the researcher, whilst a case study is a particular instance of the phenomena.

In addition, Alhassan (2006) suggests that case studies involve an intensive investigation into the complex issues that contribute to the individual or social unit, person, family, group, institution, social institution or community. This author also states that the purpose of case studies is to understand the life cycle of the unit through the study of an aspect or a part. Alhassan further notes that the greatest strength of a case study is that it allows the researcher to concentrate on a specific instance or situation and to identify the various interactive processes at work.

3.2 Population

Best and Khan (1995) observe that research population is a group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common and of interest to the researcher. It also refers to the group of interest to the researcher, the group to which they would like the results of the study to be generalized. The accessible population of this study consists of JHS 1 students and some members of staff of T.I Ahmadiyya Junior High School. The researcher chose the JHS 1 students because the final year students were busy preparing for their exam and the Second Year students know the rules and regulations of the school so they might be careful with their utterances. The best people for the research were the JHS 1 because they are new to the school and will not pretend in their pronunciation. According to Walter (1998), the advantage of drawing a small sample from a larger target population is that it saves the researcher the time and expenses of studying the entire population.

3.3 Data Source

All research studies involve data collection as posited by (Gay 1992), and are designed to either test hypotheses or answer research questions. This study aims at answering research questions with data from the basic source, students. Data were collected with observation and interview for students and teachers and a production test for reading and pronunciation of words by the student. Oral work was chosen because it is considered to be the planned language production.

3.4 Sample and sampling technique

The sample of the study comprised 30 people. It consisted of the headmaster of the school and 4 teachers (that is two males and 2 females) and 25 students who comprised boys and girls of JHS 1A. The researcher used purposive sampling method. Purposive sampling method is adopted when the respondents selected may be either judged to have certain

characteristics or more commonly those who are likely to provide the most useful information for the purpose for which the study is being done (Shughensy & Zechmeister,1990). The purpose for choosing the J.H.S 1 students as stated already is that they are new in the school and would want to talk freely without pretence like those in Second Year and Third Year.

3.5 Data Collection Strategies

The instruments used in the study are production test, interview, and observation. According to Best and Khan (1995), interview is in a sense, an oral questionnaire and its major reason is the fact that many people are willing to talk than to write. Therefore, it is envisaged that more data would be readily provided with an interview than with a questionnaire.

3.5.1 Interview

Minichiello (1990) describes an unstructured interview as an interview which neither the question nor the answer categories are predetermined. Also the unstructured interview is an interview in which the questions are not prearranged. It is seen as a face-to-face interaction between an interviewer and an interviewee. The researcher used interview because it is used to reveal information from the respondent in a more neutral environment with less attached bias from the interviewer. It also establishes good rapport between the interviewer and the interviewee. For this study, an interview with the aim of listening to students' speech was prepared for the JHS A students in the Asante Mampong T.I Ahmadiyya.

The interview schedule for the students had 10 items. It included close and open-ended items to help them express their views on problems they have in English speech. The first set of questions focused on the personal data of the students. This included their age, names, and the occupation of their parents. It also included questions about the level of education of their parents and the age at which they began speaking English. The next set of questions was specifically meant to gather information relevant for the study.

3.5.2 Production Test

A test is a standard set of questions that requires the completion of a cognitive task (MacMillan & Schumacher, 1997). This cognitive task can focus on the participants' achievement, ability, interests, attitudes, values or skills. This test can also ensure that an individual knows his or her ability to learn or choose to do. A test measures the individual's current performance. The production comprised a short reading passage with words that had the English vowels /ə/, /əʊ/, and /ə/ and the consonants /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /l/, /r/. These sounds were specifically selected to represent most English sounds that are not found in the student's first language (L1). These were also used in order to test the level of difficulty the students have in producing them. In all, 25 students took part in the production test.

3.5.3 Observation

DeWalt and DeWalt (2002) defines participant observation as the process which enables researchers to learn about the activities of the people under study in the natural setting through observing and the participation in those activities. It provides the context for development of sampling guidelines and interview guides. The researcher used observation because, it is a direct access to research phenomena, high level of flexibility in terms of application, and generating a permanent record of phenomena to be referred to later. Jarvis, Bernstein, Jain (2004) describe how this method of observation, involving a mixture of observation and interview, was developed by Piaget, as a way of trying to understand young children's thinking and reasoning. They further discussed how clinical interview were used to suggest that children believe in animism: a belief that inanimate objects are alive and can understand the children.

The students were observed during a separate English Language lesson on Reading and Comprehension, Grammar and Literature to gather information on how they use English

Language during instructional hours. Furthermore, they were being observed during break time as they engaged themselves among their various activities using English Language.

Schmuck (1997) mentioned that, observation provides researchers with ways to check for nonverbal expressions of feelings, determine who interacts with whom, grasp how participants communicate with each other and check for how much time is spent on various activities. It also allows researchers to check definitions of terms that participants use in interview. (Marshall and Rossman 1995) affirms that observation is best used in observing events that informants may be unable or unwilling to share when doing so in interview, or insensitive. DeWalt and DeWalt (2002), suggest that participant observation be used as a way to increase the validity of the study, as observation may help the researcher have a better understanding of the context and phenomena under study.

3.6 Data Collection procedures

Before administering the instruments, I sought permission from the headmaster of the school and I made my intentions (objectives) known to him. I also selected the teachers and the students who will be involved in the study. I explained to them the purpose of the study and I assured them of their protection and confidentiality. A minimum of about 5 minutes was spent on the interview where simple and straight forward questions were asked. The observation technique was employed to find out the interactions that go on between the students during the leisure time. It was also employed to find out how they participate during their English class. Kawulich (2005) also describes participant observation as a way of collecting data in qualitative research studies.

3.7 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis in research is defined as statistical and or logical techniques to describe and evaluative data. Here, were inspect, cleanse, transform and model data with the goal of

discovering useful information, informing conclusions, and support decision-making process, systematically applying phase of the study that includes, classifying. Analysis of data is one of the many forms that must be completed when conducting research. Data from the pronunciation of the students were analysed with each sound file listened to and transcribed. The responses of the interview were also transcribed and grouped to answer some of the research questions. The qualitative method was used to analyse responses from teachers and students during the interview.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the procedure adopted for the study. It discussed the design for the research, sources of data, population used, sampling and sampling technique as well as the research instruments- interview, observation and production test for collecting data and the technique used in interpreting the data. Data were analysed using the thematic approach. That is, analysis was done on the emerging themes from the data. It was done in using the qualitative method by categorizing responses in relation to the production of sounds by students.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results obtained from the analysis of data: production test, interview, and observation. This chapter is divided into two parts: the first section presents analysis of the understudied selected sounds in the English language. The results showed that first year students of Asante Mampong T.I Ahmadiyya Junior High School have difficulty in pronunciation due to numerous issues surrounding the teaching and learning of pronunciation in English. The second section presents a discussion of the causes of errors emanating from the production test. The results showed that factors that contribute to their inability to accurately pronounce English sounds include absences of sounds, spelling pronunciation and free variation of sounds.

4.1 Production Test

The researcher performed the diagnostic test to determine the students' ability to produce some of the sounds under study. It was basically used to determine students' ability to identify the sounds representing the individual letters constituting the words and being able to pronounce words as expected. The rationale for the production test was to examine students' knowledge on the production and identification of English vowels and consonants. The researcher chose this diagnostic passage (See appendix A) from Prator and Robinett (1972). Tweedy (2012, p. 35) affirms that "diagnostic passage is standardized and purposely includes a wide assortment of segmental and suprasegmental features in order to assess the full range of English language pronunciation". This particular text was selected because it contains almost all the 8 English sounds that students are expected to focus on and other words in tongue twisters selected. This enabled the researcher acquire more knowledge of students' ability to

pronounce English words with the consonants /θ, ð, l, r, v, ŋ/ and the vowels /ʊ, ə, ə, ʊ/. The meaning of the passage is also important as it teaches the need to learn a second language. With this diagnostic passage, the researcher does not expect the students to correctly pronounce all the words in it, but rather, to determine how they produce the sounds as they mostly appear problematic in the speech of English learners. The researcher expected the 25 students in this study to correctly pronounce the targeted words with the specific sounds in the words provided them under each sound. The various subsections in this chapter show the various ways the articulation of sounds was done by students.

4.1.2 Production of the English /θ/ and /ð/ consonants

Table 4.1 explains how some of the words which have the voiced and voiceless interdental fricatives found in them were produced by the students. Twenty-four (24) out of the 25 students could not produce the voiceless interdental fricative /θ/ in ‘theory’ /θɪəri/. They produced the nearest sound /t/ with only one of them correctly producing /θ/. As regards the differences in students’ learning abilities, Gilakjani (2012) argues that the ability to recognize and internalize foreign sounds may be unequally developed in different learners. The dexterity in learners accounted for one of the students being able to produce a sound which was wrongly articulated by the other 24, though they all did not receive the reserved instructions from their teacher as observed during teaching. Another significant finding about the /θ/ sound was that 22 out of 25 students substituted the voiceless dental fricative /θ/ which appears in the middle of the word *birthday* /bɛ:θdeɪ/ with /f/. The voiced interdental fricative /ð/ was also substituted with /d/ as in *that* /ðæt/ and it sounded as /dat/. In addition, the word *thing* /θɪŋ/ was pronounced as *tin* /tɪn/.

Examples of sentences made by students are as follows:

1. She has a set of white teeth /ti:t/.
2. That /dat/ is the man who killed the thief /ti:f/.

3. Swimming is the */dɛ/* best hobby.
4. *The* */dɛ/* boy called the tinker.
5. He *thinks* */tinks/* like a grown up.

In these examples, the underlined italicised words were those students had to pronounce, the transcribed ones are what they produced. Students were unable to produce the /θ/ in sentence 1. The students replaced it with the nearest sound in the Twi language, that is, the /t/ hence, their production of /ti:t/. In sentence 2, *that* /ðæt/ was pronounced as /dat/ where the /ð/ was replaced with /d/. Also, *thief* /θi:f/ was pronounced *ti:f* /ti:f/ where the /θ/ was replaced with /t/. In sentence 4 also, *the* /ði:/ was pronounced as /di/, where /ð/ was replaced with /d/. In sentence 5, *think* (θɪŋk) was produced as (tɪŋk) where the /θ/ was replaced with a /t/. In a study by Mikuláštková (2012), it was revealed that Czech speakers cope with difficulty in acquiring the sounds /θ/ and /ð/ because they do not exist in the Czech consonant system. In view of this, the speakers tend to replace the sounds with others such as /f/ or /s/ for /θ/ and /d/ or /dz/ for /ð/. Akindele (1999) also found that many Nigerian languages do not have the English interdental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ and so they tend to replace these consonants with the alveolar plosives /t/ and /d/ from their mother tongue. The findings of their study are similar to those found in the present study as students substituted all of the sounds discussed with those that were closely related to them in terms of articulation.

These sounds were found to be at the initial, media and final positions of words in English language and the students were unable to produce them at the various positions at which they occurred. This problem may have occurred as a result of the encoding and decoding errors students are facing. It can go a long way to affect academic work, since they will meet these at different levels of the educational ladder. Oral skills learnt in the Senior High School as part of West African Senior High School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) focuses much attention on the ability of the student to identify the particular sounds produced in a word.

Zhang and Yin (2009) admit that the ability to communicate effectively in English exemplifies the correctness of pronunciation and intonation and directly affects the appropriate communication in conversation. From the analysis, there is little consistency in all the production of the sounds by one particular student who had her primary education from a different school. This can be said the immense impact that the environment can have on one's ability to learn a language. The students' inability to articulate the sounds /ð/ and /θ/ confirms the argument by Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) and Bobda (2000). These authors argue that non-native speakers, for which students of T.I Ahmadiyya JHS are part, may find it difficult to produce the /θ/ and /ð/ sound since they do not have them in their L1.

Table 4.1. Production of the interdental voice and voiceless sounds

Word	Dictionary transcription	Actual pronunciation by students	Number of participants who could not produce
Theory	/θɪəri/	/tɪəri/	24
Birthday	/bɛ:θeɪ/	/bɛ:fdɛɪ/	22
That	/ðæt/	/dat/	23
Teeth	/ti:θ/	/ti:t/	24
Thief	/θi:f/	/ti:f/	24
Without	/wiθaʊt/	/widaʊt/	21
Path	/pa:θ/	/pat/	24
Those	/ðəʊz/	/dose/	23

4.1.3 Interchange of the English /l/ and /r/consonants

The alveolar approximants were used several times to check the consistency of students' ability to use the sounds. The researcher used tongue twisters to check regularity in their production of these sounds. When they were asked to pronounce the words, most of them were able to do that. Furthermore, in an attempt to read out sentences containing the same words and other words with the /l/ and /r/ sounds, they fumbled. It is well documented that Japanese English learners substitute the English /r/ and /l/ with the Japanese /l/ (Hattori & Iverson, 2009). This phenomenon, termed as negative phonological transfer, may not only cause L2 learners to have difficulties in L2 word identification and production, but also result in foreign accent as well.

Table 4.2 shows how students used the /l/ and /r/ sounds in certain words they were given to pronounce. Sixteen (16) out of the 25 students who pronounced the word *lorry* could not produce the /r/ sound; instead, they produced the /l/ sound. There were 20 students who could not pronounce the word *glow*. Out of the 12 students who could not pronounce the word *greenly*, 5 of them interchanged the /r/ with the /l/ making the word appear as *gleenly*. The remaining 7 also interchanged the /l/ with /r/ making the word appear as *greenry*. The analysis revealed that no matter where the sounds are found in words whether, at media or final positions, students are likely to interchange them. Thus, they produced the /r/ where /l/ was expected and vice-versa. In addition, Twi does not have a syllable type which has an alveolar lateral at coda position or ends with a *ly* as a suffix.

The sound /l/ which appears in collection /kələkʃən/ was produced as /kəɪkʃən/ by 15 students. Also, Sixteen (16) students pronounced *global* /gləʊbəl/ as grobal /grəʊbel/. The word *wrongly* was pronounced incorrectly by 15 students. Here, they interchanged the suffix *ly* with *ry*. The word then sounded *wrongry*. This particular error might have occurred because there are no suffixes and prefixes that end in 'ly' in Twi. The production of /l/ in the word *rural* was

another error which was rendered by 22 of the 25 students. The last word which students tried to pronounce is *berries*. Fourteen (14) out of the 25 students articulated it very well while the remaining 11 pronounced it wrongly. Context error is possible to have occurred here. Students have learnt by rote without paying much attention to the actual words found in the tongue twisters. The researcher did some tongue twisting with the students and they are as follows:

1. Red lorry, yellow lorry.
2. Celibate celebrant, celibate celebrant, celibate celebrant.
3. Rory the warrior and Roger the worrier were reared wrongly in a rural brewery.
4. Green glass globes glow greenly.
5. How many berries could a bare berry carry,

if a bare berry could carry berries?

Well they can't carry berries,

(which could make you very wary)

but a bare berry carried is more scary!

It was observed from the activity performed using the tongue twisters that students had a problem with the two sounds. Since they were not able to produce them correctly and sequentially, they could not read out the twisters well. Zsiga (2012) affirms that free variants are hard to find. As humans, we are really good at picking distinctions in speech delivery and assigning meanings to words. These sounds are free variants, and participants are likely to interchange them, resulting in such errors. Due to this, finding distinctions that are not predictable and have no shade of difference in meaning is rare. Pronunciations of sounds such as /r/ for /l/ should not surprise the teacher. These are some of those sounds that can be mastered by effort and time by often practising more tongue twisters. Though such errors do occur often, they only affect the way students speak; rarely will they transfer these errors in their writing. To confirm, the researcher gave them 5 words to write. After the checks, the researcher realized

that most of them had the words spelt correctly without interchanging the sounds like they did during the production test. Few faced such problem in their writing. Although some were able to write them correctly, they found it difficult to use in speech. Burns (2003) posits that the inability to achieve comprehensibility, intelligibility, interpretability in the pronunciation of English words during communication will make it boring to listen to such a speaker. This is because the listener would have to make efforts to understand what the speaker is trying to put across.

Table 4.2. The production of /l/ and /r/ in words by students

Word	Dictionary transcription	Actual pronunciation by students	Number of participants who could not produce
Lorry	/lɔ.ri/	/lɔle/	16
Glow	/gləʊ/	/groʊ/	20
Greenly	/'gri:nli/	/'grinri/ /'gli:nli/	7 5
Correction	/kə'rekʃn/	/kə'lɜkʃn/	19
Wrongly	/'rɒŋli/	/'rɒŋri/	15
Rural	/'rʊərəl	/'rʊələl/	22
Global	/'gləʊbəl/	/'grəʊbəl/	16
Berries	/'be.ɪs/	/'bɛlis/	11

4.1.4 Interchange of /v/ with /f/

The error regarding /v/ was also noticed. The voiced labio-dental fricative /v/ does not occur in any word in Asante Twi. As a result, Twi speakers tend to replace /v/ with the voiceless labio-dental fricative /f/. In related literature the /v/ does not exist in the Arabic sound system

(Watson 2002). It might be problematic for some Arabic speakers on relatively multiple levels. The first level is linguistic; as they either prefer resorting to the easy Arabic phoneme /f/ or are unable to pronounce /v/ and it becomes fossilized with the passage of time. The second level of difficulty it causes is semantic as in the word *vanilla*. The word /fə'nɪlə/ in colloquial Arabic means shirt. A similar problem is likely to occur in Twi because they do not have the /v/ sound in their sound system too.

Analysis from Table 4.3 shows how students used the /f/ instead of /v/ in words. A total of 18 out of the 25 students pronounced 'live' /lɪv/ as life /laɪf/. The sound was articulated as /f/ instead of the /v/. The word *live* confuses a lot of people when it appears in sentences as in *I live at Mampong* and *The football match will be telecast live*. The transcription of the word *live* in both sentences will be same, but different pronunciation and different meaning in the examples given. The students were no exception about such an error because when the sentences were given to them to read out, most of them did not know which of the pronunciations of the *live* is to be used as a result of semantic-pragmatic disorder. Florez (1999) affirms that interference or negative transfer is likely to cause errors in aspiration, intonation and rhythm in second language. This shows clearly that the way one articulates a sound may convey a different meaning to the listener. The analysis also revealed that 18 students could not pronounce *alive*. They pronounced it exactly as *live*. Again, Sixteen (16) out of 25 students were not able to pronounce the word *prove* because they articulated the /v/ as /f/ therefore the word sounded *proof*. Twelve (12) of them pronounced *shelve* wrongly producing the /v/ as /f/.

In a related study in Watson (2002), it was revealed that these sounds are not only problematic to Twi speakers but also a major problem for speakers of East Asian Languages (e.g. Korean and Japanese), as they tend to produce it as /b/. The /w/ or /f/ sound replaces the /v/ for the Cantonese and Mandarin speakers, thus failing to distinguish a number of English minimal pairs. In certain languages such as Danish and Faroese, Iceland, or Norwegian, the

voiced labio-dental fricative is in a free variation with the labio-dental approximant. It has become an error since they also speak English as their second language. It was observed that when /v/ appears in word initial, students are able to articulate it perfectly without replacing it with the /f/. It only becomes a problem when it is found at media and final positions of English word. Examples of sentences made by students are as follows:

1. The ball will be telecast *life* instead of *live*/lɪv/.
2. She is *alife*! instead of *alive* /əlaɪv/.
3. I will *proof* you wrong instead of *prove*/pɹu:v/
4. *Shelf* the books instead of *shelve*/ʃelv/
5. The woman gave the beggar a *stofe* instead of *stove* /stəʊv/.

In the sentences, the sound /v/ was replaced with a /f/ when sentences were read. Wrong manner of articulation of a consonant causes a change in the meaning of that word. Understanding sentences may be difficult if sounds are not articulated well for words to be produced. Akpanglo-Nartey (2008) notes that a change in consonant sound brings about a change in meaning. Burns and Claire (2003) also attest that it is very important that speakers of English achieve intelligibility.

Table 4.3. Replacements of /v/ with /f/ in words

Word	Dictionary transcription	Actual pronunciation by students	Number of participants who could not produce
Shelve	/ʃelv/	/ʃelf/	12
Prove	/pɹu:v/	/pɹu:f/	16
Alive	/əlaɪv/	/əlaɪf/	18
Live	/lɪv/	/lɪf/	18
Oven	/ʌ.vn/	/ofɪn/	10
Calve	/ka:v/	/ka:f/	18
Calvin	/'kælvɪn/	/'kalfɪn/	15

4.1.5 Conflation of the English monophthongs /o/ and diphthong /əʊ/

The vowel /əʊ/ is a diphthong with its final position as that of a close-mid back rounded vowel /o/. It is likely if a sound is not in the sound system of the L1 speaker, they may replace it with one that is close. The /əʊ/ posed articulation difficulty to all the 25 students. A careful analysis of Table 4.4 shows that all the students' used /o/ instead /əʊ/ in *toast* /təʊst/. Similarly, 22 students replaced /əʊ/ with /o/ in *cockroach* /kɒkrəʊʃ/ while three did not attempt at all. The word *know* was articulated wrongly by all the 25 students. Surprisingly, most of the teachers pronounced it the same way as the students did. The students had problem in perceiving the sounds which do not exist in their native language and thus they conflated those sounds with the nearest equivalents. The /əʊ/ phoneme was replaced with /u/ and /o/ in most of their words that they pronounced. While most of the replacements were interpreted in terms of native-language influence, some were believed to have stemmed from an interlingual strategy which involves phonetic complexity of some particular spelling characters. Howell (2004), confirms that the presence of phonetically complex content words requires an additional time to prepare so as to avoid stuttered speech. Examples of such words produced by students are as follows:

1. She went to see the doctor due to a severe *throat* pain.
2. The ship *floats* on the surface of the sea.
3. She will *go* to the market tomorrow.
4. *Throw* the ball
5. I *know* him very well.

The words in italic in the sentences above were pronounced wrongly by replacing /əʊ/ with /o/ because students are not familiar with such a sound in their local dialect. A cross check was done in other classes and it was observed that most students, and not only those under study, have similar problem. It can be argued that though they produce these sounds wrongly in their speech, they do not transfer it onto their writing. In Ghana, intelligence is rated through

fluency more than written work. We write less and speak more. According to the National Early Literacy Panel (NELP, 2008), the early writing of children later predicts their reading ability. The more they write, the more they will be motivated to read. This could only be done when one is conversant with the sounds found in the local dialect and that of the second language. Reading becomes easy when one is able to pronounce words.

Table 4.4. Conflation of /o/ and /əʊ/ in words

Word	Phonetic transcription	Actual pronunciation by students	Number of participants who could not produce
Throat	/θrəʊt/	/θrɔt/	25
Float	/fləʊt/	/flo:t/	25
Throw	/θrəʊ/	/tro: /	25
Tomorrow	/tə'mrəʊ/	/tumoɪə/	25
Know	/nəʊ/	/no/	25
Toast	/təʊst/	/to:st/	25
Cockroach	/kɒkrəʊtʃ/	/kokrotʃ/	25

4.1.6 Non-reduction of English sounds

One of the important problems faced by students of English in general is that each English vowel sound has more than just one pronunciation. This poses many difficulties to the learners and leads them to mispronunciation. Cruttenden (1994) notes that the main difficulty for all those whose own languages have a less complex vowel system lies in the establishment of the qualitative oppositions. Instead of using the precise quality and quantity of a sound, the

learner incorrectly changes either the quality or the quantity of the sound. English schwa vowel is a sound that has a number of replacements when it occurs in Akan loanwords. The schwa is the mid central vowel, and like other vowels, its precise quality varies depending on the adjacent consonants.

In most native varieties of English, schwa occurs almost exclusively in unstressed syllable. There is also an open central unrounded vowel or the long schwa represented as /ɜ:/ which occurs in stressed syllables in some non-rhotic dialects, as in *bird* and *alert*. Sometimes the schwa is used for any epenthetic vowel, but other languages use different epenthetic vowels. For instance, Navajo uses /i/ to represent the schwa. Welsh uses /y/ to represent schwa. In Welsh, /y/ represents the schwa in all the positions expect in word final where /ɪ/ or /i/ are used. Quite a few languages have a sound similar to schwa. In most dialects of Russian an unstressed /a/ or /e/ may be pronounced as a schwa. Languages that replace the schwa with other sounds are Catalan, Azerbaijani, Dutch, Romanian, and Malay. A similar observation is made in Twi, where no vowel is reduced to the schwa, unlike in English.

Analysis from Table 4.5 describes the different ways students used the schwa. Students pronounced *welder* /weldə(ɪ)/ as /welda/ where they replaced /ə/ with /a/. The use of /a/ was present in the pronunciation of *shoulder* /'ʃəʊldə/ as well as *lawyer*. The /ɔ/ was used instead of the /ə/ in the word *supply*. All 25 students could not produce any of the 5 words that were presented to them using the schwa. Surprisingly, they produced the words by replacing /ə/ with the nearest sounds. The following examples present instances of the non-reduction of the vowels /a/ and /ɔ/. The transcriptions show how the words were pronounced.

1. My father is a *welder* /welda/.
2. *Either* /i:ða/ you eat I will beat you.
3. The *soldier* /sɔdʒa/ came for his gun.
4. Give me a little *powder* /pɔ:da/.

5. He is a *lawyer* /lɔːjə/

As said earlier there are a number of substitutions of the /ə/ when it comes to loanwords in Twi. The examples below show how they replaced the schwa with the back half-open vowel /ɔ/ and the front half-open unrounded vowel /ɛ/.

Table 4.5a. Non-reduction of /ɔ/ and /ɛ/ to /ə/

Twi	English	Word
/gàlɔ̀n̄/	/gælən/	Gallon
/kɔ̀mpɔ̀tɔ̀tá/	/kəmpju:tə/	Computer
/hándɔ̀rɛ̀dì/	/hʌndrəd/	Hundred
/pírɛ̀sídɛ̀ntì/	/prezɪdənt/	President
/sékéĩn/	/sekənd/	Second

Table 4.5b. Production of /ə/ by students

Word	Phonetic transcription	Actual pronunciation by students	Number of participants who could not produce
Welder	/wɛldə(ɪ)/	/wɪldə/	25
Shoulder	/ʃəʊldə/	/ʃɔʊldə/	25
Lawyer	/lɔːjə(ɪ)/	/lɔːjə/	25
Either	/iːð.ə(ɪ)/	/iːdə/	25
Powder	/'paʊ.dəɪ/	/'paʊdə/	25
Film	/fɪlm/	/fɪlm/ /fɪlɪm/	12 13
Supply	/sə'plai/	/sɔ'plai/	25

4.1.7 Substitution of English /ɔ/ for /ɒ/

The back rounded vowel is a type of vowel used in many spoken languages including English. Acoustically, it is a near-open or near-low back rounded vowel. In related studies, Lindsay (2013) writes that the contemporary Standard Southern British accent lacks /ɒ/, having replaced it with the more common /ɔ/ that is found in Australia, New Zealand and Scottish English. Basically, the absence of this sound lets the speakers of that particular language substitute it with the nearest sound for easiness. Speakers of Twi tend to replace this with /ɔ/ which may sound similar to that of /ɒ/. Not only in Twi does this happen, a lot of languages also do same where there is an absence of the /ɒ/ sound. Languages like Dutch, Danish, and Catalan replace it with /a/, /ɔ/ or /o/.

Table 4.6 is an indication that some of the students replaced the English open back rounded vowel /ɒ/ with the back half-open rounded vowel /ɔ/. This is because /ɒ/ is not found in Twi therefore speakers replaced it with a familiar sound which is closer to the /ɒ/. It was observed that the teachers themselves cannot articulate this very well. They lack the basics and therefore, are not able to help students produce them. Teachers set as role models for the students in diverse ways. Students believe that whatever the teacher says is the ultimate and so they are convinced and feel confident using them.

A crucial look at the Table 4.6 shows that students are unable to articulate /ɒ/. Each word was produced wrongly by all the 25 participants indicating a great record of an error here. This could have come up as a result of inconsistency of either the English vowel or encoding and decoding errors.

Table 4.6. Substitution of /v/ with /ɔ/

Word	Phonetic transcription	Actual pronunciation by students	Number of participants who could not produce
Cot	/kɒt/	/kɔt/	25
Caught	/kɒt/ /k ^h ɔt/	/kɔt/	25
On	/ɒn/	/ɔ:n/	25
Sorry	/sɒri/	/sɔri/	25
Gone	/gɒn/	/gɔn/	25
Bomb	/bɒm/	/bɔ:m/	25
Lot	/lɒt/	/lɔt/	25

4.1.7 Interchange of /ŋ/ and /n/ consonants

The use of the voiced velar nasal /ŋ/ in English does not occur in many languages of the European, Middle Eastern and Caucasian Languages, but it is extremely common in Australia Aboriginal languages (Anderson, 2008). While almost all languages have /m/ and /n/, /ŋ/ is usually rare. Only a half of 469 languages surveyed in Anderson (2008) had a velar nasal phoneme; as a further curiosity, a large proportion of them limits its occurrence to the syllable coda. Millin (2011) explains that Czech speakers usually become confused about this phenomenon. In many languages that do not have the velar nasal as a phoneme it occurs as an allophone of /n/ before a velar consonant.

The velar nasal sound can be found in word medial and final but not initial in English language. On the other hand, in Twi, they occur as a prefix in word-initial position. Students replaced /ŋ/ with the nearest sound /n/ since they were unable to articulate it well. Furthermore, the sounds which take /ŋ/ in Twi such as ŋkwan (soup), ŋgo (oil), and ŋkɔ (don't go) are all produced as the /n/ sound. Hence, the transfer of this process into the English. These errors

may have occurred due to interference or content learning errors. Analysis of Table 4.7 shows how the /ŋ/ sound is occasionally replaced with /n/. All the 5 words given to students were not pronounced as such by all 25 of them.

Table 4.7. Words showing the replacement of /ŋ/ with /n/

Word	Phonetic transcription	Actual pronunciation by students	Number of participants who could not produce
Dancing	/'dɒ:nsɪŋ/.	/ dɑnsɪn/	25
Sing	/sɪŋ/	/sɪng/	25
Bring	/ bɪŋ/	/brɪng/	25
pink	/pɪŋk/	/pɪnk/	25
Ring	/ɪŋ/	/rɪng/	25
King	/kɪŋ/	/kɪn/	25

There were several new findings of pronunciation errors of the students, possibly resulting from the influence of Asante Twi in this study.

4.1.8 Omission of grammatical endings

Omission is when something has not been included or has not been done, either deliberately or accidentally. When the structure of one language (L1) is different from that of the L2, speakers are likely to carry those structures into the L2. Hsieh, Leonard and Swanson (1999) argue that grammatical omission is attributed to factors such as relative semantic salience or distinctions between lexical and functional categories. There were three types of grammatical endings noticed under this subheading. These are grammatical endings of third person singular, plural form and past tense. There was a trend of not adding the 's' to verbs in the third person singular form in the simple present tense and without the 's' for the nouns in the third person plural form. Ten (10) out of the 25 students omitted the final fricative /s/ in

'eats' /ɪ:ts/ which represents grammatical endings of third person singular. Overgeneralization of rules may be the cause of such an error. Twi does not pay much attention to the addition of the 's' in the third person singular form of verbs. The following sentences were captured from speeches they made.

1. He *eat* every day.
2. The cat *like* to catch mouse.
3. Adamu *beat* his wife on the slightest thing she does.
4. My father *grow* maize at our village.
5. Mary *look* beautiful in her outfit.

In the examples, students have omitted the 's' which makes the verbs (words in italics) in each sentence appear in the third person singular form. The fact that Twi does not make use of subjects agreeing with their verbs tends to interfere with their speech in English. Participants found nothing wrong in producing such sentences. Further investigations showed that they commit the same errors in their composition work. The knowledge acquired by learners in their L1 will help them to learn most of the things in English with ease. In line with this claim, Sharkey (2002) observes that similar features in the learner's L1 and the target language facilitate easy learning while dissimilar features pose difficulty to the learner. McCarthy and Prince (2004) observe that phonological constraints can determine the linear order of morphemes and morpheme parts. That implies that not only segments of morphemes but the morphological structure itself can be phonologically determined. Examples of sentences written by students are as follows:

Column A

1. Kofikɔ sukuu dabiara.
2. ɔmo kɔ sukuu dabiara
3. Yɛkɔ sukuu anɔpa.
4. Mama no didi anɔpa biara.
5. Sukuufɔɔ no didi mprensa dabiara.

Column B

- Kofi *go* every day.
- They *go* to school every day.
- We *go* to school in the morning.
- The woman *eat* every morning.
- The students *eat* three times in a day.

From Examples 1-3 in column A, it was observed that the *kɔ* (*go*) is used for all the subjects, whether singular or plural, or first, second or third person in Twi. These structures are likely to be used when producing the same sentences in English as seen in column B. Students sometimes forget to add the third person singular marker ‘s’ to verbs when using them to agree with their singular noun counterparts in a sentence. Example 1 should have ‘s’ added to the verb to agree with the subject. Also, Examples 4 and 5 in column A used the verb *didi* (*eat*). The woman (singular noun) should have ‘s’ added to the verb ‘eat’ to read ‘eats’ as seen in column B. The context of learning where students learn by rote without understanding the rules and structures in both languages may be the cause of such errors.

Furthermore, omission of the plural marker ‘s’ occurred in ‘oranges’ /ɔ.ɪɪndʒɪz/. The ‘s’ takes three forms depending on the environment in which it is found. It can be a /s/, /z/ or /ɪz/. Twelve (12) out of the 25 students omitted the /ɪz/ in oranges. It can be argued that students find it difficult adding plural markers ‘s’ or ‘es’ to regular nouns in English due to some interference they are likely to have encountered or the overgeneralization of rules. In Twi, the plural is marked through the use of prefixes, suffixes or a combination of prefixes and suffixes (Agyekum, 2010; Dolphyne, 2008). Nouns with /e, ɛ, ɔ, o, i/ prefixes in the singular form mostly take ‘a’ plural prefix. Examples like *ɛdan* will be *adan* and not *adans* (*houses*) as one of the students wrote to show plurality in their lexis and structure lessons in Twi.

Plural is marked by adding the prefix or suffix, ‘foɔ’, ‘nom’ and or m. Words like, *nnanom*, *maninfoɔ*, *mma*, *marima*, and *akyerɔkyerɔfoɔ* depict how plural is formed in Twi. A student overgeneralized this rule by forming the plural of *man* as *mens*. The notion of *boy* becoming plural by the addition of ‘s’ is perceived to have caused the child writing *mens* as the plural for *man* even though man is an irregular noun. It was observed that a particular student was familiar with the addition of the plural marker ‘s’ to form regular plural nouns. Furthermore, some nouns do not take plural makers in Twi. On the other hand, the English language has its rules of pluralising all nouns. Examples of sentences from the data collected are shown as follows:

Column A	Column B
1. He brought the <i>oranges</i> yesterday.	ɔde <i>anaka</i> no baa ɔnora.
2. Bring the <i>books</i> !	Fanwoma no bra!
3. She has eaten all the <i>mangoes</i> .	Wadi amango no nyinaa.
4. He brought the <i>pencils</i> .	ɔde twerɛdua no baeɛ.
5. I love <i>pineapples</i> .	Mepe abrobe.

The italicised words under ‘B’ will still have their plurals with no markers attached or changing their form to make them plural. Two of the students omitted the plural marker ‘es’ in Example 3 in column A. The ‘all’ serving as a quantifier in this sentence needs a noun to make it plural. The ‘nyinaa’ in column B could probably be said of indicating something more than one. On the other hand a marker can never be added to the ‘amango’, twerɛdua, abrobe and nnwoma to make it plural. The following findings drew the researcher’s attention to the fact that students’ causes of errors are as a results of lots of reasons.

Twi is a tone language, which means that the meaning of a word in Twi depends not only on the form of which the word is made of, but also on the relative pitch on which each syllable of the word is pronounced (Dolphyne, 2008). The syllable is the tone bearing unit in

Akan (Twi and Fante), and it is therefore important to determine what constitute a syllable in the language (Dolphyne, 2008). We have the high tone which is said on a relatively high pitch and the low tone which is said on a relatively low pitch. The use of tone brings about a change in meaning in words in Akan. Twi does not have a syllable that ends in a consonant, that is, there are no VC and CVC syllables. Every final consonant constitutes a separate syllable with a tone on its own (Dolphyne, 2008). English, on the other hand, utilises stress, pitch, intonation and duration. The use of tone by Twi speakers does have a great impact when it comes to pronunciation. As I observed students read, I realised that they were using the high and low intonation wrongly because, statements and questions were read the same way using the same intonation. This may be because they have transferred the way Twi uses tone to depict emphasis into the English language.

4.1.9 Summary

The findings from the present study reveal the way production of the selected sounds. In many countries where the number of ESL learners is increasing at a fast rate, the demand for teachers and researchers is increasing as well. Thus, insights into variability in interlanguage are vital for them. Especially when it comes to pronunciation, the degree of pronunciation accuracy varies considerably depending on learners. In order to fully understand the L2 sound system, it is necessary to consider, mother tongue, learner-related and environment-related factors. Indeed, the finding suggests that the mother tongue has got a lot of influence on the proficiency level of the student.

4.2 Causes of errors

First language interference occurs when rules from the native language affect the second language. It is a popular belief that first language has an effect on the second language acquisition, and it is claimed that L1 can interfere with the acquisition of L2. It is also believed

that the role of L1 in L2 depends on some similarities and differences between the two languages. The pronunciation difficulties students' face could be as a result absence of sounds, spelling error and free variation of words.

4.2.1 Absence of sounds

The absence of some sounds in Twi affords students opportunity to produce other sounds that are closer to those absent. Twi speakers replace /ð/ and /θ/ with /d/ and /t/ respectively. Students had this to say during an interview:

A: Everybody has a different way of pronouncing words that is why sometimes we don't pronounce some words well.

B: We are comfortable expressing ourselves in the local language than English.

From the interview, the absence of some sounds give room for different pronunciation to be made. In 'A', for instance, the student confirmed that she does not always pronounce words as others do, simply because, she chooses the sound that she thinks she is familiar with and capable of producing. This definitely makes pronunciation differ from another person's. Evidence from the observation to confirm is when the student pronounced the word /kokrɔf/ instead of /kɔkrɔf/. In 'B' because of the absence of sounds in the L1, they would feel uncomfortable producing words like the native speaker. Due to this discomfort, they prefer to speak the local language to ease them from discomforts. An observation in a comprehension class revealed the production of sounds by the students on /θ/ and /ð/ sounds. Words like that /ðæt/ and both /bəuθ/ were produced as /dat/ and /boat/. They produced the following utterances in class:

A: Boat of you should leave the class. instead of Both of you should leave my class.

B: What is dat you have in your bag? instead of What is that you have in your bag?

The examples show how students produced the /ð/ and /θ/ in words using /d/ and /t/. In 'A', the student wanted to produce both (as a quantifier) but wrong articulation changed the word to

boat (a craft for transportation). In ‘B’ though the word ‘dat’ could be seen as a slang form of ‘that’ it is not accepted in formal writing. If a student continues to pronounce it as such it could affect his or her spelling when writing.

4.2.2 Spelling pronunciation

Spelling pronunciation is the pronunciation of words according to its spelling. Spelling pronunciation may occur in languages in which most people obtain only enough education to learn how to read and write but not enough to understand when spelling fails to indicate the pronunciation. In English a word like ‘island’/aɪlənd/ would be pronounced as /island/ due to how it has been spelt. In Twi, dua ‘palnt’ which could be a verb or noun depending on the syntactic form can cause spelling pronunciation. An observation gave an evident when a student read the following sentences;

- a) Ǿuá no abu. The tree has fallen
 b) Ǿuà aburo no. Plant the maize

The examples were seen as an error because the student used the low tone for ‘dua’ which made it sound like the verb ‘plant’. Literally, the sentence sounded ‘plant’ (verb) is fallen. In the other sentence, the high tone was used to pronounce the word ‘dua’. The ‘dua’ in the second sentence is referring to ‘plant’ (verb form) but the pronunciation made it sound to be in the noun form ‘plant’. An observation of a comprehension lesson revealed that students commit errors in pronunciation as a result of their mother tongue influence. For example, these words were pronounced during their comprehension lessons;

- A. /kərekt/, /kələkt/ (correct, collect)
 B. /brɪŋk/, /blɪŋk/ (brink, blink).
 C. /pɹæŋk/, /plænk/ (prank, plank)

The examples show how the spelling pronunciation can bring about change in meaning. During an observation in a grammar class the following views of evidence were gathered:

A. Give that one /weɪ/ on the table.

B. My mother bought salmon /salmon/.

In Example 'A', the 'one' should have been pronounced as /wʌn/ but the student pronounced the word with stress and a careful articulation, which produced /eɪ/. Salmon should have been produced as /sæmon/ where the 'l' is silent. Due to the presence of the 'l' sound the students occasionally pronounced it as salmon. Some more evidence from an observation in a comprehension class was when a teacher produced debris /'dɛb.i:./ as /'dɛb.rɪs/. In another instance, a teacher said *Bring out the books from the cupboard/cupboard/*. In this particular sentence the teacher produced all the sounds found in the words instead of pronouncing it as /'kʌbəd/ where the 'p' is silent. From the observation, it sounds convincing that students do learn a lot from their teachers as their role models. They produced the sounds exactly as the teacher did.

4.2.3 Free variation

When two or more sounds or forms appear in the same environment without a change in meaning without being considered incorrect by native speaker, free variation is said to have occurred. Cruttenden (2014) argues that when the same speaker produces different pronunciations of a word, the different realizations of the phonemes are said to be in free variation. The word *Economics* may be pronounced with /i/ or /ɛ/ as the first syllable; although individual speakers may prefer one or the other one may be more common in some dialects than the other. In Twi, these words are in free variation 'awareɛ', 'awaleɛ', 'awadeɛ'. There is no change in meaning in these words; just that one sound has been replaced with another. In their production test students produced these words:

/pɪeɪ/, /pleɪ/ (pray, play)

/brɛd/, /bled/ (bread, bled)

/fraɪ/, /flaɪ/ (fry, fly)

/ə'laɪv/, /ə'raɪv/ (alive, arrive)

An observation made revealed the following utterances produced by the students. All the underlined words were articulated wrongly.

1. The boy prayed the football instead of The boy played the football.
2. I have done my collection instead of I have done my correction.
3. We eat flutes after every meal instead of We eat fruits after every meal.
4. The room is dark, put on the right instead of The room is dark, put on the light.

Analysis of the observation showed clearly that the mother tongue has affected the students in the L2 pronunciation, making communication difficult since a change of a consonant sound brings about a change in meaning. From Sentence 1, the underlined word was articulated wrongly. The students wanted to use the word *play* (to participate in a sport), but wrong articulation has changed the meaning to *an act of showing reverence to your object of worship* (pray). Although both words are functioning as verbs in the sentence, each has its meaning. In Sentence 2, the underlined word is referring to a set of items or the activity of collecting (taking something from someone). Wrong articulation has resulted in the word losing its meaning. The student meant to use *act of correcting a mistake*. Both words are functioning as nouns but each has its own meaning, so they can never replace each other.

Also in Sentence 3, the underlined word does represent a wind instrument which is not food, therefore cannot be eaten. This is a pure spelling error due to wrong articulation of the /θ/ sound. A look at sentence 4, the underlined word implies something that is accurate, just or correct and not a source of illumination. It might have occurred through pragmatic errors. From the observation, it was shown clearly that the academic work of students were affect because the problem of pronunciation has caused a lot of spelling errors in their writing which makes them score low grades in their work. While free variation is allowed in Twi to interchange the sounds /l/ and /r/, it is not allowed in English. From the observation in a literature class, it was

realised that students were not able to produce some sounds in words like *glared*, *furiously*, *sullen*, and *flung* correctly. Instead, they pronounced them as *grared*, *furiousry/ fulioully*, *surren*, *correctry*. These examples are seen as errors because they are accepted in Twi as free variation but not in English.

Summary

The above causes have great effect in the fluency and accuracy levels of the child since they go hand-in-hand. In the same way, it affects their academic work since spelling errors will be made. It is therefore necessary for teachers of English to put into consideration these causes and attend to them to minimize implications that may arise.

4.3 Conclusion

In this chapter data was analysed based on the test instrument used to collect data. The research instruments comprised production test, observation and interview. It was revealed from the analysis that students have a problem in pronouncing words with the English sounds /θ/, /ð/, /ə/, /əʊ/, /v/, /v/, /l/ and /r/. The results reflect the difficulties students have and also serve as a layout to improve the teaching and learning of English pronunciation in schools. The results also revealed that the reasons students make certain constructions in the English language is the interference of the native language.

Twenty-four (24) students substituted the /ð/ and /θ/ with /d/ and /t/ respectively representing 96%. A massive recording of error was on the /əʊ/, /ŋ/, /ə/ and /v/ sounds. It was realised that none of the 25 students could articulate these sounds correctly representing 100%. In addition, the vowels /v/, /ə/ and /əʊ/ were substituted with /a/, /ε/, /o, ɔ/ respectively. The findings of the study revealed that only one student representing 4% could produce /ð/ and /θ/ sounds. The errors came up as a result of absence of sounds, spelling pronunciation and free variation of words in the L1. The absence of sounds revealed the wrong way students produce

words and how they transfer it into their writing. The use of /l/ and /r/ may bring about intelligibility issues. The difficulty level in understanding utterances becomes high because the exact words needed are mispronounced. Lastly, spelling pronunciation causes students to commit lots of errors in their writing due to the fact that they spell the word the way they produce the sounds.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the summary of the findings of the research presented and analysed in chapter four. Furthermore, it discusses the conclusions from the findings. The analysis begins with an overview of the summary of findings from Chapter 4. In addition, the role of the L1-induced pronunciation errors in English teaching and learning are also discussed. The chapter also outlines some pedagogical implications per the findings of study. Suggestions for future research is very essential in any research work, and so are also suggested. The chapter ends with recommendations for improving the teaching and learning of pronunciation from the early stages of a child's academic life and also suggests recommendations for stakeholders.

5.1 Summary of findings

The findings support the notion that students of T.I Ahmadiyya Junior High School, Asante Mampong, are unable to articulate the sounds /θ/, /ð/, /v/, /ə/, /əʊ/, /ɒ/, /r/ and /l/. As a result of this, they tend to substitute these sounds with /t, d, f, a, o, ɔ or a, l, and r/ respectively. The main research tools employed in the study were diagnostic test, observation and interview. The data presentation and analysis revealed some findings about the teaching of pronunciation. The following is the summary of the findings:

The production test revealed that a greater number of students had much difficulty articulating the sounds. Many of them could not completely pronounce a single word out of the target words in the diagnostic test, while others also correctly pronounced few. From the presentation and analysis of the data on the production test, it was revealed that students did not perform well in the test that required the appropriate pronunciation of words. The performance of students in the production test was an indication that the students had major

problems articulating the consonants / ð, θ, ŋ/ and the vowels /ə, əʊ, ɒ/ both in words and in isolation. Rather, they substituted the sounds /ð, θ, ŋ/ with /d, t, n/ respectively; /ð/ with /d/ at word initial or /f/ at word final as in *deaf* instead of *death*, /ŋ/ with /n/, at word initial, medial and at final.

The findings revealed that only one student representing 4% of the 25 students could articulate /θ/ and /ð/ in words. All 25 students representing 100% could not produce /ə, əʊ, ɒ/. The findings also suggest that some of the chosen sounds do not exist in the students' L1. Hence, that could account for their inability to articulate them. It was also found that some students were inconsistent in pronouncing some words because they could not identify certain sounds in same positions in those words. For instance, a student could not pronounce *birthday* /'be:θdeɪ/. It was realized that some of the problems resulted from the way teachers pronounce words with these sounds. Further revelation from the diagnostic test showed that some of the students tried to pronounce words as they have been spelt and this resulted in the wrong representation of those sounds.

The responses from students revealed some of the causes of the interference of L1. The absence of some sounds in the L1 made them produce different sounds that they are familiar and comfortable with. Another cause of the error is spelling pronunciation in English and free variation in Twi. Chen and Chang (2004) theorizes there are a variety of reasons which may cause Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) like the fear of making mistakes, inadequate practice and confidence, as well as low English proficiency level. While speaking in front of a class, many of L2 learners appear weak and unsatisfied and suffering from Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA). English instructors should therefore not hesitate to help enhance learners' awareness of their anxiety.

To achieve this, instructors can build a relaxed atmosphere while learners practise oral communication. This is because mood is an influential factor on speaking anxiety. Designing

some classroom activities such as role-playing and conversation partners could also be useful ways to reduce learners' anxiety. Chen-Chang (2004) again reminds English instructors that developing different strategies for different English proficiency levels to help learners address Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) is essential.

The research has also revealed the use of plural marker was identified with regard to pronunciation. Twi does not pay much attention and does not consider the plural marker at all. Words which need to be marked as plural are left without adding the plural maker the way it is done in English. Due to this, in English, where a student needs to add the maker, s/he refuses and pronounces the word without it. This interference has affected the grammatical constructions of students in terms of using plural markers. Moreover, there is another pronunciation error that is interfering in students writing: the use of the third person singular. Twi does not consider the subject-verb agreement in sentences made. In Twi, all persons take the same verb, whether first, second, third, singular or plural nouns or pronouns. The examples students produced attest to this fact that consideration is not given to subjects and the particular verb they are to move with.

To sum up, the interference of L1 sounds discussed will affect students if not attended to. At their level, the sounds have been registered already in the language acquisition device. The only thing that could be done is to motive students more to adjust to it once they have been introduced to. If not to pronounce it as the native speakers of English, they will be closer to their pronunciation. Tanner (2012) notes that a child who is motivated to learn a language learns best or will acquire it better than one without motivation.

5.2 The role of L1-induced pronunciation errors in English teaching and learning

Errors are used by teachers all over the world as tools which help to recognise what the learners have already mastered or what issues or structures remain problematic to them. Also, pedagogically speaking, researchers use errors in order to examine the ways in which the

languages are learnt. In addition, they are helpful in the process of self-correction, when learners are to discover the rules of language they are learning by themselves by obtaining feedback on their errors. Lastly, the appearance of errors in language production is a proof that the language is being learnt by the learner. Errors may have a positive impact on one's second language learning as long as they are not fossilised. It is important to become aware that errors are not the failure in L2, but, if used right, they bring a positive effect on the process of self-correction, acknowledging the rules of language, and can become helpful in L2.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

The findings of this study have implications for theoretical development and practical applications. In considering the theoretical development, research should be conducted into the English books that have been recommended by Ghana Education Service (GES) to find out how much the teaching of pronunciation is included in these books. The study was limited to only some selected sounds but the research revealed other difficulties students had. This difficulty has to do with the omission on grammatical endings 's', where 10 students representing 40% omitted it to mark the plural of a noun.

In terms of practical applications, the findings of this study can act as an intelligible model to assist both learners and teachers in English language learning and teaching. Firstly, it can assist learners who may not realize the extent to which the absence of certain sounds in their L1 can affect their articulation of sounds in English. This will help them be aware of such difficulty and to make conscious effort to overcome it. Secondly, it may allow teachers to obtain an awareness of the likely problem to incur when some sounds in English are not found in the learners L1. As a result of this, they will be able to strategize their teaching to cater for such anomalies. Teachers can also apply the recommended strategies in teaching pronunciation for good results by engaging students in more speech work.

5.4 Suggestions for future research

The present study dealt with the interference of most of the L1 sounds on L2 which cause wrong articulation of sounds. This is a very sensitive part in the learning of the second language. Although a lot has been done about the interference of the Twi sounds on English, improvement of the study is still possible by researching other areas with regard to this study. That future researchers showing interest in oral English should consider looking into places of articulation of consonants and vowel sounds. Future research work will have to look at what approaches or methods would be adopted in teaching pronunciation in Ghanaian Junior High Schools. Finally, the communicative approach, a modern approach of language teaching, and the integrated approach seem to have been abandoned by many teachers of English. That is, it has been relegated to the background.

5.5 Recommendations

Having considered the findings of the research, it is necessary that some conditions are made to address the problems with the hope that solutions will be found to help improve the teaching of pronunciation at the JHS level. The following are recommended by the researcher:

1. In-service training should be organised by GES for teachers to help them improve upon their ability in the teaching of pronunciation. If a teacher is able to pronounce words well, he or she would be able to identify the errors made by students and correct them. Children learn through imitation, as teachers speak, they imitate their way of pronunciation.
2. In addition, teachings aids are very necessary when it comes to teaching. Audio-visuals and visual aids are to be made available in schools to help teachers use them during English pronunciation lessons. The Ghana Education Service must take it upon itself to provide necessary materials for students and teachers to enhance proper pronunciation.

3. During pronunciation lessons, students must take active part. They must be encouraged to use English language more often especially when they are in school. Frequent use of the language, will help identify students' problems. The innate theory talks about the built-in-ability to learn language in every individual. For a child to be able to learn any language, teachers must focus on communication rather than memorization the rules of the language.
4. Each school must have a library which is well stocked with books for students to read. Students should also be encouraged to make reading a habit. If reading becomes a habit, acquisition of vocabulary and their usage becomes interesting. At the library, people who are equipped with the sounds of the English alphabet must be employed to assist students when they go there to read. The more we are able to read, the better we write.
5. Finally, teachers of English should not delink the teaching of pronunciation from the other aspects of English. All aspects of the language should be incorporated when it comes to teaching of the language.

5.6 Conclusion

The difficulty of students articulating some specific sounds in English resulted in their inability to accurately pronounce words with those sounds. One cannot perform well in the use of English both in reading and communicating without having much knowledge of the English sounds. The teacher should therefore incorporate pronunciation into English lessons but should not think that students will pick it up naturally.

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APPENDIX A

Production Test Passage

If **English** is not your native language, people may **have** noticed that you come from another country because of your foreign accent. “Why do people usually **have** an accent when they speak a **second** language? Several **theories** address this **issue**. Many people **believe** that only young children can learn a **second** language **without** an accent, but applied linguists **have** reported cases of older individuals who **have** mastered a **second** language **without** an accent. Another common **belief** is that your first language influences your pronunciation in a **second** language. Most native speakers of **English** can, for example, recognize people from France by their France accents. They may also be able to identify **Spanish** or Arabic speakers **over** the **telephone**, just by listening to their pronunciation.

Does **this** mean that accents can't be changed? Not at all! But old **habits** won't change **without** a lot of hard work, will they? In the end, the **path** to learning to speak a **second** language **without** an accent appears to be a combination of hard work, a good ear, and a strong desire to sound like a native speaker. You also need accurate information **about** the **English** sound system and lots of exposure to the spoken language. Will you manage to make progress, or will you just give **up**? Only time will tell, I'm afraid. Good **luck**, and don't forget to work hard!