

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE
TEACHING TODAY
(ELTT)**

**A Journal for Teachers of English and
Communication Skills**

Volume 10, Number 1

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**Volume 10, Number 1
December, 2013**

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**NATRESL
National Secretariat
Department of Communication Studies
Federal University of Agriculture
Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria**

December, 2013

ISSN: 1119-0426

**Printed by
Haytee Press and Publishing Company**
No. 2, Mejidadi St., Oja-Iya,
Ilorin, Nigeria.
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Aims

ELTT is a bi-annual journal devoted to the publication of articles, research reports and reviews on English Language Teaching for those involved in the teaching of English as second Language. It aims to:

1. Provide a forum of exchange of ideas and experiences for teachers of English.
2. Encourage teachers and researchers, publishers and writers to work together to develop teaching procedure, ideas and materials for the advancement of ELTT.
3. Promote and support research in the areas of English for Academic/Special Purposes.

Although ELTT welcomes contributions in all areas of English Language and Literature research, greater emphasis will be given to papers with strong practical classroom experience and application. Such areas may cover Needs Analysis, Course Design, Methodology, Testing, Materials Development, Programme Management, Literary studies and criticism, Teacher Training, and Evaluation.

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If you wish to make a submission to ELTT, please note the following:

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2. Send 2 copies of the article. The article can be returned to you only if you enclose sufficient postage.
3. Your article should be preceded by an abstract of not more than 200 words. On the first page, detachable from the manuscript, please type the title of the paper, your name and mailing address.
4. Book reviews of relevant and recent publications are also welcome.
5. The editors will assume that any article submitted to ELTT has neither been published nor is being considered for publication elsewhere.
6. Publication fees will be stipulated in the letter of acceptance, after review.
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Rates:

Single Individuals – ₦1500, £15, \$22

Institutions – ₦2000, £30, \$45

Volume individuals – ₦3000, £28, \$42

Institutions – ₦3000, £56, \$84

Payment: Payment may be made by the following:

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EDITORIAL

We present to the academic world *ELTT Journal*, Volume 10, Number 1 of December, 2013. It has long been due but for a long break in the annual conferences of the Association. Various bedeviling reasons are accountable, including the socio-political upheavals that have characterised the Nigerian-geo-terrestrial terrain. At the verge of postponing another annual conference due to the above, Elizade University, Ilara-Mokin, Ondo State came up to the rescue as it presented itself a venue to host the 10th International conference of the Association. As you may be aware, most of the articles for *ELTT Journal* normally emanate from such conferences, this volume inclusive.

Altogether, fifteen papers have successively undergone the scrutiny of reviewers, before making it to the publication stage. The curtain raiser is Rotimi Taiwo's English Language Teaching and the 21st Century Teacher Competencies; which indeed, was the first lead paper of the conference. 'Demola Jolayemi introduces the reader to *PRAAT*, a computer software for an acoustic analysis, and its application to the phonetics and phonology of English; while Babatunde Awe follows up with the effects of phonemic dissimilarities on Yoruba speakers of the English language. Enhancing the quality of the English language teaching, through teacher-student classroom interaction, forms the interest of Oladunni Deji-Afuye and Abioye Olowoyeye. Abolaji Mustapha affirms that code-switching, in ESL, is an innovation in English language teaching; while Olatunde Ayodabo presents a pragmatic analysis of the Yoruba greeting forms and their felicities with English.

Obiageli Nnamani's article is a field report of activities to improve reading among children through the Holy Child Club experiment. Sam. Kolo Tswanya's experimental study reports the effect of strategy intervention on oral production communication; and similarly, the experimental outcome of the relationship between reading attitudes and televiewing habit of secondary school students in Kwara State, Nigeria forms Bola Tunde-Awe's focus. The relevance of parents' involvement in students' English language learning is jointly discussed by Emesibe, U. N., B. S. Sotiloye, H. A. Bodunde, and R. A. Soyele.

Also in the journal, the corpus linguistic study of vague quantifiers of the Nigerian university inaugural lectures forms the focus of Thompson Ewata. Dare Owowlabi discusses the importance of needs analysis in the teaching of ESL and EFL, and Chinyere Egwuogu reports, from the sociolinguistic perspective, the problems of phonological skills acquisition among the undergraduates. The volume ends with the literary discourses of 'Femi 'Dunmade's electra complex phenomenon in John Updike's 'killing', and Linda Ogugua Onwuka's feministic analysis of Ayi Kwei Armah's novels.

We dare to say that this volume has adopted the eclectic approach in style and spelling, as you will come across the APA and MLA styles, as well as shades of intercontinental spellings. This is to preserve the individual contributor's originality, and to join the emerging philosophy of eclecticism in research reports and codification.

The Editorial Collective

LANGUAGE TEACHING AND THE 21ST CENTURY TEACHER COMPETENCIES

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***Introduction**

A major signal of the commitment of language teachers to their profession is their ability to invent new classroom practices and approaches to designing materials for learning in conformity with the needs of the learner at any particular point in time. This is why changes in language teaching methods over the years have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners require (Richards and Rodgers, 1995, p. 1). From the late 20th Century, the world has witnessed a great diversity in communication tools. This rapid growth and diversity in information and communication technologies (ICT) have brought about remarkable changes in the demands of modern societies. It is therefore not surprising that language teachers engage their academic minds on their competencies in the light of recent developments in the 21st century.

The Digital Revolution and ELT

The digital revolution has become a catalyst for professionals in every discipline to engage in a re-thinking of their professions. The digital/new media is a major feature of this revolution, which accommodates the creation of a knowledge-based society. It gives room for people to explore better and faster means of communication across geographical boundaries. The Internet has become an increasingly vital tool in our society. Therefore, being connected through the Internet to a network of other persons has become more critical to advancement in the society. The Internet has created a kind of brand new environment – a free, rapid and universal environment, where the widespread use of computers has fundamentally changed people's lives. Since education is not left out of this quest for advancement in profession, teachers are also affected.

Two major issues can be clearly identified in the Conference theme: English Language Teaching (henceforth ELT) and the 21st Century teacher competencies. These two concepts are clearly inter-related. English language teaching is as old as the existence of the language itself. Teachers' competence is a necessary input that determines the success of their teaching. It determines the pace of progress made in the whole process of education. According to Nwokeocha (2013), "the job of the teacher is so powerful that it can be said to be the reproduction of society. This then means a society can be only as good as its teachers." *The National Policy on Education* aptly captures this relationship between the teacher, education and the society in Section 9: 57 (of 2008 edition), where it states that "no education can rise above the quality of its teachers." It is also true that if any teaching is to be relevant and impactful, then the culture, values, norms, aspirations and hopes of the society must be factored into it. Approaches to the teaching of English language, as well as

the materials for teaching it keep changing to accommodate these societal needs, which represent, to a large extent, learners' needs for the 21st Century. One major goal that this Conference should aim at achieving is the need to ensure that teachers possess the necessary competencies that will meet the internationally acceptable ICT-aided teaching and learning practices.

As we are all aware, the new digital communication technologies affect the linguistic landscape in such a way that stakeholders in the education industry are deeply concerned about the best way to guide learners and help them to filter the flow of information they are daily exposed to. At the heart of this concern is the perceived influence that digital communication culture is having on learner competence and proficiency. Language purists are worried about the corrupting influence that digital communication culture is having on grammar and composition. These language vigilantes believe that digital communication represents a massive assault on the linguistic value system because it has consistently promoted new, radical and unconventional methods of communicating, especially among the young people that manipulate language to suit the purpose of the user. In computer-mediated communication (CMC), typography and orthography have taken over the functions of sound. Abbreviations and rebuses and alternative spellings have become the order of the day, and good spelling and grammar are no longer relevant. For the language purists, the emerging register is 'penmanship for illiterates' (Sutherland, 2002, p. 11) and a pillaging of linguistic forms.

For other scholars like Crystal (2001), Plester, Wood and Joshi (2009), the use of innovative short digital orthographic forms should not be viewed as linguistic irresponsibility, but as an avenue for children to develop their ability to consolidate their stylistic intuitions and make responsible linguistic choices. Crystal views these new typographic forms as an opportunity and not a threat, for language education (Crystal, 2001, p. 128).

The 21st Century and the Digital Generation

There are three major foundations of the 21st Century – scientific knowledge, digitalization and globalization. With the spread in scientific knowledge and flow of information, we often refer to this period as the knowledge and information age. This free flow and spread of information and knowledge is made possible by ICT. Globalization is the process of compressing the world in such a way that ideas move across international boundaries easily and faster. Space and time are gradually being abolished and in the underlying concept of McLuhan's (1964) view of electronic technology, the world has become a small space in which people can communicate quickly and know of every event that takes place (Global Village). According to McLuhan, "time has ceased and space has vanished" (1967: 63). The digital revolution of the 21st Century has succeeded in producing students, who are mostly digitally literate, whose exposure to digital communication outside the classroom impacts on their learning in the classrooms.

The major challenge of the teacher in the 21st Century is to understand the best way to teach this new generation of learners, who are described in different ways by scholars – 'the Net Generation' (Taposcott, 1998), 'digital natives' (Perensky, 2001), and 'millennial learners' (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005). These popular terms have been used to refer to current learners, born after 1982. The scholars who coined these terms argue that the immersion of these learners in technological context

influences their skills and interests in a considerable way. While this idea of digital generation of learners is partly true of Nigerian learners in the major cities, it is not true of several others who have been caught on the other side of the digital divide because of the challenges of accessibility and affordability of these new technologies.

It is however important that in addressing the topic: English language teaching in the 21st Century, our focus must be holistic. ICT is an integral part of the modern society. It is also part of the standards set by the teaching councils globally for teachers at every level of education. To stress this point, the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), the apex regulatory agency for the teaching profession has published a document called Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers in which ICT knowledge and skills is prominent. Such professional standards are expected to meet the standard of the world body, International Forum of Teaching Regulatory Authorities (IFTRA). TRCN has also endorsed an international computer basic certification course ran by Certiport, United States of America as alternative to the ICT curriculum prescriptions for teacher education in Nigeria. The curriculum covers over 80 ICT topics dealing with computer fundamentals and online applications (Nwokeocha, 2013, p. 6).

For the 21st Century generation, several notions in the language classroom practice are being redefined and these include the notions of classroom itself, course materials, library, and so forth. In the context of the emerging media, students can learn and are indeed learning as much as they want about virtually any topic outside the traditional classroom contexts. This makes learning not only more exciting and adventurous, but also more complex. English teachers therefore are faced with the challenge of understanding the nature of the emerging educational context and the new writing culture their learners are being exposed to daily. One of the most important duties of the language teacher in this Century, therefore, is to guide the learners on the disparity in the contextual and stylistic demands of language-use in virtual communication and normal daily offline communication (Taiwo, 2007, p. 244). Teachers are thus expected to unlearn some of their old teaching practices and discard them for the ones that best suit the modern-day learners' purposes. They are also to relearn how to engage new technologies in their teaching in order to prepare their learners to face real situations where language will help them to solve problems.

Technology, ELT and the 21st Century

Technology must feature heavily in any discussion of the 21st Century teaching of English. It is the driving force for virtually anything in modern times. It is the 'language' that contemporary learners speak, and the language teachers need to learn in order to take the ELT profession forward and make the education that is being delivered more relevant and engaging. The consequence of the above is that it is imperative for the teachers, who have no or limited ICT skills, to undergo training and retraining in the use of the basic computer functions such as email, search engines, and presentation software, and online teaching facilities. Recreating and retooling the teaching practice are necessary for English language teachers if they are to serve students effectively and efficiently in the 21st Century learning ecosystem.

If teachers of English are to adequately meet the learning needs of the 21st Century students, they have to engage the tools that will make learning more suitable for those Prensky (2001) refers to as 'digital natives', who are "native speakers" of the digital language of the computers, video games and the Internet. They are versed in the use of a variety of social media, such as *Facebook*, *Twitter*, *Skype*, *Yahoo Messenger*, *LinkedIn*, and *YouTube*. Many of the teachers are said to belong to the "digital immigrant" groups with different immigrant statuses – some at the early stage of migration and others at some advanced stage. For Raji-Oyelade (2012), some may even be described as "Digital Refuseniks" (those who are indifferent or who refuse to migrate). Others may be referred to as "Digital Subaltern" (those who are not capable of accessing the new language and tools of the digital age due to their low income or lack of infrastructures) (p. 9). Research has shown that technology can help to motivate learners and keep them engaged in learning; improve attainment levels and raise standards; personalize learning and give learners a voice; make difficult and abstract concepts easier to explore; save the user a lot of time and make them more efficient; and make learners partners in their formal learning (Markel, 2001; Larkin- Hein, 2001; and O'Reilly & Newton, 2002).

It is clear that the digital media is a major phenomenon that directly shapes the students' competence in English and indirectly that of the teacher in the 21st Century. The ability of the teachers to respond appropriately to the needs of the learners will be greatly determined by their understanding of what the learners are exposed to outside the classroom. This means the learners' experience outside the classroom should inform the teachers' input. English teaching has to be student-centred and more technologically dependent. Teachers need to build technological, information and media fluencies in order to match up with what appeals to their students.

The 21st Century digital culture has provided learners with the opportunity to collaborate in their personal life in a way that most teachers were not able to do when they were younger. Since digital communication has taught the students to be interactive as well as creative, the teachers must value these virtues in their students and explore their use in the classrooms.

I believe a strong motivator for selecting the theme of this conference is the fact that ICT is raising the bar on the competencies that the teachers need to succeed in the teaching profession in the 21st Century. Competence has to do with the ability to do something well, and this ability is acquired through experience or training. Our gathering in the next two days as teachers of English will focus on this all important topic which addresses what we need in order to measure up to the demands of our time. What then are the demands of our time?

We are in a time when learning is better done through collaboration. The nature of the new media has encouraged networking and social interaction. Many of today's learners are almost permanently connected to their friends and interests via a whole range of networked devices ranging from mobile phones to their home computers. This connectivity allows collaboration to take place on a wider scale than has ever been possible before. This is something that needs to be encouraged and introduced to the 21st Century teaching. The 21st Century learners are emotionally opened to the use of the Internet as a social technology and in the process they meet new people, reveal their feelings, express their views, and experience different

cultures. The Internet as a social platform can be used by the teacher to stimulate the learning of English in the students.

It is also important to note that the digital age promotes learning through discovery. This is called exploratory or experiential learning. This is the age of innovative thinking and production of novel ideas, which are arrived at through experimental learning. One of the characteristics of language, which is "openness", is being greatly explored by the 21st Century learners. This enables them to create new items and patterns in the language. Digital communication allows people to express their social and cultural selves in the process of interaction and learning. This kind of learning helps learners to better retain information and use it in creative and meaningful ways.

The 21st Century learner is more comfortable in image-rich graphic environments than in text-rich ones. The present age is an age of multimodality where speech, writing, image, music, layout and gesture are co-present in a discourse or communication. The integration of multiple modes of communication and expression can enhance the teaching and learning of English at every level of education. This is premised on the fact that all modes of communication are co-dependent. Each affects the nature of the content of the other and the overall rhetorical impact of the communication. Understanding all these and factoring them into practice should be part of the competencies of the 21st Century of English teacher.

English for Specific Purposes and Teacher Competencies in the 21st Century

Since the 21st Century has been closely tied to some kind of digital revolution, the earlier part of this paper focused on this. However, we need to look beyond this to specific issues, such as language teaching for specific purposes, which has also been gaining grounds in recent times. It is also a major sub-theme of the Conference. Since learners tend to be more focused in their learning, they require specific competencies in their day-to-day operations, such as in their occupations and academics. English for specific Purposes (ESP) focuses on identifying language needs of target learners and adopting teaching materials and practices that will facilitate the learners to meet those needs.

The pertinent issue here is that learners' needs are changing in conformity with the demands of the century's complex modern society, and teachers should recognize this in the designing of their teaching materials and practices. We therefore expect participants to present papers that will address how teachers can harness digital resources for needs analysis, syllabus designing and curriculum development. Scholars are also expected to address the employment of electronic and mobile learning (e-learning and m-learning) for teaching English language for specific purposes.

Teacher Competencies in the Teaching of the Language Levels in the 21st Century

Traditionally, the language levels refer to the so called 'core' aspects of language, such as grammar (syntax and morphology), phonology and semantics. Some of the questions that are waiting to be answered in respect to the teaching and learning of these language levels are:

- Are Nigerian teachers aware of some of the new technologies available for teaching these core levels of language?
- Have they been applying these new technologies in their teaching?
- What are the challenges they face in teaching these levels of language?
- How can they overcome these challenges?

We hope to get appropriate answers to these questions from the presentations we will have later during this Conference.

Much later as language study developed, other levels of language were recognized, such as lexis (Halliday, 1966), and discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Discourse was recognized as a level beyond grammar. Over the years, the study of discourse has grown to become a multi-disciplinary field, drawing on insights from sociology, anthropology, psychology, philosophy, semiotics, history, politics, communication, media and cultural studies, rhetoric, as well as disciplines such as business, accountancy, marketing, law, information technology, organizational studies, and so forth. The study of discourse has different approaches, such as conversational analysis, critical discourse analysis, and post-structuralist discourse analysis. Discourse studies have also further developed into specialized branches, such as classroom discourse analysis (Christie, 2002), political discourse analysis (Fairclough & Fairclough (2012), religious discourse analysis (Taiwo, 2006; 2007; Odebunmi, 2010; Chilwa, 2008), medical discourse analysis (Odebunmi, 2006), legal discourse analysis; and computer-mediated discourse analysis (CMDA) (Herring, 2004). The latter (CMDA) is an approach to the study of online interactive behavior, using methods adapted from language focused disciplines, such as: linguistics, communication, and rhetoric.

CMDA studies may focus on online micro-linguistic forms, e.g., lexical and structural properties of online discourse or macro-linguistic properties, e.g., coherence, identity, ideology and power. Since this Conference has a sub-theme that deals with New Media and New Englishes, it will be interesting to see papers that will address how the new media discourse can be taught in the 21st Century classroom. How can language educators employ the potential of CMC (both synchronous and asynchronous) as socially constructive learning tool, which can motivate positive and collaborative learning for students? This is an important question waiting to be answered during this Conference.

Training Language Teacher to Develop their Competencies in the 21st Century

Another very important issue we expect this Conference to address is how to assist English language teachers in developing their competencies. It is clear from earlier discussions in this paper that every effort made to help the teachers broaden their knowledge and skills through trainings, workshops and seminars should be aimed at making the teachers of English relevant in the 21st Century classroom. Every aspect of a teacher's performance in the classroom, such as developing materials, identifying the appropriate teaching methods and technologies, managing the

classroom, evaluation of the learners and the program, and so forth, must not be at variance with the learners' needs for the century.

Computer-based Continuing Professional Development (CPD) is already part of language teacher education in Nigeria. However, as observed by Ayoola (2010), there are some challenges in implementing the program. Since this Conference is a gathering of language teachers, who might have been part of one form of in-service training program or the other directed towards making them 21st Century compliant ELT professionals, we expect them to share their experiences and engage participants in a robust discussion of issues surrounding these experiences. The overall goal will be to seek the best means of developing teacher competencies to make them attain the utmost goal of being compliant with the best practices in the ELT profession.

As presentations focus on all the issues identified, we expect the sessions to address all the vital aspects of the theme of this Conference. It is also interesting to know that there will be a practical session in form of a workshop that will address language learning activity design to be coordinated by a seasoned teacher of English. This will surely enrich the Conference, as it will bring together useful ideas that will help participants to develop in our research into and the teaching of the English language and literature.

I wish you all a wonderful deliberation and thank you for listening.

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***Originally written as a Lead Paper presented at the 10th Annual English Language Teaching Today (ELTT) Conference of the National Association of Teachers and Researchers in English as a Second Language, at Elizade University, Ilara-Mokin, Ondo State on 11th – 14th September, 2013**

“DOING PHONETICS WITH COMPUTER”: INTRODUCING *PRAAT*, AND ITS APPLICATION TO PHONOLOGY OF ENGLISH

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Abstract

The global precept of massive movements of humans of diverse cultures, professions and languages has engendered and is engendering a unitary linguistic cooperation, adoption and adaptation. The accumulative aggregate of people's choices from the Arabs to Chinese, Africans to the Caribbean is English. Thus, there is an aggressive effort to learn the language in order to acquire the functional proficiency prerequisite to their needs; which must be achieved with some measure of accuracy in order to meet the international acceptability and intelligibility. In these global movements and communication, the science of listening and speaking in English is of uttermost prominence. The objectives of this paper are to introduce *Praat* as a computer software that can ease teaching phonetics, and how it can be used to teach the English phonology in such a way as to make the teaching and learning engagements fun. This is achieved by explaining how *Praat* is operated, giving a serialised content description of the computer program, and samples of its products through screen captures. Secondly, corpora of the linguistic data of English, which are analysed with *Praat* are presented. Lastly, the paper also shows how acoustic evidence provided by the program can be used to aid the English phonology class.

Introduction

Oral communication, without any doubt, is the first tale-teller of the linguistic background of every speaker, as the ear immediately picks what is different, odd or strange from what it normally hears. The written communication does not easily and quickly betray the linguistic signpost of the speaker. The role of the phonologists is, therefore, to collect and collate the different sounds that emanate from speakers for the purpose of understanding the sound system of the spoken language. For instance, Jolayemi, Akanbi, Aminu & Obadofin (1989, p. 38) discover a recurrent plosivisation of the English dental phonemes among the Yoruba speakers of English realising /d/ and /t/ for /ð/ and /θ/, respectively. Experts have also presented that various realisations, across the English speaking world, attend the English mid open vowel sound, /ʌ/, of the English STRUT (Cruttenden, 2001, p. 113; Simo-Bonda, 2003, p. 18-19; Peter, 2008, p. 165-66; & Jolayemi, 2010, p. 39-54).

While varieties of pronunciation are absolutely unavoidable, average intelligibility and acceptability must not be compromised. More, importantly, is a measure of pronunciation accuracy from the majors and experts in the English Language and English linguistics. To maintain such a measure, courses are

designed at the various levels of the undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. Some of these are: Spoken English, Introduction to General Phonetics and Phonology of English I and II, The English Phonology, Autosegmental Phonology of English, Advanced Phonology of English, Advanced Phonetics, and Theories of English Phonology. In order to learn these very well, there is a mandatory possession of a specially designated and equipped laboratory (NUC, 2007) variously named: Language Laboratory, Phonetics Laboratory, Central Sound Laboratory, or Digitised Linguistics Science Laboratory. These laboratories may be analogue, ana-digital, or fully digital; the most expected this age. In the latter, most conspicuous are the lecturers' and students' consoles equipped each with a computer, a pair of headset, and overhead loud speakers. Also, in each of the computers are installed phonetic programs that are used to analyse digitised corpora. Some of these are: The Audacity, Speech Filing System (sfs), lingWAVES, Speech Analyzer, and Praat.

Introducing Praat

Praat, a Dutch word for "talk", is an online free computer software for phonetic analyses developed by Paul Boersma and David Weenink in the Institute of Phonetics Sciences, University of Amsterdam, Netherlands. The main highlight of the program is that it is a multi-task software, which is very handy for users of many categories such as: the phoneticians, phonologists, speech pathologists, voice coaches, and forensic experts. It can be excited by only sound files in the following formats: AIFC files, AIFF files, FLAC files, MP3 files, NeXT/Sun (.au) files, NIST files, and WAV files (Boersma & Weenink, 2013). The program has gone through various versions comprising many modifications and improvements; an earlier version being 4.404 and the latest 5.3.49. It can be downloaded free on: <http://www.praat.org> or <http://www.fon.hum.uva.nl/praat/>.

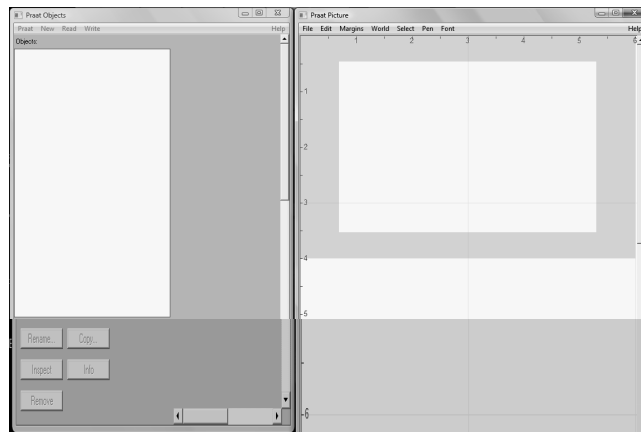
How Praat is Operated

Three initial steps must have been taken before Praat can be used. The first is that the user must have downloaded the program into the computer. Secondly, the user must have a sound file saved in his/her computer to be imported into Praat; or directly record a corpus into the computer with the Praat record menu, the choice used for this operation. The next is to double click the Praat icon kept on the computer desktop during its installation; this icon is pasted below.



Picture 1: Praat's Icon

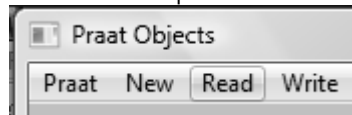
The result of these clicks is a pair of windows that come up on the computer screen. On the left is the *Praat Objects* and on the right is the *Praat Picture*, as shown on the next page



Picture 2: Screen Capture of Praat Objects and Praat Picture Windows

The left window, as can be seen, has four menus at the top left corner – Praat, New, Read, and Write; New is used to record with Praat and Read to import an already saved sound file into Praat. Below the window are five additional menus – Rename, Inspect, Remove, Copy, and Info. The Praat Picture window on the right is a display window where acoustic pictures are shown and where analyses can be performed as indicated on the menus of the window.

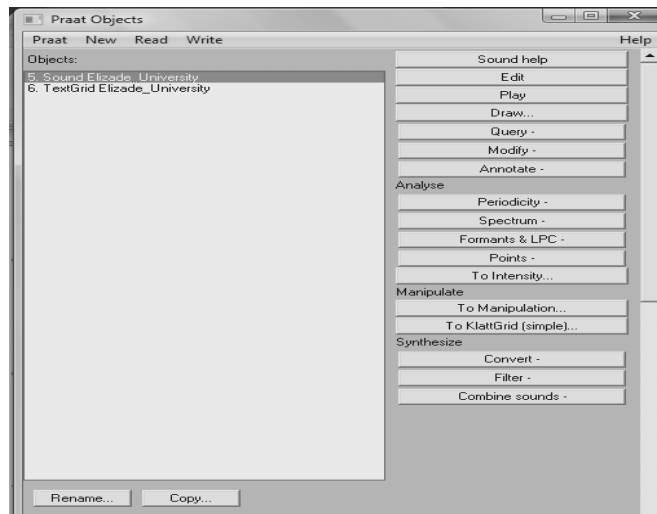
The user may wish to record his or her own sound using Praat tool by clicking the New Menu, which gives an array of directions that can be dutifully followed. Among the directions under the Menu is *Record mono Sound*, which enables the user to record own sound and save for use with Praat. When this recorded sound is saved, it automatically comes up on the Praat Objects Window. But if the user has the appropriate sound file already in his or her computer, the next step is to load it into Praat by clicking on the Read Menu of the Praat Objects Window, and follow the directions for the location of the sound. These two actions can originate from the slate below as captured from Praat Objects:



Picture 3: Screen Capture of Praat Objects Displaying Key Menus

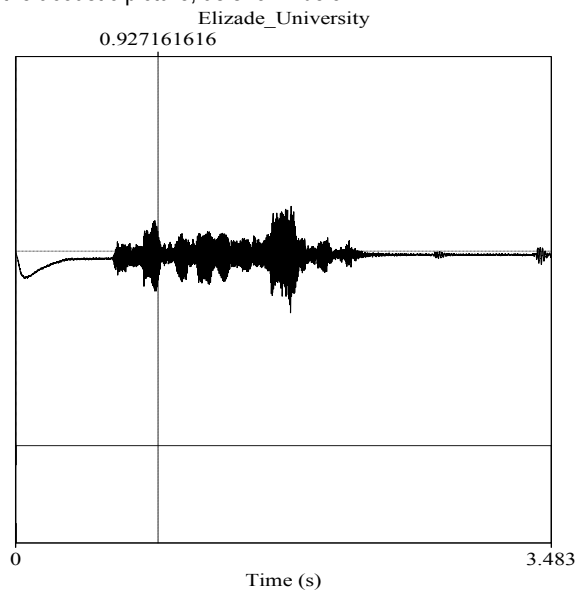
As soon as the expected sound comes up on the Praat Objects, another array of menus shows up at the left side of the window, namely: Sound Help, Edit, Play, Query, Modify, Annotate, etc. You may play around until happy and are sure of what you want to perform or analyse.

Most of the time, I use Praat to show acoustic evidence of utterances that I intend to analyse. To achieve this, I often add textgrids to the corpus of utterances I want to analyse, by clicking on the *Annotate* menu and following a number of directions until the textgrids show up below the sound I had already created. Thus, I have the textgrids for “Elizade University”, whose WAV File I recorded with the Praat recording tool, as indicated on the next page



Picture 4: Display of Praat Objects Window

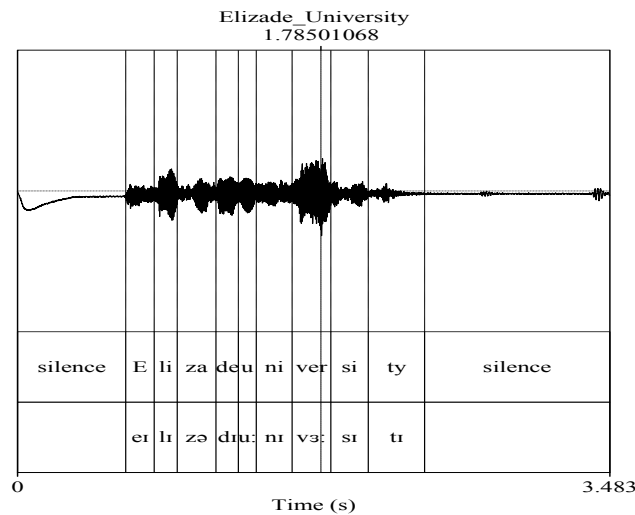
To begin to show the acoustic products of the recorded sound, I have to click on the *Draw Menu* at the left side. As soon as I do this, the Praat Picture window is filled by the acoustic picture, as shown below:



Picture 5: Praat's Oscillogram of *Elizade University*

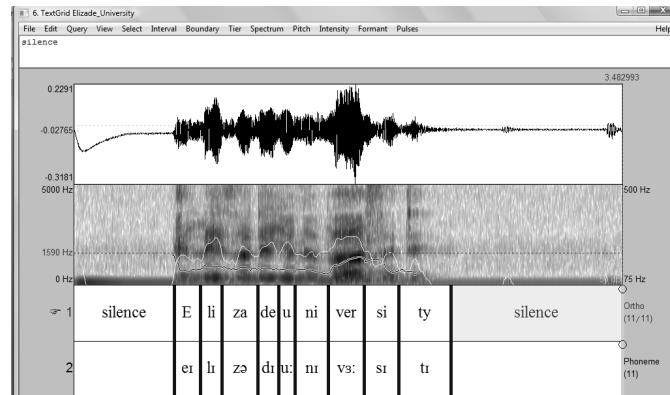
But if you are also interested in filling the picture with additional information such as dividing into segments by syllables, annotating orthographically and phonemically like I did on the next page, or any other operation on your mind, you will further click the *Edit Menu* on the right side of the Praat Objects, which gives you the opportunities by following the menu directions. This will open for you another picture that contains further acoustic information of your recorded sound showing the sounds' oscillogram in form of waves or what is called excursions. You

will also be able to obtain the utterance' spectrogram, and if you like, display its pitch, intensity and formant by clicking on the top menus of this new window called TextGrid. In the segmentation processes, of importance are the directions under *Boundary*, which will enable you to divide up into smaller bits of an utterance such as into words, syllables or isolated alphabet, phone or phoneme. You will also find the *Tier Menu* very useful as it will assist you to add as many levels of annotation as you desire for your analysis. If you are able to achieve this, you will have been able to create a similar thing I have below, which I have achieved by clicking on the File Menu of the TextGrid Window. This will direct you to a number of options one of which is *Draw visible sound* and *TextGrid*. This leads to Picture 6 that is displayed below.



Picture 6: Praat's Oscillogram of *Elizade University* With Annotations

However, you may also want to display the TextGrid window exactly the way it is created, so as to be able to show additional information that is not captured in the drawing of Picture 6. You may then have to resort to what is called Acoustic Dump of the TextGrid; which you can obtain by a screen computer capture done by clicking on ctrl+Print Scan of your computer keyboard. The next operation you will perform is to open to the Window's Paint Artist program in the *Accessories* of your computer; when this is opened, you will then dump the TextGrid you had earlier print-scanned. You may employ the menus of Paint Artist to select the portion of the TextGrid you desire. Following my own illustrative corpus, I have the acoustic dump of *Elizade University* in Picture 7 on the next page.



Picture 7: Acoustic Dump of *Elizabeth University* Displaying Oscillogram, Spectrogram and Annotations by Orthography and Phonemes

This is a gist of how Praat is operated; however, I hasten to add that there is a lot more to know if you would methodically follow the help file of the program offered by Paul and David. There, there is information on Picture Window, Special Symbols, Phonetic Symbols, Text Styles, etc. When you become fairly conversant with the program, you can enlist for membership into the Praat Users' Association available on Praat Home page. You will be able to ask questions, answer questions, and participate in discussion; again, through your membership, almost daily updates will be sent across to you. You may also directly ask questions and offer suggestions to paul.boersma@uva.nl; and day-by-day you get to know more of Praat.

Furthermore, in order to be able to read and interpret Praat, some knowledge of Physics and acoustics is desirable. Apart from the manual of Praat, you may also consult: Fry (1979), Johnson (2003), Ashby & Maidment (2005), Jolayemi (2006), (2008), (2010), Reetz & Jongman (2009), Morrison (2010), Ladefoged & Johnson (2011), just to list a few. In such books, you will learn terms like: amplitude, periodic waves, aperiodic waves, quasi-periodic waves, waveforms or excursions, fundamental frequency (F_0), oscillogram, spectrogram, harmonics, formants, intensity, pitch, pulses, decibel (dB), Hertz (Hz), vibrations, resonance, and acoustic filter.

Praat's Acoustic Evidence Vs Phonetics and Phonology of English Class

Following the steps of the Late Peter Ladefoged, the study of phonetics and phonology has become fun, as rigorous theoretical permutations have given way to practical and empirical explorations. With modern applications from medicine, engineering, computer science and statistics, the usual fashion of "listen and repeat" has greatly been complemented by scientific evidence that gives explanation to what is listened to and repeated. More especially, the phonology class is now a convivial place where you can now see what you hear; you will also see what you say. There is now clear evidence supporting what is heard and what is said, made available by acoustic analyses. One of such tools to achieve this, arising from acoustic engineering and computer programming, is Praat.

The best way to achieve this is to allow the students to grope with the computer which already has Praat installed; it may pay to be in groups of three per

computer as some are better computer users and are better explorers, while some have elements of computer programming. You can't quite underestimate the students' prowess in the new technology of the computers, some may surpass you! With the way they turn the handsets around, and stay glued to the computers, these days, the motivation to explore Praat is already in the latent stage if you would give them the opportunity of surfing Praat. The days of locking up the labs until the lab technologist or lecturer is around are gone. A Digitised Linguistics Science Laboratory (DLSL) is almost self-instructive and less prone to destructiveness; many students already have their laptops, annulling the fear of damage. Those who do not have the opportunity to use their computer will frequent the lab while those who are not pretty good can go alone into the lab to practise. Lastly, with the CCTV running in a corner of the lab, the fear of pilfering is allayed. Thus, in a matter of days, the students will get to the laboratory more often than you expect because doing phonetics with the computers while exploring Praat, to them, is absolute fun. Also, many students now own laptops, Notebooks, Ipad, etc., into which they can easily download Praat as the software is free online. It will amaze you how much of Praat they have known within those few days.

The next step is to guide the students to begin to build their own corpora by recording, directly, short utterances into the computer using the recording mode of Praat, if most have not already. From experience, most would have read both short and long utterances into Praat posing like broadcasters or reporters and mimicking: "This is xxx (name of student), CNN, Abuja, reporting"; they don't often list the local Radio or TV; it's either CNN or BBC, or VOA! By this, you may discover to your surprise, that you already have more corpus of utterances than you really need.

Now the technical part: after they have recorded self voices and listened to the recording, you will want to expose them to *seeing* what they say. The first instruction is to tell the students to recall the shortest utterance each had recorded with Praat, make them add the TextGrid then follow all the processes described above to obtain the Praat Objects of their utterances, as shown in Picture 5. They would have noticed the waveforms that come out of their Praat-processed utterances. They should be told that the measure of the sound energy (amplitude) applied to the production of the utterances led to the waveforms. This is the real first lesson of an acoustic interpretation of speech sounds. Thus, the louder the sound energy, the higher the spikes or excursions of the waves generated by the sound, and vice versa. If there happens to be no sound or barely audible sound, there would not have been enough sound energy to produce the waves that we see in the oscillogram.

Henceforth, the students should mark out the portions of the oscillogram that have very long spikes, long spikes, short spikes, very short spikes and no spikes at all. Let me present some concatenated spikes from Jolayemi (2010, p. 90) some of which were used in the presentation of acoustic evidence for assimilatory processes in English phonology.



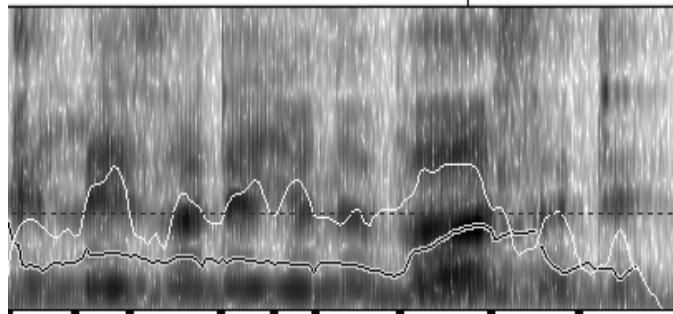
Picture 8: Concatenated Excursions of Speech Sounds

Source: Jolayemi 2010, p. 90

Let's try and read the spikes (waveforms) of the first word in Picture 8, *try*: It starts with a somehow thin, almost non-apparent stretch of spikes meaning that there was a near silent speech sound, evidently, a voiceless sound for which /t/ is known, which makes very feeble impression as an acoustic energy. Reetz and Jongman (2009, p. 138) technically explain that "These are stretches where the amplitude is low, which could be pauses, stops or sounds that are produced with low energy." But almost immediately, the excursions become large and long and the acoustic structure is maintained progressively, till the end of the concatenated corpus. These large excursions are indicative of a good sound energy impression notable of a voiced sound, nay, a diphthong sound /aɪ/. For these, Reetz and Jongman (2009, p. 138) further explain that "These are stretches with higher amplitude and quasi-periodic spikes, which stem from glottal pulses of voiced sounds, most probably vowels." So, when the spikes are short, there is likely to be a consonant, but when they are large or long, the portion of the oscillogram is a vowel.

Both the consonants, on the one hand, and vowels on the other have various shades of spikes depending on the amplitude or the sound energy generated or inherent in the sound. Voiceless sounds like [t f s] have lower amplitude compared with their voiced counterparts like [d v z]. Even these voiced sounds still operate lower sound energy when compared to the vowel sounds. Furthermore, acoustic display also shows graphical marked differences in, for instance, *sit* and *seat* as the excursion of the former will be smaller than the latter; meaning that even among the vowels, spikes are dissimilar. The duration, in seconds, of the production of the vowel will be shorter for *sit* but longer for *seat*. From all this, it is instructive to use this acoustic evidence to teach in the English phonology class the apparent difference in amplitudes and spikes.

Reading the spectrogram is similar to reading the oscillogram, as both are graphical representations of the acoustic energy or amplitude of the speech sound generated, which are of absolute equidistance in gravity. Spectrograms mark out the speech energy through an accumulation of the sound harmonics into the formant structures, which essentially make dark impressions on the graph, and which distinctively mark out a vowel. Picture 7, in addition to the display of waveforms also shows the oscillogram as copied on the next page. You will notice some regions that are not as dark; just as they do not grow long spikes.



Picture 9: Oscillogram of *Elizade University*, Also Showing Pitch and Intensity

In addition to the use to which Praat can be put in the teaching of the English phonemes, it can also be used to elucidate the autosegmental features class. As displayed in Picture 9, the intensity and stress structures of speech sounds are graphically shown. This is another importance of Praat, as the menus are there that will automatically display the speech sound intensity and stress with a mere click. Reading Picture 9, it is clear that of the utterance, *ver* in *university*, carries both the highest intensity (at the upper level) and stress (at the lower level). You may turn to Picture 7 for confirmation. It is also very easy to measure these as well as Voice Onset Time (VOT) by the configuration of the program.

Summary

With the little demonstration and explanation above, I have been able to introduce Praat as a tool that is unavoidable in a class of phonetics and phonology. By this, I hope I have motivated you enough to stimulate you to explore the greatness of the program. I have also been able to show what benefit the students and teachers stand to derive, for the engagement of the psychomotor domain. It tasks the students' practical involvement, healing any moment of dullness, thereby making the class fun. The dreary phonology class, with its esoteric symbols and technical rules that often lead to rote rather than note learning dissolves into a class of happiness. Coupled with techno-maniac tendency of our students, nowadays, the digitised language laboratory is now a haven for our active and restless students who desire explorations and innovations in the computers. Praat offers itself a linguistic channel for this exploration into the abundance of knowledge yet to be acquired in the analysis of speech sounds supported by scientific evidence. This, thereby, improves both the English language receptive and the productive proficiencies of our students. We are all the better for it: the Nation, the teacher and the learner.

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EFFECTS OF PHONEMIC DISSIMILARITIES ON YORUBA SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Abstract

Second speakers of English across the world have certain problems they grapple with, the most serious of which is phonological (especially when using native speakers' standard as a yardstick). Because of the dissimilarities in the sound patterns of English and Yoruba languages, Yoruba speakers of English mostly found in the South-West Nigeria, and some parts of Kwara, Kogi and Edo States of Nigeria have problems with some phonemes in English. Inability to correctly pronounce words where such phonemes occur certainly bear some implications for international intelligibility. My objectives in this paper, therefore, are: to identify the levels of phonemic dissimilarities in English and Yoruba languages, and to examine the effects of these dissimilarities on the Yoruba speakers of English. The data for this paper were 60 graded words purposively selected, and presented to 100 students of the Ondo State College of Health Technology, Akure who are Yoruba speakers of English. These respondents were randomly selected to pronounce 100 graded words which are purposively selected to test the effects of phonemic dissimilarities between Yoruba (the respondents' first language) and English language on the respondents' pronunciation of certain English words with unusual sound patterns.

In examining these dissimilarities using Contrastive Analysis tools, I identified certain phonemic features in English that are not attested in Yoruba language, which therefore, constitute problems for some Yoruba speakers of English. These dissimilarities are categorised as long-short vowel differentiation, syllabic consonants, and consonant cluster.

This paper reveals that there are differences in the phonemic features of Yoruba and English languages, and it is these differences that account for the pronunciation inefficiencies of some Yoruba speakers of English. It is recommended that teachers of English should identify these problem areas and systematically teach their students. Broadcasters too, should be well trained to act as correct model of efficient pronunciation.

Key words: phonology, phonemes, international intelligibility, graded words, syllabic consonants, consonant cluster.

Introduction

English in different countries of the world has assumed different status with different functions. In countries such as Britain, Australia and the United States of America, English is a native language, while in other countries, it is either a first language, a foreign language or a second language. In Nigerian context, English, among many other statuses, is a foreign language, and a second language with ascribed roles.

To the vast majority of Nigerians, English is a second language learnt in schools after the first language had been acquired. While commenting on the status of English in Nigeria, Jolayemi (2008:105) claims that “apart from the native speakers ... most users of English, however, have already acquired their indigenous languages before learning English. Most of them came across English at school age for the first time”. The variety of English spoken by people who were born, and who live in Nigeria is called “Nigerian English” (henceforth NigE) (Odumuh 1987, Bamgbose 1992, Jowitt 1991). This variety of English is, in many respects, different from standard native English because, according to Jolayemi (2008, p. 105) “the variety exhibits specific linguistic features e.g. at the levels of phonology, lexis, morphology, syntax and discourse”.

For second speakers of English, native proficiency may be difficult to attain especially in the phonological aspect considering the fact that English, as the second language, and the indigenous language as the first language are completely structurally different. Certainly, the structural differences between English and Yoruba languages notwithstanding, there are aspects of English as a foreign language that do not constitute as much problems for learners as does the phonological aspect (Fatusin 2007). This position is also evident in Lado's (1957, p. 2) view that:

The students who come in contact with foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult. While using English by Nigerians as second speakers, there are bound to be difficulties because a four year-old child who was already competent in his first language before he is introduced to the second language (English), is bound to encounter certain difficulties the most serious of which is phonological. This is a result of (two) languages in contact. Supporting this stand Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2011) say:

... second-language learners do not often achieve native-like grammatical competence in the L2 This is most obvious in phonology. L2 learners generally speak with an accent because they may transfer the phonemes, phonological rules, or syllable structures of their first language to their second language.

There are peculiar phonological problems associated with each ethnic group or geographical location in Nigeria. Adeola (1997) classifies the noticeable accents of Nigerian speakers of English into three relying on the evidence of the influence of their first language thus “... three broad Nigerian accents are clearly identified: the Yoruba accent in the Southwest, the Igbo accent in the Southeast and the Hausa accent in the North.” Following this, Bamisaye (2001, p. 33) says:

in almost all cases, the two languages - first (i.e. Nigerian language) and second - (i.e. English) exhibit a lot of structural differences. Consequently, most Nigerian learners of English face a lot of difficulties while making English

these Nigerian accents are largely different from the Received Pronunciation (RP) because they have been seriously influenced or “coloured” by the indigenous languages. It is insightful to note that all languages across the world have their phonological and structural peculiarities.

No doubt, pronunciation inefficiency can cause confusion on the part of the hearer, leading to misinterpretation of a message. Bamisaye (2004) justifies this by

saying "...one does not even know when a pupil pronounces "seat" as against "sit", "tin" as against "thing".

As earlier observed, pronunciation problem is one of the consequences of interference. Yoruba speakers of English encounter problems with pronunciation of certain English words which contain sounds that are not in their native language. However, there are points of convergence whereby patterns, habits and structures in two languages are similar. And where such occur, the second language is easier to learn (Fatusin 2007). For instance, in the phonological aspect of language, the voiceless alveolar plosive /t/ has the same notation in English and Yoruba, and is rendered the same way. It is even in complementary distribution in the following examples:

English	Yoruba
/t/ rest	/t/ Tayo
/b/ bad	/b/ Oba

It is also possible that two similar phonemes in two languages may be rendered differently. This position is succinctly captured by Fromkin et.al (2011) "that the same phones may occur in two languages but pattern differently because the phonologies are different". For example, the vowel sounds /i/ and /i:/ have the same notations in English and Yoruba, but they are not rendered the same way. In English, the tip of the tongue is raised to a half-close position to produce the sound /i/ as in /pit/, but in Yoruba, the front of the tongue is raised to a close position. Hence, for an average Yoruba speaker of English, /i/ is produced with the quality of vowel /i:/ in such a way that sit /sit/ sounds like seat /si:t/. Also, the voiceless bilabial plosive /p/ as in plate /pleit/, is produced as the two lips make a stop contact and the pulmonic egressive air builds up pressure behind the blockade. The velum is raised and the trapped air is suddenly released with an explosion. In Yoruba, however, /p/ as in "epo pupa" (palm oil) is a labio-velar plosive produced with the two lips firmly making a contact as the pulmonic eggressive air builds up pressure behind the blockade. The back of the tongue makes a gliding movement towards the velum. The trapped air is released with a weak explosion as the velum is raised. Quite relevant at this juncture is the view of Fatusin (2007) that: "a language learner finds it much easier to learn those areas of a language that sound similar to his own native language". For instance, the phonemes /b/ /f/ /d/ /m/ /e/ /i:/ etc, are readily available in many Nigerian languages; hence their relative ease to teach and learn in English.

The difficulty in learning the English sounds is naturally premised on the point that English is not the Mother Tongue or native language of the Yoruba. Consequently, Fatusin (2007) opines that " it is not surprising to find that problems arise in the acquisition of this all-important language especially, the area of segmentals as well as suprasegmentals".

Phonological Interference

Interference is an inherent attribute of a second language-learning situation. Phonological interference is the most serious consequence of languages in contact. As emphasised by Otegbeye (1999), "the phonological aspect of the language is most concerned when we talk about the problem of interference in second language teaching and learning." The difficulty in mastery of pronunciation becomes acute because majority of these speakers have become adulthood, O'Connor (1981) believes "the habits of the languages are already formed and strong, making it difficult to break". In line with the view of Bamisaye (2004) interference is generally defined as a process whereby features of first language are being transferred to the second language or vice-versa. Specifically, phonological interference is viewed by Weinreich (1953) as "...the manner in which a speaker perceives and introduces the sound of one language in terms of another language". It is the structural differences in the two languages that lead to interference which in turn, is generally inhibitive for learners. More often, the phonological interference occurs according to Olumuyiwa (1997, p. 31):

When learners substitute secondary language sounds which do not occur in primary language. For instance, a Yoruba speaker of English tends to produce the following English sounds /ʒ/ /z/ /tʃ/ In terms of Yoruba language /y/ /s/ /ʃ/.

Any sound segment that is not present in the mother tongue of Yoruba speaker of English as second language becomes, according to Otegbeye (1999), "strange and unusual sound". The sound becomes problematic, and consequently, there will be a substitution of a closer sound in Yoruba for such "unusual sound" he encounters in English. While commenting on the sources of these phonological problems, Jolayemi (1999:120) opines "this is traceable to the non-existence of certain English consonantal phonemes in the linguistic repertoire of the Nigerian users of English".

Objectives of the Study

English is currently regarded as the world principal international language as a result of which there are now more exchanges between non native speakers of English. Certainly, there is increased need for some level of intelligibility. In order to achieve comfortable intelligibility and not regional intelligibility as prescribed by Kenneth (1999), there are issues that we have to address.

The thrusts of this paper, therefore, are:

- 1.) to examine the noticeable dissimilarities in the sound patterns of Yoruba and English in relation to how they affect or disturb a Yoruba speaker of the English language, and 2.) to suggest a possible and realistic choice of pronunciation model for Yoruba speakers of the English language.

Theoretical Framework

To ensure a systematic analysis, Contrastive Analysis is the theoretical framework upon which this investigation rests. This is because Contrastive Analysis is a guild

when we try to look at points of divergence in two languages. While summarising James's (1980) position on Contrastive Analysis, Oladosu (1987) writes:

At any point in time, the approach is concerned with a description of two languages – the source language (SL) and the target language (TL). CA is interested in the differences and not the similarities between source language and target language.

When we are looking at the difficult aspects of one language in relation to the other, CA has proved to be a veritable tool for analysis and for proffering solutions to problems. In this regard, Jolayemi (1991) concludes that "CA has been found to be a branch of applied linguistics that has offered a lot of insight into foreign and second language learning and teaching Its diagnostic power is very valuable"

Methodology and Analysis

The data for this paper are 60 graded words which are purposely selected and grouped into six sections (from section A to section F) each of which comprised ten graded words designed respectively to test the respondents' ability to differentiate between long and short vowels, differentiate between monophthongs and diphthongs, correctly pronounce words with syllabic consonants, consonant clusters, silent consonant letters, words with certain sounds not attested in Yoruba language. These items sought to find out the areas of phonemic dissimilarities between Yoruba and English languages and the overall effect these dissimilarities have on the respondents' pronunciation of words with certain sounds patterns different from what they are used to in their first language. 100 students of the Ondo State College of Health Technology, Akure who all are Yoruba speakers of English from different but socially homogenous backgrounds are randomly selected to pronounce the 60 graded words which were tape-recorded. These respondents are from different parts of the Yoruba speaking states of Nigeria representing a sub standard class of speakers of English as second language. The analysis of the data was done by frequency count and simple percentages.

Dissimilarities in the Sound Patterns of the Yoruba and English Languages

The Yoruba accent noticeable among the speakers of English in the Southwest Nigeria, and parts of Edo, Kogi and Kwara States, shows a remarkable deviation from the Received Pronunciation. The Yoruba language does not attest some sounds that are present in the English sound system. As a result of the differences in the sound patterns of the two languages under review, Bamisaye (2001, p. 34) says "There is the tendency on the part of learners to substitute the nearest sound in their mother tongue for the affected sound in English".

The dissimilarities are categorised and examined in relation to their overall effects on the pronunciation of English words by a Yoruba speaker of the English language as follows:

- 1) Long-short vowel differentiation in English
- 2) Monophthong – Diphthong differentiation in English
- 3) Syllabic consonants in English
- 4) Silent consonants in English
- 5) Consonant cluster in English
- 6) Certain sounds in English not attested in Yoruba.

Data Presentation

The 60 graded words which were used to test the above categories of phonemic dissimilarities between the two target languages are presented below:

sit	juice	Britain	twelfths	Wednesday	church
seat	leopard	button	sixth	sachet	exact
cat	foetus	table	sex	corps	those
car	diffuse	saddle	blitz	coup	tenth
cut	build	drizzle	example	gnash	wealthy
court	fury	risen	extra	mnemonic	weather
good	era	written	examination	bouquet	pleasure
pool	serious	differential	distinct	draught	singer
bed	security	simple	success	marijuana	blood
firm	mercurial	sadden	direct	gaol	plaza

Analysis of the Data

S/N	ITEM	RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	%
1.	Long-short vowel differentiation	Correct pronunciation	35	35%
		Wrong pronunciation	65	65%
2.	Monophthong Diphthong Differentiation	Correct pronunciation	26	26%
		Wrong pronunciation	74	65%
3.	Syllabic consonants	Correct pronunciation	39	39%
		Wrong pronunciation	61	61%
4.	Consonant Cluster	Correct pronunciation	53	53%
		Wrong pronunciation	47	47%
5.	Silent (consonant) Letters	Correct pronunciation	34	34%
		Wrong pronunciation	66	66%
6.	Certain English	Correct	21	21%
		Wrong pronunciation	19	19%
	TOTAL	Correct	208	35%

		pronunciation Wrong pronunciation	392	65%
--	--	--	------------	------------

In the table above, the six identified categories of dissimilarities in the sound patterns of English and Yoruba languages are presented. Ten graded words were pronounced by 100 respondents in each of the six categories. Out of the 100 respondents, 35 of them representing 35% could pronounce the words correctly because they could distinguish between long and short vowel sounds, while 65 respondents representing 65% could not distinguish between long and short vowel sounds. In the category 2 which tests respondents' ability to differentiate between monophthongs and diphthongs, 26 out of 100 respondents representing 26% could pronounce words with monophthongs and diphthongs distinctively while 74 representing 74% could not. Category 3 sought to investigate the extent to which absence of syllabic consonants in Yoruba, the respondents' L1 could affect their correct pronunciation of English words with such occurrence. Out of the 100 respondents, 39 representing 39% could pronounce the words correctly while 61 respondents representing 61% could not. This indicates that because such occurrence as syllabic consonant is not attested in Yoruba language, it is a problem for the Yoruba speakers of English. In category 4, the result shows that 53 out of 100 respondents representing 53% could pronounce correctly English words with consonant clusters while 47 representing 47% could not. We can see that the percentage of the respondents who could not correctly pronounce the words is high enough to conclude that consonant cluster constitutes problems for Yoruba speakers of English. In category 5, 34 respondents which represent 34% could pronounce correctly English words with silent consonant letters while 66 representing 66% could not. Category 6 which sought to investigate the extent of influence of Yoruba, the respondents' L1, on English words containing certain sounds not attested in Yoruba language indicated that 21 respondents which represent 21% could pronounce the words correctly while 79 representing 79% could not. In all, out of 100 respondents pronouncing a total of 60 words, the total correct pronunciation is 208 representing 35% while the wrong pronunciation which is 392 representing 65% had the pattern of the sounds in their L1(Yoruba) affecting their L2 (English).

Discussion of the Findings

1. Long-short Vowel Differentiation

As can be seen in the data presented above, the long and short vowel sounds are found in distinct but somewhat similar phonological environments. However similar they may be or sound, native speakers pronounce them differently in words. But, in the case of a Yoruba speaker of English these sounds are not differentiated, they are wrongly substituted for each other as Bamisaye (2004:228) says "one does not even know when a pupil pronounces "seat" as against "sit", "tin" as against "thing".

Yoruba speakers of English have this problem of not differentiating between long and short vowels in English because in their first language i.e. Yoruba, (vowel) length is not one of the features of vowel sounds.

2. Monophthong – Diphthong Differentiation in English

Diphthongs constitute unusual sound patterns to Yoruba speakers of English who, consequently, either substitute pure vowels for diphthongs, or use them indiscriminately. There are two problems here:

Monophthongs are wrongly pronounced as diphthongs: For example:

Word	wrong pronunciation	correct pronunciation
juice	/dʒuis/	/dʒu:s/
Leopard	/leopa:d/	/lepəd/
foetus	/foetəs/	/fi:təs/

Diphthongs are wrongly pronounced as monophthongs: For example:

Word	wrong pronunciation	correct pronunciation
fury	/furi/	/fjuəri/
Era	/era/	/iərə/
serious	/sirɪəs/	/siəriəs/
security	/sikiɔ:riti/	/sikjuəriti/

3. Syllabic Consonants in English

Syllabic consonant, which is a consonant that either forms a syllable on its own, or is the nucleus of a syllable, constitutes pronunciation problem for a Yoruba speaker of English language because such occurrence is impossible in Yoruba. The syllabic structure of the Yoruba language cannot have two consonant sounds without a vowel intervening. Problem arises when a Yoruba speaker of English is confronted with syllabic consonant. He therefore, tends to insert a vowel in between the two consonants forming a syllable. For example:

Word	English	Yoruba
Britain	/bri tn/	/bri tein/
button	/bʌ tn/	/bɔ tin/
table	/tei bl/	/tei bul/
saddle	/sæ dl/	/sæ dul/
drizzle	/drizl/	/drizul/
sadden	/sæd dn/	/sæ dɜ:n/
risen	/rai sn/	/rais in/

Part of the reason for this pronunciation problem is that in Yoruba language consonant sounds do not end words as it is possible in English.

4. Consonant Cluster in English

It is not uncommon in English to have sequence of two consonants side by side without any vowel intervening. To a Yoruba speaker of English, this is a strange occurrence because in his first language, Yoruba, there must be a vowel in between two consonant sounds. For example:

Alaga = V + C + V + C + V

Jide = C + V + C + V

The problem a Yoruba speaker has with consonant cluster, therefore, is inability to pronounce the cluster of two or three consonants smoothly without a noticeable insertion of vowel sounds in between them. For example:

Word	English	Yoruba
Extra	/ekstrə/	/esrə/
Examination	/lqzæminei[n]/	/ezæminei[ə]n/
Distinct	/distɪŋkt/	/distɪnt/

From the above data, we can see that cluster of three consonants are reduced to two as in “extra” and clusters of two consonants are not observed at all as in “success”.

5. Silent (consonants) Letters in English

The phenomenon of silent letters in English is one of the key factors that reinforce the point that the spelling patterns of English words do not usually give out their pronunciation. In English, a word may contain some letters which are not accounted for in its pronunciation. This is not so in Yoruba language as every letter that forms part of the spelling of a word is accounted for in the pronunciation of such a word. For example:

Word	English	Yoruba
Wednesday	/wenzdeɪ/	/wednezdeɪ/
sachet	/sæʃeɪ/	/sæʃet/
corps	/kɔː/	/kɔːps/
coup	/kuː/	/kuːp/
gnash	/næʃ/	/gnæʃ/

Closely related to the foregoing is the point that certain words in English are pronounced with sounds which one cannot see physically in the spelling of such words. For example:

Word	English	Yoruba
lieutenant	/leftənənt/	/liutenənt/
bouquet	/bukeɪ/	/bɔukwet/
draught	/dra:ft/	/draut/
marijuana	/mæriwa:nə/	/mæriɕuanə/
gaol	/ɕeɪ/	/gəu/

All these are sound patterns which are problematic to a Yoruba speaker of English who consequently pronounce such words in a way analogous of the sound pattern of his language.

6. Presence of certain sounds in English not attested in Yoruba

There are other sounds in English that are strange to Yoruba speakers of English because such sound, often refer to as “strange sound segments”, are not attested in the Yoruba language. Consequently, Yoruba speakers tend to substitute, in their native language, the nearest sound for each of the problematic sounds. Some of these strange sounds are: /ɕ/ /z/ /ð/ /θ/ /ʒ/ /ʌ/ /ə /tʃ/

These sounds and their substitutes in Yoruba language are presented in the table below

Word	English language		Yoruba language	
	Problematic sound	Pronunciation	substituted sound	Pronunciation
church	/tʃ/	/tʃʒ:tʃ/	/ʃ/	/ʃʒ:ʃ/
exact	/gz/	/igzækt/	/s/	/esækt/
those	/ð, z/	/ðəuz/	/d, s/	/dəus/
tenth	/ə/	/tenə/	/t/	/tent/
wealthy	/ə/	/weləi/	/d/	/weldi/
wealthier	/ð/	/weðə/	/d/	/weldə/
pleasure	/ʒ/	/pleʒə/	/j/	/plejə/
singer	/ŋ/	/siŋə/	/g/	/singə/
blood	/ʌ/	/blʌd/	/D/	/blDd/

Summary and Recommendations

In this paper, I have identified some of the phonological problems encountered by Yoruba speakers of the English language as a result of the phonemic dissimilarities between the Yoruba and English languages. However, these problems are not insurmountable. Part of the requirements for solving them is the major thrust of Afolayan's (1988:11) views that:

...Yoruba and English should form the basis of contrastive analysis whereby its characteristics with particular reference to how it deviates from Standard English are explained in terms of the respective systems and structure of Yoruba and English.

It is important that teachers of English should make very conscious efforts to devote special attention to these discrepancies and problem areas in the oral English, and teach the students technically and systematically. In other words, what constitutes "strange sounds" should be identified and be taught with a lot of examples and practice session. To solve this problem, Jolayemi (1999, p.121) further suggests that:

Speech training must not leave the students to fumble their way through.

Conscious efforts must be made to teach all the English phonemes. Additional emphasis should be laid on the phonemes that are not in existence in learner's consonant chart.

Also, broadcasters and other public speakers should be well trained to act as good model of correct pronunciation for the general public. Furthermore, English language specialists/experts should produce oral English textbooks that are specifically designed for primary school students who are better exposed to oral English early in life so that before their errors become fossilised they would have been corrected. Furthermore, it is suggested that the pronunciation model for the speakers of English as second language should be a realistic and imitable one. This is in line with the view of Jones (2006:591) that "Learners should be exposed to varieties of English other than British/American 'standard' pronunciation, in particular those found in the learner's part of the world". Kenneth (1999:45) also comes up with the concept of 'comfortable intelligibility' as a suitable goal for learners of English as second language (LESL) in place of Received Pronunciation.

It is my fervent opinion that to achieve this comfortable intelligibility, and not regional intelligibility, strong regional accent and fossilised errors all arising from mother tongue interference should be corrected.

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ENHANCING QUALITY ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH TEACHER-STUDENT CLASSROOM INTERACTION

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Abstract

This study examined the effectiveness of teacher-students interaction in improving quality English language teaching in secondary schools. The sample consisted of thirty (30) teachers of English selected in fifteen (15) secondary schools in Ado and Ikere Local Government Areas of Ekiti State, Nigeria. The teachers were personally observed in their classes; a teacher to averagely twenty (20) students. The instruments used for classroom observation were Classroom Interaction Sheet (CIS) and an on-the-spot assessment as evinced by classroom evaluation. The parameter used for collecting the data consisted of seven observable categories. Three research hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance during the study. The findings indicated that there was significant relationship between teacher-students classroom interaction and quality English language teaching; students' performance in English and the development of students' listening and speaking skills. The study, therefore, recommended that more emphasis should be laid on teaching English language through much classroom interaction putting into consideration teacher's use of language to orient, motivate, organize and encourage students' involvement in what is being taught. Teachers should be educated on how to use appropriate skills of prompting, probing, reinforcing and sustaining during teaching.

Introduction

There has been a general awareness that the learning and teaching of English as a second language is influenced by factors residing in the wider community outside the classroom. However, it is important also to note that there is a relationship between classroom practice and external influences. These external influences include the issue of cultural differences between the indigenous languages and the second language; teaching methods; the issues of competent use of the language for academic purposes and social interaction; the level of competence to attain both within and outside the community in which the second language is used; the teaching methods to be adopted in relation to the quality and quantity of materials, facilities and resources available; and also, what model of the language is generally acceptable (Williams, 1990).

It is obvious that in language teaching over the years, we find that there have been changes from one position to another in the approaches used. Williams (1990) refers to this as a 'swing of the pendulum' in the history of language teaching. At some time, there would be emphasis on teaching of rules; at another time, emphasis would be on practice and repetition, without teaching the rules; at some other time, scholars have argued that emphasis should be on teaching competence

that would incorporate both communication and linguistic skills (Hymes 1971). Nonetheless, it has been argued that no one particular approach to language teaching can provide answers for all purposes and situations. At present, there are many new methods being tried out. Teachers are not supposed to stick rigidly to a single method but acquaint themselves with alternative choices, modifying one to a particular situation.

There is no doubt that the factors mentioned above have contributed to the low quality of English language use, teaching, learning and acquisition in Nigeria. However, as claimed by Alo (2005), more focus should be on the link between these variables and what goes on in the classroom, in order to enhance the quality of English teaching.

The English Language in the Classroom

English has dual potentials of being a curriculum subject and a medium of instruction in our schools. These dual potentials afford it with cognitive and pedagogical functions. Its curriculum content consists of a substantial body of factual knowledge of focusing on grammar and sounds but not so much on meaning and functions. The students are therefore motivated to cope with the syllabus for examination purposes. However, Vygotsky (1991) is of the opinion that perhaps the syllabus provides materials and techniques that are geared towards critical thinking and analytical skills which would come with teaching

Statement of the Problem

Much effort has been put into improving the quality of English language use, acquisition teaching and learning in Nigeria. However, it is a common feeling today, that problems of learners of the English language are yet to be solved. It is on this basis that this paper sets out to examine issues on the English language teaching in the classroom situation. In a traditional class, the main communicative purpose is the transmission of knowledge from teacher to students. Thus, teachers often initiate classroom discourse and in most cases dictate the course it would take. Obviously, the discourse pattern in an ESL classroom setting is teacher-dominated. However, there should be consideration for teacher-student interaction. Thus, in language teaching some practical issues are expected to be acknowledged by teachers.

Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the extent to which teacher-student interaction can enhance the quality of English language teaching.
2. To investigate the influence of teacher-student classroom interaction on students' performance in English.
3. To examine the extent to which the students' listening and speaking skills can be developed through teacher-student classroom interaction.

Research Questions

1. To what extent can teacher-student interaction enhance the quality of English language teaching?
2. Does teacher-student classroom interaction have any influence on students' performance in English?

3. To what extent can the students' listening and speaking skills be developed through teacher-student classroom interaction?

Research Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between teacher-student classroom interaction and the quality of English language teaching.
2. There is no significant relationship between teacher-student classroom interaction and student performance in English.
3. There is no significant relationship between teacher-student classroom interaction and the development of students' listening and speaking skills.

Methodology

The participants used for this study were mainly secondary school teachers, and students in JS three, SS one, two and three classes of fifteen secondary schools in Ikere and Ado Local Government areas of Ekiti State, Nigeria. The selection of schools and classes for observation was randomly made.

A total of thirty (30) teachers were selected and the number of students was averagely twenty (20) students per teacher. The participants, both teachers and students, were personally observed during English language lessons. The instruments used for classroom observation were Classroom Interaction Sheet (CIS) and an on-the-spot assessment as evinced by classroom evaluation. The parameter used for collecting the data consisted of seven observable categories - motivation, questioning technique, time management, content, class management, language use, and evaluation skills. The data were collected by observing the full English language lessons of a period of forty (40) minutes for each. The essence of this is to ensure that no aspect of the interaction should be missed. The recorded lessons were later examined and analysed using Pearson product moment correlation coefficient.

Data Analysis and Findings

Table 1: Percentage Frequency for each of the variable tested.

Variables	Very Adequate	Adequate	Inadequate	Very Inadequate
Motivation	60 5%	720 60%	360 30%	60 5%
Questioning Technique	420 35%	540 45%	240 20%	----
Time Management	600 50%	540 45%	60 5%	----
Content	----	900 75%	300 25%	----
Class Management	540 45%	420 35%	240 30%	----
Language Use	480 40%	720 60%	-----	----
Evaluation	120 10%	660 55%	420 35%	----
Students' Performance	----	480 40%	720 60%	----

The table above reveals the percentage frequency of variables observed during teacher- student classroom interaction. The table reveals 60% and 5% for adequate and very adequate respectively for teachers' motivation technique, 45% and 35% for adequate and very adequate for questioning technique, 45% and 50% for adequate and very adequate for teachers' time management, 60% and 40% of adequate and very adequate for language use, 55% and 10% of evaluation and 40% of adequate for students' performance. The implication of these results shows that all the variables observed (motivation, question technique, time management, content, class management, language use, evaluation and performance) were positively affecting students' quality of the use of English language.

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between teacher-student classroom interaction and the quality of English language teaching.

Table 2: Matrix Correlation for Teacher-Student Classroom Interaction and English Language Teaching

	Motivation	Questioning Technique	Language Use	Content	Evaluation
Motivation	1				
Question Technique	0.32	1			
Language Use	0.28	0.82	1		
Content	0.22	0.28	0.47	1	
Evaluation	0.52	0.64	0.66	0.33	1

The correlation matrix shown in table 1 above reveals the degree of relationships between variables tested. The table shows that motivation and questioning technique (0.32), motivation and language use (0.28), motivation and content (0.22), questioning technique and content (0.28), language use and content (0.47) are fairly correlated, motivation and evaluation (0.52), questioning technique and evaluation (0.64), questioning technique and language use (0.82), language use and evaluation (0.66) are highly correlated. The implication of these correlations is that teacher- student classroom interaction enhances English language teaching in the classroom. Hence, there is significant relationship between teacher student classroom interaction and the quality of English language teaching.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between teacher- student classroom interaction and students' performance in English.

Table 3: Matrix Correlation for Teacher – Student Classroom Interaction and Students' Performance

	Motivation	Questioning Technique	Language use	Content
Motivation	1			
Questioning Technique	0.32	1		
Language use	0.28	0.82	1	
Content	0.22	0.28	0.47	1
Evaluation	0.52	0.64	0.66	0.33
Time Management	0.28	0.08	0.24	0.25
Class Management	0.47	0.65	0.79	0.49
Students' performance	0.44	0.25	0.38	0.47

Evaluation	Time Management	Class Management	Students' Performance
1			
0.10	1		
0.76	0.30	1	
0.49	0.24	0.53	1

The table reveals that motivation and questioning technique (0.32), motivation and language use (0.28), questioning technique and content (0.28), content and time management (0.25), time management and classroom management (0.30), are fairly related. Also motivation and content (0.22), motivation and evaluation (0.52), motivation and classroom management (0.47), language use and content (0.47), content and evaluation (0.33) are moderately related. Finally, motivation and student performance (0.44), questioning technique and performance (0.25), language use and performance (0.38), content and performance (0.47), evaluation and performance (0.49), class management and performance (0.53) are moderately

correlated. The implication of these relationships is that teacher- student classroom interaction and students' performance in English language are related.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant relationship between teacher- student classroom interactions and development of students' listening and speaking skills

Table 4: Correlation Matrix for Teacher – Student Classroom Interactions and Development of Students' Listening and Speaking Skills

	Questioning Technique	Content	Language Use	Motivation
Question Technique	1			
Content	0.28	1		
Language Use	0.82	0.47	1	
Motivation	0.32	0.28	0.22	1

The analysis in table 3 shows that questioning technique and content (0.28), questioning technique and motivation (0.32), are fairly related. Questioning technique and language use (0.82) are highly related. The relationship between content and language use (0.47), content and motivation (0.28) are moderate. This implies that there is a significant relationship between teacher- student classroom interaction and development of students' listening and speaking skills.

Discussion

The findings of this study reveal that teacher-student classroom interaction is significant as a way of improving the quality of English language teaching. This finding is in agreement with the opinion of Morh and Morh (2007), Tuan and Nhu (2010) that classroom interaction as a key to reaching the primary aim of language learning gives teachers much opportunity to engage students and also encourage their participation towards language acquisition and development. It can be deduced that the quality of the communication skills possessed by the teacher has much effect on the quality of what he or she teaches. This lies in the areas such as pronunciation, the use of tone, pitch, the appropriate use of grammatical features like tenses, agreement relation, and so forth. In a class, if the instructional conversation between teacher and students gives room for students to share their thinking and contribute their voices to the discussion and students provide even partially correct responses the teacher can value their contributions, reinforce the correct portions and then attempt to refine their responses.

Tchombe (1992) has noted that the teacher's language use has a lot of influence on the students' developing competence in language use. It has been empirically shown by Bruner (1975) that to some extent what teachers say and how they use language help students to structure and interpret their experiences. The findings also corroborate the opinion of Tchombe (1984) that there is a significant relationship between the teacher's teaching styles in structure construction, type of questions and the quality of language used for lesson delivery, description ,

narration and explanation of content, and the students' development of competence in language use.

Indeed, it is evident in findings of this study that there is a moderate relationship between teacher-student interaction and students' performances. All the variables considered in this study have significant correlation with the performance of the students involved in the study as evinced by an on-the-spot assessment. They all corroborate one another in classroom interactions to achieve a main goal of student's language learning. Hence, Teachers motivation, questioning technique, language use / skills, content of the lesson, evaluation, time management and class management have effect on the student's performance in all aspects of English language learning. Teacher uses questions to initiate classroom interaction and to elicit various answers (relevant or irrelevant) from the students. This facilitates learning. Talk such as initiation evaluation and follow up can be achieved through teachers questioning technique (Chang, 2003 & Tuan and Nhu, 2010).

The findings also imply that there is a very fair relationship between teacher-student classroom interaction and the development of students' listening and speaking skills. Deji-Afuye and Olujobi, (2009) believe that listening and speaking are important processes in language and learning. They are closely related in that one cannot occur without the other. Listening involves the ability to hear and understand; evaluate and respond to what is heard. Speaking on the other hand, involves the use of voice to express thoughts. When listening has taken place, thoughts expressed are heard, understood and interpreted. It was observed during the classroom observation conducted for this study that through classroom interaction listening and speaking skills were further confirm as essential in language learning. The development of these two skills could be facilitated by classroom interactions.

Positive interaction can be achieved by the kind and technique of questioning used by the teacher. In the view of Chang (2003), this consists of the following points:

- i. Asking questions to make the student participate
- ii. The use of known-answer questions brings about students confidence.
- iii. Teacher's avoidance of negative evaluation of student's but correcting all irrelevant answers establishes a very supportive atmosphere in the classroom for students to express themselves freely and with confidence.
- iv. The use of preparatory- initiation.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It has been shown in the foregoing discussion that teaching and learning English can be enhanced through classroom interactions between teachers and students. More importantly, classroom interaction in English language teaching is like a practical class in which the learners can learn structural components of the language and its communicative applications. In most classroom interactions, teachers are considered to be the initiators of discussions which usually involve Initiation-Response-Feedback pattern and teachers questioning. This is facilitated in teacher talk and responses from the students.

The kind of relationship a teacher establishes with his or her students can go a long way to develop the interest of such students in what the teacher stands for, especially what he or she teaches. In the view of Chang (2003), positive relationship

is a powerful weapon a teacher can use to draw full attention the students and in turn foster a favourable learning environment and motivation. The teacher's role is important since teachers are the initiators of classroom interactions. Hence the study recommends the following:

1. More emphasis should be laid on teaching English language through much classroom interaction putting into consideration teacher's use of language to orient, motivate, organize and encourage students' involvement in what is being taught.
2. Teachers should be educated on how to use appropriate skills of prompting, probing, reinforcing and sustaining during teaching.
3. The government should make provision for language laboratories and ICT driven classrooms and also their usages possible.
4. There should be in-service training and workshop for the teachers to update them to meet up with the challenges.
5. This study can be replicated to incorporate more local government areas in the state, more state at regional level, and all states at the national level.

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INNOVATION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING: CODE-SWITCHING IN ESL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Experts in English as a second language teaching have been concerned about the failure rate among learners of English as a second language and have suggested measures to arrest the situation. The understanding that 'language teaching does not take place in a neutral or value-free environment' has called for discretion in the choice making not only of learning materials but also of teaching methods and language of instruction within the classroom. While the contents of learning materials have been adapted to reflect the peculiar milieu of learners, it does not appear that language of instruction has been considered. Thus, this paper examines the language of instruction and proposes code-switching between bilinguals' first language and the target language (English). In its sub-sections, we review some of its merits and demerits, and argue for its adoption in the teaching-learning environment.

Keywords: ESL, innovation, bilinguals, code-switching, method

Introduction

The desirability and usefulness of code-switching between learners' first language and the target language in classroom discourse in second or foreign language learning environment has been debated in the literature. While some scholars (e.g. Cook, 2002; and others) argue that its adoption might be fraught with many problems that may leave learners deficient in communicative competence in the target language, their stance has been questioned by others (Cain, 2005; Norrish, 1997; to mention two) with evidence that tends to strengthen its suitability when adopted appropriately. For example, the use of learners' knowledge of their first language as foundation to build upon in instructing them in the target language has been mentioned in the literature. This is a pedagogical way of moving the learner from the known to the unknown.

Although many studies have been done on natural data in non-formal contexts (Amuda, 1986; Bello, 2006; Blom & Gumperz, 1972; among others), not much attention has been directed at code-switching phenomenon in formal situation e.g. in classroom discourse. However, some scholars have done some works (Cole, 1998; Eldridge, 1996; Flyman, 1997; Flyman-Mattsson & Bureuhilt, 1999; Guthrie, 1984; Jacobson 1983; Martin-Jones, 1988; Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi & Bunyi, 1992; Norman & Carter 2001; Sert, 2005; among others) although this writer is yet to come across similar works in Nigeria. Perhaps an insight into its functions in teaching-learning environment might be necessary to motivate research into its application in the teaching of the English Language in Nigeria. In this paper, we highlight some of the functions of code-switching in classroom discourse in a second language learning situation.

Code-switching

Although code-switching and code-mixing are often used interchangeably in the literature as if they are synonymous, research findings indicate that the two terms might be referring to two different sociolinguistic phenomena. Trudgill (2006) appears to distinguish between them when he opines that on the one hand, code-mixing is the process whereby speakers indulge in code-switching between languages of such rapidity and density, even within sentences and phrases, which it is not really possible to say at any given time which language they are speaking. On the other hand, code-switching is the process whereby bilingual or bidialectal speakers switch back and forth between one language or dialect and another within the same conversation. From these definitions, it appears that while it might be difficult to pin a stretch of utterance to a particular language while code-mixing, it might not be difficult to do same for code-switching, as speakers deliberately switch from a language to another. For example, *awon buses yen o ti arrive*. Here, the speaker so mixes Yoruba lexis with English words, in such a way that it is very difficult to determine whether English grammar or Yoruba grammar has been followed. According to Trudgill (2006):

there are many reports from countries such as Malta, Nigeria and Hong Kong of educated elites (sic) indulging in code-mixing, using a mixture of English and the local language. Sociolinguistic explanations for this behaviour normally concentrate on the possibility, through using code-mixing as a strategy, of projecting two identities at once, for example that of a modern, sophisticated, educated person and that of a loyal, local patriot (p, 23).

This position tends to support the concept of 'act of identity'. To LePage, "any speech act performed by an individual is an act of identity. In any given situation, speakers will select from the range of varieties available to them in their verbal repertoires depending on which personal and social identity they wish to project" (cited in Trudgill, 2006).

However, in code-switching, a broader term for code mixing practices, it appears that the language choice is less chaotic and is based on some social and linguistic contexts. For example, "it may be that one language is typically associated with one set of domains, and the other language with another". Describing code-switching, Richard, Platt & Platt (1995) say it is "a change by a speaker (or writer) from one language or language variety to another one. Code switching can take place in a conversation when one speaker uses one language and the other speaker answers in a different language. A person may start speaking one and then change to another one in the middle of their speech..." (p, 58)

In sum, code-mixing and code-switching are common sociolinguistic phenomena in bilingual/multilingual communities and extend to all social groups within the larger multilingual societies (see Akindele and Adegbite 1999,34-38 for more on code switching).

Code-switching in English language classroom discourse

The teaching- learning environment that involves learners and teachers should be considered as a social group with its own peculiarities. This is supported by the claim that 'language teaching does not take place in a neutral or value-free environment'. This understanding has motivated the call for needs analysis in

second/foreign language learning and choice making of learning materials coupled a need for innovation in teaching methods and language of instruction within the classroom. While the contents of learning materials have been adapted to reflect the peculiar milieu of learners, it does not appear that language of instruction has been given due consideration.

Some scholars who have examined language of instruction in second/foreign language teaching environment have proposed the use of learners' first language. For example, Jacobson (1983) has proposed a model in which code-switching is used as a teaching method in bilingual programmes. Similarly, Giauque & Ely (1990) proposed an extended use of this method to also include foreign language teaching. Thus it appears that this orientation is gaining momentum among educators and researchers, although not much has been done in this part of the world where English is used and taught as a second language.

It is interesting to note that the applicability of code-switching is being recognized in second language contexts although this might be difficult to find in the Nigerian learning context. According to Flyman-Mattson & Burenhult (1999), drawing on attitudes expressed by students, some authors have noted an increased acceptance of code switching as a teaching method (p.2). It must be noted that although it appears that there is the dearth of study in this area in Anglophone West Africa, where English is the language of instruction for all school subjects aside from local languages in Nigeria (at least from Basic 3 and beyond), one would not be surprised to find that in classroom discourse, teachers and learners who are bilinguals often consciously or unconsciously code-switch between local languages and the language of instruction (English).

Taken that a given learning environment or the classroom situation is often considered as a social group made up of learners and teachers, in a second language situation, members often have appreciable mastery of at least two languages – their first language and the target language. For example, in Nigeria, teachers of English and their learners share a common first language and the target language although in cities there might slight differences in the first language that they share. Whatever the differences, one would always find that code switching is a common feature in classroom discourse between learners and teachers.

Reports from studies Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Tien & Liu, 2006; Widdowson, 2003;) in other bilingual/multilingual societies show that teachers and learners consciously or unconsciously code-switch in classroom discourse. According to Sert (2005) code switching is not only a widely observed phenomenon especially seen in multilingual and multicultural communities but also in ELT classrooms. Thus code switching comes into use either in the teachers' or the students' discourse especially in language teaching and learning situation.

This feature is rather not encouraged by many stakeholders, especially language teachers and researchers. However, in this paper, we argue for its formal use in the English language teaching and learning situation (classroom discourse) because of its functions in second language learning environment. It is anticipated that insight into teachers and learners' underlying reasons for code-switching and evidence from other works would further strengthen its use and open up further studies into innovation in language teaching methods. In what follows, we enumerate some of the arguments for the use of code-switching between learners' first language and the English language in classroom discourse.

Underlying factors and functions of code-switching in classroom discourse

Aside from the manipulative and personal purposes that code switching serves bilinguals, bilinguals also use code switching to define the situation as they wish, and to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention (Trudgill 2006), code switching serves other purposes in classroom discourse. It has been reported that when teachers and learners code switch, they have underlying reasons for the practice, and they tend to serve certain purposes that enhance second language teaching and learning (p, 105).

The literature suggests that teachers' use of code switching in classroom discourse falls within topic switch, affective functions, and repetitive functions (Mattson & Burenhult, 1999) on the one hand. On the other hand, learners' use of code switching is said to entail equivalence, floor-holding, reiteration, and conflict control (Eldridge, 1996). Before highlighting these functions, it might be in place to observe that as bi/multilingual teachers and learners' code switch naturally in conversation and many times unconsciously. This feature indicates their identification with their local languages and willingness to identify with the target language. Apart from the pedagogical purposes that code-switching serves; it also fosters learners identification with both their local culture and familiarization with that of the target language. The case of cultural alienation and loss of identity that learning a foreign language is often associated with is minimised. Whereas, such alienation would have been heightened where the learning environment is foreign or the use of local language is prohibited, even in purposeful casual conversation in the classroom. Some studies show that learners are less inhibitive in the learning process where code-switching is encouraged, especially as it fosters participation with less anxiety in learning activities. For example, Ahmad & Jusoff (2009) found that learners indicated satisfaction towards their learning as they were able to comprehend better and participate in classroom activities. Ahmad & Jusoff (2009) observes that "this report confirms the novel role of code-switching in enhancing learners psychological state when attending their English classes...the anxiety-free classroom atmosphere encourages them to participate more actively in the classroom activities" p, 52.

Closely related to this is the notion of proceeding from the known to the unknown. The use of learners' local language as the starting point (assuming they have appreciable mastery in their local languages) and recourse to them would be a good foundation to build upon, in teaching and learning the second language.

Learners' use of code-switching

It has been reported that learners code-switch in classroom discourse for floor-holding, reiteration, equivalence and conflict control. According to Serf (2006), learners sometimes use native equivalent of certain lexical items in the target language and therefore code switch to their local languages. It might be argued that this often happens when learners cannot access the appropriate lexical items in the target language. Therefore, equivalence functions as a defensive mechanism for learners as it gives them the opportunity to continue communication by bridging the gaps resulting from foreign language incompetence. To the teacher and the learner, the gap becomes obvious and efforts are made to fill the gap. If the learner has the item in the passive lexicon, it is recalled and used thereby transferring it to the active

lexicon. But where it is neither in the passive nor in the active lexicon, the learner looks for the word or the teacher supplies it, and the gap is filled and learning takes place. Thus, equivalence serves as an indicator of gaps in the learning process. Equivalence function is similar to floor-holding function. In floor-holding, “during conversation in the target language, the learner fills (sic) the stopgap with native language use...mechanism for avoiding gaps in communication which may result from lack of fluency in the target language (Serf 2006). It is said that learners who code switch for floor holding generally have the same problem of inability to recall the appropriate target language structure or lexicon. Although it might be argued that where this is encouraged, it might hamper the learner’s fluency in the target language. However, the realisation that the learner has some gaps in the learning process should equip both teachers and learners with areas to be covered and improved upon. Suffice to say that the learner would have suffered less embarrassment compared to losing the floor for inability to convey his/her message which might result in inhibition, and thus hamper learning.

According to Eldridge (1996), messages are reinforced, emphasized, or clarified where the message has already been transmitted in one code, but not understood. This observation throws light on learners’ use of code switching for reiteration (p, 306). According to Serf (2006) the message in the target language is repeated by the learner in native tongue through which the learner tries to give the meaning by making use of a repetition technique. Two reasons are given for this feature – the learner might not have transferred the meaning exactly in the target language or might think that it is more appropriate to code switch in order to indicate to the teacher that the content is clearly understood (Serf, 2006). For example, in vocabulary classes, a learner might give the meaning in local language to show that the concept is understood or is not.

The last function is conflict control. It is reported that for the potentially conflictive language use of learners (meaning that the learner tends to avoid a misunderstanding or tends to utter words indirectly for specific purposes), code switching is a strategy to transfer the intended meaning. The underlying reason for this tendency is to use this type of code switching, which may vary according to learners’ needs, intentions or purposes. In addition, lack of some culturally equivalent lexis between native language and target language which may lead to violation of the transference of intended meaning (Serf, 2005).

Teachers’ use of code-switching

In some studies that have been carried out in second/foreign language teaching learning environment, teachers were found to have used code switching for the following purposes – linguistic insecurity, topic switch, affective functions, and repetitive functions among others. In Flymann-Mattsson & Burenhult’s (1999) study among second language teachers of French in Sweden, they found that teachers code switched when they encountered difficulties in relating new concepts to the learners (linguistic insecurity). They also code switched according to which topic is under discussion. For example, certain aspects of foreign language teaching such as grammar instruction are preferably expressed in the mother tongue of the student. In addition, for expression of emotions, spontaneous expression of surprise / satisfaction and mutual understanding in discourse with students, the

teachers also used code switching (affective functions). At other times, teachers turn to their students' first language for socialising e.g., to signal friendship and solidarity (socializing functions). The teachers also used code switching to convey the same message – repetition of the previously uttered sentences where the target language precedes the first language (repetitive functions) (see the appendix for examples drawn from other studies).

In some contexts, Flyman-Mattsson & Burenhult (1999) reported that code switching has been found to function as a marker for the students to listen extra carefully although one of the main reasons for teacher code-switching to the L1 of the students is to make the students understand their utterances (p, 67). It is observed that in Sweden, teachers believe that the first language of learners is a necessary means of explaining rules and structures of the foreign or second language. In Guthrie's (1992) comparative study of two teachers, one bilingual and one monolingual working with Chinese learners of English in the US, the teachers used five communicative functions – translation, 'we code', directions, clarification and check for understanding.

Having enumerated some of the functions code switching performs in language teaching-learning environment, it has been observed that issues of conscious, planned code-switching among teachers should be discussed to avoid certain loopholes. For example, linguistic insecurity among teachers might lead to learners losing confidence in the teacher. For example, where a teacher is unable to find appropriate words in an utterance in the target language (where such words exist) and filled the gap with words in the first language of the learners. This might indicate incompetence in the target language and lead to loss of confidence.

Conclusion

Based on the functions of code-switching between learners' first language and the target language enumerated above, it is suggested that its applicability in second language teaching in Nigeria should be investigated. Areas for study might include the attitude of learners to teachers' use of code-switching, its effectiveness in learning, its impact on learners' competence in the target language, students' use of code-switching in classroom group discussions. It must be noted that code switching in learners' first language in classroom discourse might be one of the ways of promoting the use of local languages and also of developing co-ordinate bilinguals who are competent users of both the local languages and the target language. However, the assumption is that teachers who will serve in this capacity are themselves co-ordinate bilinguals.

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Appendix

T=Teacher Ss= Students (Code-switching between English and Chinese)

Example 1

T: (Read the sentences of the text) “ ... When they came to arrest him on grounds of malfeasance in office, it was, fortunately, for something that had taken place 10 years ago.’ What does ‘on grounds of’ mean?”

Ss: (silence)

T: “It means 由于, 因 (because of).”

Example 2

T: “ The International Herald Tribune is a very famous newspaper in America. Do you know this newspaper? ”

Ss: (silence)

T: “It’s 国 先 (The Chinese version of the newspaper).”

Translation

Example 3

T: “ Do you know cause and effect? For example, he works very hard and he got high scores in the examination. In this sentence, ‘he works very hard’ is cause, and ‘he got high scores in the examination’ is effect.

就是因果关系, 因果关系。 (This is cause and effect, cause and effect.)”

In these two examples, the meanings of English vocabulary items were conveyed not only through the switch to Chinese equivalents but also through the use of other teaching strategies, such as definition, exemplification and repetition. The integration of code-switching with other strategies fulfilled the purpose of ensuring comprehension.

Example 4

T: “Let’s come to the next sentence. ‘Hoping to find a greatly advanced civilization, the Time Traveler sees in the misty, warm air only an ominous, giant white sphinx on a huge pedestal.’ 大家注意 一句的描写。 (Please pay attention to the description of this sentence.) Can anyone paraphrase this sentence?”

Here, the teacher used the Chinese switching to get the students’ attention. She emphasized what she thought was important by inserting a Chinese sentence and drawing the students’ attention to the description. (Source: Jingxia 2010:10-23)

Code-switching between English and the Swedish language in the classroom situation

(1)

Make other people feel bad about themselves, like make jokes about them and so...yeah..it’s like så som du vill bli behandlad ska du behandla andra liksom”.

(2):

"Ehm, maybe that you inte ska döma, som man when the first time you met the guy, yeah, that you have to lära känna the person first and before you can judge someone and say he is like that, and he is like that".

(3):

"I think the whole theme is that we wanna learn that ehm, dom just look for the money or stuff...look at the person"

(4):

"17th century eller nåt, I don't know"

5):

"Grisly-beard re-, re- reveals that he has been all the characters along the way...och...the fiddler and the drunken soldier...yeah...he learned her a lesson so that she would marry him, which she does in the end".

In (5) the student tried to keep the conversation going so he added the Swedish conjunction och in the sentence in order to avoid gaps in the conversation. He probably knew how to say the word och in English but since he lacked the competence in that situation he decided to use the Swedish word instead of having a gap in the conversation.

(6):

"In the end...in the beginning of the story she makes fun of...ja...a lot of people..."

In (6) we also notice floor-holding code-switching. Here the student did not want a gap in her sentence so she inserted the Swedish word ja in order to continue without a gap. This sort of behavior, is what Yule (2006, p. 135) calls the use of discourse markers. The pupils use these markers because they think that the conversation will sound more logical than instead of having gaps in the discourse.

(Source: Youkhana, Sana (2010) Code-switching in the Foreign language classroom.)

HÖGSKOLAN FÖR LÄRANDE OCH KOMMUNIKATION (HLK)

Högskolan i Jönköping

Projekt i engelska 15 hp inom Språkvetenskap Lärarutbildningen

Höstterminen 2010

YORUBA GREETING FORMS: HOW FELICITOUS IN ENGLISH MEDIUM?

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Abstract

This paper examines the plausibility of expressing culture-induced Yoruba greeting forms in English medium. Four Yoruba situations of social occasions, time and weather, religion, and trade and craft have been selected to discuss different greeting forms. Yoruba greeting forms in these contexts are glossed into English, and the pragmatic mappings that help to reveal their speech acts are worked out. The finding is that due to cultural difference between English and Yoruba, such literally translated Yoruba greetings would remain implausible or outright unintelligible to any native speaker of English or speakers of English as a second language, given the linguistic constraints that such a cross-cultural study would likely produce. The pedagogical implication of this is that teachers of English should review their approaches, strategies and methodologies to accommodate communicative approach to language teaching.

Introduction

This paper examines the pragmatics of Yoruba greeting forms; particularly, the plausibility of expressing such through the English language. We have looked at greeting expressions in Yoruba in the domains of social situations, time and weather, religions, and trades and crafts. We also examined general- situation greeting forms. The belief is that like all verbal expressions, what greeting needs, in order to be valid, is a proper context; considered or spoken by the world of the text. No speech act makes any sense itself without the consideration of context. It is common knowledge that greeting, across all languages, is a mode of conversation, and what is characteristic of a conversation is its adjacency in part-wise structures. Greeting can be described as a kind of collaboration, which does not just proceed at random, but obeys certain rules.

The greeting forms discussed here are face-to-face greetings involving the presence of a greeter or speaker S and a listener or hearer H. There could be some other forms such as telephone greeting, social media greeting, etc. Some greetings are in pairs – a first-part greeting such as 'How are you?' and a second part in the form of a simple 'return-greeting' such as 'Fine, and you?' is expected. This type of a pair is given by a common illocutionary intention; pairs can thus be 'greeting-greeting', 'order (verbal) compliance', 'request-providing the requested item' (e.g. information, permission, etc.), and so on (Mey 157). The pair that is relevant to our discussion, in this paper, is the greeting-greeting pair.

What is Pragmatics?

The world of pragmatics, according to Mey (182), is not predictable in the same way as morphological or syntactic worlds are. Speech acts assist us in making some of the more-or-less predictable sequences that we all know from normal conversation. In other words, Pragmatics views the world as a world of language users. This field of language study derives from logic and philosophy. The popular view is that Pragmatics deals with language in use. Scholars of this field believe that language use is of great importance to mankind.

The goal of Pragmatics is to explain how a listener can succeed in retrieving some interpretation intended by the speaker from an uttered sequence of words, and Crystal (120) has explained that Pragmatics studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of such choice on others.

Ayodabo (133) has introduced the essence of language function to this discussion on Pragmatics, when he observes that Pragmatics focuses on illocutionary acts; an aspect of speech act that specifies what the language is being used for, in a given occasion. He therefore submits that the whole point of pragmatic theory is to explain how the context is used in the interpretation of an utterance. This is apt for this study, though greetings are considered to perform mere social functions.

It is obvious from the various definitions of Pragmatics examined, so far, that Pragmatic theory has drawn inspiration mainly upon philosophy of language and the 'theory of speech act', in particular, as well as the analysis of conversations and of cultural differences in verbal interaction. Beyond this, the theory must also attempt a description of the background competencies, which language users activate to interpret speech acts, along with *presuppositions* and *implicatures*. It is only then that such a theory can serve the necessary diagnostic and remedial purposes. We should note that there are numerous scholars and authorities that have worked in the area of Pragmatics. Time and space will not permit us to discuss several other views, here. What is instructive is that all pragmaticians appear to agree that pragmatic approaches to language study are concerned about language in use in social context, particularly with reference to the functionality of utterances performed in different contexts of interaction. Since different contexts of social, weather and time, religious and occupational settings produce the greeting forms discussed in this paper, there is the need to say one or two things about the concept of context.

Contexts in Pragmatics

Defining context would involve discussing the setting with regard to time and place. Allan (36) has used the term 'context' to mean any one or more of three different kinds of things, these are:

- i. Setting which is defined on the spatio-temporal location of the utterance, i.e. on the particular time (movement) and particular place at which S utters U and the particular time and place at which H hears or reads U
- ii. The World Spoken in U, and
- iii. Textual environment, which is provided by the TEXT in which U appears, i.e. the set of utterances of which U is a member and which together constitute a cohesive semantic unit.

Adegbija (191) says the term 'context' refers to the relevant aspects of the physical or social setting of an utterance or discourse. He has identified four broad types of

contexts as impinging on utterance interpretation. These are the physical, the sociocultural, the linguistic and the psychological.

Defining the context will also require a definition of the participants; that is the senders and the receivers of the messages: Are they boys, girls, soldiers, teachers, farmers, market women? What is their role: are they doctors, teachers, artisans, craftsmen/women, etc.? Such contextual considerations are important in attaching meaning to utterances, and, in particular, in analyzing greetings.

Greeting forms in Nigeria

Basically, 'greeting is an expression of pleasure at meeting someone (Akmajian, et al 389), but these expressions can vary enormously in complexity and formality. Akmajian, et al. have identified three situations/types of greeting, based on formality of situations, and these are Casual, Informal and Formal (See page 389). They observe further that greetings tend to be highly ritualized in form, in that we generally use a small number of them over and over again. Greetings serve mostly to give everyone in the conversation a turn at saying something.

I must be quick to point out that not all greeting forms are expressions of pleasure at meeting someone, particularly in Yoruba. As we shall see in our discussions, there are greeting forms that are expressed to condole and identify with a friend, relation or acquaintance during mishap, grief or any unpleasant happening. Thus, Akmajian, et al's generalization may not be applicable to some situations in Yoruba land, in particular, Nigeria and Africa, in general.

Methodology

This study is a survey research; hence it is descriptive in nature. The study has sought to examine greetings, which are interpersonal social acts, as day-to-day language use forms among Yoruba speakers. Over 100 greeting forms were recorded within six months (10th February to 10th July, 2013), in Yoruba speaking areas in Oyo, Kwara, Kogi and Kaduna States of Nigeria to cover four (4) main human situations of: social events, time and weather, religion, and art and craft. The greetings, originally recorded in Yoruba, are translated into the English language, for uniform analysis. The common ground for analysis is premised on the situations that define each type, and the contextual beliefs shared by both the 'greeter' and the 'greeted' in each of the greeting events. All other greeting forms that do not fall under the four (4) types have been expunged before analysis.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Greeting forms recorded for analysis and discussion, here, are limited to the following classes: Greeting for Social purpose; Greetings to express periods; Greetings for religious purpose; and Greetings based on trades/crafts, in line with the four categories purposively identified.

A) Greetings for social situations

Greeting expressions here can be either for pleasure or pain, depending on the context(s) inducing the greetings. These forms are characteristic of human relationships at occasions like house warming, child naming, traditional/chieftaincy titles celebration, condolences/burials, etc. The way the expressions are structured shows the degree of closeness between or among the interactants (S and H), and this can take different forms, e.g.: '*Ẹ kú inawo*', (a first-pair part), which may literally

translate to 'Well spending'. This form of greeting cuts across several cultures, but particularly, in Yoruba culture, this form can be uttered to identify with any celebrant who can be naming a child, opening a new house, thanking God on a chieftaincy title or burying a relation (young or old). The neutral response form is characteristically '*Ẹ seun*' (Thank you), and this is applicable to a number of situations that can produce the second pair-part (of greeting) response '*Ẹ seun*'. In specific contexts, the following expressions are peculiar to the following social events in the greeting-greeting adjacency pair:

i. House warming ceremony

<i>Ẹ kú isilé.</i>	I greet (you) for opening your house.
<i>Ilé á tura.</i>	The house will be a comforting one.
<i>Ẹ kú oríre.</i>	I greet (you) for your head is a lucky one.

The common responses for the above variants are:

<i>A dupe, Ayo á kárí.</i>	Thanks, may the joy go round.
<i>Ẹ sé</i>	Thanks!

We should note that there are still several other forms that can be used as a second pair-part of the greeting form, but we cannot accommodate such elaborate discussion for now.

ii. Child christening

Ẹ bárikà, Ẹ kú ewu. Olurun yoo wo o.

Congrats on safe delivery. God will protect the child.

This form of greeting derives its context from the common belief that a woman who has put to bed is a lucky one, considering the danger inherent in nursing pregnancy for about nine months. Since European cultures do not seem to share this kind of fear, we may not easily find equivalents, in the English language, to express this situation adequately. As a result, what we have done here is translate these greeting forms in averagely permissible intelligible English. The contextual backgrounds that have induced the greeting forms can somehow explain the pragmatics of these greeting forms better.

iii. Traditional/Chieftaincy ceremonies

These forms of ceremonies range from celebrating a conferment of a village/town/community chieftaincy titles on someone, or coronation of a king. It is usually done in a lavish manner through wining, dining, dancing and drumming. In some instances, uniform dresses (*aso ebi*) are worn by well wishers as a mark of solidarity. In such a ceremony, greeting forms may include:

<i>Ẹ kú ináwo.</i>	I greet (you) for this generous spending.
<i>Oye a mori.</i>	The title will fit the head.
<i>Ẹ kú opo eeyan.</i>	I greet (you) for hosting so many people.
<i>A o ri ere nibe o.</i>	We shall benefit from this (honour).

The celebrant's response is a kind of ritualized fixed formulae, because this is a positive and pleasant social situation. The response which is a second pair-part of greeting is:

<i>Ẹ se.</i>	Thanks.
<i>Ayo a kari.</i>	I wish you the same.
<i>Mo dupe.</i>	I thank you.

iv. Condolences/Burials

Expressing solidarity with friends and relations in time of bereavement and grief is considered a social responsibility, particularly in African culture. As a result, the Yoruba use various shades of expression to identify with their people in time of grief, or celebration of the life of an aged relation. Greeting forms in use when the subject matter is death vary, on the basis of the age of the dead. The following was recorded during a visit to a couple who lost their child, in Isanlu, Kogi State:

<i>Ẹ kú iroju,</i>	I salute your courage,
<i>Olorun yoo dawo ibi duro.</i>	May the Lord stop such mishaps.
<i>Oluwa yoo paaro t'anfaani.</i>	May the Lord provide a beneficial replacement.

Generally, greeting forms concerning child birth, death, etc., are laden with prayers and the copious mention of the name of God in different ways (*Oluwa*, *Olorun*, *Eledumare*, etc.). If the dead is of middle-age, and has left behind children and some other relatives, the greeting forms may be varied thus:

<i>Ẹ kú iroju.</i>	I salute your courage.
<i>Oluwa yoo di yin mu.</i>	The Lord will uphold you.
<i>Edumare yoo toju omo oku orun</i>	May the Lord take care of the children of the dead.

The normal response can be:

<i>Ẹ se, mo/a dupe.</i>	I/We thank you.
<i>Ẹ o ni fi iru e gba a.</i>	May we not greet you over a similar incident.

If the deceased is aged, the form of greeting is unique. Greeters see such as a positive development. Greeters can structure their expressions in the form of:

<i>Ẹ kú aseiyinde.</i>	I greet (you) for holding the forth.
<i>Ẹ kú idele, eyin iya/baba yoo dara.</i>	I greet for holding forth, may his/her 'behind' (vacuum created) be graceful.
<i>Olorun ko ni see laaro</i>	The Lord will fill his/her vacuum.
<i>Ojo a jina si'ra won.</i>	May time tarry before your own time comes.

This greeting forms derive their context from the shared belief in the Yoruba cosmology that aged relations who die have only embarked on a 'journey', and that relatives would meet the dead (in life) after death. Greeters share this belief; hence the degree of cooperation that is reflected in all forms of responses, such as:

<i>Ẹ se, a dupe.</i>	Thank you, we are grateful.
<i>Awa naa a gbeyin awon arugbo wa o.</i>	We, too, shall outlive our aged ones.

B) Time/Weather periodic greeting forms.

These greeting forms reflect the Yoruba's consciousness of the significance of time and weather in daily life. There are different greeting forms for almost every period of the day and season. Note that these greeting forms are expressed based on how the weather looks like. For instance, the following greetings were recorded at different times of the day and season:

- i) Early in the morning (between 4am and 6am)

<i>Ẹ kú idaji.</i>	I greet (for waking up) in this early morning.
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- Ẹ kú afemoju.* I greet (for being up) this unclear morning.
- ii) In the morning (7am to 10 am.):
- Ẹ kaaro/Ẹ ku owuro.* Good morning.
- iii) In the early afternoon (11am to 12 noon):
- Ẹ kú iyaleta.* Good early afternoon (if there is anything like that).
- iv) In the afternoon (12.05 to 3.45pm.):
- Ẹ kaasan.* Good afternoon.
- v) In the late afternoon (4 pm to 7pm):
- Ẹ kú irole.* Good before evening (if there is anything like that).
- vi) In the evening (7.30 pm to 11 pm):
- Ẹ kaale.* Good evening.
- vii) In the late hours of the day (12 am to 3 am):
- Ẹ kú oganjo.* I greet you (being awake) at this dead of the night (if there is anything like that).

The greeting forms, above, rely on the concept of 'pragmatic halo'. The extent and the shape of pragmatic halos depend very sensitively on context. The pragmatic halo that refers to a linguistic expression is a set of alternatives 'around' that expression that are close enough in context to that particular expression. In other words, as Nicholas Allott (147) states, 'the pragmatic halo of the expression "three o'clock" is a set of times clustered around three o'clock'.

Again, as seen in examples viii – xii below, the use of 'A/E ku...' is not a singular/plural distinction, rather it serves as an inclusion purpose, which greeters employ as pragmatic tool of inclusion in greeting situations. It is also an ameliorative device to maintain the faces of the 'greeted'.

viii) Greeting form during dry season:

- A/ *Ẹ kú ogbele yii.* We greet for this dryness of the soil (if there is anything like that).

ix) Greeting form during rainy season:

- A/ *Ẹ kú asiko ojo yii.* I/We greet for this rainy season (if there is anything like that).

- A/ *Ẹ kú opo ojo yii* I/We greet for this plenty rain.

x) Greeting forms during cold weather:

- A/ *Ẹ kú otutu/orinrin yii.* I/We greet for this dryness of the soil.

- A/ *Ẹ kú oginitin yii.* I/We greet for this cold weather.

- A/ *Ẹ kú afere yii.* I/We greet for this cold breeze.

xi) Greeting forms during heat period:

- A/ *Ẹ kú oorun yii.* I/We greet for this much heat (if there is anything like that).

xii) Greeting forms during sunny period:

- A/ *Ẹ kú oorun yii.* I/We greet for this sunny day (if there is anything like that).

Responses to all these greeting forms are short, and they reflect the fulfillment of the maxims of quality and quantity of Grice's (1975) CP. The responses are fixed in form, and they can be in any of these variants:

<i>A dupe</i>	We are thankful (to God)
Or <i>O ga o</i>	It is serious!
Or <i>Bi a ti ri i niyen o.</i>	That's the way we've seen it.

The responses above indicate that man is helpless when it comes to the subject matter of weather. The expression of 'thanks' is usually directed to God, the Creator of man and every other thing and situation on earth. All Yoruba people, Nigerians and indeed millions of people share this belief. Greeters who utter the above greeting forms base the success of their utterances on the mutually shared cosmological beliefs to obtain cooperation and corresponding responses from the hearer(s) for the instance of each of the greeting forms presented in i – xii above.

C) Religion-based greeting expressions

Since religion plays a vital role in the life of man, the Yorubas express their belief systems through greetings in the various religions they profess. There are greeting expressions that are essentially peculiar to different religions, as captured in the recorded data below.

i) Christian Religion

Christians greet for all occasions and, particularly, in religious contexts. They also have forms of greetings for different Christian festivals.

- 1) General greeting expressions to clergymen/women

<i>Ẹ kú ise Oluwa.</i>	I greet you over the Lord's work
<i>Oluwa yoo s'agbara d'otun.</i>	The Lord will reenergize you.
- 2) Greeting during Easter period

<i>A/ Ẹ kú odun ajinde.</i>	Happy Easter celebration
<i>Ẹ mi o se opo re laye.</i>	Our life shall witness more of such.
- 3) Greeting forms during Christmas period

<i>A/ Ẹ kú odun</i>	Merry Christmas
<i>A/ Ẹ kú iyedun</i>	I greet you for surviving another year.
<i>Ẹ mi o s'opo re laye.</i>	Our life shall celebrate more of such.
- 4) After a prayer session (within or outside a worshipping centre)

<i>Ẹ kú adura o.</i>	I greet you on this prayer
<i>Oluwa yoo gba a.</i>	The Lord will accept our prayer.

ii) Islamic Religion

Since Islamic religion largely derives from the Arab world, Arabic language permeates greeting expressions in the religion. However, there are still some greeting expressions that are normally rendered in Yoruba language:

- 1) During fasting period:

<i>Ẹ kú ongbe.</i>	I greet you for the dryness of the throat (fasting).
<i>Ẹ kú ise laada.</i>	I greet you for the work of reward.
- 2) During the end of Ramadan period (Eid Il Fitri Celebration)

<i>Ẹ kú odun.</i>	Happy celebration
<i>Ẹ kú iyedun,</i>	I greet you for surviving another year.
<i>Ẹ mi o s'opo re laye.</i>	Our life shall celebrate more of such

The above greeting form is also expressed during the 'ram killing' festival. The only variance is that the word '*ramadan*' is not mentioned here. The usual greeting is '*E kú odun*', meaning 'Happy celebration'.

- 3) Greeting expression when a stranger is about to enter a house is:

Salam Aleikum (Arabic) Peace be unto this house.

As a mark of reverence and honour, the greeter will not enter the house until he/she hears a response of 'Walekum Salam' (Peace be unto you too.).

iii) Traditional Religion

Practitioners of African traditional Religion may invoke the names of their tutelary divinities in their response to greetings. Some of these gods are *Ogun* (the god of iron), *Sango* (the god of thunder), *Obatala* (the god of creation), *Ifa* (god of divination), *Sanponna* (the god of smallpox), etc. When an *Ogun* worshipper at work is greeted *E kú ise baba*. (Baba, I greet you), the response is likely to be in the form of:

- 1) *O/E seun, Ogun o gbeyin.*: (Thank you, *Ogun* will benefit you).

This greeting and response pair is typical of all the adjacency pairs of 'greeting-greeting' about the gods mentioned above. Whenever an adherent of one god is working, and he or she is greeted, he/she responds by mentioning the name of the god/goddess that he/she worships. This understanding is also based/established on the CP and common grounds which the S and H share.

- 2) When an *Ifa* priest/diviner is greeted, whether at work or at home, he is likely to produce a response that includes:

- 3) *Orunmila yoo gbe o.* *Ifa* Oracle will benefit you.

This greeting form is characteristic of the several Yoruba gods and goddesses greeting and response formula.

D) Greeting expressions for indigenous trades/crafts

Yoruba people, in particular, engage in some trades and crafts which reflect the ingenuity of the people. In view of that, greeting expressions abound in the Yoruba language to show appreciation for the ingenuity and craftsmanship of the people. Every craftsman/woman is appreciated and greeted in one peculiar way or the other. Let us look at some recorded instances.

- i) A palm wine tapper on a palm tree

Greeter: *Igba a ro o.* May the climbing rope remain flexible.

Response: *O seun/A dupe.* Thank you.

- ii) Local hair weaver

Greeter: *E kú ewa o.* I greet you on beautification work.

Or *Ooya a ya o.* May the comb separate (hair) well.

Response: *E/O seun/A dupe o.* Thank you.

- iii) Cloth dyers

Greeter: *Are du o.* I wish you successful deep dyeing

Response: *E seun.* Thank you.

There are several other trades and crafts which also have peculiar greeting forms. Often, when such craftsmen/women are at work, and greeted, some of them do not respond verbally, instead they may respond semiotically, by waving one of their

handy tools of trade or by hitting it against another tool, suggestively, to signal a response. Such is common with craftsmen like blacksmith and cloth weavers.

Anyone and everyone that speaks a language and achieves functional adulthood in the culture of the language is a 'semiotician', since their fluency in the given language and culture implies that they are able to competently read the signs of the culture. To get at this code, Jeyifo (2013:3) believes 'you must ... be a comparatist and a universalist of sorts, with a deep interest in how signs and their codes work within and between the diversity of human languages and cultures.' (3)

The plural pronoun '*Ẹ*' which begins most greeting forms in Yoruba is a kind of a 'distinct differential' form useful in addressing two or more persons, or persons of older age, persons of higher social status, or to mark distance. This is a form which marks the second person plural. In Yoruba, the form '*Ẹ*' is also used for both singular and plural addresses as a mark of respect. It is therefore politeness marker.

The reason why greeting forms differ from language to language and culture to culture is simple. The pragmatic appropriateness of a particular expression in a particular context of use is important. The problem is that these contexts of use tend to be rather different from culture to culture, and consequently from language to language. On a general note, a careful look at all the translations will reveal that semantically, there is a gulf of difference between the cultural meaning of the Yoruba greeting forms and their translated English forms. This is explainable in terms of the difference in the worldview of the two languages and people. The plausibility of such expressions in English medium will, in no doubt, be a herculean task. Apart from the almost near unintelligibility of the literal translations, average non Yoruba speakers may find the greeting forms quite linguistically tasking.

Pedagogical Implications and Concluding Remarks

It is instructive to note that greeting as a genre, in Nigeria, particularly among the youths, is taking a worrisome dimension. This is due to a number of reasons. Firstly, urbanization/globalization is fast creeping or eroding into our culture; hence the culture of greeting is dying. Secondly, the emerging 'non-communal' pattern of living is rubbing on us; as a result, many people feel it is a kind of disturbance to greet. Thirdly, the semantic emptiness of greetings, which is pragmatically an empty communion, does not justify the cultural relevance. All these explain why our students result to the use of 'small talks' whenever they are confronted with situations that warrant full expressions of greeting forms. For instance, apart from the usual 'Good morning, Good afternoon, and Good evening' that characterize their time-marking, they can hardly express the shades that come between these periods, which Yoruba language can richly mark.

It is therefore our responsibility, as teachers, to develop meta-language material on indigenous languages, and see the need to work on translation manuals that can capture the worldview of our several indigenous languages. We need all these in order to export the richness of material and non-material aspects of culture into the English language, if possible. This can be situated within the purview of English for special purpose. Applied linguists can help tremendously, along this direction. Also, scholars in the fields of communication and cultural studies should endeavour to lay great emphasis on language aspect of their studies, as language remains the most powerful vehicle of communication and cultural expression.

In this paper, we have looked at the pragmatics of greeting forms in Yoruba language. This was done by examining diverse views on the fields of Pragmatics and Context. Greeting forms discussed, here, are those that are uttered in the circumstances of different social situations, time and weather, religion, and indigenous crafts and trades. As expected, the 'greeter' and 'the greeted' must share certain contextual beliefs before the 'greeting-greeting' pair can be felicitous or considered successful, and this requires a deep integration in Yoruba culture and language by the interlocutors. We have discovered that many of the greeting forms in Yoruba have fixed forms and are highly ritualized, but what is unique is the lexical flexibility which characterizes some of these Yoruba greetings. In other words, there are various ways of wording the greeting forms, and this is based on the linguistic dexterity of an average greeter.

In conclusion, we want to state that the pragmatic presuppositions of a dialogue constitute the indispensable link between the spoken words and the world of their users that is needed to form the appropriate pragmatic act. In actual conversation, as observed by Mey (271), the assumption is that people across cultures will obey certain rules of collaboration in order to make conversation happen and have the flow of talk to progress as smoothly as possible.

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ACHIEVING READING IMPROVEMENT THROUGH HOLY CHILD READING CLUB

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Abstract

Sufficient literature exists to demonstrate that Nigerian students do not enjoy reading. Modern technologies have further driven them far from reading. Research around the world not only demonstrates that reading brings huge dividends to readers but attributes the poor performance in English to students' poor foundation in reading. Reading experts have often canvassed the view that reading clubs provide the platform for reading improvement. The key objective of this study was to monitor and describe the reading activities across the different age brackets which the children enjoyed in a reading club with a view to establish the reliability of reading clubs as agents of reading improvement. The study showed that the oldest readers enjoyed silent reading, discussing and summarizing books read, and playing scrabbles and cross- word puzzles. The 4-6 year olds were delighted when they were read to, when they engaged in word formation exercises using laminated alphabets, when they identified sight words on flash cards and when they played junior scrabble. The youngest group was fascinated when it was read to, when it engaged in picture reading, and most of all, when it listened to and watched stories on CDs and DVDs. Using participant observation and a comparison of real- life reading tasks before and at the end of the reading programme, the study confirmed that reading clubs are indeed agents of reading improvement.

Key words: Reading improvement, silent reading, struggling readers

Introduction

Reading is without question one of the most critical skills in the life of a child. Children who read can understand labels, billboards and road signs. They can read their class notes, do their homework with little assistance and read their examination questions. The inability to read has huge negative consequences not only on the child's life but on the life of the nation. The full impact of a non-reading population is captured in Reutzel and Cooter Jnr, (2009:5):

The most expensive burden we place on society is those students we have failed to teach to read well. The silent army of low readers who move through our schools,... [they] emerge into society as adults lacking the single prerequisite for managing their lives and acquiring additional training. They are chronically unemployed, underemployed, or unemployable.... They perpetuate and enlarge the problem by creating another generation of poor readers.

A similar group, in Nigeria, includes *the area boys* in the south west, the *almagaris* in the north and the *akpuobis* in the south east. For the rest who remain in school, reading is not fun. (Anibogu, 2006; Emeyonu, 1991) Chinua Achebe, in *A Man of the People*, notes the importance of knowing when the rain started beating

us. A brief background is, therefore, needful. Emeka Onukaogu (1999) has argued that Nigerians have not always been a non-reading people. Before 1960, Nigerian governments allocated huge sums of money to education, which led to the surplus number of human resources available to lead Nigeria and other West African countries at independence. But the successive military regimes that followed independence paid little attention to the education sector. In addition, the harsh economy that accompanied those governments led to a dearth of colourful, affordable books in Nigeria. All this culminated in the poor reading culture among Nigerians. Indeed, when a government neglects education, standards are bound to fall, and when books are unavailable, people are likely to divert their attention to other interests. It is against this background that reading experts have recommended the establishment of reading clubs to assist children's reading proficiency. (Onukaogu, 1999, pp. 68-77; Abiola Odejide, 1993, pp. 13-27).

Reading Clubs

A reading club is a place intentionally designed to encourage people to read and discuss the books they have read. Citing Brad Hooper, Dennis Adams avers that the earliest community book discussion club was found in 1877 by ladies in the small Cornbelt town, Maltoon, Illinois while Oprah Winfrey's Book Club, founded in 1996, remains one of the most popular book clubs in America. (<http://www.beaforcounylibrary.org/htdocs-sirs/club3.htm>) While reading clubs are common in advanced countries, they are not in Nigeria (Onukaogu:1999). Personal observation and the testimony of many parents confirm that a reading club is still a novel idea among many Nigerians today. Among the few book clubs in Nigeria include: The Rainbow Book Club(2004),The Ibadan Book Club (2012) and Channels TV Book Club.

Judy Gelman and Vicki Levy Krupp (2007: xiv) attribute the proliferation of kids' clubs in America to the drop in reading rates especially in the early elementary school years. According to a 2006 report sponsored by Scholastic, Inc., "44 percent of children ages five to eight read a book every day, while by ages fifteen to seventeen, the number drops to 16 percent". The same cannot be said about five to eight year old Nigerians.

The purpose a reading club serves can be better appreciated from the fact that research confirms that children who have been frequently read to before kindergarten are more likely to succeed in school and that children need to read a lot before they can become good at reading. (Allington, 2006, pp. 94-105; Omojuwa, 1997, pp. 211-220; Strickland, 2004, pp. 86-99). Because children learn by imitation, when parents read to them, they become curious about learning how to read and this curiosity motivates them to learn. In Nigeria, however, the level of illiteracy is very high (Emenanjo, 2011, pp. 14-19) so a majority of Nigerian parents cannot read to their children while most of those who can, are busy trying to earn a living. The early foundation in reading at home necessary to give children a head start in their first years in school is therefore absent. Abiola Odejide (1993) sees this lack of parental support as the major cause of a poor reading culture among Nigerians and advocates for reading to continue after school. Reading clubs provide excellent "after school" reading centres for children and adults alike.

Reading Club as a bridge between the home and the School

A Reading Club teaches children that reading can be fun. During the school year, children read in order to perform their assignments and to pass examinations. They engage often in intensive reading. Intensive reading requires reading to extract and retain the main ideas in texts and so is a demanding type of reading. Reading for academic purposes makes children believe that reading is always hard work. While confident readers may get along, struggling readers receive little help from their teachers because of crowded classrooms and too many school subjects in the curriculum. A reading club offers children an opportunity to see that reading can be fun. By making the reading club an enjoyable program, teachers can lead children to love reading books all their lives.

Most children forget their school subjects during the long holiday. In the words of Kutsch, (2012:120) "our students lose ground every summer, which means teachers have to work very hard in the fall just to get them caught up so they can read at their new grade level." By making children have frequent intercourse with several books during the holiday, a reading club indirectly prepares children for the coming school session.

The Holy Child Reading Club, Enugu

The Holy Child Reading Club, Enugu opened its doors to readers between the age brackets of two to ten years on 22 July 2013 in response to the mandate to participants of the 2013 Reading Instructors Workshop, Abuja to open reading clubs in their various locations. The reading session lasted for six weeks from 10am to 1pm with a 30minutes break period.

The objective of this paper was to look at definite strategies employed in the reading club which helped children enjoy reading. It also investigated whether a reading club actually improves children's reading interests and reading skills.

Research Questions

The two research questions that guided this study were:

1. Which reading-related activities help children between the age bracket of 2-10 to enjoy reading in a reading club?
2. Does a reading club really improve children's reading interests and reading skills?

Research Design

In measuring the reading progress of the study population, informal reading assessment techniques were employed. Readers in the 7-10 category were assessed by comparing their real-life reading tasks before and after the reading programme while day-to-day observation was used to assess readers between the age bracket of 2-6. The older children were also asked for anecdotal reports of how the reading activities of the club helped their reading development and interest. Parents were also interviewed. Current emphasis of reading assessments include using informal techniques such as observation and the use of authentic data such as real-life reading tasks and does not necessarily have to be equated with testing (Betty Roe and Sandy Smith :2005; A.E Arua ,2003, pp. 78-96).

In the next part of the paper, we elect to discuss the various reading-related activities used across the study population.

Reading Activities for Different Groups: Seven to ten year olds



The seven to ten year old group was the easiest to teach reading. Beaudet's observation, cited in Gelman & Krupp (2007:5), re-echo's this truth:

the eight-to- twelve –year –old set is a great one for book clubs! The kids are now old enough to read meatier books and can comprehend and discuss themes, inferences, and right versus wrong. They are at an age when they can handle books that don't have happy endings. Tweens take their newfound literacy independence seriously, and are extremely enthusiastic with their opinions and analyses. Book clubs are a huge ego boost for kids in their tweens.

Below are the reading –based activities they were exposed to:

Silent Reading

Each reading session opened with silent reading. Most children find it difficult to sit quietly and read. This session taught them to do so and the children began to enjoy it. However, unlike Omojuwa's (1997) view that people often enjoy reading newspapers, the seven to ten year olds in the club did not.

Writing

Next, children either wrote a paragraph on the main character or wrote a one - paragraph summary of the book they read. Writing connects with reading and drives home whatever is read (Eisterhold, 1990, pp. 88-101). This exercise gave the coach an opportunity to improve the learners' writings. The children re-wrote the corrected paragraphs. Personal experience shows that as children continue this exercise, their writing skills improve.

Read and Tell

The children also discussed the books they read. While the children listened with keen interest when the fluent readers spoke, some hissed or made derogatory remarks when it was the turn of struggling readers or the less eloquent speakers. Onukaogu (1999, p. 69) reveals what we can teach children during such sessions:

During this time we insist that everyone listen and pay attention. Even if someone already knows a story, that person must wait his turn...In conditioning ourselves not to interrupt, we learn patience. Thus story time is the opportunity to listen to what others have to say and to learn to respond only when it is your turn. Because there are no right or wrong answers in our sharing of feelings and reactions to the stories or texts we read and share, we stress the need to respect other people's opinions.

This way a reading club provides a platform for teaching children etiquette, which is urgently required but lacking among many young Nigerians.

Speed Reading

Ayodele's study (1984) demonstrates that British native English high school students read faster than their Nigerian counterparts. The same can be said about other categories of readers. The Readers' Edge software offers excellent drills and exercises in speed reading but because computers were unavailable in the club, we resorted to improvisation. After giving them instructions in speed reading, the class was shown, in a second, a cardboard strip containing a phrase, for example:

- a. Mrs put not us

Thereafter they were shown a list of other similar phrases and were asked to identify the initial one shown to them. Below is the list:

- a. Mrs say not us
- b. Mrs same not us
- c. Mrs say few us
- d. Mrs put not us

This exercise forced the children to focus their eyes in the middle of the phrase and capture all the words quickly. They were then urged to apply the same techniques when reading narratives.

Grammar

Seven to ten year olds were equally taught grammar, specifically, punctuation. As a departure from the typical lecture method prevalent in primary schools, a sentence, selected from one of the books the children read, but devoid of punctuation marks was written on a cardboard sheet and displayed to them. Next they were shown the same sentence, this time with the correct punctuation marks in place. Thereafter, children were shown both versions and taught the rule. For example:

- a. People like to feel valued. If someone gives you something their help their time or a present don't forget to say Thank you
- b. "People like to feel valued .If someone gives you something-their help, their time or a present –don't forget to say Thank you" (Amos:1998).

By making readers see both versions differently and then together, children were able to understand the pitfalls in omitted or wrongly punctuated sentences. This

exercise, if consistent, can make young readers begin to pay more than a scant attention to the punctuation marks they see in the books they read. When we consider the punctuation errors that litter the written essays of university students, the benefit of this lesson taught at this age is huge.

Reading- Related- Games

After the 30minutes break period, it was more difficult to make the children read. The introduction of scrabble and crossword puzzles at this time of the day paid off. Many children, who had never heard about the game before, were excited about playing scrabble. The following day, one child came to the club with a brand new scrabble game. An anonymous writer has said that playing scrabble with children is “a chance to get children interested in the English language, without telling them they’re about to receive a word lesson.” Parents were encouraged to replace much of children’s TV- time with playing scrabble.

Four - six year olds



This was the most difficult group to teach, mostly because children at this age are very active and restless. Another reason was that the children had varying levels of reading competencies. For example, while a few four- to six year olds could read, a majority could not. Teachers had to differentiate the learners by further re-grouping and dealing with them according to their different abilities. While strong readers were asked to read silently books of their choice, the non- readers were read to. A few children who would not sit down to be read to, had to be wooed by making them listen to the reading session lying on a mat.

Below are the reading –based activities they were exposed to:

Sight words

Sight words are words that appear frequently in children’s books such as *the, to, a, I* at. While phonics teaches reading by sounding letters of the alphabets, sight words are learned by sight. Reading experts believe that to be a fluent reader, the learner must recognize these words immediately (Reutzel & Cooter:2009). During the exercise, one or two letter words were first read to them. Next, children were

asked to practice reading the sight words aloud, think up and say sentences where they occur and find sight words in books. When many five- year olds could not write sentences containing sight words on their own, they were made to copy in their notebooks sentences from story books containing sight words.

Word Formation

Children were also asked to form words using pieces of laminated alphabets. The fluent readers formed five- letter words while the struggling readers formed two and three letter words.

Action- based Activities

To avoid boredom, after break, while the fluent readers played junior scrabble or learned to tell the time using wooden clocks and flash cards indicating the time, the weak readers were engaged in painting or making collages, sticking all sorts of things on cardboard sheets.

Two to three Year olds



Some parents wondered whether it was not too early to start teaching children reading at age two. They suggested scrapping the class, and in its place, extend the reading groups to twelve year olds. Reading literature, however, shows that parents read to their children while in the womb and in the baby cots. Besides, the reading disability of many six year old children validates the wisdom in early exposure of children to books and reading.

The reading activity carried out in their class include read aloud sessions and picture reading. Children were also asked to identify letters of the alphabet. They were taught the /a/ sound as well as the sight words / and a as in “ I am a girl”. Teachers showed the children the words / and a on flash cards and in their story books. The children also listened and watched stories on CDs and DVDs. After

break, they painted pictures and produced collages. Teaching this group was less demanding as the children were more malleable than the four to six group.

Results

1. Which reading activities help children between the age bracket of 2-10 to enjoy reading in a reading club?

The study showed that the reading activities that helped 7-10 readers enjoy reading in a reading club include silent reading, summarizing books read, read aloud and read and tell sessions, speed reading exercises, and playing scrabble. The 4-6 years struggling readers enjoyed being read to, learning sight words, forming letters from alphabets and playing junior scrabble while the youngest category were delighted at being read to, picture reading, phonics, listening and watching story books on CDs and DVDs. The finding among the youngest category re-echoes the view of Odejide (1993:14) that "early exposure to books and to ... forms of storying... are crucial to the child's acquisition of reading awareness and ultimately to literacy itself."

2. Does a reading club really improve children's reading interests and reading skills?

Indeed, a reading club helps increase children's reading interests and reading skills. In the first week of the program, we observed that fluent readers in the 7-10 category read only one story book during the one hour silent reading period. But by the fourth week, the same children completed 3 to 4 story books during the same hour. Comparing the children's real -life reading sessions in the early and later part of the reading programme revealed a marked improvement in their reading fluency.

From the recording keeping of our participant observers, we noted that out of 15 children in the 4-6 group, the 5 who were proficient readers became more fluent readers and better at using context clues while the remaining 10 struggling readers who were read to became better at responding to the ideas in story books and at making reasonable predictions. This was in sharp contrast to their shy and lukewarm participation in their first week at the reading club. In their written reports, all the children in the oldest category agreed that the reading club increased their interest in reading.

Similarly, all the parents of the oldest children in the study population responded that their children showed more interest in reading than before they engaged in the reading club. One parent was particularly happy that her son stayed up at night to read *David Copperfield* when he had been asked to go to bed. Parents of struggling readers, however complained that they did not notice much progress.

Conclusion

In this paper, we described the different reading-related activities which facilitated pleasure reading and reading improvement among the different age brackets in Holy Child Reading Club, Enugu. Some of the reading activities include silent reading, read aloud, read and tell, speed reading, summary writing, sight words exercises, playing scrabble, and listening to and watching story books on CDs and DVDs. Through observations and the comparison of real -life reading sessions, the study confirmed the view held by reading experts such as Kutse (2012) Gelman & Krupp

(2007) and Onukaogu (1999) that a reading club is an agent of reading improvement.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STRATEGY INTERVENTION IN COMMUNICATION STRATEGY ON ORAL PRODUCTION

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Abstract

This study examined the impact of strategy training in communication strategy on students' oral production adopting a psycholinguistics and pragmatic perspectives. Eighty undergraduates were randomly selected and assigned to four treatment groups of experimental and control groups. They were administered a four week (eight hours) in Grice (1975) Cooperative principles and Dörnyei (1995) taxonomy of communication strategies. A pre and post tests were administered before and after the training. Results showed positive impact on students' communication strategies in oral production. However, the effects of training had decline to about 60% after five weeks. Pedagogical implications and applications are discussed in light of the benefits that can be derived from intervention studies in communication strategies to enhance communicative competence in ESL learners.

Introduction

It is evident as rightly noted by Faucette (2001) that no individual's linguistic repertoire or control of language is perfect. Therefore both native and non native speakers of a given language sometimes struggle to find appropriate expression or grammatical construction when attempting to communicate their meaning.

The ways in which an individual speaker manages to compensate for his gap between what one wishes to communicate and his/her immediately available linguistic resources are known as communication strategy. Though researchers and classroom practitioners alike are not in total agreement, one widely known definition is "*Communication Strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal*" (Faersch and Kasper 1983, Dörnyei 1995). For this study, communication strategies will similarly be defined as tactics taken by Second Language learners (L²) to solve oral communication problems.

In the research literature on communication strategies there are broadly two but diverging schools of thought. One approach is the cognitive processes approach. This approach believes that cognitive processes are unaffected by instruction and that communication strategies are therefore not teachable. The second approach focuses on linguistic expressions used in identifying types of communication strategies. The proponents of this approach advocate the necessity to teach these linguistic expressions needed for effective second language communication and language use. Despite these arguments over the value of communication strategies, the number of intervention studies still remains very small. A few of such studies are reviewed below.

Literature Review

Lam (2006, 2010) reported three intervention studies by Dörnyei (1995), Salamone & Marsal (1997), Scullen & Jourdain (2000) and Rossitter (2003).

According to Lam (2006), Dörnyei (1995) related a six week training experiment in Hungary with 109 students in the use of three communication strategies, namely topic avoidance and replacement, circumlocution and using fillers and hesitation devices. The results showed that there was an improvement in measures related to students' overall speech performance and to both quality circumlocutions and the frequency of fillers in the oral post test which consisted of topic description, cartoon description and definition formulation. Dörnyei's study according to Lam (2010) provided some evidence for the view that instruction may alter students' frequency and quality of strategy use.

Salamone & Marsal (1997) report an experiment which investigated the impact of communication strategies instruction on two intact French classes of twelve undergraduates each. The treatment group received instruction in the use of circumlocution as well as strategies to cope with lexical difficulties. The comparison group served as the control. All participants completed a pre and post tests that elicited explanations of concrete nouns, abstract noun and shapes. The findings showed that both groups exhibited significant statistical differences between the two classes in the post test. The tests administered was however written rather than oral. This puts the validity of employing a written test to assess the impact of communication strategy for oral communication into question.

Lam also reported a study by Scullen and Jourdain (2000) who examined the effects of the explicit teaching of oral circumlocution on undergraduate learners studying French as a foreign language in an American University. The experimental group was explicitly taught to use super-ordinate analogy, function and description strategies immediately prior to the first, second and third practice sessions respectively. Participants in both the treatment and control groups made significant gains. However the between in group differences to the post test was not significant. Given the short period of training and the small group sizes has made further investigation desirable.

Rossitter (2003) reported the effects of communication strategies instruction on strategy use and second language performance. One class received twelve hours of direct communication strategy training and the other half served as control. The study was conducted with adult immigrants in Canada. Two oral tasks were administered. The post test results showed training gains in favour of the experimental group. The author however concluded that strategy training appeared to have little overall effect on learner's task performance.

Nakatani (2005) produced a different result from that of Rossitter already received. Nakatani focused his study on awareness training on oral communication strategy use. Sixty two Japanese female learners were split into the strategy group and the control group. Over twelve weeks training the experimental strategy group received meta-cognitive strategy training whereas the control group received normal communication training. The effects of training were assessed by speaking test scores, transcription data from the tests and retrospective protocol data for their task performance. The findings revealed that the treatment group improved their oral proficiency test scores but those in the control group did not.

Lam (2010) whose major reviews form the review of this study himself examined the effects of oral communication strategy teaching on learners' performance on strategy use. Two classes in the secondary ESL classroom in Hong Kong participated in the study. One group received 16 hours training while the other group the control received regular training. The findings indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group.

It should however be critically noted that the relationship between strategy use and proficiency level is complex. All the studies reviewed above did not consider whether proficiency level made a difference in the effects of strategy use only. Lam (2010) study has shown that high proficiency learners performed better than low proficiency studies. Most of these studies have been carried out in far away developed western and eastern European countries. These are good justifiable reasons for more studies in developing countries where the majority of learners can be said to be in the low proficiency levels of ESL.

Justification of this study

As noted by several researchers (Rossitter 2005; Lam 2006, 2010), the apparent paucity of studies investigating the effects of oral communication strategy instruction in the ESL classroom provides a good justification for more studies in this area. Also whereas the studies reviewed in this study and several others focused on oral communication strategies, they all dealt with L² in developed western, eastern and Middle East countries. No known studies in developing countries and particularly in Nigeria.

The apparent lack of consistent findings across the numerous studies and also conducted in varied contexts results in continuing uncertainty about the effectiveness of strategy instruction provides yet another rationale for more research in the field of communication studies. Also we wholly agree with Hassan *et al* (2005) that communication strategy training is still unheard of many ESL classrooms in the Asian context. This is also true in African context and particularly in Nigeria.

The present study therefore aims to address this gap in communication strategy research and address the need for increased understanding of the relationship between strategy instruction and task performance.

The Study

This study examined the impact of strategy training in communication strategy(ies) on students' oral production adopting a psycholinguistic and pragmatic perspectives. The purpose of the study was to see if strategy training will impact on the oral production of those students to enhance their communicative competence. The study therefore sought to answer the following questions.

- (i) What are the effects of training in communication strategy on students' oral production?
- (ii) Does strategy training in communication strategy improve students' oral English speaking performance?
- (iii) What is the durability of instruction five weeks after the post test?
- (iv) Which of the strategies are more effective in terms of strategy instruction and students' learning?

Based on the above questions, the following hypotheses were tentatively formulated.

- (i) Strategy training in communication strategy will have no significant effect between the experimental and control groups.
- (ii) There will be no significant difference in the mean post test scores between the experimental and the control groups.
- (iii) There will be no significant effect between the selected strategies (Dörnyei and Cooperative Principles).
- (iv) There will be no significant mean post test scores five weeks after instruction.

Participants

The participants for this study were 80 first year undergraduates from Niger State owned Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai who registered for the English 107. They were randomly selected from a pool of 208 students which formed the combination of students in English, Mass Communication and various Social Science subjects. The students entry qualification into the university had qualified them through their Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board examination (JAMB) and their WAEC and NECO results, though their pre-test and other tests have not too proved them proficiently enough as indicated by these results. The students were both males and females of between the ages of 17 – 30.

Selection and Training

Participants were randomly split into four groups of 20 each for training in the following manner (see details of training in Appendix I).

Group 1 – Instruction in Cooperative principles (CP) of Grice 1975 (Pragmatics)

Group 2 – Instruction in Dörnyei's taxonomy of communication strategy (Psycholinguistics)

Group 3 – Combination of C.P and Dörnyei's taxonomy

Group 4 – Control – reserved the conventional method which is usual titled towards Flower and Haye's.

The training programme lasted for four weeks of two hours every week (i.e. 8 hours of Instruction).

Procedure

Oral production was assessed through the use of Lecturette. Heines (1977) defines the lecturette as a short monologue delivered by the student to the class or a group on a subject which is related to his/her academic or professional course.

The testing procedures were as follows: The students were issued a handout which sets out the procedure concerning the lecturette. This included the purpose of the lecturette in relation to the training they had on communication strategies. The handout also specified the number of topics which the students could freely select from and the evaluation criteria. The topics were:

- (i) Explain to a non-Nigerian the step by step processes of making Garri flour.
- (ii) Modern day Technology: A blessing or a curse.
- (iii) Money is the root of all evils
- (iv) People can be happy without money

As can be seen only one of the topics is an expository topic; while the other three topics were argumentative. We wanted topics that will involve the students in a variety of linguistic expressions. These can in actual sense be captured through expository and argumentative, oral or written productions (Tswana 1997; Lam 2006; Aliakbari & Allvar 2009 and Xheferi 2012). All these researchers and classroom practitioners have argued in favour of expository and argumentative for studies of this nature.

Assessment

Oral production was assessed through the employment of two additional English language lecturers plus the researcher himself. They were very experienced teachers of English. The overall group presentations were independently assessed for task efficiency based on the frequency counts of the students' usage of the strategies. Kruskal-Wallis test (non parametric) for small samples was conducted on the ranking of the three lecturers who acted as raters to see if raters' ratings had any main effect on the ratings. Frequency counts of the observed use of strategies and the use of individual strategies by each student was finally used to gauge the effects of instruction in communication strategies.

Results

The results were analysed based on both the research questions and the hypothesis formulated.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was that there will be no significant difference in mean post test score between the experimental and control groups in all the criterion variables which were

- Instruction in cooperative principles
- Instruction in Dörnyei's taxonomy of communication strategies

The descriptive statistics associated with the performance scores for each group are presented below.

Table I: Overall group mean

Group 1 – C.P		Group 2 - Dörnyei		Group 3 – Dörnyei & C.P		Group 4 - Control	
Pre test	Post test	Pre test	Post test	Pre test	Post test	Pre test	Post test
25	56	23	58	24	66	23	47

A look at the above results was in favour of the Dörnyei and CP group who received instruction on both strategies. This has been followed by Dörnyei group, then the C.P group while the least performance was the control.

A 4x2 analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was computed to enable us test the null hypothesis. ANCOVA results show the following:

C.P	-	19.613	<	00
Dörnyei	-	23.416	<	00
Dörnyei & C.P	-	24.319	<	00
Control	-	21.666	<	00
Interaction-		1.967	<	.117

Thus there are statistically significant differences between the experiment and the Control groups in all the criterion variables examined.

Hypothesis 2

The study also hypothesized that there will be significant training gains between the treatment and the control groups. This study then went further and subjected the computed results in table to a Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA). The MCA indicated the following:

C.P	-	61
Dórnyei	-	67
C.P & Dórnyei	-	73
C.P	-	52

The results s indicated showed superior instructional gain for the Dórnyei and C.P group, then followed by the Dórnyei group and then the C.P and least by the Control group.

This study also sought to know which of the strategies were most adopted by the students. A close examination of the students' oral production tasks shows that students really applied quite a variety of strategies. However, the following were mostly adopted.

Mimes, circumlocution, literal translation, use of all purpose word and word coinages. Those who received training mostly employed the maxims of quality and manner.

Durability of Instruction

The study was also interested in whether Instructional gains were still durable five weeks after the first test. A post, post test was also administered for repeated measures of all the criterion variables. Results showed about 60% decline in the effects of training most especially for the Cooperative Principle (C.P) groups.

Discussion

The purpose of this intervention study was to examine the effect of strategy instruction on communication strategy. One first and major hypothesis was that there will be no significant instructional gains between the treatment and the control group. The result of our null hypothesis clearly demonstrated that there were indeed significant instructional gains for all the experimental groups. Theoretically and practically speaking therefore, this study revealed the effect of teaching communication strategies on languages performance of English language learners.

Among the strategies examined, students tended to apply Dórnyei 1995 taxonomy with particular application of mime, circumlocution, literal translation, use of all purpose word and word coinages. Though other strategies were used, this can be adduced to be as the result of the psycholinguistic nature of the taxonomy. Other researchers Faersch and Kasper (1983) have noted this in their similar studies. The significantly less performance of the C.P group might be argued to be as a result of the nature of C.P strategies which were more cognitive. Several scholars have argued in favour of psycholinguistic strategies in favour of cognitive. Learners tend to easily grapple more easily with psycholinguistic strategies to cognitive strategies.

The study was also interested in the persistence of Instruction after some period of time. In this case after five weeks, Instructional gain has declined to about 60%. Only about four of the strategies were still explicitly stable in the students' repertoire of communication strategies.

Pedagogical Implications

This study has both theoretical and practical implications. The study has revealed the effect of teaching communication strategy on language performance of ESL learners. One major question which this study attempted to answer was whether communication strategy can be explicitly taught. The answer can be given in the affirmative.

The findings of this study should therefore be helpful to language learning theorists and ESL classroom practitioners.

According to findings, some strategies and procedures for acceptable communication has always been of interest for teachers, syllabus designers, curriculum and textbook writers and designers. It is therefore hoped that the findings of this study can pave the ground for producing valuable information for devising appropriate teaching materials and effective techniques for different learners at different levels of ESL instruction.

Finally, this study wishes to re-echo the position assumed by Komishi and Tarone (2001) and cited by Lam (2010) that communication strategy teaching is an effective pedagogical tool for ESL communicative language instruction. Such teaching provides learners with both communicative practice and opportunities to learn a core set of linguistic expressions. This study really found this worthy through the oral production of using the lecturette. Therefore, learning to use communication strategy has language learning potential.

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APPENDIX I

Communication Strategies (Dörnyei, 1995)

Avoidance Strategies	Compensatory Strategies
<i>Message Abandonment:</i> Leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties. <i>Topic Avoidance:</i> Avoiding topics or concepts that pose language difficulties.	<i>Circumlocution:</i> Describing or exemplifying the target object or action. <i>Approximation:</i> Using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible. <i>Use of All-Purpose words:</i> Extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are missing. <i>Word Coinage:</i> Creating a nonexistent L2 word based on a supposed rule. <i>Nonlinguistic signals:</i> Mime, gestures and facial expressions. <i>Literal Translation:</i> Translating items from L1 to L2. <i>Foreignizing:</i> Using an L1 word by adjusting it to an L2 phonology and morphology (e.g. adding to it an L2 suffix). <i>Code-Switching:</i> Using L1 word with an L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with an L3 pronunciation. <i>Appeal for Help:</i> Asking for aid from the speaker either directly or indirectly. <i>Stalling/Time-Gaining:</i> Using fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think.

The Cooperative Principles (CP) and their conversational maxims are summarized in the appendix below following Grice (1975). The principles implied decisions in four major areas – *relation*, *quantity*, *quality* and *manner* and their importance is highlighted by maxims.

Appendix II

Cooperative Principles (Grice, 1975)

1.	Relation	Be relevant. Here one tries to be relevant, and says things that are pertinent to the discussion/topic.
2.	Quality	Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that which you lack adequate evidence.
3.	Quantity	Make your contributions as informative as is required. For the purpose of the exchange do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
4.	Manner	i. avoid obscurity of expression ii. avoid ambiguity iii. be brief i.e. avoid unnecessary prolixity iv. be orderly. In all these one tries to be as clear, as brief and as orderly as one can in what one says and why one avoids obscurity and ambiguity.

To Grice and his adherents, one reason why what is said in conversation discourse makes sense in spite of the missing element is the cooperative principle which usually operates between the speaker/listener and writer/reader in interactive conversation.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN READING ATTITUDES AND TELEVIEWING HABIT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN KWARA STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

This paper examined the relationship between reading attitudes and televiewing habit of secondary school students in Kwara State, North Central, Nigeria. The study was a correlational type. Its sample comprised 800 Senior Secondary School II students sampled from 28 co-educational public secondary schools located in the three Senatorial Districts of the state. Two researcher-designed instruments were used: Reading Attitudes Questionnaire (RATQ), which measured learners' attitudes to three types of reading behaviour; and Televiewing Habit Questionnaire (TVHQ), which elicited information on their viewing interest and hours. RATQ and TVHQ had reliability indices of 0.721 and 0.850, respectively. The analysis was done with Percentages and Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistics. The findings revealed that a total of 65.75% of the students had a generally negative attitude towards reading; and 40.24% and 36.0% of them had very high interest in watching television programmes for 4 and 5 hours on weekdays and weekends, respectively. Also, there was a positive but relatively low significant relationship between the students' reading attitudes and their televiewing habit ($r=0.0395$ df 798 $P\leq 0.05$). These findings implied that excessive televiewing habit could displace students' reading time and the consequence is a gradual development of a negative attitude to healthy reading habits. Consequent upon these findings, it was recommended among others, that parents should serve as role model in reading and always supervise their children's viewing interest. Also, the government should air more of educative programmes that reinforce the learners' reading abilities, general intellectual and moral development.

Key Words: Reading Attitudes, Televiewing Habit, Secondary Students

Introduction

Reading and learning are intricately interwoven skills. To excel in any academic endeavour therefore, the reading skill which undoubtedly is the most important of the four language skills is required at all levels of education. However, learners are not only expected to be able to read, they must read extensively in order to develop academically and professionally. Extensively reading involves reading textual and non-textual materials in order to broaden one's horizon in and outside one's field of specialization. In our evolving fast-paced and technologically driven world, there is astronomical increase in knowledge as well as accelerated publication of information in all areas of human endeavour. It is certain that only those who can read extensively will be able to cope with the pace dictated while those who cannot read will remain marginalised and terribly disadvantaged in their profession. The

survival of adolescent learners, particularly at the secondary school level, is anchored on their ability to read efficiently and in addition, read beyond the prescribed texts as they move up the academic ladder to transit to the tertiary level where they will be confronted with more challenging and rigorous reading task.

Aside academic and professional development which reading engenders, through reading, humans can be equipped with the tools to transmit knowledge from generation to generation (Okebukola, 2004). Reading also offers an insight into the culture and cultural heritage of a people. There are affective and cognitive values in reading (Oruwari 2012). However, research evidence and casual observation show that most adolescent learners in Nigerian secondary schools not only demonstrate deficient reading skill but also have a negative attitude towards reading (Lawal, 2008, Ifedili, 2009, and Fehintola and Audu, 2012). Reading attitude is a system of feelings related to reading, which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation (Alexander and Filler, 1976). Three types of attitudes to reading behaviour have been identified by Lawal (2008). These are attitude to intensive, literary, and extensive reading. Lawal maintains that individuals' engagement in these types of reading attitudes largely determines their reading habits. Reading habits are described as the totality of a person's attitudes, interests, problems, and skills related to reading. Reading habits subsume reading attitudes. Each of the variables influences the other.

However, the problem is that most Nigerian secondary school students have a negative attitude towards reading and so they have not developed healthy reading habits. When they read (if at all they do that with seriousness), they engage only in intensive reading behaviour which is done for the achievement of their predetermined goal, that is to pass prescribed examinations, which unfortunately, they hardly pass, at least going by their performance in indigenous and international examinations conducted yearly by the National Examination Council (NECO) and West African Examination Council (WAEC).

With particular reference to television, one of the products of globalization and an electronic medium of mass communication, studies of scholars such as Abolade (1986), Adebayo (2006) and Riley and Robinson (2006) have revealed that the televiewing habit of adolescent learners could either impact positively or negatively on their reading attitudes. Televiewing habit in the context of this study refers to the interest and time that a learner devotes to watching television. It is assumed that when secondary school learners devote much time to watching television programmes that have no relevance to their academic work, reading could gradually be displaced. Research concern in recent time borders on the need for parents to censor their children's televiewing habit because of some of its attendant negative influence on reading time and indeed other beneficial leisure activities such as singing, playing the piano and speech acts.

The television is significant for news dissemination, educational enlightenment and socialization (Naigles and Mayeaux, 2001, Dale, 1969, Abolade, 1986, and Corner (2001). Studies on the survey of television viewing habit of children and adolescent learners across the globe reveal that their passion for consumption of television programming is limitless. It is believed that the young audience for the television is more than other mass media (Riley and Robinson, 2006, Fehintola and Audu 2012). Riley and Robinson (2006) report that their 1992 survey of children's pattern of televiewing reveals that on the average, children aged 2 to 11 watched 23

hours of television per week while teenagers watch about 22 hours per week. Children's and teenagers' viewing hours ranged between 28 and 24 hours per week respectively. They reported that these figures were substantially low when compared with their 1986 survey which was 32 and 27 hours per week respectively. Several surveys have indicated that during the formative years, children spend more time in front of a television set than they do in classroom and that 90% of the time is spent by children watching programmes that are not specifically designed for them because parents were hardly present when children watched television. Several studies have revealed continued deficiency in advanced reading skills among students in all age groups.

Abolade (1986) focuses on the television viewing pattern of secondary school students and reveals that they spent an average of 2.70 hours on televiewing per week day and 5.70 hours on Saturday or Sunday. His findings among others, reveal that Nigerian secondary school learners disliked watching television programmes that deal with discussions, education, quiz, schools debate and religion, all of which are academically challenging. They rather prefer to watch drama, games and sports, music and dance, films and advertisements which have little or no relevance to their academic work. Adebayo (2006) surveys the consumption pattern of out-of-school educational television programmes among secondary school students in Ilorin, Kwara State. He reveals, among other findings, that secondary school students spend more than half of the time they should spend in active learning in school watching television at home. Moreover, they favoured programmes that had little or no academic relevance.

Findings of Felter (2004) reveal that students who viewed more than 6 hours of television per day recorded low scores in achievement test in reading, mathematics, and written expression. But 1-2 hours and less than 1 hour are moderate and low respectively. Equally, Ngwoke and Ibiam (2011) maintain that 3 hours of viewing daily is considered intense.

Similarly, Comstock (1996) has revealed that there is a negative relationship between amount of hours of television viewing and achievement on standardized test for the three basic skills: reading, writing and mathematics and indeed other subjects. He adds that the negative relationship was more pronounced in the higher grades and among those from households higher in socio-economic level. In other words, the amount of time spent on television viewing is inversely associated with scholastic achievement.

Aside, the negative impact of televiewing habit on reading and general academic achievement, studies have revealed that most of the television programmes watched by young children and adolescents expose them to innumerable acts of violence and other vices which are detrimental to their emotional and social development (Daly and Perez, 2009, Fehintola and Audu, 2012, Ray and Jat, 2010).

Furthermore, the content of television programme has a relationship with peer integration. Poor peer relationship could result from prolonged television viewing and the consequences are increase in social isolation, anxiety disorder, agoraphobia, antisocial behaviour such as aggression and gang involvement (Fehintola and Audu 2012). Also, Alexander (2006) and Riley and Robinson (2006) maintain that language skills are best developed through reading and interaction with other people during conversation than through the television. Excessive

exposure to the television, the scholars maintain, impede language development and make social relationships difficult.

Most researchers seem to agree that the television is primarily an entertainment medium, and that young viewers approach it from that perspective. It is also believed that the amount of mental effort on television is little. As a result, even bright children may fail to learn from television (Riley and Robinson 2006). As regards recreational reading, the scholars maintain that children typically learn far less from television than they do from a comparable amount of time spent on recreational reading. It is believed that while reading, learners find it easier to identify the major themes or ideas of a topic than watching the story on a television programme. This is because children's level of intellectual involvement in a television programme is generally quite low and they usually perceive television as a relaxing activity rather than a thinking one.

However, it is pertinent to establish research findings on some positive correlates of television viewing habit and reading in particular and academic achievement in general. It is believed that when television viewing is accompanied by reinforcing classroom discussions, children and adolescent learners can benefit positively from television (Lawal, 1989, Donaldson and Wilbur, 1971, Graydon and Manley Smith, 1996 and The Media Awareness Network, 2010). This study therefore investigates the relationship between reading attitudes and televiewing habit of secondary school students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between reading attitudes and televiewing habit of secondary school students in Kwara state, Nigeria. Specifically, the study investigated:

1. the general level of televiewing habit of the respondents;
2. the relationship between respondents' reading attitudes and their televiewing habit;

Research Questions

1. What is the general level of televiewing habit of the respondents?
2. What is the relationship between secondary school students' reading attitudes and their televiewing habit?

Research Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between secondary school students' reading attitudes and their televiewing habit.

Materials and Methods

The correlational research type was adopted for this study. The population comprised all the public secondary schools in Kwara State, Nigeria while the target population was the SSS II students. Eight hundred (800) students were selected through the stratified random sampling technique from 28 co-educational schools in the three senatorial districts of the State (North, South and Central). The two researcher-designed instruments used for the study were: Reading Attitudes

Questionnaire (RATQ) on four point Likert Scale which contained eighteen statements that measured the three types of attitudes towards reading behaviour. Positive attitudes were determined by a combination of responses from Strongly Agree and Agree while negative attitudes were determined by a combination of responses from Disagree and Strongly Disagree. Televiewing Habit Questionnaire (TVHQ) was made up of three sections. Section A contained one item that elicited information on learners' accessibility to television. Section B contained 10 Educational Television programmes that are often aired on the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA) network service, Kwara State Television (KWTV) and other allied television stations. Students were required to rate their viewing interest in the 10 Educational Television programmes. The scoring of the students' viewing interest was based on a 5-point rating scale. The options in the scale are: Very High Interest (VHI), Fairly High Interest (FHI), Low Interest (LI) and Very Low Interest (VLI). The higher the frequency of occurrence in each of the ten programmes, the higher the level of the students' interest in the programme. Conversely, the lower the frequency counts, the lower their level of interest. Therefore, any item with the highest percentage is regarded as the Educational Television, which the students had high interest in and vice versa.

The second section of the Televiewing Habit Questionnaire (TVHQ) required the students to indicate the number of hours they spend in watching the television on weekdays and weekends. The viewing hours are also in an ascending order starting from one hour up to a maximum of five hours. The students whose viewing hours ranged from one hour up to two hours daily or on weekends are regarded as low television viewers. But those whose viewing hours ranged from three hours to five hours daily or on weekends are regarded as heavy television viewers. As with the first section of the instrument on Televiewing Habit Questionnaire (THVQ), frequency counts and percentages were used to analyse the students' daily and weekend viewing hours.

The validated instruments had reliability co-efficient of 0.721 and 0.850 for RATQ and TVHQ respectively. The instruments were administered to the subjects and the scores were collated and coded for analysis with the SPSS software package. Percentages were used to answer research questions 1 and 2 while the single null hypothesis was tested with Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistic. The results are as shown in Tables 1-3.

Results

The distribution of the respondents by school locale and class level is as presented in Table 1

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by School Locale and Class level

No.	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Senatorial District		
	Kwara North	112	14%
	Kwara South	222	27.73%
	Kwara Central	466	58.26%
2.	Class Level	SSS II	100%

Research Question 1: What is the General Televiewing Habit of the Students?

The results are as presented in Tables 2 and 3:

Table 2: Viewing Interest of the Students

Interest	Frequency	Percentage (%)
VHI	630	78.8
FHI	90	11.3
LI	46	5.8
VLI	34	4.3
Total	800	100

Tables 2 shows that out of 800 students sampled, 630 (78.75%) had very high interest in watching television programmes, 90 (11.25%) had a fairly high interest, 46 (5.75%) had low interest, while 34 (4.25%) had very low interest in watching television programmes.

Table 3: Viewing Hours

Regularity	Daily	Weekend
1 hour	54 (6.8%)	29 (3.8%)
2 hours	108 (13.5 %)	103 (12.9%)
3 hours	191 (23.9%)	128 (16.00%)
4 hours	288 (36.0%)	218 (27.25%)
5 hours	159 (19.9%)	422 (40.24%)
Total	800 (100%)	800 (100%)

Table 3 also shows that out of a total of 800 students, 54 (6.75%) and 29 (3.63%) watch television programmes for less than 1 hour during the weekdays and weekend respectively. A total of 108 (13.5%) and 103 (12.88 %) students watch television programmes for 2 hours during weekdays and weekend respectively. Also 191 (23.88 %) and 128 (16.00 %) students watch television for 3 hours daily and at weekend respectively. A total of 288 (36.0%) and 218 (27.25 %) students watch television for 4 hours during weekdays and weekend respectively. Lastly 159 (19.87%) and 322 (40.24%) students watch television for 5 hours during week days and weekend respectively. The finding in Table 5 implies that majority of the students have a very high interest in watching television programmes. The finding in Table 6 also implies that majority of the students watch television programmes for 4 and 5 hours during weekdays and weekends respectively.

Hypothesis: There is no Significant Relationship between Students' Reading Attitudes and Televiewing Habit

The result is as presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Summary of Pearson 'r' Analysis of the Relationship between Students' Reading Attitudes and their Televiewing Habit

Enrollment in local colleges, 2005

Variables	No	df	r-Cal	r-tab
Reading Attitudes	800	798	0.395	0.195

Televiewing Habit	800
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S=Significant

Table 4 indicates that the calculated r-value of the student's reading attitudes is .395 which is greater than the critical value of .062 at 0.05 significance level. This implies that there is a positive significant relationship between students reading attitudes and their televiewing habit. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected.

Discussion

Majority of the students sampled had negative attitudes towards reading. This finding implies that extensive reading attracted less positive attitudes from the students than intensive and literary reading. Therefore, the general attitudes level of the students to reading is negative. This finding is in line with the study of Lawal, (2008) who posits that most learners at the different levels of education in Nigeria have negative attitudes toward reading – their main focus is on intensive reading which is carried out essentially for academic purposes. Generally, the reading culture does not thrive in Nigeria because among other reasons, the social institutions like home (the first school of the child) and the school do not encourage leisure reading.

The finding shows that majority of the students 630 (78.75%) have very high interest in watching television programmes, spending 4 and 5 hours during weekdays and weekends respectively. These findings, to some extent, tally with the studies of Abolade (1986) which revealed that Nigerian secondary school students spend an average of 5.70 hours during weekend in watching television programmes. While the students he sampled liked watching drama, sports, musicals, films and advertisements and disliked programmes that dealt with discussions, education, quiz, schools debate and religion, the students sampled in the current study liked watching quiz and school debates, which to some extent, are academically challenging. However, their preferred programmes had little influence on their performance as revealed in this study. Perhaps, one may conclude that their interest in the preferred programmes especially, the television quiz tagged 'Who wants to be a millionaire' was essentially based on the financial incentives that accrue to winners.

On the basis of his finding, Abolade (1986) attributed the falling standard of education to the excessive and uncontrolled televiewing habit of secondary school learners. He opines that the mass failure of secondary school learners in 1985 West African School Certificate Examinations (WASSCE) conducted by WAEC was largely due to unbridled televiewing of programmes that are of less academic value. When parents and teachers do not partner to supervise the use of these digital activities, then, they displace reading.

The finding in this study shows that a positive but a relatively low significant relationship existed between students reading attitudes and televiewing habit. Research findings of Lawal, (1989), Riley and Robinson (2006), and the Media Awareness Network (2009), reveal that televiewing could have some positive relationship with leisure reading, depending on the viewing interest and hours and also some prior discussions that teachers engaged the learners in before viewing.

Recommendations

The attendance of conferences, seminars, workshops, and symposia by teachers would improve their ability to assist learners to develop a love for reading. Teachers should partner with parents to ensure learners' televising habit is properly handled and carefully supervised.

Parents, especially the literate ones, should serve as role models in recreational reading and should constantly encourage their children to read beyond prescribed school texts. They should properly supervise their children's televising habit so that this does not infringe on the latter time for recreational reading.

Stakeholders in education should appreciate the importance of reading in the school curriculum and reflect this in their policies. Nigerian public and private secondary schools in both rural and urban centers should adequately stock their libraries with materials that will serve the reading interest of learners. Since the study of Literature-in -English helps and is helped by the learning of English, it should be made compulsory for all categories of learners.

Television service providers should air more of educative programmes that reinforce learners' reading abilities, general intellectual and moral development. Indeed, the government could censor some television programmes that are detrimental to learners' reading development and moral growth.

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PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT: HOW RELEVANT TO NIGERIAN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE 21ST CENTURY?

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Abstract

This paper investigated the effect of parental participation in the educational processes and experiences of low socio-economic status students on their performance in the English language in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria. Random and purposive sampling techniques were used to select forty students each from SS1 and SS2, and twenty-seven SS3 students resulting in a total of 107 senior secondary school students. Primary data were collected using self-developed structured questionnaire validated by experts. Data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics and regression analysis. Majority (> 70%) of the students indicated that their parents were involved in their education. Highest percentages (> 80%) occurred more for parents' positive attitude to their children's education than actual activities. However, regression analysis results showed that parents' attendance to school activities (sig. =.010) and, rewarding or praising their children when they passed the English language subject (sig. =.001) had significant impact on their academic success in English language. The study recommended that parents should be encouraged to attend more activities in their children's schools and continually praise and reward their children for their successes so as to motivate them to succeed more.

Background to the Study

Mastering the English language as a second language learner is not an easy task. Coupled with the challenge of the learner belonging to a low socio-economic status (SES) family the task is more difficult (Aikens and Barbarin, 2008). When the language to be learned is the nation's lingua franca the urgency of the situation is grave. This is the case with majority of the students who attend public schools in Nigeria. Nigerian public schools are either owned by the State or Federal Governments and are mainly attended by low SES families since public secondary and primary school education are subsidized (partially or completely) by the various governments. Research has shown that low SES families are characterized by a high occurrence of single parenthood, large families, low family income and illiteracy of parents, amongst others. Studies have shown that these and other challenges low SES students face are inimical to success in the various subjects learnt at school with English language as one of the core subjects (Jenkins, 2012; Pallardy, 2008). In Nigeria, English Language plays the role of being the nation's lingua franca as well as the language of instruction in all institutions of learning. Hence, it is a compulsory subject that must be passed at the three levels of education: primary, secondary, and tertiary.

Twenty-first century research has shown that parental involvement still plays a significant role in students' academic achievement in both primary and secondary school education (Child Trends, 2012). In some more developed countries, studies in parental involvement have resulted in well-planned parental involvement programs used in various primary and secondary educational institutions to enhance students' success in academic achievements particularly in an important subject as English language (Carter, 2002). This is not the same in Nigerian public schools where the rate of success in English Language is dismally low. Despite this situation, there have been comparatively few occurrences of success in English language by low SES students who are the majority that attend public schools. It is believed that some forms of parental involvement may play a role in such successes.

Statement of the Problem

High failure rates in English language have been recorded across the country, the bulk of which occurred in the public schools. This has been a constant source of worry and embarrassment for all concerned at local, state and national levels. Various solutions have and are still being proffered but recent releases of national examination results have shown that the situation is worsening, and the public secondary schools are the hardest hit. However, in spite of the fact that children from low SES families struggle with family issues that affect their education negatively, coupled with sub-standard and poor quality education, a relatively small percentage still manages to pass the English language. The study was conducted to find out if parents play any role in such unexpected success among students from low SES families to the end that such parental involvement may be replicated on a larger scale amongst other students from low SES families.

Significance of the study

Identification of the forms of parental involvement that contribute to academic success of low SES students in English Language will help in stimulating the interest of teachers, school owners, State and Federal Governments to develop parental involvement programs that will help increase academic success in English Language among low SES secondary school students in Nigeria. Also, findings of this research would provide additional empirical data for a better understanding of some of the forms of home parental involvement that account for academic success in English Language of low SES secondary school students particularly in the developing African countries where students study English as second language learners. The study is therefore aimed at identifying the forms of parental involvement that may contribute to the academic success in English language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city. It will also determine the impact of parental involvement on the academic success in English Language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city.

Research Questions

The following were the guiding questions for this research.

1. What were the forms of parental involvement that occur in the academic success in English Language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city?
2. What was the impact of parental involvement on the academic success in English Language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city?

Research Objectives

This study aimed to:

1. identify the forms of parental involvement that contributed to the academic success in English Language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city,
2. determine the impact of parental involvement on the academic success in English Language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis, which was stated in null form, is that:

There is no significant impact of parental involvement on the academic success in English Language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city.

Literature Review

Parental involvement, which has been variously described by researchers and educational bodies, has been proved to be a significant contributor to student's academic achievement (Kellaghan et al., 1993; Trusty, 1999). The No-Child-Left-Behind Act (2001) described it as the participation of parents in consistent, two-way meaningful communication regarding student academic learning and other school activities. It can also be defined as an amalgamation of dedication and active contribution on the part of the parent to the school and to the student (La Bahn, 1995). Another view is that it is a combination of families and communities who take an active role in creating a caring educational environment (Epstein, 1995) while Child Trends (2012) depicted it as parent-reported involvement at least once during the school year in attending a general school meeting, a planned meeting with their child's teacher; a school event; or volunteering in the school or serving on a school committee. It is clear from these definitions that the emphasis is on the active participation of parents in their children's education.

As a result of decades of research on parental involvement in students' academic achievement in the United States (and other developed countries) parental involvement programs have been established in schools at national levels. These parental involvement programs are school-sponsored initiatives that are created to require or encourage parental participation in their children's education (Jeynes, 2005). This is different from voluntary acts of parental involvement, that is, parental involvement without the use of programs. However, whether school or home parental involvement, there are two key components that work together to

make up the concept of parental involvement. The first is a level of dedication to parental support which includes such things as encouraging the student, being caring, reassuring and understanding. The second is a level of parental activity and participation such as doing something that is observable. It is the combination of level of commitment and active participation that constitutes parental involvement (Vandergrift and Greene, 1992). Generally, the effect of parental involvement in students' achievement has been found to cut across all socioeconomic levels, though, students from higher socioeconomic families experienced the greatest improvement. For example, a study by Shaver and Walls (1998) showed that parent involvement regardless of the student's gender or socioeconomic status, was a significant factor affecting students' academic success in reading and mathematics, and that younger children as well as those from higher socioeconomic households made the greatest improvement. Also, it has been discovered that parental involvement at home has a more significant effect on children than school parental involvement in activities (Christenson and Sheridan, 2007; Weisberg, Kaspro and Fendrich, 1999; Trusty, 1999). Research has shown that parental involvement actually decreases as students grow older, thus it is less in secondary schools than elementary (Stouffer, 1992; Child Trends, 2012) and that the nature of parental involvement that is most beneficial to children change as they reach adolescence, and that in secondary schools, forms of parental involvement that have significant effects have to do with parents expectations and aspirations, guidance and support, psychological autonomy granting, etc (Christenson and Christenson, 1998; Deslandes et al., 1997).

In Nigeria, parental involvement in the schooling process has been neglected. It appears that many parents do not realize the importance of their roles in schools, and both practitioners and policy makers do not know how to facilitate parental involvement in schools (Adeyemo, 2005). Many Nigerian parents are not involved in the schooling process of their children. Rather, children are handed over to teachers to take care of right from babyhood (i.e. daycare) while parents chase after jobs and businesses. It must be noted, however, that there are a few private schools which have tried to incorporate parental involvement into their school programs (Danbo International College, 2013) but the vast majority have not. In the public school system, no such school parental involvement program exists. There is the existence of the Parent-Teacher Association (to which many parents are apathetic) but as can be deduced from this discourse that is not what parental involvement is all about. As has been mentioned earlier, home parental involvement has been shown to have more significant effect on secondary school students' academic achievement than school parental involvement programs (Hickman et al., 1995). In Nigeria some investigations have been carried out on parental involvement in primary school children's academic achievements (Ibrahim and Jamil, 2012; Adewunmi et al., 2012; Apebende et al., 2010) but this is not so with regards to the secondary school students. This study, therefore, is an attempt to bridge this gap. It sets out to investigate home parental involvement in public secondary school students' academic achievement (with particular reference to the English language as a subject) with the aim of finding out if home parental involvement has any role in low SES students' performance in the English language

Methodology

Samples and Sampling Strategy

Five secondary schools located in two local governments (Odeda and Abeokuta South) in the city of Abeokuta, Ogun State, were used in the study. The sampling strategy was in three stages. In the first stage, the questionnaire was administered on 40 students who were randomly chosen from the science classes of each of the arms of the senior secondary schools surveyed (except on only 27 of the SS3 class as others were engaged in examination). For the second stage, the marks of the students who filled the questionnaire were procured from their English teachers and questionnaire of students who had the pass mark of 40% and above were chosen. The final marks used for the selection process were the average scores of their first and second term's continuous assessments, and end-of-term examination scores of the Unified Examinations in Public Secondary Schools in Ogun State which were obtained from their English teachers. In the third stage, the questionnaire of eight students who had the highest scores were selected from each of the arms of the senior secondary schools surveyed and were analysed. The sample population used for this study comprised: forty SS1 students, forty SS2 students and twenty-seven SS3 students resulting in a total of 107 senior secondary school students.

Development and Validation of Data Collection Instrument

The data collection instrument used for this study was a two-part questionnaire. This instrument was considered appropriate for obtaining information from the students since they are literate and could respond to written questions. The first part of the data collection instrument, titled section A, consisted of structured and semi-structured questions specially designed to elicit information about the students' demographic data i.e. age, sex, if living with biological parents, parents' marital status, if parents live together, (questions 1-5), parents educational level i.e. whether uneducated, primary school, Junior Secondary School, Senior Secondary School, Ordinary National Diploma (OND), Higher National Diploma (HND), National Certificate of Education (NCE), University degree, Post-graduate degree and others (questions 6a and 6b) as well as parents' occupational level (questions 7a and 7b). Section B consisted of a rating scale (strongly agreed (4) - strongly disagreed (1)) containing 12 statements concerning parents' involvement in their children's education. Each respondent was required to tick his/her answers. The questionnaire was validated by a statistical expert for face and content validity.

Administration of Data Collection Instrument

The copies of questionnaire were administered and retrieved personally by the researcher immediately after they were filled. This was in order to ensure that all the items on the questionnaire were explained to the respondents and properly answered by them excluding any external influence.

Data Analysis

Data gathered were analysed using descriptive analysis and regression analysis. The regression equation was as follows: $Y = f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{12})$. Y is a function of X_1 –

X_{12} , where Y is the student performance in English Language (measured by the average percentage score in English Language for two terms). X_1 – X_{12} are various parental involvements.

Results and Discussion

The results of the analyses are presented in tabular form and discussed simultaneously.

Demographic Data of Respondents

Table 1: Demographic Data of Respondents

Demographic data		Classes (%)			
		SS1	SS2	SS3	Total
Sex	Male	42.1	47.5	40.7	43.9
	Female	57.5	52.5	59.3	56.1
Age (yrs)	12-14	20	2.6	0	8.6
	15-17	77.5	86.8	70.3	79.0
	18-20	2.5	10.5	29.6	12.5
If living with biological parent	Yes	85.0	77.5	81.5	81.3
	No	15.0	22.5	18.5	18.7
If parents/guardian are married	Yes	92.5	95	88.5	92.5
	No	7.5	5.0	11.5	7.5
If parents/guardian live together in the same house	Yes	87.5	87.5	92.6	88.8
	No	12.5	12.5	7.4	11.2

Table 1 shows the demographic data of the low SES students surveyed. Results revealed that more than half (56.1%) of the total population were female. Considering the age of the students, it is evident that majority (79.0%) of the students were in the 15-17 years group, with the SS2 class contributing the highest (86.8%) percentage to this group. It is clear then that these senior secondary school students were in their mid-teen years, which is appropriate for their level. A possible explanation for the occurrence of a higher percentage of 15-17 year olds in the SS2 class than the SS3 class could be that there were more 15 year olds in SS2 and this increased the percentage for that age bracket.

Clearly, it can be seen that most (81.3%) of the total student population lived with their biological parents and this was a consistent occurrence in each arm. This striking characteristic supported the observation that children who live with their biological parents have a higher level of academic success (Ram and Hou, 2003; Amato, 2000; Jeynes, 2002). Most (92.5%) of the total population of students' parents were married and 88.8% of these couples lived together in the same house. This is a positive for this study area as research has reported that single-parent families (with its attendant problems) have increased over the past decades in other climes like in the American and European countries (Pbworks, 2013). On the whole, the results showed that these successful students were generally from married, two-parent, biological families, who lived together in the same home.

Parent's educational level

Table 2: Parent's educational level

Parents educational level		SS1 class	SS2 class	SS3 class	Total
Male parent	No education	0	5.1	3.7	2.9
	Primary school	21.1	15.4	11.1	16.3
	JSS	7.9	10.3	0	6.7
	SSS	50	33.3	29.6	38.5
	OND	2.6	7.7	0	3.8
	HND	7.9	12.8	14.8	11.5
	NCE	0	2.6	18.5	5.8
	University degree	5.3	12.8	14.8	10.6
	Post graduate degree	2.6	0	3.7	1.9
	Others	2.6	0	3.7	1.9
Female parent	No education	2.6	0	3.8	1.9
	Primary school	17.9	17.9	11.5	16.3
	JSS	5.1	10.3	0	5.8
	SSS	56.4	41.0	34.6	45.2
	OND	2.6	15.4	7.7	8.7
	HND	7.7	5.1	7.7	6.7
	NCE	2.6	5.1	19.2	7.7
	University degree	5.1	5.1	11.5	6.7
	Post graduate degree	0	0	1	1
	Others	0	0	0	0

Table 2 shows the male and female parent educational level. The results showed that half (50.0%) of the male parent population for SS1 students were senior secondary school certificate holders and the highest total percentage was recorded for that category (38.5%). The situation was similar with respect to female parents' educational level; more than half of the female parents for SS1 students (56.4%) were senior school certificate holders and the highest (45.2%) total percentage occurred in this category, also. This result is consistent with the characteristics of low SES students as research has shown that parents of such students are not highly educated and majority are possessors of secondary school education.

Parent's occupational level

Table 3: Parent's occupational level

Parents' occupational level		SS1class	SS2 class	SS3 class	Total
Father's occupation	Civil/public servant	15.4	20	18.5	17.9
	Artisan	46.2	25	14.8	30.2
	Trading/business	23.1	35	37	31.1
	Teaching	26	5	11.1	5.7
	Driving	2.6	5	3.7	3.8
	Clergy	5.1	5.0	0	3.8
	Farmer	5.1	5.0	11.1	6.6
	Medical	0	0	3.7	0.9
	Unemployed	0	0	0	0
Mother's occupation	Civil/public servant	0	5.0	3.8	2.9
	Artisan	7.7	5.0	3.8	5.7
	Trading/business	87.2	72.5	73.1	78.1
	Teaching	2.6	5.0	11.5	5.7
	Farmer	2.6	2.5	0	1.9
	Medical	0	7.5	3.8	3.8
	Unemployed	0	2.5	3.8	1.9

Table 3 shows parent's occupational level. The results reveal that for father's occupation the highest total percentages were for artisan (30.2%) and trading/business (31.1%) which were similar. In the case of the mother's occupation the highest (78.1%) total percentage was for trading/business. Research has revealed that parents of low SES students occupy low status occupations or are unemployed but it is heartening to see that a minimal percentage, which only occurred for mothers occupation (1.9%), were unemployed. This means that almost all the low SES students' parents in this study were gainfully employed which is contrary to studies that report a higher rate of unemployment among low SES families. (Public Health Information Development Unit, 2013)

Parental involvement in child's education

Table 4: Parental involvement in child's education

Parental involvement		Class	SA	A	D	SD
My parents/guardians encourage me to do well at school	SS1	90	10	0	0	
	SS2	92.5	7.5	0	0	
	SS3	55.6	40.7	3.7	0	
	TOTAL	82.2	16.8	0.9	0	
My Parents/guardians want me to go to university	SS1	87.5	12.5	0	0	
	SS2	90.0	10.0	0	0	
	SS3	66.7	29.6	3.7	0	
	TOTAL	83.2	15.9	0.9	0	
My Parents/guardians attend activities in my school	SS1	67.5	20	7.5	5.0	
	S2	52.5	30	12.5	5.0	
	SS3	22.2	59.3	14.8	3.7	

	TOTAL	50.5	33.6	11.2	4.7
My Parents/guardians help me with my English homework	SS1	35.0	35.0	20	10
	SS2	23.1	38.5	17.9	20.5
	SS3	18.5	37	33.3	11.1
	TOTAL	26.4	36.8	22.6	14.2
My Parents/guardians correct me when I speak bad English	SS1	48.7	30.8	17.9	2.6
	SS2	37.5	40.0	17.5	5.0
	SS3	26.9	57.7	11.5	3.8
	TOTAL	39.0	41.0	16.2	3.8
My Parents/guardians buys or gives me money to buy novels/books that will help improve my knowledge of the English language.	SS1	62.5	15	15	7.5
	SS2	60	27.5	7.5	5.0
	SS3	44.4	44.4	7.4	3.7
	TOTAL	57.0	27.1	10.3	5.6
My Parents/guardians are interested in knowing how well I am passing the English Language subject.	SS1	72.5	2.0	5	2.5
	SS2	74.4	23.1	2.6	0
	SS3	51.9	37	11.1	0
	TOTAL	67.9	25.5	5.7	0.9
My Parents/guardians employ a teacher to teach me English Language	SS1	12.5	40	35	12.5
	SS2	7.7	17.9	43.6	30.8
	SS3	7.4	29.6	44.4	18.5
	TOTAL	9.4	29.2	40.6	20.8
My Parents/guardians discuss with my English teacher on my performance at school	SS1	27.5	35	27.5	10
	SS2	21.1	26.3	42.1	10.5
	SS3	18.5	11.1	40.7	29.6
	TOTAL	22.9	25.7	36.2	15.2
My Parents/guardians feel unhappy when I fail mathematics than English	SS1	55	20	25	0
	SS2	66.7	25.6	2.6	5.1
	SS3	44.4	40.7	14.8	0
	TOTAL	56.6	27.4	14.2	1.9
My Parents/guardians punish me when I fail the English language subject	SS1	45	30	17.5	7.5
	SS2	52.5	22.5	20	5.0
	SS3	19.2	42.3	23.1	15.4
	TOTAL	41.5	30.2	19.8	8.5
My Parents/guardians reward/praise me when I pass the English language subject	SS1	70	22.5	7.5	0
	SS2	61.5	30.8	5.1	2.6
	SS3	36	36	24	4
	TOTAL	58.7	28.8	10.6	1.9

Table 4 depicts parental involvement in children's education. From the result, it is evident that parents of the low SES students surveyed are involved in their children's education. This was confirmed by the occurrence of highest total percentages by respondents who strongly agreed/agreed to statements that indicated parental involvement. Such responses were their parents/guardian encouraging them to do well at school (82.2%) and wanting them to go to university (83.2%). However, half (50.5%) of their parents attended school activities while 36.8% helped with their English homework. This latter percentage may be as a result of the fact that their parents were not highly educated as revealed in earlier

results. Also, 41% corrected them when they spoke bad English (this percentage may also be as a result of their low level of education) and 57% gave them money to buy books that will help improve their knowledge of the English language. This last figure is an indication of how important the child's success in English language is to their parents. Furthermore, 67.9% were interested in knowing how well their children passed the English Language subject, while, 40.6% employed private teachers to teach them the English language. This latter result is not surprising, since their parents (by virtue of their low income status) cannot afford to employ a lesson teacher. Also, 22.9% of the parents discussed their children's performance with their English teachers at school, while 56.6% felt unhappy when they failed mathematics than English language. This is an indication of the misconception that mathematics is more important than English language. In addition, 41.5% punished their children when they failed the English Language subject; on the other hand, 58.7% rewarded/praised them when they passed.

It is noteworthy, however, that the highest percentages occurred more for parents' positive attitude to their children's education than actual activities. Studies have reported that parent's positive attitudes towards education and school were associated with the child's increased academic performance (Rimm-Kaufman et al., 2003; Kellaghan et al., 1993). A close observation of the Table showed a downward trend that occurred amongst the responses, that is, percentages for 'strongly agreed' decreased from SS1-SS3 classes, indicating reduction in parental involvement as students age. This is in agreement with findings by Child Trends (2012) and Stouffer (1992).

Testing the hypothesis

Table 5: Impact of parental involvement on academic success in English Language of low socio-economic status students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city

Parental involvement	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	Decision
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	60.882	9.189		6.626	.000	Constant
b1	1.198	3.562	.053	.336	.737	NS
b2	-1.950	3.444	-.097	-.566	.573	NS
b3	3.078	1.172	.348	2.627	.010	\$
b4	-.094	.967	-.012	-.097	.923	NS
b5	-.556	1.041	-.062	-.534	.593	NS
b6	-.275	1.130	-.031	-.243	.809	NS
b7	.628	1.681	.052	.374	.710	NS
b8	.723	1.063	.084	.680	.498	NS
b9	-.531	.976	-.063	-.544	.588	NS
b10	.041	1.005	.004	.041	.968	NS
b11	1.114	.948	.143	1.175	.243	NS
b12	-5.408	1.596	-.548	-3.389	.001	\$

NS = not significant **S** = Significant

KEY

- B1: I have parent(s)/guardian(s) encouraging me to do well at school.
- B2: My parent(s)/guardian(s) want(s) me to go to university.
- B3: My parent(s)/guardian(s) attend activities in my school e.g. PTA, etc.
- B4: My parent(s)/guardian(s) help(s) me with my English homework.
- B5: My parent(s)/guardian(s) correct(s) me when I speak bad English.
- B6: My parent(s)/guardian(s) buy(s)/or gives me money to buy novels/books that will help improve my knowledge of the English Language.
- B7: My parent(s)/guardian(s) are/is interested in knowing how well I am passing the English language subject.
- B8: My parent(s)/guardian(s) employ a teacher to teach me English Language.
- B9: My parent(s)/guardian(s) discuss with my English teacher on my performance at school.
- B10: My parent(s)/guardian(s) feel(s) unhappy when I fail mathematics than English.
- B11: My parent(s)/guardian(s) punishe(s) me when I fail the English Language subject.
- B12: My parent(s)/guardian(s) reward(s)/praise(s) me when I pass the English Language subject.

Table 5 shows the results for the test of hypothesis whose null form states that there is no significant impact of parental involvement on the academic success in English language of low socio-economic status (SES) students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city. The results showed clearly that there was a significant impact of parental involvement types – B3 (parent's attendance at school activities) and B12 (parent's rewards/praises at child's success) on the academic success in English language of low socio-economic status students in selected secondary schools in Abeokuta city. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. This implies that these forms of parental involvement are strong motivators of the students' success.

Conclusion

In this paper, an investigation into the involvement of Nigerian parents in their children's secondary school education has shown that it still plays a role in English language learning in the 21st century. The study revealed that the forms of parental involvement that recorded a high percentage of occurrences were related to parents' attitude rather than actual activities. However, parents' attendances to school activities and, rewards or praises at children's success were statistically significant.

Recommendations

It is recommended that low SES parents should be encouraged to attend more activities in their children's schools and continually praise and reward their children for their successes as well as express their aspirations for their children's education to them so as to motivate them to succeed more.

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CORPUS LINGUISTICS STUDY OF VAGUE QUANTIFIERS OF NIGERIAN UNIVERSITY INAUGURAL LECTURES

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Abstract

In every sphere of life, humans, generally, quantify things through language. They use quantifiers either to say the exact amount or gloss over the quantity. This study, through the inaugural lectures, an aspect of academic discourse, argues that linguistic quantifiers are innate vague features of the human language. The study purposively sampled Nigerian university inaugural lectures, in the six geopolitical zones. It adopted the methodologies of content analysis, computational and corpus linguistics to identify vague linguistic quantifiers in the inaugural lectures from the faculties of: humanities, agriculture, education, biological sciences, geo-physical science and law. The study aimed to determine the typology of the used quantifiers, their frequency, and the functions they perform. The online formats of the inaugural lectures were downloaded from the Internet and the *AntConc*® Concordance Tool was used to search for the identified items in the inaugural lectures. The study discovers that the inaugural lectures contain neutral, small and large quantity quantifiers that occur in 754 tokens in the Nigerian inaugural lectures corpus, which serve functions ranging from: summarising, being more realistic, persuasiveness, establishing social relations, hedging, tentativeness to stylistic.

Keywords: Concordance, Corpus, Inaugural Lectures, Language, Quantifiers, Vagueness,

Introduction

Despite humans' emphasis on precision and clarity in communication, the human language itself is replete with vagueness and vague reference elements. Vague language is a regular occurrence of human communication (Saville-Troike, 2003, p. 65; Callander and Nahmad-Williams, 2010, p. 1). Scholars have argued that vagueness pervades human communication and that both experts and novices use them (Lipman, 2009, p. 1, Hilton Villejoubert, and Bonnefon, 2005). It has also been argued that languages, the world over, use linguistic quantifying items in talking about amount or quantity (Peters and Westerstahl, 2006, p. 2; Condry and Spelke, 2008; Wallsten, Zwick, Forsyth, Budescu, and Rapoport, 1988, p. 5; Ruzait, 2004). Most of the scholars who have studied the linguistic quantifying elements used in talking about quantification in language have adjudged them as nonspecific or non-exact quantifying elements (Chow, 2011; Barwise and Cooper, 1981).

This paper pays attention to the linguistic quantifiers as a particular type of vague reference items to argue that the human language is not at all time explicit and that it contains some natural vague linguistic items. However to do this, we must first understand the issue of what non-specificity or non-exactness is in human communication.

Vague Language in Communication

Every time humans communicate among themselves, they expect their utterance to mean exactly what they intended it to mean to their interlocutors; as not generating the right or intended meaning does not serve their cause (Poitevin, 2010). When they cannot communicate to mean what their language intended, they are accused of being vague – not explained or expressed clearly (*Collins COBUILD dictionary*, 2006; Drave 2002).

Vagueness is a prominent topic, in human communication, as it has been an issue generating a lot of controversy since the time of the ancient Greek scholars (Bromberger, 2012, p. 75; Westerståhl, 2011). However, till date, there is no clear acceptable definition of what vagueness or being vague is since it is something that lies between two extremes which philosophers say are “borderline cases” (Keefe and Smith, 1997, p. 2; Lipman, 2009). Writers like Keefe & Smith (1997) set two parameters to determine vague concepts. First, they argue that borderline cases are such “where it is unclear whether or not the predicate applies” while the other yardstick to determine vague concepts concern those concepts that “apparently lack well-defined extensions.” This delineation applies to concepts such as “tall” as there is no certainty to determining how tall a person is. In order to understand vagueness, therefore, we must take it to mean when an expression is not precise or when there is “uncertainty” in communication (Drave, 2002).

Though scholars do not agree on the appropriate definition of vagueness, they have however argued for the place of vagueness in the human language as there are times humans deliberately make their communicative intents vague, no matter the context (Cutting, 2007; Chanell, 1994; Jucker, Smith and Ludge, 2003). For example, a speaker or writer may choose to be vague in order to be noncommittal; not to be imposing on the interlocutors and/or to avoid being accused of not being explicit (Thornbury and Slade 2006, p. 54; Schiffrin, 1997, p. 31; Crystal and Davy, 1975, pp. 111–12). We however, need a working definition of vagueness which shall serve as our guide in the course of this study. For this purpose, we shall take the general definition that has been presented of vagueness; that a vague expression presents no explicit information if taken out of the context of use (Metsä-Ketelä, p. 119, Bocklisch, 2011).

Scholars who studied vagueness in human communication conclude that vagueness or being vague is what operates in the human language, generally, and that being nonspecific in communication among humans shows commonality among the interlocutors as ambiguity is a regular feature of human language and life (Cutting, 2007, p. 5; Badia, 2009, p. 9). This brings us to the issue of linguistic quantifiers and their vagueness in communication.

Linguistic Quantifiers in Human Communication

Linguistic quantifiers are sub-classification of determiners. They are referencing elements in language that modify nouns or pronouns (noun phrases). They are among the closed grammatical (function) items in English language, in that, their number can be determined at any point in time unlike the open (content) items. Quirk and Greenbaum (1976, p. 63) classify quantifiers as “pre-modifiers” and placed them among the “close-system items” that pre-modify the noun phrase. As a matter of fact, they pre - modify the noun head; in a noun phrase. Quirk &

Greenbaum classify quantifiers into two types: "(1) many, (a) few, several; co-occur only with plural count nouns... (2) much and (a) little; co-occur with non-count nouns..." (p. 66).

Linguistic quantifiers are important in the spheres of computer, logic, semantics and philosophy. In short, the study of the elements is generating a lot of interest in various fields of knowledge (Badia, 2009). As a matter of fact, while formal languages do not accept or tolerate imprecision or ambiguity, natural languages are at home with linguistic quantifiers and ambiguity. The amount or quantity the quantifiers denote or quantify can either be exact or non-exact (Downing and Locke 2006, p. 427; Nouwen, 2010, Paterson, Filik and Moxey, 2009). However, for the purpose of this work, emphasis shall be on those quantifiers that indicate inexactness.

Linguistic quantifiers indicate inexactness by choice just as the human being could choose not to be forth coming or committal with information on any particular topic at anytime for various reasons as mentioned earlier. They are inexact because they make reference to generality rather than specificity (Glanzberg, (n.d.). The human language is the domain of generality in the choice of word items. For example, in the classification of nouns, there are two ways we can view nouns. The first is to see nouns as names of specific places, things, persons, days of the week or months of the year, titles of persons, places or works of art. This specificity list includes names of towns, villages, cities, rivers, country and many other items as the list is endless. Such nouns are termed proper nouns. The other way is to see nouns as referring to things in general rather than specific things. Such nouns are common nouns (Quirk & Greenbaum, p. 60). Common nouns are not the names of anything but names of things in general. This is the way we should view linguistic quantifiers. They are not aberration but are being true to type. Because language elements like the common nouns are the property of everything rather than anything in particular, we are not shocked when we encounter this in the case of the quantifiers. Thus, earlier commentators on quantifiers see them as possessing "properties of properties" (Frege, 1879, 1891, 1893 cited in Glanzberg, (n.d.). It is also important to specify that linguistic quantifiers are clearly different from numerical quantifiers. While numerical quantifiers give precise or exact detail or amount, quantity or figure, linguistic quantifiers do not (Bocklisch, p. 52; Wallsten, et al., 1988, p. 5, Cui, Li and Zhang, 2009). The question we should ponder on is: "Is there an amount of precision or imprecision that the human language can tolerate?" To answer this, is to say that there is no rule anywhere that says one must be precise when communicating – whether in the formal or informal situation – as vagueness or imprecision pervades every aspect human communication. The bottom line has always been to take the "receiver" into consideration when communicating (Little, 1965). In the same vein, the amount of specificity or vagueness that a communicative intent contains will also be determined by the "tenor of discourse" (Halliday, 1989). In determining the tenor, one would also take into consideration the "shared background knowledge" (Ogiermann, 2009, p. 190) which will form part of Grice's (1975) "utterance implicature" – which he defines as "something meant, implied, or suggested distinct from what is said."

At the same time, we must take into consideration the culture of the people involved in communication in determining the degree of specificity or precision of those using the language. This means precision could be accepted in one culture

but frowned at in another. "In Switzerland, one can find curious street signs ... tells the car driver that there is a stop sign 103 meters down the road" (Krifka, 2002). This sign would have been inappropriate in another country or culture but is acceptable in Switzerland. Thus, while some people accept complete or total precision in their language others do not see anything wrong with some degree of imprecision in theirs.

From another perspective, in support of the people and language use is the view that some languages do not have words for exact number beyond 3 or 4 objects (Coventry, Cangelosi, Newstead and Bugmann, 2010, p. 222). These languages will accommodate inexact number words (linguistic quantifiers) than those that have. Beyond all these, any communicative intent in use of linguistic quantifiers will also be "affected by knowledge of the objects concerned and expectations regarding the number of those objects expected in specific situations" (Coventry, et. al).

Still on the issue of people determining the choice of linguistic quantifiers is the fact that interlocutors' interest "likes and dislikes" to a great extent determines the amount of precision present in their language. People who are not predisposed to an activity "use higher denoting expressions to describe the same frequency of activity than do participants who like the activity or participate in it regularly" (Goocher, 1965 cited in Coventry, et al.).

We can see that despite the inexactness of the linguistic quantifiers as against numerical quantifiers, people in real "everyday" situations still prefer the linguistic quantifiers because of the functions they serve or perform.

Linguistic quantifiers are more natural, people feel at home and comfortable with them than with numbers because they are easy to understand as well as communicate and they are used in situations where uncertainty cannot be verbalised. Since opinions are less precise, they are better presented in vague terms (Wallsten, et. al., 1988, p. 5). At the same time, they have the ability of summarizing the properties of a class of objects without enumerating them. Fuzzy quantification is suitable for coping with problems such as database querying, data summarization, decision making, expert systems, etc. (Cui, Li & Zhang, 2009). In dealing with quantity or amount, linguistic quantification is a more realistic approach than numerical quantification (Herrera and Verdegay, 1995). They require less precision as against numerical quantifiers (Dubois, Prade, Godo and Lopez, 1992). Linguistic quantifiers require least effort in processing information compared to numerical quantifiers (Krifka, 2002 echoing Principle of Least Effort (Zipf, 1949). The items enable humans appreciate and understand precise number (Clark and Grossman, 2007).

Linguistic quantifiers help the language users focus on the positive aspect of unpleasant information: "(1) Sadly, a few of the passengers died. They will be mourned by relatives. (2) Thankfully, few of the passengers died. They thanked the pilot for his immense skill" (Krifka, 2002). Despite the functions mentioned above, scholars criticise the use of linguistic quantifiers on the ground that they sometimes pose vague interpretations (Windschitl and Flugstad, 2003) thus, linguistic quantifiers are not suitable for decision making but then Windschitl and Flugstad insist that linguistic quantifiers are not totally out of place in making decisions.

Methodology

In order to prove the thesis of the paper that the human language is most of the time vague and that it contains in it some vague linguistic elements – the vague quantifiers, the paper opted for the *ex post facto* research type since the main material data (inaugural lectures) needed for the study are material information from existing sources, the Nigerian university inaugural lectures from different universities, in the country. More so, because the texts of the study have a pattern that is verifiable and replicable made the study adopt the corpus linguistics' data collection regime of "the balanced corpus or sample corpus approach" (McEnery and Hardie, 2006, p. 6;) – "an approach or technique of studying a language through, sampling." Since inaugural lectures are presented in the same mode, the paper worked with a corpus of six inaugural lectures samples collected from the six geopolitical zones of the country from six faculties of the Nigerian universities, thus, creating a corpus that is balanced and representative (Nesselhauf, 2011, p. 2; McEnery, Xiao, and Tono, 2005).

Apart from the corpus linguistics' approach, the study also adopted the content analysis methodology or technique of the computational linguistic approach. Content analysis is a research tool that is used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts (<http://www.umsl.edu/~wilmarthp/mrpc-web-resources/content-analysis.pdf>). The research tool is synonymous with discourse analysis (Huggin, 2004, p. 13) and since the corpus is made up of written (verbal) text (Smith, 2000, p. 313), it is a tool that is above all computer driven (Neuendorf 2002).

To be accurate and uniform, the study also adopted from the computational linguistic approach. Computational linguistics is the result of linguists and scientists attempt to proffer explanation from linguistics and computer science to address the question of how the human language works (<http://www.ling.ohio-state.edu/research/comp/>, Uszkoreit, 2000). Corpus and computation linguistics are interwoven: "they both exploit electronic corpora, extract various kinds of linguistic information from them, and make use of the same methods to acquire this information" (Dipper, 2008, p. 68). Thus, the three methodologies or approaches – content analysis, corpus linguistics and computational linguistics are all related and dependent on themselves. The inaugural lecture has the same pattern as it is used in the same discourse community – a collection of individuals with a common language, ideas, and goals; mechanisms of intercommunication among members; acquired some specific lexis etc. (Swales, 1990, pp. 21 - 32). It is a community that had developed "a pool of common knowledge about the group, its activities and the individuals within the group, and seem to develop an economical way of referring to things, persons, events and situations in their shared environment" (Cutting, 2000, p. 1). It is presented in the written mode of communication which means it has been read thoroughly before been presented, as it is the official statement of the presenter (professor). Inaugural lectures establish their presenters' stands on academic issues (University of Limerick, (n.d.); University of Cape Town, 2013). More so, since inaugural lectures are presented in the written mode of communication, they share many characteristics with a mountain, as they are: "permanent, clearly delineated and readily available for inspection" (Hughes, 1996, p. 4). This means the inaugural lecture gives us ample opportunity to examine the use of the English language, in a real life situation, thus helping us understand the (English) language better.

For this study, every aspect of the type of universities: federal (conventional), university of technology, university of agriculture) state and private in Nigeria was taken into consideration so that they would be equally represented. And each geopolitical zone of the country was also taken into consideration in the selection. There are no electronic materials on the private universities on the Internet so they do not form part of my corpus. More so, the northeast geopolitical zone of the country does not have anything on the Internet and was also excluded from the corpus. However, my corpus is made up of the federal (conventional) university, university of agriculture, university of technology and the state university. Of the universities of agriculture, University of Agriculture, Abeokuta was picked (representing the faculty of agriculture), for universities of technology, Federal University of Technology, Minna was picked (representing geophysical science), Osun State University was picked for the state universities (representing the faculty of education), University of Lagos (for faculty of humanities), University of Port Harcourt (for physical science) and Ahmadu Bello University (representing faculty of law); the three were picked for the federal (conventional) universities and their geopolitical locations.

The online versions of the inaugural lectures were downloaded from the Internet and converted from the PDF® or Word® format to the plain text format before been subjected to AntConc® concordance search for the occurrence of the identified items in the inaugural lectures. The identified linguistic quantifiers were then analysed to show the type of quantifiers and the frequency/function of use.

Linguistic Quantifiers in the Corpus of Nigerian Universities Inaugural Lectures

For this purpose, I shall categorise the linguistic quantifiers into: neutral quantifiers (some, several, a number of, enough, any, all), large quantity quantifiers (numerous, plenty of, a lot of, lots of, many, much, large quantity/amount of, a great deal of, a good deal of) and small quantity quantifiers (few / a few, little / a little, a small quantity/amount of) and see how they function in the corpus of Nigerian inaugural lectures.

The inaugural lecture is part of the broad academic or scientific writing which means it is a form of writing done by an academic for other academics. An academic writes their thoughts or findings on a topic or research and expects other academics to read and understand their thoughts or findings on the topic or research and ultimately accept the claims made in the writing in the process be admitted into the body of existing writing (Hyland, 2007, p. 267). In such writings, the writer is expected to be "direct, simple, brief, vigorous, and lucid" (Fowler and Fowler, 1906, p. 11 cited in Hartley, 2008, p. 3). The inaugural lecture is a branch of the academic/scientific writings in the sense that it is "precise, impersonal and objective. It typically uses the third person, the passive tense, complex terminology, and various footnoting and referencing systems" (Hartley, 2008, p. 3). However, this study like Ruzait (2004) takes exception to the claim that it is precise and will prove that in the following section.

Analysis of Findings

As stated earlier, the quantifiers are imprecise or inexplicit linguistic elements as will be shown in the following examples from the corpus:

- a) Except fruits and some vegetables, field materials cannot be consumed directly by human beings and are not readily digestible (Adewumi, 2012, p. 8)
- b) ... called the African Union or AU) adopted a number of resolutions addressing the HIV/AIDS epidemic (Ladan, 2008, p. 45)
- c) Gather enough information about the problem and then put it into perspective (Alhassan, 2011, pp. 42 - 3)
- d) To make matters worse, we also establish some industries that have little local material input (Ajibade, 2000, p. 25)
- e) The Role of Law in HIV and AIDS Policy that law can play three distinct roles in the approach to any issue... (Ladan, 2008, pp. 10 – 11)
- f) Almost all the parts of the crop are useful (Adewumi, 2012, p. 34)
- g) We have given advice to Niger State government functionaries on several occasions. (Ajibade, 2000, p. 34)
- h) In the hands of a writer, words can do a lot of things! (Ezeigbo, 2008, p. 3)
- i) ... Inorganica Chimica Acta, Polyhedron, Spectrochimica Acta, Acta crystallographica to name just a few arising from our modest work (Uzoukwu, 2011, p. 8)
- j) To make matters worse, we also establish some industries that have little local material input (Ajibade, 2000, p. 25)
- k) ... economic and social powerlessness, which explains much unsafe motherhood and maternal mortality and morbidity. (Ladan, 2008, p. 59)
- l) Poor and ineffective communication can put a great deal of pressure on you as well as on the person with whom you are communicating. (Alhassan, 2011, p. 45)
- m) ... the exploitation of their natural resources and the supply of many of their basic needs (Ajibade, 2000, p. 40)

From the above, we can see that in each of the examples, there is no where any specific or exact number of item, person or amount is mentioned. The professors have all deliberately left out mentioning a figure or amount so as not to be proved wrong later. Where there is the need to state number, they have all used linguistic quantifiers rather than numerical quantifiers. Linguistic quantifiers are more natural, people feel at home and comfortable with them than with numbers. The professors have all shown that they are comfortable communicating quantity with linguistic quantifiers as they are easy to understand as well as communicate and they are used in situations where uncertainty cannot be verbalised. Since opinions are less precise, they are better presented in vague terms (Wallsten, et, al., 1988, p. 5).

More so, because the scholars know that any thing they present as fact is subject to re-verification and replication by other scholars, we must not forget that they are writing for other scholars too, they would rather use tentative rather than absolute terms. In this wise, the professors all relied on the principle of shared background knowledge. They are talking to their colleagues who know how things work and are not flouting that rule. In all the inaugural lectures, the professors used linguistic quantifiers to communicate with the audience who they know are not all

from their particular fields but still trust in their use of language to carry their intended meaning to them as the linguistic quantifiers require least effort in processing information compared to numerical quantifiers (Krifka, 2002 echoing Principle of Least Effort (Zipf, 1949). The identified quantifiers fall under: neutral quantity quantifiers, small quantity quantifiers and large quantity quantifiers.

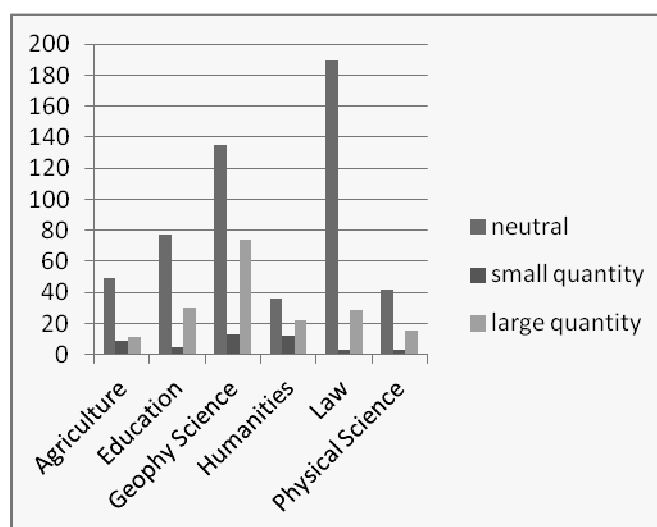
The percentage of usage is illustrated in the table below:

PERCENTAGE OF QUANTIFIERS USED ON FACULTY BASIS					
FACULTIES	neutral	small quantity	large	TOTAL	PERCENT
Agriculture	49	9	11	69	9.15
Education	77	5	30	112	14.85
Geophysical Science	135	13	74	222	29.44
Humanities	36	12	22	70	9.28
Law	189	3	29	221	29.31
Physical Science	42	3	15	60	7.96
TOTAL	528	45	181	754	100.00

Source: Present Study

Discussion and Conclusion

On the basis of use, the faculty of Agriculture used 49 neutral quantifiers, 9 small and 11 large quantity quantifiers which gives it a total of 69 quantifiers in all with a percentage value of 9.10% of the total number of quantifiers used. Other faculties used the items in the following order: Education used 112 quantifiers in the order of 77 neutral, 5 small and 30 large quantity quantifiers and a percentage value of 14.85% of total quantifiers used. Faculty of Geophysical Science used 222 quantifiers in all with neutral accounting for the highest used with 135 tokens, large quantity with 74 tokens and small quantity quantifiers use the least of the items with 12 tokens (29.44%). The faculty of Humanities used 70 tokens in all with the neutral quantifiers accounting for the highest with 36 usages, large quantity comes next with 22 and small quantity 12 tokens which gives it 9.28%. The Law faculty used 29.31% of the quantifiers in the corpus with small quantity quantifiers accounting for the least use (3), large quantity (29) and neutral quantity with 189 tokens of the total number used by the faculty. Physical Science used 60 tokens of the items with neutral quantifiers taking the major share (42), small quantity was least with (3) and large quantity 15 tokens respectively (7.96%).



Graphic Representation of the Linguistic Quantifiers on the Basis of Usage in the Inaugural Lectures

From the corpus, neutral quantifiers accounted for 70% of the items in the corpus which is the highest of the items used, large quantity quantifiers was 24% with small quantity quantifiers the least used with 6%. The faculties of Geophysical Science and Law accounted for the highest usage of the items with 29.44% and 29.31%, respectively, Education was next with 14.85%, Humanities used 9.28% of the items, Agriculture accounted for 9.15% and Physical Science had 7.96% the least used.

From the corpus, it can be concluded that the inaugural lectures, an aspect of academic discourse, contained vagueness as the linguistic quantifiers are vague – inexplicit and imprecise – linguistic items. The implication of the use of the linguistic quantifiers in the inaugural lectures is that the human language is not explicit or precise all the time as vagueness is a way of life in human communication whether it is in the formal or informal mode of communication.

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NEEDS ANALYSIS AS A PARADIGM SHIFT IN THE PEDAGOGY OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

Nationalism, usually expressed in the crave for a national language in multilingual nations of the world, has not, in any way, detracted from the status of English in non-native environments. The language has attained a global status to the extent that even nations of the world that have developed in their indigenous or national languages have also found a use for the English language for one purpose or the other. With the *risen* and continued rising status of English as a global lingua franca, there have always been inquiries into its teaching/learning process to make it more meaningful and relevant, especially in non-native environments. Braj Kachru's theory of the Three Concentric Circles relates to the spread of the English language to many nations of the world, and this spread has affected the structure of the language such that the idea of universal English is neither tenable nor supported by the concept of World Englishes. If English is to serve its purpose in countries where it is not a mother tongue, the old order in its teaching/learning process has to give way to a more needs based relevance, thus demanding a paradigm shift in its pedagogy. The thrust of this paper is to channel an alternative course in the pedagogy of English, either as a second language (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL), as a departure from the old pedagogical order. This includes a discussion of the issue of syllabus/curriculum design as a guide to teachers of English as a second or a foreign language. The recommendations include the establishment of English Language Consulting Centres (ELCC) or Centre for Language Engineering (CLE) to serve university communities as well as the general public, as is the current practice in Iran's EFL setting, as a way of teaching English for the purpose of effective communication in rea-life situations.

Keywords: needs analysis, EFL, ESL, non-native environment, pedagogy, syllabus/curriculum design.

Introduction

Language remains one gift from God to man, and that gift, useful as a major tool for co-existence, separates man from the other primates. Every human community is a language or speech community with a common language. However, man's gregarious nature prompts him to be more than mere monolingual, thus making more than half of the modern world bilingual. Today, bilingualism is more or less the norm rather than the exception. Language is a vital commodity in the globalised world (Block & Camerron, 2002 in Ogbulogo, 2011), and of all the languages in the

world, English makes many people more bilingual, as the language has spread its tentacles far and near and beyond the borders of its original owners and speakers. According to Mary P U (2013: 115), "English has broken down the barriers of the nations and brought the people closer. English being the universal language serves as a link between different people, a window to the developments and as a bridge to different cultures". Civilization and technology are assessed through the English language.

The spread of English is conceived by Kachru (1985) in ripples of three concentric circles as follows:

1. The Inner Circle comprising people who speak the language as first language (EL1);
2. The Outer Circle comprising users of English in the former British colonies, where the language assumes the status of official language and is used as a second language (ESL);
3. The Expanding Circle comprising of new entrants into the circle of English users, especially those who were never colonised by the British, but now find global relevance and advantage in English, and the language is learnt as a foreign language (EFL).

In a similar manner, Ogbulogo (2011) refers to English as spoken in layers as follows:

- a. First Language Users (Inner Core);
- b. Second Language Users (Outer Core) and
- c. Foreign Language or International Language Speakers (Expanding Core)

As the language is going round the world, its structure is changing to reflect new environments and cultures. Expectedly, too, the pedagogy is changing to accommodate the needs of non-native speakers. English for Specific Purposes is one of the areas the pedagogy of the language is now adopted to meet some specific needs of non-native speakers as a way of achieving linguistic competence in real-life communicative situations. It is also a way of meeting institutional needs, where English is a medium of communication. To this extent English is domesticated to meet actual, rather than perceived needs. Actual or felt needs, under ESP domain, differ from perceived needs, common in General Purpose English (GPE), and derisively referred to as 'Examination English', that is neither focussed nor targeted to meet special or actual needs.

There has been a gradual shift from the teaching/learning process of English, not for the sake of learning, but for utilitarian purpose since the World War II, when English rose to the challenge of meeting the linguistic needs of the world. This is where ESP comes in as a pragmatic response to the use of English in particular contexts, to meet the needs of the moment. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) have noted that since language, in varying situations, changes, there is therefore the possibility of tailoring language pedagogy to meet learners' needs in specific contexts. Here, we try to distinguish between 'specific' and 'special' needs; two terms in common use in the literature of ESP. The English language may be for specific needs, when such needs have been previously identified, while it may be for special needs, when no previous needs analysis had been carried out, but the language is used to meet

immediate needs or the needs of the moment. The first sense, i.e, where the 'S' in ESP is used in the sense of 'specific' rather than 'special' forms the fulcrum of the discussion in this paper.

The Problem

The continued lack of proficiency observable in the use of English of second/foreign language users calls for genuine concern, especially on the part of teachers of English at the tertiary level, because they are supposed to be trail blazers in second/foreign language English teaching. But in many ESL/EFL nations of the world, "...projects and policies relating to the English language teaching and learning are implemented at the university, but their courses of development are either interrupted or corrupted for different reasons" (Vazquez, Guzman & Roux, 2013). In the Nigerian second language English situation, for instance, the concern has grown more because the malaise has festered so much that it has infected "all the tiers of the nation's educational system, a condition which, it is further believed, is also largely responsible for the perceived general low standard of education in the country" (Banjo, Ayodele & Ndahi, 2008: iii). The attendant problems of second or foreign language English pedagogy are as widespread as the language itself. The teaching/learning process has always been bedeviled by lack of proficiency on the part of learners, at times to an embarrassing degree. There are reports that university undergraduates cannot effectively communicate in a language that they have been exposed to early in life, in a country such as Nigeria, where the language is not only the official language, but also the second language of many. This problem may not be unconnected with what is emphasised in the teaching and learning of English. For example, Alo (1998) considers the inadequacy of mere grammatical knowledge, and advocates a recognition of the existence of variation in the English language.

Like in many ESL environments, reports from EFL settings also reveal that "Methods applied in many classes for language teaching and learning seem unable to satisfy the needs of the learners who intend to learn a language and use it effectively in natural communication in the real world" (Sadoughvanini & Shamsudin, 2013: 31). This is where a shift in the pedagogy of the language is required, from the stereotypical model of pedagogy to what Olatunji (2012), referring to Skline (2011), calls differentiated instruction "based on a critical and creative consideration of students' background knowledge, readiness...preferences in learning and interests" (pp.182-183). This is where Needs Analysis is germane, in that it involves "the appropriate selection of language content...not solely lexical and grammatical items, but also rhetorical and communicative capabilities" (Babalola, 2004:137).

Theoretical Considerations

Lennon (1993) says only young children have the capability to learn or speak a second or foreign language without any accent, because they fall within the age range linguists call the critical age, when the acquisition of two languages is still possible. This is a "non-formal, subconscious way of picking up a second language through exposure to it" (Mangubhai, 2006:1). It is also believed that children within the critical age bracket can learn any language, their background notwithstanding, in as much as they are brought up in the linguistic environment (O'Connon, 1980), because the habits of L1 and those of L2 can compete favourably. This Interaction

Hypothesis suggests that learning a language can be easy if learners engage in the acts of communication (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). English language pedagogy beyond elementary education should take this into consideration, especially this concept of the critical age.

It has been observed, especially through the Johnson and Newport (1989) empirical study that age is a critical factor in second language acquisition. Although many language researchers would dispute the idea that there is an age when it becomes impossible to learn a new language or improve on the existing L2, age is still a critical factor in achieving proficiency in a second language, especially in phonology. Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams (2007) have also affirmed that "It is more appropriate to say that L2 acquisition abilities gradually decline with age, and there are "sensitive periods" for the nativelike mastery of certain aspects of the L2. The sensitive period for phonology is the shortest" (p. 350). They concur that "Age is a significant factor in L2 acquisition. The younger a person is, when exposed to a second language, the more likely she is to achieve nativelike competence" (p. 350). Carroll (2004) also arrives at the same conclusion, while commenting on the raging controversies about the critical period hypothesis, that "The best we can say is that young children generally learn L2 better than older children or adults, at least in the long run" (p. 317).

This paper intends to show how second/foreign language English learners can attain a level of proficiency that suits their needs, and at the same time be internationally intelligible. This is within the realm of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), with its root in Halliday's (1975) theory of multi functionality of language. CLT is a development in language pedagogy that provides learners with the ability to use the target language in real life situations, and the classroom activities are based on the needs of learners in real life communicative situations, rather than focus on mere linguistic structures and forms. In CLT, "learner-centeredness takes precedence over teacher-centeredness" (Sadoughvanini & Shamsudin, 2013:33). On emphasising the teaching of structure (grammar) in our school system as a panache to the dwindling performance in English usage, Odejide (2003: 4) says "this approach does not take cognizance of the fact that Science and Technology students are not students of language or that they have diverse interests, aptitudes and learning styles". This is equally true of other categories of students in disciplines other than language, or even learners in the arts or humanities who are assumed to have a flair for language and its finess. This is, however, without prejudice to a recent study that revealed that "science and technology students believe that linguistic competence is not the prerogative of students inclined towards the liberal arts and the social sciences" (Owolabi, 2012: 77). They, nonetheless, recognize that they do not require English to perform certain roles like their counterparts in the arts and the social sciences.

Still on the teaching of grammatical rules, Oka (2004: 3) says "The recent emphasis on the communicative approach is confronted with a resurgence of grammar because it has failed to instill grammatical competence", but Jowitt (2009), on his part, says "contemporary eclecticism...recognizes that the explicit presentation of grammatical rules can be of great value, provided other methods are employed. Above all, the needs of different learners need to be kept in view" (p.11). By way of summary, Adegbite (2009) believes "Language learning success is to be assessed neither in terms of accurate grammar and pronunciation for their own

sake, nor in terms of explicit knowledge of rules, but by the ability to 'do' things...with the language, appropriately, fluently and effectively" (p. 100). In an earlier submission, however, Nunn (2005:4) seems to have foreshadowed the current debate when he says "...while acknowledging this reality, linguistic competence is in danger of being sidelined in consideration of EIL pedagogy". Our own submission is that communicative competence should flow from linguistic competence and vice versa, such that neither is sacrificed for the other, as both can be taught complementarily with each one perfecting the other in the course of usage.

The Teaching/Learning Process of English in Non-Native Environments

The importance of English in the world has necessitated its spread across the globe, thus making its teaching an essential part of its acquisition. In ESL settings, where the language is required in so many domains, what is needed is beyond Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). Knowledge of English in this environment must include Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (cf. Cummins, 1979; Baker (2000 & 2002). In many EFL environments (Expanding Circle/Core), however, all that may be needed is BICS and the exposure to the target language is not extensive enough to acquire CALP because language input does not extend beyond the formal classroom. The General Purpose English teaching approach, a kind of "High-formality-approach" (Akeredolu-Ale, 2006) is therefore, not guaranteed to always deliver the required linguistic dividend. As noted by Olatunji (2012; 184), "The prevalence of teacher-centered and subject-matter-driven language curriculum planning, development and implementation is grossly unacceptable in this dispensation". In either CALP or BICS, there is the need to shift the emphasis in what is taught and how it is taught, and the purpose for which English is needed should dictate the approach to be adopted in its teaching. This is where it is essential for the teacher to know the state of the learners, as captured in a common saying that "if you want to teach John arithmetic, you must know John and you must know arithmetic". Most often, our teachers know arithmetic, but do not know John, and so we do the same thing the same way, and get the same old result, because the bulk of what is taught in English after elementary school is not needed. Teachers should leverage on the advantage of the critical age at the elementary level in ESL environment, and let the principle of selection begin after this level, just as the learning of the language continues in and outside the classroom. This will negate the cynicism or fear of those who do not see purpose specific English language teaching as significant in the Inner and Outer Circles. This cynicism or fear is borne out of the belief that "knowing a restricted language would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment" (Mountford, 1978: 5).

The principle of selection makes needs analysis necessary in the teaching and learning of English in both ESL and EFL environments for effective communication. Needs analysis requires the teacher to know the learner, if he is to teach him appropriately. This can be done through a test of ability that will reveal the present state of the learner, his strengths and weaknesses. The teacher must also know that "needs assessments are...effective when they are ends-focused and provide concrete evidence that can be used to determine which of the possible means-to-the-ends are most effective and efficient for achieving desired results" (Roger, Alice

& Mayer, 1993: 4). The teacher should build on the strengths discovered in the process of needs analysis to address the weaknesses identified.

Needs Analysis as a new Emphasis in the Pedagogy of ESL and EFL

The English language pedagogy, even when it is obvious that some L2 errors have fossilized to the extent that no amount of teaching or error correction can undo them (Fromkin et al), still revolves around impossible attempts to make English men and women of learners of English as a second language. With the continued downturn in performance in the English language usage, a review of pedagogical method may now be essential to make users in the Outer and Expanding Circles/Cores more effective in a language that is now a global lingua franca. Jowitt (2008/2009) says the formal teaching and learning of English has become a global industry, designated ELTAW (English Language Teaching Around the World) and “responsive to new ideas and fluctuating fashions.” He goes further to say: “...after the excitement caused by the ‘natural’ and the ‘communicative’ approaches of the 1970s and 1980s died down, the prevailing fashion... has been a perhaps less exciting but more honest and realistic pragmatism or eclecticism” (p. 58), which is an admixture of various methods, some of which may be old-fashioned, alongside others that seem more ‘modern’ (Jowitt, p.58), depending on the purposes for which English is being learned. Although Jowitt advocates pragmatism or eclecticism, which I like to refer to as ‘pragmatic eclecticism’, or ‘eclectic pragmatism’ in which the reality of learners’ linguistic needs calls for all available English teaching methods. This is similar to what Xu (2012: 98) implies by “multi-teaching mode principle”.

Needs analysis is one of such pragmatic contemporary eclectic pedagogical methods of effective second or foreign language English acquisition. It is “the determination of the language needs of the learners and the prioritization of these needs” (Lakshmi, 2013: 87). This is, no doubt, work-intensive, as it involves the following:

- i. Collecting background information;
- ii. Understanding the real needs;
- iii. Identifying potential partners and potential obstacles in the inclusion field; and
- iv. Making an inventory of the skills, competencies and resources available (www.salto-youth.net/rc/inclusion).

This is an analytical approach, now in current use, especially the adoption of content-based instruction “in which the focus is on making the language meaningful and on getting the student to communicate in the target language” and “grammar rules are taught on an as-needed basis as fluency takes precedence over grammatical accuracy” (Fromkin, et al: p.351).

The table below is an attempt to show the possible new emphasis in the pedagogy of ESL and EFL.

Table 1: New emphasis in the pedagogy of ESL and EFL

Linguistic skill	Profession where required	Actual needs	Required Teaching method	Required teaching materials	Learning outcome	Rmks
Spoken English (Rapid reading)	Broadcast media and allied disciplines	Mutually intelligible and acceptable pronunciation	Input through life practice, after initial training in the segmental and suprasegmental phonology. Emphasis on uncommon consonant sounds that can alter meaning	Oral-aural through motivation in the use of audio and video tapes in English, in and outside the formal classroom	Overcoming the problem of pronouncing non-existing sounds in indigenous languages	In the concept of world Englishes, nativelike competence which is not achievable may be undesirable but international intelligibility is required
Writing	Print journalism, Administration and allied disciplines	Sentence and sentence structure/types; Mechanical accuracy and paragraphing	Practices, starting from the simple to the complex, but not moving to the next step until the current task is accomplished	Good writings from books, periodicals and other materials considered useful	Reporting & writing clearly, avoiding ambiguity and circumlocution	Input required from learners
Grammar (including punctuation)	All	As needed to make correct and effective communication	Avoid isolated cases, as in traditional grammar, in preference for activities that are meaning focused	Good writings that demonstrate the aspect of grammar to be taught	Avoidance of ungrammatical sentences, while communicating and proper use of punctuation	Explicit learning of grammar out of context produces rote learning that does

					on writing	in not translat e to actual perform ance
Vocabula ry	All	Profession al register	Exposure to professiona l literature	Authentic materials in the relevant profession, with subject teacher supplying required lexis (Spence & Liu, 2013)	Ability to reflect profession al vocabular ies effectively in speech and writing	
Technical writing	Science & technolog y	Profession al register	Exposure to professiona l literature through regular practice	-do-	Ability to reflect profession al vocabular ies effectively in writing	
Creative writing	Theatre artist & allied profession s	Literary & flowery language, creation of suspense & proper plotting	Training in linguistic improvisati on, group discussion	Authentic setting, play method	Ability to improvise	
Speech writing	Politicians & allied profession s	Attention catcing techniques , propagand a, creation of suspense	Exposure to authentic materials through reading	Authentic material	Ability to produce captivatin g speeches	

What we have here is just a bird's eye view of peculiar needs of second language English users which undergraduate students of Ekiti State University on *ELS 408: English for Specific Purposes* course identified in the 2010/2011 academic session. This is relevant to our thesis because the pedagogy of English as a second language now requires more attention to actual needs of learners. Needs that, when properly addressed, would make them better users of the language in their chosen

profession, rather than exposing learners who need specific linguistic skills to an omnibus English language teaching program from which they come out poorly, either in general use or in performance in specific professions. Of course, some scholars had earlier done a more detailed analysis than this (see Ajayi, 1988; Odejide & Astill, 1988; Odejide, 1990; Aborisade, 1997; Azeez, 2001). Our own thesis is that needs analysis should form the basis of Communicative Language Teaching, resulting into "Needs-based CLT" (N-bCLT). This is an amalgam of multifarious approaches both traditional and more current learning modes. The approach is not only eclectic, but integrative and pragmatic. This is in consonance with Tswanya's (2008/2009) suggestion to classroom teachers to "strike a balance between the traditional and modern methods of English Language teaching...a bit to the left in using workable traditional approaches and a bit to the right in our application of current methods to English language teaching" (p. 13).

From our table, it is obvious that some professions do not require certain linguistic skills in order to excel. For example, a lawyer interviewed by one of the students said lawyers, more than any other profession in our society, need English, but not as some others study it, as verbs, nouns, adjectives, discourse, etc. According to the interviewee, their need of English is as it is peculiar to the law profession. This is the same with some other professionals that were interviewed. After the analysis of the needs, the work of the ESP practitioner continues as presented later, in table 2, in this paper.

The Ideal Teacher

Needs analysis is, without doubt, work intensive, and it is the real work in specific language teaching. But this information should not be scary to a real teacher who is determined to make a difference in his students' linguistic proficiency. This is the ideal teacher comparable to a candle that burns itself out to light the way for others. There is a purpose for teaching, and as teachers, we should realize that "We teach because people need the knowledge and skills we possess" besides the fact that teaching is "a responsibility" (Samadova, 2009: 11). Making a positive impact on our students' performance is, therefore, a real challenge to ESL/EFL teachers, because of the dominant role the English language is now playing in the creation, transformation and transmission of knowledge across the world has placed upon the teacher of. It is also because of the English increasing and challenging responsibilities for the appropriate teaching of the language for the various purposes, which is now thrown up within the global village (Orisawayi, 2007, p. 4). Kodali (2013, p. 40) believes "This professional challenge could be met with some extra effort and fresh commitment...of a teacher...in getting to know the heterogeneous levels of students, thereby designing suitable materials...and administering appropriate tasks". When the benefits of English teaching for specific purposes, through needs analysis, are weighed against general purpose English, the efforts will be worth the while, especially when one considers the dwindling proficiency that the general purpose English has not been able to redress over the years, and so "anything that can be done to ameliorate the situation should be welcomed" (Banjo, et al, 2008: iii). It has now become necessary for English teachers to "remold the existing unitary teacher-centered pattern of language teaching by introducing a variety of new language tasks" (Kodali, 2013: 40). Among

the benefits of a paradigm shift in second or foreign English pedagogy through needs analysis are:

- a. Team teaching, which allows collaboration with specialist teacher who supplies the needed vocabularies in the target field that the English teacher incorporates in the teaching materials;
- b. Target teaching, which restricts what is to be taught only to specific identified needs of the learner, especially as they relate to professional competence;
- c. Time saving, in that attention is given only to what is needed instead of wasting time on what may never be needed by the learner either in the short or in the long run;
- d. Learner confidence, since learners are made to be part of the program at the inception, because they determine what they want to be taught, so that there is no beating about the bush.
- e. More functional than GPE because it is directed, focused and targetted. As a form of differentiated language instruction, it considers the following areas enunciated by Olatunji (2012: 183):
 - i. course content;
 - ii. instructional strategies;
 - iii. pace of presentation;
 - iv. accommodating students' preferences and
 - v. creating flexible environment
- f. As a learner-centered and restricted language instruction, ESP is unlikely going to negatively affect other cultures as noted by Mary P U (2013: 106) that "A disquieting impact of the English language on culture...the prevalent Anglo centric inclination existing in many non-native speakers...through internet culture...typified by globalization...is accountable for the apparent surrender of some languages and their culture to the dominance of English."
- g. According to Babalola (2004: 139), "in logistic terms a given expenditure on English language education, channelled through ESP, will be more cost-effective than the same effort channelled solely through general English".

Curriculum/Syllabus Design

Many of the syllabuses in use today are too general to be of much use to learners who need specific English as part of their professional development. This is a general problem for syllabus designers which Nun (2005) has noted. According to him, "The problem for most syllabus designers is not what to *exclude*, but what to *include*, and it is by emphasizing what we can most usefully *include* that such corpora are likely to provide the most long-term benefits" (p. 9). The problem of knowing what to exclude and what to include is not unconnected with the fact that ESP is still not very popular in many African countries that were once colonized by the British, where the English language is seen as part of the linguistic family (Kachru, 1995), and is taught as part of general education. Nigeria, for example, as one of these countries, except for a few tertiary institutions (see Fakuade & Amoruwa, 2008), still runs the general purpose English syllabus in its curriculum

(Mgbemena, 2005; Ogbulogo, 2011; Olatunji, 2012; Omole, 2011; Owolabi, 2012). Of course, ESP is not practicable without first having a survey of general English because, as Samuel Johnson has noted, particulars cannot be examined until the whole has been surveyed. This is where we advocate the teaching of specific-purpose English after elementary education when learners must have been taught the rudiments of the language, and are expected to have taken advantage of the critical age to gain some level of proficiency in it. After this, they can now begin to examine the particulars, making “a clear demarcation between the omnibus use of English and need-based English curriculum such that certain English courses become mandatory in some other departments” (Omole, 2011, p. 9).

A lot of strain will, doubtless, be on the ESP teacher because he has to perform multitudinous roles, if he is to be really effective. For example Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) identify five key roles that the effective ESP practitioner must play. They are:

- a. Teacher
- b. Course designer
- c. Collaborator
- d. Researcher
- e. Evaluator

The ESP practitioner is therefore an all-inclusive person who combines so many activities, unlike the general English teacher who has some of the jobs, done by the ESP practitioner, cut out for him. This is where the major difference between the general English teacher and the ESP practitioner is obvious, thus buttressing Hutchinson’s answer to sneerers of ESP. According to him, in theory no difference between the two, but in practice, a great deal.

The following table documents the roles of the ideal ESP practitioner.

Table 2: ESP Practitioner’s Roles

Designation	Roles	Method of accomplishment
1. Teacher	-Needs analyses -Learning objectives selection -Defining program goals	-Test of ability -Surveys -Questionnaire -Interviews
2. Researcher	Materials sourcing	-Reading & Collating relevant materials -Preference for authentic content materials
3. Course designer	Lesson/Syllabus & curriculum design	-Liasing with subject specialists to supply required lexemes. -Consult curriculum models & guidelines (Nunan, 1987) -Incorporating special lexemes in the Lesson/Syllabus &

		curriculum
4. Evaluator	Setting and administering tests	-Graded tests -Out-of-classroom interactive assessment
5. Consultant	Advisory	-Interview -assessment of previous accomplishments of the consuler

This table shows the significance of the ESP practitioner as he combines various roles to make learners benefit fully. As a lot is expected from him, extra effort is required to make the needed impact, especially in the current dispensation of CLT, in which case, the teaching of English can no longer be a default job.

Task-Based Teaching and ESP

Ellis (2006), who is regarded as the “Father of Second Language Acquisition”, while reviewing the various designs of other scholars on task-based teaching, concludes that they all have three principal phases in common, which are ‘Pre-task’, ‘During task’ and ‘Post-task’. All of these form parts of the ESP approach in the pedagogy of English as a second/foreign language, and which ESP practitioners must adequately address. The ‘Pre-task’ phase, which corresponds to ‘needs analysis’ has been the focus of this paper, and it “concerns the various activities that teachers and students can undertake before they start the task” (Ellis, p. 1). It is, indeed, a crucial phase required “to prepare students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition” (Ellis, p. 2). All the other phases derive from, and are determined by needs analysis.

Conclusion and Recommendations

English language teaching, particularly in the Nigerian ESL setting, does not seem to have started benefitting from non-traditional pedagogical methods which encourage learner’s learning needs to form the basis for teaching. At almost all levels of Nigeria’s education system, the obsolete pedagogical method still subsists. For example, Malgwi (2000: 20) has observed that the teaching of English in Nigeria has not been tailored to the needs of learners because teaching procedures and other learning tools have failed to produce the expected result “because they have not taken account of the reality of English in the country and current trends in second language teaching and learning”. As a result of the obsolete teaching/learning process still prevalent in the teaching and learning of the English language, “Poor performance has...continued to traumatize language teachers” (Azeez, 2005). Jowitt’s “pragmatism or eclecticism” may be the beginning of a departure from the old pedagogical method for effective Communicative Language Teaching that still holds sway in second/foreign language teaching/learning process. This will accommodate needs analysis, a common feature of ESP which should normally precede CLT, leading to “Needs-based CLT” (N-bCLT) as a new focus and emphasis in the pedagogy of English as a second/foreign language. This is identifying learners’ needs as a basis for learning, and then using any applicable pedagogical method to achieve effective communication in real-life situations.

The peculiar unwholesome learning environment in Nigeria, a situation over which those who are supposed to take decisive actions continue to prevaricate may, however, make the adoption of any modern pedagogical method seem unworkable. This notwithstanding, our universities can take the bold step of establishing English Language Consulting Centres (ELCC) or Centre for Language Engineering (CLE) to serve the university community as well as the general public. Members of the university community (staff and students) who are desirous of proficiency in English to give them an edge in the global competitive market can avail themselves of the services of such centres. Such clients can have special English language curriculum designed for them, and have it taught over a specified period of time. These centres, as done in Iran's EFL setting, can also serve as resource centres for those preparing for such other language proficiency tests such as TOEFL, GMAT, GRE, etc. Services for such preparatory tests are currently being run by private organizations or individuals, some of who may not have the wherewithal.

The Iran example is very germane. In Iran, there are public schools running a different curriculum and pedagogical method different from the method applied in private English language centres for students who intend to learn English to apply it in real life situations. This category of students pursue this purpose in private English language centres (Sadoughvanini & Shamsudin, 2013). Also in Mexico, the practice is to have students pass an EXIT examination in English before graduating from the university, as opposed to our own system, where once a student passes the Use of English course, by whatever means, he/she may graduate irrespective of the proficiency level in English, and go into the labour market with "diseased English" (Adesanoye, 1995) that confers no benefit. Omole (2011, p. 8), alluding to the practices in Iran and Mexico, says "The time has come for us to go beyond the routine of annual conferences and get pragmatic." These suggestions are not too far from what has also been put forward by Ogbulogo (2011) while lamenting the standard of English language use in Nigeria as evident in the "quality of our newspapers, films and video translations, as well as the standard of language use even among electronic media practitioners". He believes this is suggestive of the fact that "the language expert has not exerted maximum pressure" (p. 6). His own suggestion is a formation of "Institute of Chartered Language Consultants", as a lesson from the Guilds.

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PROBLEMS OF PHONOLOGICAL SKILLS ACQUISITION AMONG UNDERGRADUATES: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

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Introduction

Language consists of a system of arbitrary vocal symbols with which individuals within a speech community communicate. Communication is the major function of language. Man communicates his ideas, thoughts, actions, emotions and feeling to his fellow man through messages encoded in symbols representing the sounds of the language. Therefore, anyone who understands a language must know the sounds of that language and the way they are structured into meaningful utterances (Egwuogu 2008:1), even if he does not know the reason for such structuring. But for anyone who does not understand a language, the sounds of the language are mere noise to him.

This shows that phonological skills which are the ability to perceive, identify, recognize, pronounce and use the sounds of a language effectively and appropriately are very important in language acquisition. Stanovich (1986:362) defines phonological skill as the conscious access to the phonemic level of the speech stream and some ability to cognitively manipulate representations at that level. Phonological skills consist of both phonological awareness and phonemic awareness. Phonological awareness deals with the consciousness of the speaker of the chunks and patterns of sound in a language and the ability to manipulate them into meaningful utterances (Botzung 2003) while phonemic awareness is concerned with the ability to analyse the sounds of speech (Wagner and Torgesen 1987).

In a first language (L1) situation, phonological skills are acquired naturally within the immediate environment through socialization, corrections and stabilization by close relatives like parents, friends and peers. But in a second language (L2) situation, the learner has to be formally taught the skills. However, observations have shown that despite being taught, it appears that the L2 learner still finds it difficult to acquire the phonological skills in an L2 situation to a native-speaker's competence. Scholars have advanced various reasons for this phenomenon. While Lenneberg (1967) and Selinker (1972) attribute the problem of difficulty of phonological skills acquisition in an L2 situation to bio-physical factors such as age, fossilization, lateralization, atrophy, teacher factor etc, scholars like Neufeld (1977) point to psychological and emotional factors. Yet another school of thought represented by Oladimeji (2011) sees the problem as socio-ethno-cultural and egoistic. None of these studies have looked at the problem from the perspective of the learners themselves as to examine what they themselves perceive as the problem militating against their acquisition of phonological skills in L2 situation. This study is an attempt to evaluate the perception of the learners and their attitude

towards acquisition of native-like accent in English as a second language. It shall examine the phonological skills of the subjects who have already received instruction in English pronunciation and the impact of the Phonology teacher on the phonological skills acquisition of the respondents. It shall attempt to answer the following questions:

- i. Do undergraduate learners of English have interest in acquiring native-like accent?
- ii. What is the attitude and perception of the undergraduate learners towards native-like accent?
- iii. Is there any significant impact of the teaching apparatus on the phonological skills of the undergraduate learners of English as L2?
- iv. What phonological skills do undergraduate learners of English have?

These and other questions are what this study is poised to address.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this study is to find out whether undergraduate learners of English as an L2 are interested in acquiring a native-like accent and the possibility of this. The study is also interested in finding out the impact of the teaching apparatus, (i.e. the teacher and his teaching methods) on the learners and whether the learners make conscious effort to learn a set of new sounds and the instrumental or utilitarian purpose they attach to it, as reflected in their attitudes and perceptions.

Theoretical Orientation and Literature Review

Universally, Linguists agree that no two languages have the same sound system, though there may be similarities in many respects. O'Grady, W., Archibald, J., Aronoff, M., and Rees-Miller, J. (2005) have pointed out that every language has its own distinctive system of patterns of sound that make up the phonological system of that language. Phonology as a discipline deals with the study of the sounds of a language. According to Rodman and Fromkin (1978:53), it is the study of the sound patterns of a language. Yule (1996:54) sees phonology as the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language, on the basis of the theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language. For us, phonology is the study of the sounds of a language in their combinatorial possibilities. In contrast, phonetics is the scientific study of the sounds of a language. It deals with the description of the characteristics of the speech sounds of a language; the articulation and production process, the physical properties of the sounds and their perception by the ear. Thus, it has three branches, articulatory phonetics, auditory phonetics and acoustic phonetics.

The study of phonetics and phonology is intended to help learners to achieve proficiency in spoken language through phonological skills acquisition. Phonological skills comprise both phonological awareness and phonemic awareness skills. The skills involve the awareness of the sounds of a language and the ability to perceive, articulate and produce, identify, separate, compare, combine and generate meaningful utterances (Anthony, J. L. et al 2003). It also involves phonics skill which is the ability to encode and decode words of a language through knowledge of the spelling rules of that language. It specifies the rules guiding the combinatorial possibilities of the sounds of a language, and identifies the likely sounds and patterns therein (Phonotactics). To a large extent therefore, phonological skills are

mainly concerned with listening skills and speaking skills. However, we want to add that at the university level, students are taught both segmental and suprasegmental phonology as well as phonetics which imbue them with the knowledge of the articulatory processes, the quality of sounds and the description of their properties and transcription.

On the other hand, Sociolinguistics as a discipline is interested in speech behaviour of speakers of a language and the context in which speeches are made. It is also concerned with the different groups that use speech and the entire gamut of relationships in terms of language attitudes and social status. It also assesses the speech behavior of speakers, and enquires into the 'hows' of speech acquisition and conservation. This study is anchored on the background of phonological and sociolinguistic studies because the study deals with the acquisition of the sounds of the English language and a particular group's behavioral forms in the process of acquisition of the sounds.

Many scholars have carried out studies on the phonological skills acquisition of language learners in a second language situation. Most of the studies tend to concede to the fact that phonological skills acquisition by L2 speakers is seldom successful mainly due to language features transfer and age -dependent factors. Oyana (1976), Scovel (1988) and Warsi (2001) are of the view that adult L2 learners cannot achieve native-like competence phonologically. Flege and Fletcher (1992), as well as Young Scholten (1995), have stated that successful attainment of L2 phonological skills is extremely rare. However, Neufeld (1977) claims that with individualized practice and certain methodology, learners can improve on their acquisition of phonological skills. Many reasons have been advanced which make the achievement of native-like accent by L2 learners an impossibility. In his contribution, Selinker (1972) pointed to fossilization as the most important fact about L2 phonological skills acquisition problem. According to him, fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation or instruction he receives in the target language.

Corroborating this assertion, Sridhar (1980) and Tarone (1976) reported in Warsi (2001) stated that fossilization is inevitable to an adult L2 learner, because adult learners have already formed their language habits, and their vocal apparatus have been conditioned to an accent typical of their L1 sounds. Scovel (1969), also mentioned in Warsi (2001), has requested to be shown someone who learned an L2 after puberty and who speaks that L2 with a perfect native-like pronunciation. He claimed that at best such a learner will attain what is described as 'Joseph Conrad phenomenon', a phenomenon in which the Polish author achieved a native-like competence in English Syntax and Lexis but still retained his Polish accent.

Closely related to the fossilization argument is the atrophy theory which posits that the nerves and muscles used for articulation and production of sounds have been atrophied in adult learners. Thus, the theories of fossilization and atrophy revolve around the issue of age and maturation as factors that hinder acquisition of phonological skills in adult learners of English in a second language situation.

Another argument on adult's phonological acquisition is the lateralization theory proposed by Lenneberg (1967). Lenneberg is of the view that it is not possible for anyone to master the pronunciation of L2 sounds after puberty. He went further to

argue that at this time, the brain has passed maturation and 'language development tends to freeze'. However, Flynn and Manuel (1991) have opposed this view, arguing that lateralization does not increase by age, and it is in doubt whether the brain's linguistic function decreases with age. They contend that adult learners do not lose their perceptual ability, even though they may have the problem of perceptual distinction. They therefore conclude that the effects of age-dependent variables on phonological skills acquisition of learners of L2 are not yet clearly distinguished. Krashan (1977) has proposed a creative construction theory in which he argues that adolescents consciously construct abstract theories about the world around them during their cognitive development. They therefore learn an L2 by abstracting the grammatical and pronunciation rules of the L2 and apply them as in L1 situation. A psychological explanation has also been provided to account for the difficulty of phonological skills acquisition by adult L2 learners. This explanation is based on sound transfer, which exerts a very strong effect on the acquisition of L2 phonological skills. In his study, Neufeld (1977) reported that adult L2 learners tend to form inaccurate acoustic images of the sound patterns, and when fixed, become the learner's pronunciation pattern that cannot be easily altered. For him therefore, the learner's inability to perceive and articulate a new sound might be a consequence of his or her psychological inability to change the criteria for speech sound categorization.

Other scholars like Oladimeji (2011) have opined that adult learners are incompatible with the culture of L2. They maintain that adult learners have a rigid linguistic ego that establishes their ethnolingo-cultural identity through the maintenance of stereotyped L1 accent. With such ego, the acquisition of native-like accent is seen as absolutely unnecessary. This attitude depicts an emotional attachment to their native language and, socio-emotional factors are said to be powerful in determining the level of proficiency in pronunciation skills. In this context, the sounds of their L1 and linguistic pride act as filters against their L2 phonological skills acquisition. However, McAllister (2001) has argued that, despite all the factors militating against adult learners' acquisition of phonological skills, progress can still be made in the process if there is experience with the L2. According to him, experience here is based on the length of residence in an L2 environment. He believes that the more a learner resides in the environment of the target language and interacts with the culture, the easier it is for him to learn the accurate pronunciation in the target language. This is in line with Schumann's (1986) assertion referred to by Abbas and Mohammed (2011) that acquisition and use of English is a measure of the degree to which students have become acculturated to the target culture. They noted that according to Schumann, acculturation is a learner's openness to the culture of the target language and his desire for social integration in the target language. McAllister also maintains that some adult learners never change their L1 accent whatsoever but since individuals vary in their perception and production of sounds (Yule 1999), the closeness to approximation and or mastery of the L2 sounds depend on the individual learner and his/her experience in the environment of the L2. This is in addition to his attitude which may be instrumental and or integrative.

Methodology

This is a descriptive survey. Twenty 200 level English studies undergraduates aged between 18-24 years were selected from English Department, Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-Ode, Ogun State, Nigeria, through simple random sampling technique. They are from three ethnic groups, namely Yoruba (6 males, 6 females); Igbo (2 males 3 females) and Hausa (0 male 3 females). They have all received instructions in English phonetics and phonology. Data were collected through a questionnaire administered to the respondents by hand. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A solicited demographic information, while Section B contained 25 socio-phonological items soliciting information on the students' perception and attitude towards acquisition of native-like accent. Some of the items also sought to find out the actual phonological skills of the subjects and the impact of the teacher and teaching methods on the acquisition skills of L2 learners. A four- point Likert's scale was used for scoring and analysis was done using frequency counts and simple percentage.

Data Analysis and Discussion of Findings

Data collected through the questionnaire administered directly to the respondents were analysed, and the general results are presented in table 1. However, analysis was done according to relatedness of items. The first five items on the questionnaire focused on the phonological background and perception of the respondents on the acquisition of native-like accent. Items 6-12 were concerned with the attitude of the respondents towards native-like accent, while the rest of the items focused on the phonological skills of the respondents and the impact of the teaching apparatus on the acquisition of these skills. Responses were accounted for according to sex. For easy reference and clear understanding, related items were analysed on separate tables, giving rise to tables 2-4.

Table 1: General Analysis of the perception, attitude and phonological skills of the respondents.

S/N	Item	SA			
		M		F	
		f	%	F	%
1.	I have received instruction in English pronunciation	8	40	12	60
2.	Instruction in Eng pronunciation enhanced my pronunciation skills.	4	20	8	40
3.	I speak English with L1 accent	5	25	7	35
4.	I speak English with native-like accent	-	-	2	10
5.	I find it difficult to alter my accent	4	20	6	30
6.	It's necessary to acquire native-like accent	1	5	4	20
7.	I feel proud having native-like accent	-	-	4	20
8.	I want to acquire native-like accent	-	-	3	15
9.	I want to retain my identity with my L1 accent	4	20	2	10

10.	I only want to achieve international intelligibility	5	25	4	20
11.	I only want to achieve national acceptability	5	25	2	10
12.	I want to achieve both acceptability and intelligibility	5	25	5	25
13.	I can recognize English language sounds	8	40	12	60
14.	I can segment English language sounds	4	20	8	40
15.	I can perceive English language sounds	8	40	12	60
16.	I can isolate English Language sounds	5	25	9	45
17.	I can detect English language rhymes	3	15	6	30
18.	I can manipulate English language sounds	2	10	5	25
19.	I can discriminate between English language sounds	2	10	3	15
20.	I can transcribe English language words	-	-	4	20
21.	My teacher's accent has enhanced my pronunciation skills.	-	-	3	15
22.	I understand more with phonology course books	3	15	4	20
23.	I understand more with audio visual aids	4	20	8	40
24.	I understand more with audio aids	2	10	3	15
25.	With more instruction, I can acquire a native-like accent	-	-	4	20

A				SD				D			
M		F		M		F		M		F	
f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	10	2	10	1	5	1	5	1	5	1	5
2	10	2	10	-	-	2	10	3	15	1	5
-	-	2	10	7	35	5	25	1	5	3	15
1	5	3	15	1	5	2	10	2	10	2	10
2	10	4	20	-	-	3	15	2	10	4	20
-	-	3	15	3	15	3	15	4	20	2	10
2	10	6	30	4	20	1	5	2	10	2	10
2	10	3	15	-	-	4	20	2	10	3	15
2	10	6	30	-	-	2	10	1	5	2	10
2	10	4	20	-	-	2	10	1	5	2	10
3	15	6	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	15	3	15	-	-	-	-	1	5	1	5
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	10	2	10	-	-	-	-	1	5	1	5

2	10	3	15	1	5	1	5	2	10	2	10
3	15	4	20	2	10	2	10	1	5	1	5
2	10	3	15	1	5	4	20	3	15	2	10
3	15	4	20	3	15	2	10	2	10	2	10
2	10	5	25	2	10	1	5	4	20	3	15
2	10	5	25	1	5	1	5	2	10	2	10
3	15	3	15	-	-	-	-	1	5	1	5
3	15	3	15	1	5	2	10	2	10	4	20
2	10	5	25	2	10	1	5	4	20	2	10

KEY: SA: Strongly Agree A : Agree SD: Strongly Disagree D: Disagree

Table 2: Phonological background and perception of the respondents on having a native-like accent.

S/N	Item	SA			
		M		F	
		f	%	F	%
1.	I have received instruction in English pronunciation	8	40	12	60
2.	Instruction in Eng pronunciation enhanced my pronunciation skills.	4	20	8	40
3.	I speak English with L1 accent	5	25	7	35
4.	I speak English with native-like accent	-	-	2	10
5.	I find it difficult to alter my accent	4	20	6	30

A				SD				D			
M		F		M		F		M		F	
f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	10	2	10	1	5	1	5	1	5	1	5
2	10	2	10	-	-	2	10	3	15	1	5
-	-	2	10	7	35	5	25	1	5	3	15
1	5	3	15	1	5	2	10	2	10	2	10

Table 1 shows the responses of the subjects to items 1-5 in the questionnaire. As can be seen from the results of data analysis, all the respondents (40% male and 60% female) have received instruction in English pronunciation, this helped their

pronunciation skills. However, while 16 respondents representing 80% agreed that they still speak English with L1 accent despite receiving instruction in pronunciation, only 4 female respondents representing 20% agreed that they could speak English with native-like accent. Well, this is doubtful as they could not substantiate their claim practically in an informal oral test in which they were asked to say “pack at the park” and ‘I had to leave to live’. Nevertheless majority (60%) find it difficult to alter their voices. These analyses also show that none of the male learners claimed to speak English with a native-like accent. The finding here tallies with the argument that adults L2 learners (especially males) are incompatible with L2 culture and that they have rigid linguistic ego (Neufeld 1977) in which they tend to establish their cultural and ethnolinguistic identity by maintaining their accent. It also favours scovel (1969), Selinker (1972) and Lennesberg’s claims on fossilization, lateralization and atrophy as causes of difficulty of acquisition of native-like accent.

Table 3: Respondents’ interest and attitude towards acquisition of native-like accent

6.	It's necessary to acquire native-like accent	1	5	4	20
7.	I feel proud having a native-like accent	-	-	4	20
8.	I want to acquire a native-like accent	-	-	3	15
9.	I want to retain my identity with my L1 accent	4	20	2	10
10.	I only want to achieve international intelligibility	5	25	4	20
11.	I only want to achieve national acceptability	5	25	2	10
12.	I want to achieve both national acceptability and international intelligibility	5	25	5	25

2	10	4	20	-	-	3	15	2	10	4	20
-	-	3	15	3	15	3	15	4	20	2	10
2	10	6	30	4	20	1	5	2	10	2	10
2	10	3	15	-	-	4	20	2	10	3	15
2	10	6	30	-	-	2	10	1	5	2	10
2	10	4	20	-	-	2	10	1	5	2	10
3	15	6	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5

Table 2 shows the analysis of the data on items 6-12. These items focused on the attitude of the subjects on the acquisition of native-like accent and phonological skills. As can be seen from the analysis, 11 respondents representing 55% agreed that it is necessary to acquire native-like accent while 9 respondents representing 45% disagreed. Among those that said it is necessary, 8 of them representing 40% were females while 15% were males. This shows that the females are more interested in acquiring native-like accent. 35% of these females agreed that they feel proud having a native-like accent. This is buttressed by the fact that the males are not proud having a native-like accent and only two of them would want to

acquire that competence as against 9 females representing 45% who would want to acquire such competence. On the achievement of national acceptability and international intelligibility in pronunciation, 17 respondents (7 males and 10 females) representing 85% indicated that they would want to achieve international intelligibility level while 18 subjects (8 males and 10 females) representing 90% would want to achieve national acceptability. However, 19 respondents (8 males and 11 females) agreed that they want to achieve both international intelligibility and national acceptability. This finding confirms Egwuogu (2004, 2012) views that in teaching English pronunciation, emphasis should be on international intelligibility and national acceptability.

Table 4: Analysis of Respondents' phonological skills

13.	I can recognize English language sounds	8	40	12	60	-
14.	I can segment English language sounds	4	20	8	40	3
15.	I can perceive English language sounds	8	40	12	60	-
16.	I can isolate English Language sounds	5	25	9	45	2
17.	I can detect English language rhymes	3	15	6	30	2
18.	I can manipulate English language sounds	2	10	5	25	3
19.	I can discriminate between English language sounds	2	10	3	15	2
20.	I can transcribe English language words	-	-	4	20	3
21.	My teacher's accent has enhanced my pronunciation skills.	-	-	3	15	2
22.	I understand more with phonology course books	3	15	4	20	2
23.	I understand more with audio visual aids	4	20	8	40	3
24.	I understand more with audio aids	2	10	3	15	3
25.	With more instruction, I can acquire a native-like accent	-	-	4	20	2

-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	3	15	-	-	-	-	1	5	1	5
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	2	10	-	-	-	-	1	5	1	5
10	3	15	1	5	1	5	2	10	2	10
15	4	20	2	10	2	10	1	5	1	5
10	3	15	1	5	4	20	3	15	2	10
15	4	20	3	15	2	10	2	10	2	10
10	5	25	2	10	1	5	4	20	3	15
10	5	25	1	5	1	5	2	10	2	10
15	3	15	-	-	-	-	1	5	1	5

15	3	15	1	5	2	10	2	10	4	20
10	5	25	2	10	1	5	4	20	2	10

Table 3 shows the analysis of respondents' phonological skills. Results of data analysis revealed that all the 20 respondents can recognize and perceive English sounds, 18 of them representing 90% can segment and isolate English sounds, but while 12 respondents representing 60% can manipulate English sounds, only 11 representing 55% can transcribe. This shows that the subjects have a moderate level of proficiency in listening and pronunciation skills but manipulation of the sounds to form words and transcription of words is a problem to them. It also confirms McAllister's (2001) assertion that adults vary in their production and perception of L2 sounds.

Items 20-25 on the same table solicited information on the impact of the teaching apparatus on the subjects. The results of data analysis revealed that 10 respondents representing 50% agreed that the teacher's competence in pronunciation (represented by his accent) enhanced their pronunciation skill. This confirms the assertion that teacher's experience and competence is a determinant factor in phonological skills acquisition.

Furthermore, on the effectiveness of the teaching methods (use of audio and audio-visual aids), 18 respondents representing 90% and 11 respondents representing 55% agreed that they could understand pronunciation instructions more while 11 respondents also representing 55% (comprising 9 females and 2 males) agreed that with more instructions, they can acquire more skills in pronunciation.

Conclusion

This study investigated the problems of phonological skills acquisition of L2 undergraduate students with emphasis on their views and attitude towards the acquisition of native-like accent. It also examined the phonological and phonemic awareness of the participants so as to ascertain their level of achievement in pronunciation. Again, the study looked into the impact of teacher quality and teaching methodologies in pronunciation instructions. The results of the data analysis established that adult undergraduate L2 learners, especially the male students were not keen on acquiring native-like accent. Most of the participants did not want to jettison their L1 accent which they believe was part of their cultural identity and linguistic pride. However, they agreed that in learning English pronunciation, they would want to achieve international intelligibility and national acceptability which does not necessarily imply a native-like accent but a mastery of the sounds for decoding and encoding of messages in the context of English as an international language (EIL).

The implication of this is therefore, that in the teaching and learning of English pronunciation in an L2 situation, efforts should be made to achieve international acceptability and national intelligibility in line with EIL. Acquisition of native-like accent in a second language situation is a ruse because of fossilization, lateralization, atrophy and ethnolingo-cultural pride. It then means that, as pointed out by Egwuogu (2012), emphasis should be placed on those sounds which learners find difficult and areas such as assimilation, elision and other prosodies which can impede understanding of utterances. For this to be possible, qualified and

experienced teachers with proficiency in phonetics and phonology should be employed to teach pronunciation courses, and language laboratories that are fully equipped with audio and audiovisual materials should be put in place.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to collect information on your perception an adult second language learner's phonological skills acquisition. Please feel free to supply all the needed information. The information is for academic purpose and will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Section A: Demographic information

1. Age:
2. Ethnic background: Igbo ☐ Yoruba ☐ Hausa ☐
3. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐
4. Level: 100 ☐ 200 ☐ 300 ☐ 400 ☐

Section B

Please tick ☒ as appropriate.

	Item	SA	A	SD	D
1.	I have received instruction in English pronunciation				
2.	Instruction in Eng pronunciation enhanced my pronunciation skills.				
3.	I speak English with L1 accent				
4.	I speak English with native-like accent				
5.	I find it difficult to alter my accent				
6.	It's necessary to acquire native-like accent				
7.	I feel proud having native-like accent				
8.	I want to acquire native-like accent				
9.	I want to retain my identity with my L1 accent				
10.	I only want to achieve intelligibility				
11.	I only want to achieve acceptability				
12.	I want to achieve both acceptability and intelligibility				
13.	I can recognize English language sounds				
14.	I can segment English language sounds				
15.	I can perceive English language sounds				
16.	I can isolate English Language sounds				
17.	I can detect English language rhymes				
18.	I can manipulate English language sounds				
19.	I can discriminate between English language sounds				
20.	I can transcribe English language words				
21.	My teacher's accent has enhanced my pronunciation skills.				
22.	I understand more with phonology course books				
23.	I understand more with audio visual aids				
24.	I understand more with audio aids				
25.	With more instruction, I can acquire a native-like accent				

ELECTRA COMPLEX PHENOMENON IN JOHN UPDIKE'S 'KILLING'

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Abstract

'Killing' is loud with John Updike's usual concern with domestic themes and transience of human life, and its criticism recognizes this. The instantaneous themes so recognized are however mere blinds, and critics' concerns with them vitiate Updike's aesthetics greatly. Therefore, 'Killing' requires a deep structure reading. A Freudian psychoanalysis is adopted in this study. The model borrows from the Electra complex phenomenon and is about 'clitoris-envy'. The study explores basically the relationship between Anne and her father on the one hand and that between her and the husband on the other. It suggests that the relationship between the daughter and the father is sexual but repressed, that the relationship forms the basis of the smug power-display between both Anne's husband and her father, and that the repression negatively affects the relationship between Anne and her husband. It also reveals that the marital conflict between Anne and Martin is sexual, and that understanding the conflict in this context throws in sharp relief on the contest of the men over Anne, her inability to resolve the conflict and the imminent marriage dissolution. The approach strengthens Updike's proclivities for sexual aesthetics, such as symbolism, pun, suggestive analogies and gallows humour. The study further reveals that death in the story is not only physical but sexual and recommends that Updike's fiction be read for meanings beyond the surface ones, always.

Introduction

Overtly, 'Killing' treats Updike's prototype themes and may be seen very similar to works such as *The Centaur*, *Rabbit, Run*, 'More Stately Mansions' and such stories where the author focuses on the family and death. The story is explicitly on family and marital conflicts and separation, and, of course, death. It depicts familial love between a father, suffering from Alzheimer's, and his daughter, Anne, married but estranged from her husband, her family life and *hers* apparently in ruins. Updike's concern with the theme of ageing and dying is apparent in the reference to the death of Anne's mother and the focus on her father's ageing and the man's eventual death. These overt concerns tilt the criticism of the story in favour of themes on ageing and dying and the picture-perfect relationship between a successful, responsible and children-loving father and a daughter, almost in an equal measure responsible to him until, to borrow the familiar phrase, 'death do [them] part'. The theme of the family is easy to apprehend in 'Killing' following its treatment of a successful family and their ability to train their daughters and marry them out. The story's focus on ageing and dying is evident in the death of the wife and later that of her husband. The story is about a lawyer's family and their three daughters whom with the help of the wife he has been able to raise to adulthood before the woman

passed on. Two of the daughters are abroad with their spouses but the third, the first born lives with her husband in the same neighborhood with her father. The turn of fate is such that the old man is left in the care of the first daughter, who is most indebted to him because of certain roles he had played in her life when she was growing up as his child. Her indebtedness to the father makes her throw herself into the care of her father, and she cares for the man until he passes on. Before the man passes on and while discharging her duties to her father, there arises some conflicts between her husband and her father over who comes first in her life, and both the woman and her husband are also brought into a conflict on the matter. The old man falls sick and eventually dies, but the conflict between the couple remains unresolved.

The power display in the domestic setting by the two men over the woman suggests a direction on the theme of the family even as the death of the man points to a metaphysical one. Therefore, Gold's reading of 'Killing' (1996) is apt, representing the general trend in the criticism of the story and its preoccupation with the family and marital conflict. 'Killing', in Gold's words, 'portrays a marvelously smug power display by a former husband' and is both comic and awful (1). His approach to the story, however refreshing it appears, is naïve and lacks depth. The critic over-reads in the story too in stating that Martin divorces Anne. Gold may project that the husband will eventually divorce the wife, but his presentation of Martin, as Anne's former husband, is the wrong track. The act of separation itself lies outside the story. In the story, the man and his wife are only estranged and separated but not divorced. Divorce and separation are two different things.

Most importantly, Gold's reading, like many other ones, undermines the depth psychology which informs the central conflict in 'Killing' and distracts from Updike's preoccupation with psychological themes and aesthetics. Significantly, too, Gold recognizes that there are two perspectives to the work but discusses only one. According to the critic, the story is comic and awful. He examines the comic side of the story without underscoring the warped issues that it treats. The comic side of the story is evident in the overt power display by the two men over Anne. Golding does not state what is awful in the story, but the appalling thing about it lies in taking a hard look at the same issues raised by the critic. The awful side of the story is subterranean and has so much to do with depth psychology and personality development. The power display by Anne's father, her husband and herself require, therefore, some qualifications and appear in lights other than which are overt and physical.

The awful nature of the story is inherent in studying many of the issues raised in the story subtly, deeply and psychoanalytically. The smug power display it need be stated has more to it than the one observed by Gold. The power display between Anne's father and his son in law, Martin, is not only physical but is inherently sexual and about the repression Anne and the father are struggling with. Innocuously midway into the story, Updike sets the matter between Anne and her father thus: 'His hand lived in hers. He could not die, she could not stay; as with the participants of a great and wicked love, there was none to forgive them save each other' (20).

The father and the in-law, therefore, are contesting their sexual desire for Anne, and other matters in the story are better highlighted in the sexual context and contest. It is significant to add that Anne's sexual repression gives rise to another conflict, this time between her, and Martin and some power displays come also into

the equation. Characters in 'Killing' demonstrate proclivities to sexual notes, conflicts or fulfillment in many instances in the relationships are markedly sexual related to that between either Martin and Anne, or Anne and the father. The proclivities are there, scattered across the story but cannot be ignored.

Psychological Criticism and the Electra Complex Phenomenon in 'Killing'

Scholarship holds that the knowledge of psychology can illuminate literature and its criticism. In general, the application of psychological knowledge can generate three kinds of illumination. Scott (1962) lists these as the examination of the unconscious relations between writer and reader; the study of the lives of authors as a means of understanding their art and the use of psychology to explain fictitious characters (73). This study adopts the third approach, and, following Freudian theory, examines the subconscious patterns which motivate characters in 'Killing'. Freudian psychology suggests that at the root of the make-up, human beings are irrational, sexual, and with aggressive libidinal impulses or drives. These impulses are said to exist in direct conflict with the civilizing drive: the need to fulfill duties and responsibilities within a cultural order. Freud theorizes that as people move from infancy to adolescence to adulthood, they learn to deny, to control, and to direct these impulses into socially acceptable forms of behavior. Freud posits further that people, therefore, constantly live in a state of repression. Certain impulses, according to the psychiatry, are driven to the unconscious where they manifest themselves symbolically in dreams. Thus, literature is, in Freudian terms, a symbolic representation of the unconscious.

The conventional Freudian psychoanalysis is formulated largely on Oedipal terms, borrowing from events in Sophocle's play *Oedipus Rex*. Of a truth, Freud had a great deal of difficulty fitting little girls into his penis-envy schema, and so, as one can imagine, Freudian theory continues to generate debates. Meltzer (1990) puts the development succinctly thus:

The situation of little girls vis-à-vis their unconscious desires and their parents was a problem which Freud never fully understood. In particular, his insistence upon penis envy as a necessary part of the development of the female child created, and has continued to create a great deal of controversy.

The above difficulty, notwithstanding, Freudian ideas can be fertilized in a similar and familial direction borrowing from the Oedipal paradigm but following the Electra model. This study vitalizes psychoanalysis along this line, and especially to study 'Killing'. The study may create a further controversy in Freudian scholarship generally but will not in any way vitiate the application of the theory to 'Killing' or weaken understanding the story. The literary work determines in a large measure the literary theory that is applicable to it, and 'Killing' in the instance has all the requirements of the Electra model of Freudian theory. The theory has a knowledge base and is systematic, and these are all that a literary theory requires. From literature review available to this study, there is a dearth of scholarship on the theory of Electra complex and its application to literature. In psychological criticism, from Scott (1962) to Guerin, L. Wilfred, Labor, Earle; Morgan, Lee; Reesman, Jeanne C.; Willingham, John R. A. (2005), the mention of the phenomenon suggests it as a footnote to Oedipal complex phenomenon, and its application to literature remains

a rarity. Examining 'Killing' within the Electra framework thus serves as a study both on theory and practice of the Freudian model.

'Killing': An Overview

'Killing' describes a daughter's progressive attachment to her father till she got married and points to the effects of the attachment on her marital and sexual life thereafter. Anne is the eldest daughter of her father, who, without consciously realizing so, began to get attached to him, it is significant to note, from the age of thirteen. Her attraction for the father began from a childhood episode which she scarcely remembered for thirty years. At the age of thirteen or so, the first of the man's three daughters to be entering womanhood, Anne, was visited by a terrible insomnia. She approached her mother for help, but the woman dismissed the terror lightly. The father, however, took the development seriously and also attended to Anne's inexplicable wakefulness on many occasions. Home, pale from any of his innumerable meetings, if he found Anne awake, he would sit by her bed for hours, holding her hand and talking enough for 'company'.

Years later, Anne got married to Martin, and both began to raise their own children. Along the line, Anne's mother died, and Anne's old father became sorely sick. As the first and the only daughter who lived in the same neighbourhood with her father, the lot fell on Anne to take care of him, and on some occasion she brought him to live with her and Martin, her husband, at a time when it was evident that she and Martin had started experiencing some difficulties in their relationship. The two were eventually estranged, separated, and Martin started another affair with Harriet even though he and Anne were communicating and hopeful that they would overcome their difficulties some day and begin to live as husband and wife. Anne's father eventually died, and Martin supported Anne during the burial and stayed over with Anne after, hopeful that they would overcome their difficulties and begin to live together as a family. The trial visit revealed that their marital conflict was deep and insurmountable, and both came to the realization that they might have to part.

Electra Complex Phenomenon in 'Killing': A Justification

'Killing' appears composed on the Electra complex phenomenon, and the applicability of the theory to it is never in doubt. Certainly, the application of Oedipal phenomenon to the story is ousted by the author in two strokes. One stroke is the absence of a son whose character is developed or who forms the central focus of the matters presented in the families in the story. Thus, no relationship between a son and a father or a surrogate father exists in the story. The story does not focus on the growth of any boy-character. Describing the lawyer's family, the narrator says, the man 'had spent his free time out of the house, puttering at tasks he had no son to share' (13). Of the family of the man's daughter, references are made only in passing and once to some boys, the children of Anne and Martin. The second stroke is the near absence of a mother character related to by her children. Anne's mother died before the story started. In the story, no son relates to any mother. Thus, clearly, the story treats the relationship between a father and his daughter.

Updike's treatment of the relationship between a father and a daughter in the story, therefore, sets a direction in psychological criticism, restores Freudian psychoanalysis and anticipates the female analog of the Oedipal complex. Electra

complex, a fruitful but less influential development in psychological criticism, develops from Freud's principles and deals with a compulsive strongly repressed sexual attachment of the daughter to the father. The theory, like the male analog, Oedipal complex, has its root in a Greek legend. It is rooted in the story of Electra, a daughter of Clytemnestra and Agamemnon, who persuaded her brother and Orestes to kill their mother and her lover to avenge, according to her, their father's murder. It is suggested however that Electra was in fact in love with her father and that she joined in plotting her mother's death to avenge her father and lover. Ideas abstracted from this myth and codified in psychological terms develop a literary theory that is applied in the instance to 'Killing'. The application of the theory to 'Killing' illuminates the work.

Electra Phenomenon in 'Killing'

Evident in 'Killing' are issues replete with Electra phenomenon. The issues have to do with the relationship between Anne and the father and span the years between when Anne was about thirteen till she turned forty-three, about the time of the death of her father. The Electra phenomenon was set off by her insomnia at thirteen and it peaked in her 'killing' her father three decades after. Anne's inexplicable insomnia and the role her father played in helping her to overcome it is one side of a coin of an earlier experience, and one serves only to accentuate the other. The earlier experience was when Anne was terrified by the approach of menstruation, and she ran to her mother for explanations. The mother dismissed the terror lightly as 'an untidiness connected with "the aging process"'. Apparently, it was Anne's father, who took the development seriously and assisted his daughter to go through that rite of passage. Therefore, Anne's father intervened in her development during her puberty years and when she was undergoing some puberty rites. The point at which the father intervened is significant and needs to be explained in relation to life structure. According to Campbell, '[a]ll life is structure'. He adds further that: 'In the biosphere the more elaborate the structure, the higher the life form' (44). So the human cultural sphere wherein Anne is presented must be examined in the same light and so *must* the structuring patterns of Anne's conduct. Campbell's submission on the issue is again useful for the examination. According to him,

...the human infant is born – biologically considered – some ten twelve years too soon. It acquires its human character, upright stature, ability to speak and the vocabulary of its thinking under the influence of a specific culture, the features of which are engraved, as it were upon its nerves; so that the constitutional patternings which in the animal world are biologically inherited are in the human species matched largely by socially transmitted forms, imprinted during what have been known as the "impressionable years," and rituals have been everywhere the recognized means of such imprinting. (44)

Like any human species, with his or her great brain requiring many years to mature, Anne was born too soon, but had, unlike a marsupial, not a pouch, but the home, which is again a sort of external second womb. Anne's life stage in the second womb, the home, can be mapped into certain divisions. Certainly, the first phase is before her puberty, and the phase has its own basic social imprints. The imprints are suggested in an attitude to dependency that any child has before attaining psychological maturity. Anne's challenge at puberty and her turning to her parents for advice, support, and protection is a transitional phase, and it divides that

impressionable phase from the stage which follows. During her puberty years, represented in the story as menstrual, Anne needed assistance, and it was her father and not her mother who came to her aid. The assistance that Anne's father offered her daughter to enter womanhood has certain psychological implications for both of them. The psychological direction of the event is evident in Anne's report and recollection of the incident:

In her memory, his voice had been not merely paternal but amused, leisurely, enjoying itself as if this visiting were less a duty than an occasion to be relished, in the manner of the country world where he had been a boy, where sitting and talking were a principal recreation (15).

The experience had romantic and sexual undertones that were not clear to Anne then but have been alive, and only subdued over the years. She was inexperienced about the 'rite of passage' and naturally found it difficult to process or come to terms with the feelings that the childhood episode could evoke sexual feelings. This perception by her is understandable granted that she was inexperienced in sexual matters. The implication for Anne's father and Anne the adult is far different. Experienced in sexual matters, the father understood that the bed side relationship carries with it some sexual and irrational drive, so he controlled the impulse. The force of conscience and moral probity required that he did. Reason demanded that his sexual feelings towards her daughter be repressed, and so the father took the matter in his stride. Anne never understood the sexual implication of the bed side experience until three decades after.

Thirty years after the childhood episode is the epiphany of the bedside relationship between the father and the daughter. Its epiphanic nature is evident in the narrator's presentation of the matter and Anne's perception of the episode. In the narrator's words, 'Anne was reminded, in this hour of holding and waiting, of a childhood episode scarcely remembered for thirty years. It had been so strange, so *out of both their characters*' (14, emphasis mine). The oddness of the relationship that the childhood episode generated took years for Anne to process, but when she finally processed it, it was clear that she understood that it had a romantic air.

There was role change, unknown clearly to Anne and perhaps to the Father, during those hours he sat down by her bed thirty years before: both became lovers. The role change is suggested subtly in the trope, 'out of both their characters'. 'Out of both their characters' should not simply be understood literally but taken as a trope that suggests character change of both Anne and the father. Anne ceased at the point in question to be a daughter while the father stopped being a father. The role assumed by each character evolves in the statement which concludes Anne's evaluation of that experience: 'His voice not merely paternal but amused, leisurely, enjoying itself....'(15).

Characterization and Psychoanalysis in 'Killing'

Characterization in 'Killing' supports Electra complex phenomenon in ways other than role change *does* as suggested above. For instance, a character analysis of Anne's mother strengthens the phenomenon in the story. The characterization of the woman is such that her husband's less bridled sexuality to Anne and Anne's awareness of this sexuality is made coterminous with after the woman's life. The man's irrational desire for Anne and its concealment, and perhaps Anne's irrational sexual drive for her father and concealment, occurred while the woman was alive.

The significance of this is that Anne's mother's death is artistically linked with the dawn of Anne's awareness of her sexual attachment to her father and her father's 'awareness' of same to her daughter. In other words, the mother, while alive, stood in the way of the love between the father and the daughter.

Further supportive of a psychoanalytic reading of 'Killing' is a character analysis of Anne's father, especially following the death of the wife. The narrator describes the man after her wife's death cryptically thus: 'Dying, her father had become sexual (18)'. The sexual trope here needs to be examined. Significant about it is the image of the body outlasting the brain whose relevance to psychoanalysis is far reaching. The body and the brain, to use Freudian terms, are the *id* and the *ego*. Some may ask, where is the *super ego*? The *super ego* finds expression in the conscience and is hardly always inseparable from the power of reason. *Id*, the body, is the source of the father's irrational, sexual and aggressive drive, while *ego*, the brain, is the mitigating force which ought to regulate the interaction between the *id* and the *super ego*, the demand of conscience and civilization. Anne's father's *ego* thus weakened, leaves his body less bridled sexually. This understanding strengthens the question of pleasure principle and reality principle at the root of Freudian theory.

Simply explained, the pleasure principle holds that the body desires to be gratified always, while the reality principle keeps the body in check and subjects it to reason such that its energy is directed elsewhere. The sexual awakening of Anne's father for her daughter is traced to about the death of his wife and his weakening power of reasoning. The gradual loss of the man's power of reasoning is understated in his 'disintegrating from the head down (16)', and the loss is coupled with his sexual awakening, suggested in the idea that 'Dying, her father had become sexual. Her mother no longer intervening, his manhood was revealed (18-19)'. 'Manhood' is to be understood in the circumstance as the qualities that make the father human, his sexual power and sexual jealousy, most probably. Having no longer full control over his reasoning faculty, Anne's father's body assumed a better control of him, and the result was the ferocity and pugnacity against any force that sought to separate him from the object of his affection.

The timing of the death of Anne's mother requires some interrogation too. The portrayal suggests two things. The first is that the father lived with Anne and the husband within the two years following the death of Anne's mother. The other one is that it was during this trial visit that the wicked love between the father and the daughter was exposed. The suggestions are not conjectural but only buried in a load of 'facts' in the narrative and are set straight in this study. Of Anne's mother, the narrator says: 'Her mother had died two years ago, leaving her children her china, her common sense, and a stately old man disintegrating from the head down (16)'. The narrative also states that Anne's father died thirty years after her father had assisted his daughter's entry into womanhood.

From the analysis above, it is obvious that Anne and the husband had the burden of having Anne's father live with them those two years between the death of Anne's mother and that of her father. It is clear also that the conflict between the father-in-law and his son-in-law and the one between Anne and her father were revealed during the same time. The former conflict appeared eventually resolved, but the latter was not. The former appeared resolved in Anne's decision to move her father away from her marital home. The latter conflict and the main focus of this

psychological study, as it shall be discussed, was the actual cause of the marital conflict between Anne and Martin and the eventual cause of the failure of their marriage. Harriet was only the beneficiary and not the cause of either the conflict between Anne and Martin or the imminent separation of the two.

Marital and Sexual Conflicts in 'Killing'

Updike leaves the reader to find out why Anne and Martin are estranged but suggests what the conflict was between Martin and the father-in-law. He suggests the conflict between the two men when Anne's father came to live in Anne's home, woke Anne and Martin up, standing in the hall outside their bedroom, the top and bottom of his pajamas mismatched, and told Anne that no one had ever hurt him as she had that night. Anne appeared to put her finger on the problem when she blushed and said: "But, Daddy he's my husband. You're my father. I am not Mother, I'm Anne....Mother died, don't you remember?" (19). To resolve the conflict, Anne subsequently moved her father out of her home.

By moving her father away from her house, Anne appreciated the conflict between her and her husband only in physical terms and so skirted the margin of the problem. That she failed to apprehend the problem fully is evident in a fact: 'Once the old man was safely placed in a nursing home, Martin left' (19). Martin left only because some conflict still existed. The conflict thus extended beyond the one between Anne's father and the son-in-law. Therefore, while there was a conflict between Anne and the father on the one hand, there was also a conflict between Martin and Anne on the other hand. The latter conflict however arose from the former one. This study, as the following analysis shall show, affirms that Anne and Martin were estranged because they were sexually conflicted, and that the two were conflicted because of the sexual conflict between Anne and the father.

Anne was forty-one when she lost her mother, and the lot fell on Anne as the eldest daughter to take care of the father, ageing and suffering from Alzheimer's for two years. About forty three years old, estranged from her husband and sitting by his father who lay unconscious, dying in a nursing home, Anne remembered the childhood episode. She remembered her father had not begrudged her his time years ago, resolved not to begrudge him her company and therefore worked to put him to sleep. When Anne's father could no longer swallow, and the decision arose whether or not to move him to a hospital, where he could be fed intravenously, and his life could be prolonged, Anne decided against taking him to a hospital. According to the narrator, Anne decided against *it* because uppermost in her mind was the fear that the ambulance ride would compromise her father's dignity. This study states that the narrator's interpretation of the situation is contestable and that innermost in Anne's mind was certainly another fear: that she would have least access to her father once he was moved to the hospital. Only keeping her father in the nursing home ensured her physical contact with him and, of course, access to some sexual gratification.

A 'great and wicked love' between Anne and the father is variously underplayed and repeated in their holding hands and how they react to the activity. The experiences between the daughter and the father are suggestive of ambivalent feelings compounded by not only love and admiration but also by hatred and fear, all which point to the idea that both had irrational sexual desires for each other. Two instances are sufficient to make our point in this wise. In one instance, the narrator

presents how the father's hand returned the daughter's squeeze and how, consequently, 'the agitation that passed across his face caused his shallow pulse to race (14)'. The imagery is of arousal and sexual and comparable to a cluster of images that recommends Kate Chopin's 'The Story of an Hour' for a psychological reading. About Kate Chopin's 'The Story of an Hour', Bogarad and Schmidt state that:

The psychological critic also would discuss the motif of sexual repression in the story. The world of 'The Story of an Hour' is one in which sexual feelings are denied... Mrs Mallard's awakening would be viewed as a sexual one ...*her weak pulse becomes "fast"; her "coursing blood warmed and relaxed her...."*. *Images of sexual arousal abound* (1351) italics mine.

The picture created in the above quoted passage, especially the one reflected in the italicized portion, is not in any effect different from the one presented in 'Killing':

'His hand would twitch, or her hand, wandering, would come upon his pulse, and the sign of life would horrify her, like the sight of roaches scuttling in the sink when, in the middle the night, the kitchen light is suddenly turned on (18).

The cluster of images in the second instance requires to be interrogated, especially the bit about the wandering hand, the roaches and their response to light and darkness. The manner of Anne's hand 'wandering' suggests caressing; therefore, holding hands appears suggestive of a familial love between father and daughter. We argue however that the love requires to be modified by a word other than 'familial', and Updike recognizes this requirement by describing the relationship as a 'great wicked love'. In the above excerpt, Anne's father's pulse and the daughter's are equated with the roaches, and the equation does not require an elaborate gloss. The domain of roaches is the dark just as the domain of Anne's sexual drive for her father and hers for him was the unconscious, and as roaches shrink away from light so *did* Anne and her father from this sudden awareness of the love between both of them. Anne struggled, though weakly, with the great need to overcome her sexual attachment to her father and be free, and find his own 'love'. But the struggle came too late, because of the deep-seated nature of the problem.

However innocent holding hands image in 'Killing' appears, it will be difficult to contest its sexual overtone because Updike sets other contexts to explore the ring of sex about the image. Anne's sexual and bedside habit provides one of such contexts. By the side of her father holding his hands Anne's words were 'Just relax....Re-lax. It's all right. I am right here, Daddy (14). Beside Martin on the bed her words were the same 'Just relax...Re-lax' (26). It is not gratuitous or fortuitous that Updike opens and concludes the story in corresponding images. The story opens thus: 'ANNE'S FATHER'S HAND felt warm and even strong, though he lay unconscious, dying (13). The story ends on a very revealing note setting a correspondence between this sexually symbolic opening and an overtly sexual context, now between Anne and Martin: '....She put her hand on his penis. It was warm and silky- small like nothing else, softer than a breast, more fragile than a thought, yet heavy' (26). Thus, Updike completes the sexual aesthetics that holding hands is supposed to serve in 'Killing'.

Psychology, Personality Reversal and the Ironic in 'Killing'

'Killing' is laced with many ironic instances that support Updike's concern with psychology and the theory of personality. According to Kimble and Garnezy, personality can be defined as 'the unique organization of characteristics that set the individual apart from other individuals and, at the same time, determine how others respond to him (568)'. Both scholars agree that personality is fairly permanent and consistently characteristic of the individual over an extended period of time. The sense of the ironic evolves in the personality of Anne, Martin's and Anne's father's. Much can be said of the irony in Updike's focus on Anne's personality. In her childhood, Anne, according to the narrator, 'had been a cheerful child- what they called in those years "well adjusted"' (14). The implication of the statement for a psychological exploration of the story sets the concern of the story with her personality. It is ironic however that Anne eventually evolves maladjusted. Anne's personality maladjustment is evident in at least three ways. At forty years old, Anne had become sexually perverted, and she understood that fact. Her recognition of her sexual perversion is evident in her acceptance of the fact that she felt the same way holding his father's hand and holding her husband's penis. Anne's sexual experiment with Martin is, in a sense, akin to voyeurism. The sense is evident in the narrator's words which x-ray Anne's thought after she had succeeded in killing Martin's effort to resolve their sexual conflict:

Among her regrets was one that having held her dying father's hand so continuously, she had not been holding it at the moment in which he passed from life to death; she had wanted, childishly, to know what it would have felt like. It would have felt like this (26).

This, in Anne's words above, refers to the failed sexual act between Martin and Anne; it relates to the hand of the latter on the former's genitals, the latter lulled to sleep by the act. The experience further confirms that Anne's psychology was sexual while holding her father's hand.

Despite being some forty-three years old, Anne is psychologically infantile. Characterizing her intention as childish appears disparaging and deprecating, but Anne's failure to mature or be responsible suggests, of a fact, that she is childish. So, Updike is apt in his description of her as childish. Latent in her psychology were still irrational libidinal impulses which she wanted the world to believe that she had denied, controlled and directed into a socially acceptable behavior. For Anne, duty and desire run hand-in-hand in her holding her father's hand, though she passed off the sexual act as a care for her father.

Psychology, Guilt Consciousness and Aesthetics in 'Killing'

Updike's aesthetics and concern with psychology in the story is enriched by his focus on characters' guilt consciousness. Martin and Anne were pilloried by guilt for different reasons, and they confessed this on different occasions. It is with Martin that the concern is more elaborated in the story. Martin expressed his guilt over certain things in relation to Anne, her father and Harriet and graded his guilt accordingly. Martin stated that he felt guilty sleeping on the same bed with his estranged wife when his heart was no longer with her but with Harriet, her mistress. This feeling of guilt is presented as mild compared with how he felt about his father-in-law.

Martin's guilt about the man came after the demise of the old man, and Martin himself puts it thus: "Also, I feel rotten about Grandpa. He was so *good*..." Martin's guilt at this point and with reference to Anne's father's trial visit is fairly significant and has a bearing on the Electra complex phenomenon, and it is evaluated below. Before his wife's father's trial visit, Martin, it would appear, had an idea that Anne was being plagued by some sexual problem. He apparently put his finger on the problem the first night of Anne's father's trial visit. It is worth recalling the experience that the night Anne's father woke Martin and Anne up and told her that no one had ever hurt him as she did that night, she, supposedly understanding her father's psychology, drew some marital maps for her father. Anne's reflection on and response to the father's behaviour showed that she appreciated there was some sexual problem and that she was prepared to deal with it.

Anne dealt with the conflict openly by defining her relationships with both her father and her husband and drawing a boundary between the relationships. In her decision that her father's stay with them would not work, she chose her husband over her father. It was then not surprising that Martin was glad by Anne's appreciation of the sexual problem and her decision to send her father away. It is then to be understood that Martin's guilt, after the death of Anne's father, was about suspecting all along that her father-in-law's sexual problem was deeper. Thus, Martin admitted guilty not appreciating the magnitude of the sexual conflict and possibly helping to solve it.

Psychology and Dream Aesthetics and Other Tropes in 'Killing'

Updike employs dream aesthetics in 'Killing' and deploys other elements to strengthen the story's preoccupation with depth psychology and sexual conflict. The dream element is introduced at the point when Anne offered herself to Martin and made an effort to overcome her sexual conflict. Updike puts Anne's offer to Martin that night thus:

When with a caress she offered to make love, he said, "No. That would be too much." In her fatigue, she was relieved. Sleep came to her swiftly, even though his presence barred her from the center of the bed, to which she had grown accustomed (23).

It is significant to note that this was the only instance stated in the story when Anne willingly offered herself to Martin to be made love to. The consequence of this offer that night is more significant. In her dream that same night, Anne was confronted by her father and remonstrated. The dream, therefore, underscores the sexual soul tie between Anne and her father and confirms both the sexual attachment between the two and the daughter's repression of the fact.

Behind many statements in 'Killing' are weights of meaning and such that lend credibility to the story's concern with psychology. It suffices to examine one in the instance and explore its significance for our analysis. The example in case is the final frank bed-side talk between Anne and Martin:

'You do something to the bed that makes me nervous. You always did. With Harriet I have no problem. I sleep like a baby.'

'Don't tell me about it.'

'I'm just reporting it as a curious physiological fact'(26).

Though Anne herself stopped Martin from probing the matter, he, by indirection, stated above that Anne had a psychological problem. His statement on

the 'physiological fact' can be understood in psychological terms granted that scholarship recognizes a connection between physiology and neurology. Francoise Meltzer (1990) offers a royal road to the connection between the two and related the connection to Freud in an instance. On the matter, Meltzer is quoted below:

Freud, it should be kept in mind, began his work in the latter part of the nineteenth century and was very much a product of that period's notion of neurology and physiology. The reflex arc (for example: the involuntary jerk of the leg when the knee is struck) was Freud's model for human neurology: tension builds up and needs to be released, and this release is an involuntary action (150).

What Anne did to the bed is a physiological fact which must be seen as a symptom of some neurosis. Neurosis is a mental illness that causes depression or an abnormal behavior, often with physical symptoms but with no sign of disease. So, Anne was sexually ill, but the illness manifested only in some physical bed habit. She as well as Martin was aware of this illness, but she would not want it discussed. By her statement, 'Don't tell me about it', Anne stated that she did not need to be told that she had a psychological problem.

It is important to note therefore that Martin's psychoanalysis of the wife came full blown only after the death of the father. The psychoanalysis began during the trial visit of Anne's father in the house of the couple. Veiled in the trial visit is Martin's understanding of the relationship between the father and the daughter. Anne remembered later Martin's relief when she announced that her father staying with them would not work. Anne's choice to break her father stay with them pointed to the fact that Anne seemed able to put her finger on her sexually conflicting life. But Anne's understanding of the problem is simple, as the relationship between the father and the daughter is however more than physical. Anne's father himself at the outset knew something was wrong about the relationship between himself and his daughter and was able to repress the problem. It is rather unfortunate that at a point he began to lose grip of his reason and control over the problem. Against the background that he was already disintegrating from the head, it would have been strange if he were able to overcome the problem. Only with the power of reason could he have been able to finger out the problem, but he was denied that power the moment he began to suffer from Alzheimer.

From the Literal to the Metaphorical: Sexual Aesthetics in 'Killing'

Updike deploys elements whose double entendres or plurisignation strengthens his preoccupation with sexual matters and contributes to a psychological reading of 'Killing'. The elements evolve in Anne's review of her father's death and Martin's review of same and in Martin's comment about Anne's failure to change the bulbs that needed replacement in her house. In Anne's review of her father's death, death evolves as physical, metaphorical and sexual. Physical death is suggested in the death of Anne's father.

Re-viewed and bearing in mind Anne's conclusion that having killed her father, she herself had to die, death evokes a metaphorical sense. The metaphorical sense of the idea is sustained also by Anne's perception of Martin's response to her appraisal of the death of her father: 'She understood [Martin] now: he was saying, *Put yourself to shame, put yourself to death, but don't include me: I am alive*' (24). In the context, Anne did not have physical death in mind, and, thus, killing and death in the

story acquire a metaphorical sense. Death, by extension, thus suggests the death of Anne's sexual drive. Updike wraps up this metaphorical sense of death in the manner in which the relationship between Anne and Martin ended. Anne died sexually to Martin at the end of the story.

Martin's comment about the bulbs is not only literal but metaphorical. He made the comment the first night of the trial visit: "Anne, dear ... tell us all why you can't seem to replace the burned-out light bulbs. Is it the unscrewing or the screwing in that frightens you?" (22). In the presence of the children, Anne could only choose to respond to the literal sense of the message: "I've been so busy getting my father to die I didn't notice which bulbs were on and which were off. I haven't even read a newspaper for days (22)". But Anne understood the metaphorical and sexual sense in Martin's question and responded to it psychoanalytically. Her understanding of Martin's dark humour reflects in her subsequent psychoanalysis of Martin on the issue:

Lethal, but attractive; Harriet had made of him something smaller but more positive, less timorous and diffuse. Before, he had been in the house like the air they unthinkingly breathed; now he manifested himself among them as a power...

Martin's comment about the burned-out light bulbs appears literal and jocular, but, in the circumstance, it is strongly metaphorical of and allusive to Anne's sexually conflicted personality and so is lethal. Anne found the matter injurious but appreciated the sexual imagination and joke behind its manner of rendering. In Anne's comment, Martin's personalities when he shared home with Anne and when he was separated from Anne are contrasted. When still Anne's devoted husband, he was timorous, introverted and less positive on sexual matters. After their estrangement, Martin was different. He manifested as a power, demonstrating a show of energy and duty.

Martin's statement that sharing the same bed with Anne would not 'kill us' (23) is significant and means two things. . The 'us' in question could be either Martin and Anne or Martin or Harriet. Anne recognized that Martin's statement could be interpreted in more than one way, hence her question: "Who's us? Martin gave no reply to Anne's question and by that confirmed the double entendres in his statement. If 'us' is taken to mean Anne and Martin, then the ironic sense evolves eventually because sleeping together that night sounded the death knell to the sexual life of Anne and Martin finally.

The Motif of the Rites of Passage

The motif of the rites of passage constitutes a major aesthetics in 'Killing'. The motif is presented at least thrice in the story. It manifests first in Updike's treatment of Anne's entry into her teens and womanhood and, secondly, suggested by our mapping, in her preparation for, or perhaps entry into menopause. The motif is also traceable in Anne's father's preparation for death and the final passage. The motif is further presented, though veiled, in Martin's visit which drew the curtain over his sex life with Anne. The significance of the motif in the story is inherent in its association with various forms of death. Anne's entry into womanhood signifies the beginning of her neurosis and the death of a normal sexual life. The theme of death is evident also in the deployment of the motif of passage in relation to Anne's father. The death of the man suggests his final passage and the death of Anne's normal sexual

life and relationship with Martin. Thus, the use of the motif confirms that Updike is not only preoccupied with physical death but with other forms of death.

Conclusion

'Killing' is Updike's prototype fiction with manifests themes of ageing and dying and family and marital conflicts. But following these leads in its criticism only scratches the surface of Updike's aesthetics. The knowledge of psychology, in the circumstance Electra complex phenomenon, illuminates the story and vitalizes Updike's aesthetics revealing that these themes are only blinds. Manifest themes are built on psychological themes and woven around the sexual attachment between a daughter and her father, the repression of same and its consequence for the woman's sexual and marital life. The story treats patterns of sublimation, especially how Anne has directed her unconscious desire to unite with her father into socially acceptable forms of behavior. It explores neurosis and its management or mismanagement by Anne and the father who drove their libidinal desires into the unconscious and allowed them to manifest symbolically in the familial devotion of holding hands.

The application of the theory to the story expands Updike's preoccupation with death beyond issues about cessation of life but relates it to personality development and sexual matters. It reveals that death in 'Killing' is metaphorical and associated with rites of passage and the end of a phase in either one's growth or marital life. Death is associated in the story with a passage into womanhood, the wake of menopause and the imminent end of a marital life. It reveals the dynamics of the literary work and their link with psychology.

Against the argument of Rothenberg and Shapiro that psychoanalysis is guilty of disregarding 'the aesthetic integrity of a literary work, focusing on limited elements of plot and theme (51), the application of the theory to 'Killing' vitalizes aesthetics such as characterization, motifs of dream and rites of passage, symbolism, humour, metaphor and other sexual aesthetics. It traces the personality development of Anne from adolescence to adulthood, her struggle to deny, control and channel her sexual energy appropriately, her failure in this bid and the fatal consequences for her marital life. Rich in patterns of transference and projection, 'Killing' suggests holding hands symbolically represents a sexual discourse and is about sexual arousal and satisfaction.

Updike's prototype fiction appeals easily to be read as a fair or good copy of his other works and the tendency is for it to attract the knowledge of Updike's other works as a touchstone for its criticism. Such approach may skirt the margin of the issues in the work and blunt the edge of its criticism as the case has been with 'Killing'. It is recommended that Updike's fiction should, like 'Killing', be examined for themes other than the ones readers are familiar with. Useful in this regard is the application of new theoretical tools such as the psychological assumptions to the fiction. The result can be as exciting as the one in the present study of 'Killing'.

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EDUCATION AS AN IMPETUS FOR ELEVATED ROLES OF WOMEN: A STUDY OF SELECTED NOVELS OF AYI KWEI ARMAH

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Abstract

In most societies, women are assigned gender roles such as wives, mothers, wet nurses, sex pots and farm mates. Consequently, most writers have portrayed women as not being capable of playing any significant role in the society. The feminist theory was used to critique some selected works of Ayi Kwei Armah, a male novelist who has progressively used his narratives to give women greater social relevance as illustrated in *Two Thousand Seasons*, *The Healers* and *Osiris Rising*. The study adopted a textual analysis of the selected novels and relevant critical works.

In these works, Armah, contrary to patriarchal sentiments, portrays women who are politically conscious and are able to play crucial roles in the society because they have acquired either formal or informal education. He sees education, formal or informal, as an impetus for playing elevated roles, bearing in mind that education is the knowledge of putting one's potentials to maximum use. Education trains the human mind and provides knowledge, skills and attitudes for active citizenship. However, in the contemporary society, formal education is preferable as it builds capabilities, and prepares individuals for opportunities in the public and private domains as shown in *Osiris Rising*.

KEY WORDS: Sex, Gender roles, Patriarchy, Politics, Education

Introduction

"Education is a human right with immense power to transform. On its foundation rest the cornerstones of freedom, democracy and sustainable development" Kofi Annan

Generally, roles are assigned in most societies according to gender. In assigning these roles women are usually given roles such as wives, mothers, wet nurses, sex pots and other roles deemed inferior. Some writers particularly, male writers, have portrayed women as not being capable of playing any significant role in the society. Social structures, processes of socialization and ideology all collaborate to create an unjust system in which women are deprived of their full humanity and short-changed of their just share of socio-political and economic benefits.

The sexist ideology colours the patriarchal system and creates the notion that women are inferior to men and consequently must be excluded from performing roles outside those of procreation and servitude. However, undeniably, women's inability to perform elevated roles is attributed to the fact that they are not given

equal opportunities with men in terms of access to education and dignified roles. A lot has been said about preference for male child education, in most society.

Education for Women

Education is the knowledge of putting one's potentials to maximum use. It trains the human mind and proper education provides knowledge, skills and attitudes for active citizenship. Education is an essential element of the empowerment of girls and women. Good quality education builds women's capacities and prepares them to seize opportunities in the public and private domains. It empowers women to participate in any endeavour; this is demonstrated by the old axiom that education is power. In most cases educated women have proved to be more politically active and well informed of their legal rights and how to exercise them.

Education helps women take advantage of opportunities that could benefit them and their families, preparing women for the labour force and helping them understand their environment better. Ify Amadiume in *Male Daughters, Female Husbands: Gender and Sex in an African society*, illustrates how educated women were able to form and organise groups and societies to fight injustice against women in Nigeria, just as Nina Mba did in her account of Fumilayo Kuti and the Egba women revolt. This confirms the fact that education frees the mind from bondage and oppression and provides an adequate platform and awareness for political events. It no doubt increases awareness and consciousness. Most women naturally have the ability to lead and organize without education as evidenced in the labour that goes into the organization of homes and the coordination of children. However, education offers them more opportunities in all spheres of human endeavour.

Significance of Female Education in the Novels of Ayi Kwei Armah

In selected novels of Ayi Kwei Armah, he reveals the value of female education, an issue prominent in feminism. Armah gives attention to female characters in varying degrees in his novels. While in some novels the female characters are treated in line with stereotypes in some others, he projects women as playing crucial roles in the societies because they have been trained to do so. Of particular note is the calibre of women portrayed in *Two Thousand Seasons*, *The Healers* and *Osiris Rising*. *The Healers* is a historical novel in which Armah tells the colonial experience in Ghana "at the heart of the novel there lies an overriding question: why were the immensely proud and resourceful Asante people subjected in this ignoble manner?" (Fraser, 85).

The answer to this question lies in the disintegration of the strength and unity of the Asante people precipitated by the corrupting influence of the foreign culture. The Asante culture which hitherto cemented the people has lost its efficacy to the extent that an enactment of rituals of old brings no significant change in the state of affairs. The narrator reports that, "their intended meaning had been wholeness. But, the circumstances under which they had been played out had been circumstances of division, circumstances of fragmentation" (*The Healers*, 5).

In *The Healers*, Armah castigates the royalty and portrays them as saboteurs and conniving sell-outs. For cheap gifts of wine and paltry sums, they are willing to release their black brothers to be slaughtered in battles. For these greedy acts and

more, Armah describes the royalty as part of the disease that must be cured. "Among our people, royalty is part of the disease, whoever serves royalty serves the disease, not the cure. He works to divide our people, not to unite us, no matter what he hopes personally to do" (*The Healers*, 269). The polluted, troubled and sick nation is in dire need of healing and cataclysmic cleansing. Men who have been marked out, those who have not been polluted by the lure of filthy lucre will deliver this desired healing. These men and women, the healers, will be the ultimate redeemers of the sick nation and like in every revolution the altruistic redemptive mission will involve loss of lives.

Armah in this novel indicates that education either formal or informal is a major prerequisite for the act of healing. Damfo's answer to Densu on what really is a healer's work captures the need for education vividly. According to him:

You may say it's seeing. And hearing. Knowing' ...Take any place, the forest, say. Men walk through the forest. They see leaves, trees, and insects sometimes a small animal, perhaps a snake. They see many things. But they see little. They hear many forest sounds. But they hear little. ...A healer sees differently, he hears differently. (*The Healers*, 79)

To understand all these things, healers need to be prepared because 'No one sees without preparation' (*The Healers*, 79). After, "his training the healer walks through the same world every person walks through. But he sees signs others don't see. He hears sounds others don't hear. The same tree that just stands there dumbly to everyone, to a healer its leaves has things to say. The healer learns the meaning of the river's sound, of the sounds of the forest animals" (*The Healers*, 80)

In general terms, education serves as an impetus to the improvement of women's roles in nation building and specifically only women who have been exposed to the process of training and preparation are portrayed as being capable of the redemptive mission. Araba Jesiwa is introduced to Damfo when her soul was in need of purgation from a wrong decision. She had listened to the opinion of people in the community and, against her conviction, married the royal Bedu Addo.

I was afraid of my true self. I feared the disapproval of my relatives and friends. They wanted the ephemeral self to be myself. I listened to them, and grew deaf to my own needs. I lost the desire to listen to my own soul, and almost lost the ability. I wanted to be right in the eyes of the others (*The Healers*, 78).

This wrong decision cripples her soul and delays her joy of womanhood. Her association with Damfo radicalizes and transforms her, opens her eyes and she could now see physically and supernaturally, things she had not let herself see before. She states:

what I understood because of his I must have known before, because when I saw it clearly it never seemed strange. It seemed a natural part of my self, something I had known in my self all along but which I had somehow hidden from myself" (*The Healers*, 77).

Damfo becomes the warmth needed to explode the dominant volcano which opens up the well of knowledge hidden in Araba Jesiwa's soul. In *The Healers*, Araba is a metaphor of the crippled and sick nation; a nation crippled by greed, corruption and inordinate ambition. The mutilation of Araba Jesiwa after the murder of her son and the stealing of her jewellery are analogous to the debasement of the Ghana nation. What befalls Araba is a disaster just like the Ghanaian nation. Damfo informs Densu "The events that have shattered our people were not simply painful

events. They were disasters. They were strange, unnatural catastrophes. Those who survived them could only survive in part because they found ways to forget the catastrophes (*The Healers*, 83).

Araba Jesiwa's catastrophe, a combination of a physical and emotional breakdown impedes her recovery rate. However, Damfo expresses optimism at her condition. The issue of her bone setting is an easy job because Araba Jesiwa will walk, just as the hen had walked what would be more difficult to heal would be the violated mind. The process of healing the mind will be evoked by Araba Jesiwa herself; Damfo would only provide the required environment. Similarly, the Ghanaian nation stands the chance of receiving healing if it is desired and worked for, signifying optimism that not all hopes were lost.

She regains her soul at the point Densu was to be executed unjustly over trumped up allegation of murder. Araba Jesiwa's entry into the courtroom becomes timely and symbolic. Her auspicious appearance redeems Densu in a similar manner Armah anticipates that the Ghanaian nation stands the chance of redemption. What is interesting is that the redeemer will necessarily not be a male. Anybody who has been tutored properly on the rudiments of nation building would execute the plan. Symbolically, Araba Jesiwa brings healing to the sick nation, her confession leads to the timely cleansing of the nation, the guilty will be uprooted and the innocent will be spared.

Ajao, another female character spurns the luxury of city life and chooses to study under her father's tutelage. Like her father, the desire to heal drives her to the forest. She becomes a source of inspiration for Densu. Her presence in the forest magnetizes Densu to the forest hence cements his resolve to be a healer. Ajao is endowed with the strength and wisdom most societies will attribute to a male. Even though the journey was tedious, Ajao plays her role with aplomb. The relationship between her and Densu continually pulls Densu to the forest. Chioma Opara refers to the relationship as having a balmy effect on Densu (121). She injects life and hope into Densu as he confesses, "There was hope in the future. The presence of Ajao, such a total acceptance of his own, drew his mind forward from the deadness of the past" (*The Healers*, 159). Ajao places premium on her healing job, to the extent that in spite of the love affair between Densu and herself she accepts that Densu should go with Asamoa Nkwanta in pursuance of truth and justice. Figuratively, Densu informs her that he will not be in her permanently, 'Don't get out of me, she said, when both were quiet. 'I shall have to, sometime' he said...We could stay locked together forever; he said gravely, but people might miss us and come looking for us" (*The Healers*, 231)

In Densu's Odyssey two female healers play supportive and crucial roles. Nyaneba offers the healers room to renew their strength after a tiring journey to Praso. The farm work Densu engages in, "helps to hasten the healing process after his escape from his enemies and her presence was always good, and she gave his belief in healing work even greater strength" (*The Healers*, 159). Similarly, Ama Nkroma provides him with shelter when he takes Bediwona, an aphrodisiac to the royals at the coast. His visit to the coast is designed to help him extract a confession from Bantwi, Appia's murderer, and all the information he could obtain from him.

In *The Healers*, Armah asserts that women can contribute meaningfully to discussion; he gives them a voice; they are heard and not seen. The queen mother

is allowed to sit in court with men and contribute positively to deliberations that have far-reaching implications on the peace and existence of her nation. She equally convinces Asamoa Nkwanta, the Asante war general, to forgive the injustice done him and accept once more to lead Asante's soldiers to war against the colonial invaders. Even though the pretentious reconciliation was aimed at other ulterior motives, her ability to convince a congregation populated by men is commendable, an indicative of her wisdom and acceptability.

Armah in *The Healers* asserts that even natural phenomenon such as rivers, which are named after women have the potentials of healing the sick. The female river is described as 'a clear thing of beauty'. Densu and Abena wash in the river after the wrestling contest to secure Abena's healing. Her healing quality is also highlighted when it was easy to ferry Araba on it to Praso in contrast to the turbulent male river.

The climax of Armah's recognition of the ability of women to bring changes comes pointedly at the end of the novel. Armah gives women the opportunity of ending the novel with a proclamation of hope for the future. After the extraction of the evil ones from the society, Araba Jesiwa foretells a new society, 'a society where blood will serve no purpose because the blood of a lamb will not clean the dirty soul of men' (*The Healers*, 307). What is needed is peace which comes from forgiveness.

In *Two Thousand Seasons*, Armah raises the status of women above the usual; they are portrayed as strong forces to be reckoned with. A rehash of the historical facts of colonialism, this novel tells the story of two revolts against the desert predators, the white destroyers and their black collaborators. Women who played prominent and frontline roles against the agents of oppression densely populate the story. In this novel women are no longer relegated to the background but they participate actively and are visible on the political landscape.

Digging into history, Armah reveals how men's inefficiency and their inability to manage the affairs of the society ushered in a violence-free matriarchal regime. It was not any violence from females that cracked the rule of fathers. It was the fathers themselves, who, splitting in their headlong greed for power into seven warring factions, broke each other's strength and left themselves impotent against the coming of more reasonable nights (*Two Thousand Seasons*, 9).

Armah described the women leaders as efficient and skilled managers and administrators of people. After the carnage occasioned by the violence of men, women began the rebuilding of the land. Alluding to the fact that men and women co-existed harmoniously, and without discrimination based on sex, he informs "men welcomed women into all real work" (*Two Thousand Seasons*, 10). Their management acumen became obvious as during their reign:

The peace of that fertile time spread itself so long that there was such an abundance of every provision, anxiety flew so far from us, that men were able to withdraw from even those unusual jobs they claimed they were holding themselves ready for, and their absence left no pain (*Two Thousand Seasons*, 10).

During this peaceful reign women were absolutely in control, the men were portrayed as being helpers, in the face of a drought that symbolically represents a destructive condition; it took the courage of a woman, Yaniba, to bring succour to the people, to bring transformation to their debilitating condition.

Armah highlights one of the great qualities of women that could be very beneficial to the society; that is the gift of intuition. "Intuition is the ability to be spiritually sensitive, to read the fine print in a given situation" (Michelle Mchinney Hammond, 34). During the period of drought, men interpreted the signs of the great famine to come wrongly, but women with their intuition knew that the signs in the sky portended danger; they therefore took positive steps to remedy the situation:

Those seasons fords were things to laugh at. For six seasons, babies did not fear to crawl along the riverbed itself....while the women looked at the same whiteness, saw famine where the men saw beauty, and grew frightened for our people (*Two Thousand Seasons*, 11).

The blissful reign of women was truncated by the advent of the desert destroyers who came, as beggars, haggard, betrayed and lonely in their hunger of soul and body. In their hospitality, the predators were welcomed to the detriment of their hosts. Rather than show appreciation to their hosts, they became a terror to them and lowered all but the most determined of their men. Their women were turned into playthings and objects of pleasure.

In this helpless situation, women took their destiny in their hands and extricated themselves from the dehumanizing condition they had been subjected to. With wisdom and courage, they planned and executed a revolution, which led to a complete transformation of their condition. Chioma Opara describes, "this spate of destruction as heroic for by eliminating the harbingers of profligacy and putridity in an erstwhile paradisiacal society the women reconstruct society" (119).

In their action, manipulation, planning, deception and cunning all the elements of political antics came on parade. As excellent planners, they knew when to strike with minimal resistance and how to keep the askaris at bay. Cunningly, the women fed the askaris with large doses of *dawa*, a sedative. At the height of the predators' pleasure, their government was violently toppled. These liberating women spearheaded and executed a successful revolution. It is pertinent to note that these people often referred to as the weaker vessels were courageous enough to stage a 'coup'. This lends credence to de Beauvoir's assertion that "when women are called upon for concrete action, when they recognize their interest in the designated goals, they are as bold and courageous as men" (164).

Women were able to perform this role because they had been trained in a system that allowed them to act out their potentials. There was no sex- typing and children, boys and girls, were given equal opportunities and subjected to the same form of training. For instance, Anoa had a choice of the type of training to undertake and was allowed to be trained along with boys in the hunt. "At the time of her training, when it was thought she too could be led into choosing mother chores, she foresaw the intended separation, spurned it and asked to be trained with her brothers in the hunt" (*Two Thousand Seasons*, 14) In spite of being a female, she mastered the art of hunting with dexterity.

Women again played a leadership role in the people's search for a new place of abode, as foretold by Anoa. In the search for this new abode, which Armah refers to, as 'the way', men and women will be involved, and Anoa's spirit will be the guide. Armah consistently indicates that women in the African tradition were revered and given pride of place before the advent of colonialism. They were not only seen but were heard. Politically they were involved in decision-making. They spoke and were listened to. This assertion finds a corollary in Nina Mba's assertion that the

colonial masters altered the position of women in the African society. According to her, "the basic premise of the colonial gender ideology was the domestication of women, to make them good (monogamous) wives of the new African bourgeoisie and capable mothers reproducing the labour force"(8)

There was equal representation on the team of pathfinders and sometimes the ratio was skewed in favour of women for the "Pathfinders went as far as they could go, stimulating the pace of the whole people. They took increasing bundles of food and drink. Each group of pathfinders started back when half its supplies were gone. One group, two women and two men" (*Two Thousand Seasons*, 51)

Particular mention must be made of the courage and the strength of Noliwe and Ningome who led the team to the 'Promised Land'. "At a certain point of their journey, the male pathfinders get discouraged, disillusioned and die. Fear, helplessness and hopelessness possess the people. However, ... Noliwe and Ningome, take over the leadership. Their valiant action gives reality to expectation" (Fubara, 2013). In the new world, women are also accorded recognition. Idawa, a great woman of strong character, exhibits the quality of a liberated woman; against societal expectations, she chooses her husband, the love of her life.

Everything a king could do to show himself to advantage before a woman he loved Koranche did in the hope of pleasing Idawa. Idawa was unimpressed. The week before the full moon Idawa on her own initiative proclaimed her love for Ngubane, one among the younger experts of the farming art (*Two Thousand*, 7).

She rejects the king's advances damning the consequences. Her courage becomes useful in providing information for the opposition group in its bid to overthrow the unjust regime. Lack of education has been adduced as one of the reasons for women's absence in active public politics. However, the women members of the opposition are candidates that have been tutored in the art of politics and opposition. The initiation into adulthood, a symbolic exercise, makes provision for both sexes. They were nine men and eleven women. These initiates, having drunk from the fountain of wisdom, become the conscience of the people and by their revolutionary action toppled the government of the day.

Among these initiates are women who transcended societal expectations. Worthy of mention is Abena who plays the most prominent role. Her intelligence and eloquence, qualify her for the position of the spokesperson of the opposition group. Confidently, she catalogues the ills of the king, thus raising the consciousness of the people and awakening their revolutionary instincts. Thus, "her voice functions as a moral voice, courageous in her defiance of the king and consistent in her search for the way". (Ama Ata Aidoo, 263). Women who perform these duties are not bogged down by domesticity; in fact, they opted for singlehood. By rejecting marriage, they reject subjection and confinement. Chioma Opara describes this rejection succinctly when she opined that "Her history takes a revolutionary turn as women holding the balance, deconstruct sexual roles of motherhood and wifehood, communal welfare as well as the elimination of the destroyers of the right way take precedence over marriage"(120)

Ndola is described as a poet, a singer and a *fundi* in the art of eloquence. She used her gift of oratory and songs to criticize the government, thus daring the king. She explodes the African myth of vocalization being a male prerogative by demonstrating that women can vocalize their views. There is a correlation between

Ndola's action and the activities of the present day political activists; a group that can, and indeed, does challenge the ruling class. In the battle for liberation from the slave masters, men and women play frontline roles. As trained soldiers, they terrorize the white destroyers and their collaborators. These nationalists attack the slave ships and liberate their brothers from slavery. In an action reminiscent of the *Mau Mau* fighters, they struck from the forest and the groves until the eventual fall of the ill-fated government.

In his portrayal of women, Armah expresses the views that women are not fragile as often assumed. In spite of the rigours of politics and the risks associated with it, women still played very active roles in politics at the private and public levels. Armah's recognition of the strength and courage of women and his clamour for their independence identified in *Two Thousand Seasons* assumed a greater dimension in *Osiris Rising*.

The novel *Osiris Rising* has a more contemporary flavour and principally it deals with the corrupt independent African city and the attempts of the intelligential to bring changes. Metaphorically, Armah uses the school curriculum as a vehicle for revolution and renewal. In *Osiris Rising*, the story of a contemporary society is woven around Ast the black American marked out from youth for a special assignment. In preparation for this mission, she gets her first lessons from a grandmother who is well grounded in ancient African history. Named Ast, after the most intelligent divinity, a name symbolic of what she matures into, attesting to the fact that in Africa a peoples' names influence their lives.

Ast is prepared for political activities by a grandmother who teaches her elementary reading at the age of four and the mastery of ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs at age ten. Her educational background steers her in the right direction and prepares her for public life:

She took world history for her first degree, then shifted closer home to Egyptology for her second. Her doctorate focused on Kemet; she wrote her thesis on identity and social justice in the philosophy of ancient Egypt. By graduation time, her search for knowledge of self, of self within universe had led her through a flow of changes, some so generous with knowledge they made pain worthwhile in the end. (*Osiris Rising*, 8).

Her association with Asar activates her dormant quest for self; the article mailed to her cements her resolve to return to her roots, to identify with the progressives, and the vanguard of change

We are not after the slave foreman power that, under the killer's continuing rule, is blind ambition's hollow prize... That is who we are and why (*Osiris Rising*, 8).

Guided by these revolutionary ideas, she rejects Set superficially and symbolically. Superficially, she turns down Set's love advances while symbolically she rejects the corrupt group. Bravely she repels Set's attempt to rape her. Susan Browmiller argues that, "rape and the threat of rape have been nothing more or less than a conscious process of intimidation by which all men keep all women in a state of fear" (23). She also sees it as a brief expression of physical power and a conscious process of intimidation. It is also a blunt, ugly sexual invasion of the body, which leaves lasting psychological effects on victims. Women can indeed fight back in a number of ways and Ast adopts the violent method. Her victory against Set affirms her intellectual and physical superiority. In rejecting Set, she rejects sterility

and corruption. Symbolically, the thick yellow pus, the diseased sperm, spurs her to action and results in her ultimate victory. "Ast wanted to concentrate, to try and find in her mind the force that had ebbed her body. But something kept distracting her....then squeezed the whole unsightly mess as tight as she possibly could" (64).

Ironically, the phallus which biologically confers superiority on males, goes limp with no erection; thus rendering him powerless, the limpness facilitates Ast's triumph. Her involvement in the politics of fashioning a new curriculum is commendable. Armah gives her the strength, courage and confidence to volunteer to be the secretary of the committee for change. Unlike what is expected of women, she makes speeches when she is expected to. She is endowed with a "male" tone. Her knowledge of the ancient hieroglyphs, an attribute pivotal to change comes handy in drawing up the new curriculum. Her search for truth leads her to Bora where she meets another liberated woman, Tete. Tete the historian, custodian of ancient history, narrates lucidly the way of the Ankh. Tete's revelation educates the reader on the relevance of the Ankh symbol to the new organization. The Ankh companionship was established to work against injustice and other vices, which were perceived to be injurious to the society and could deal her a deathblow. Her story debunks the assumed aristocracy of Ras Jomo Cinque, as the symbol, which hitherto conferred royalty on him, is a symbol of betrayal.

She accepts a teaching job in a remote village against all entreaties. Her job gives her the opportunity to continue with her journey into the ancient; a journey and revelation that reconstruct the present. Jude Agho sees *Osiris Rising* as ending on a pessimistic note with the stage-managed murder of Asar, the soul of the revolution in the text by government mercenaries. This development implies the impossibility of Africans successfully imbibing and radiating the essence of the healing process which Armah enunciates in *The Healers...* (59) However, there is still hope because Asar has planted the seed of awareness and revolution in the students and Ast, this will definitely germinate and blossom into a great threat to the agents of oppression.

All the women, except the three wives of Ras Jomo Cinque Equiano, are liberated. The young bride-to-be, Jacqueline Brown, rejects polygamy and opts for absolute freedom. Her expectations of obtaining the proverbial Golden Fleece were dashed. According to her, "I thought I'd continue school here, get a skill, do something with myself, but I come and find this O'Ras whatever running a game on all those women..." (151). Armah gives her the right of a choice; dissatisfied with the arrangement she walked into, she seeks to be liberated. She finds a collaborator in Ast, herself a liberated soul. With the help of Ast and Bally, the artist, the caged girl flies away to freedom.

Armah emphasizes cooperation between genders in their effort to bring changes to the society. Ast and Bailey jointly investigate Ras Jomo Cinque and jointly plan and execute the release and consequent liberation of the young African-American.

At every point, Ast displays huge and raw courage. After the release of Jacqueline, Ras confronts her and, rather than be intimidated, she stands up to him and defends her action fearlessly and knowledgeably as indicated in this episode

"You helped her" Cinque said, disbelief splitting his voice.

"Yes" Ast answered.

"You know that's treason" Ras Jomo Cinque Equiano said

Ast did not suppress her laughter “come on, Sheldon Turman you’re not a state” (153)

Conscious of the evil intent of Set, she repeatedly and continuously warns Asar about Set’s plans for him. Her discussion and interaction with Wossen, the fabled Ethiopian, offers her first hand knowledge of the character of Wossen hence her displeasure at, and apprehension about, the hospitality extended to him by Asar.

Ast is not only intellectually involved in politics; her physical involvement is manifested when she stalls the unlawful arrest of Asar. She mobilizes staff and students of like mind to prevent his arrest. Even though it was a temporary victory, the episode reveals that the younger generation is learning fast. The efforts of the radical group therefore are not in vain. This confirms Moko’s statement that “the revolution is not an event, it is a process. It’s already going on”. (193). It is remarkable that at the level of student unionism, women are accorded recognition.

A woman is the chairperson of the student representative council, in what present -day students refer to as student’s union government. This dynamic group assigns to itself the responsibility of curtailing the excesses of government and in some instances; they have been instrumental to the dismantling of some established governments. Armah makes a remarkable statement by assigning a woman this leadership role. The female chairperson is courageous and has all the qualities required to lead her team in the right direction. This courage is brought to fore in the encounter with the security operatives. In confronting them, she makes a fluent statement indicative of her rights, and indeed the rights of every citizen when she informs her members that the security operatives are responsible to all citizens.

The intelligentsia are activists or crusaders. Their action, though on a different and higher plane, is akin to that performed by the Ankh companionship of old. In the modern age, the intelligentsias are in the process of replacing an inherited system with a new order. According to Bia Kamara: “ So far, it’s not been our work....High energy work... superior system... Working to replace the old with it (189). The school thus becomes a microcosm of the larger society. The elite must, through revolutionary actions, dismantle the old tradition of corruption, inefficiency, ineptitude and degradation of the African way and usher in a just and pure nation.

African leaders in the past frustrated the ancient companionship. Similarly, the modern group is being frustrated by leaders, represented by the security service and the foreign professors. The revised curriculum emphasizes studies that would produce patriotic Africans, students and graduates who, through research, would protect the beauty of the African tradition hitherto relegated to the background by the colonial masters. It will produce graduates who are groomed in African history, and will appreciate the superiority of their way, which Armah described as ‘life’.

In an impromptu meeting the revolutionary group, plan and organize the restructuring of the school curricula, distributing roles to all. In selecting the secretary, it was acknowledged that the persons to serve must be “tireless, with steel fingers, bottoms of pre-stressed concrete, the patience of donkeys and the strength of buffaloes”.(191) These qualities are assumed masculine qualities yet Ast a female is allowed to serve as the secretary.

The novel *Osiris Rising* is a novel of the African past, present and future. In it, the Ankh companionship is relevant in the past, present and future. Armah constantly highlights the commendable roles of grandmothers in this novel and other novels. Ast’s grandmother prepares her for the future by teaching her how to read

ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs a rare talent (art). She gives her Ankh a symbol which catalyzes her to action thereby sowing the seeds of revolution in her. Tete's aunt, another grandmother, plays a relevant role in the formation and life of Tete. Neighbours had described her as a crazy and benevolent witch (254). Tete, rather than resent her, attends to her with a great deal of curiosity. According to her,

"it was thrilling to think I'd be living close to such extraordinary powers. A witch and a mad person all in one but living with her, I saw she was far from crazy" She answered all my questions... I got into the habit of listening to her. The old thrill and fear turned to respect. I noticed she was different from the others. Calmer, in situations where others complained or wept, she knew what she needed to do." (254-255).

This grandmother knew the importance of education and encouraged her to go to school.

Conclusion

Ayi Kwei Armah an African post-colonial writer in his consistent attack on all colonial institutions and activities, reveal a social vision for Africa and advocates a return to the the glorious past. Armah in the selected novels for the study demonstrates the value of education. In his earlier novels especially, *The Beautiful Ones Are Not Born* and *The Fragments*, women are portrayed as parasites depending mainly on men for their material and other needs. What is of significance in the roles women in *Two Thousand Seasons*, *The Healers*, *Osiris Rising* play is the fact that they had proper training, either formal or informal. Writing on "Politics of Development and the Development of Leadership Skill in Nigerian Women Politicians," Dasyuva, asserts that "the right education is capable of empowering the Nigerian woman with the competence of interpreting correctly her self-worth, or complex political situations..." (14), no doubt the higher education acquired by the radical women in *Osiris Rising* assisted in no small measure in sharpening their political consciousness and improving their leadership skills. The study of Armah's latter- day novels is therefore a testimony to the fact that women indeed can play important roles in the society if adequately equipped with knowledge. The form of education can be formal or informal but in the contemporary society formal is preferable as it exposes the beneficiary to more complex issues.

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