THE IMPACT OF THE MOTHER TONGUE ON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND PROFICIENCY: THE IKWERRE NATIVE SPEAKERS’ EXPERIENCE

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A RESEARCH PROJECT
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This project report has been approved for the Department of English and Literary Studies, University of Nigeria Nsukka.

By

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this research study “The Impact of The Mother Tongue on Second Language Learning and Proficiency: The Ikwerre Native Speakers’ Experience”, has been satisfactorily carried out by OWHOELI UCHEOMA, a post graduate student in the Department of English and Literary Studies and with registration number PG/MA/08/48514.

The work embodied in this thesis is original and has not been submitted in part or full for any other diploma or degree of this university or any other university.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents’ Mr. and Mrs. Peter W. Owhoeli, whose unending love, support and encouragement has given me the zeal to pursue a master’s degree. You’re one in a million!
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I am most grateful to Almighty God for the gift of life, his sustaining grace, steadfast love and abundant mercies that are new every morning.

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ABSTRACT

Several factors affect the learning and proficiency of a second language and among them is the culture, age, environment, method of acquisition, nature and structure of the first language and the amounts of efforts invested. This research work investigates the impact of the mother tongue Ikwerre on the learning and proficiency of the target language. The research was carried out using the JSS one and JSS two students of some selected secondary schools in Emohua Local Government Area of Rivers State, where Ikwerre is an indigenous language and is mostly used in communication outside the classroom. Written composition/utterances of the students were the instrument for data collection. The findings of the data analysis yielded categories viz, vowel harmony/nasalization, phonemic differences, insertion of vowels between consonant clusters, wrong placement of stress, wrong use of tenses, omission/wrong use of rules of concord and wrong use of prepositions. From the results of the research, it was found that the mother tongue ‘Ikwerre’ influences the learning and proficiency of the English language. These findings were discussed and thereafter, conclusion and recommendation were deduced.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page.................................................................................................i
Approval Page..........................................................................................ii
Certification.............................................................................................iii
Dedication.................................................................................................iv
Acknowledgements...................................................................................v
Abstract......................................................................................................vi
Table of Contents.....................................................................................vii

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study.....................................................................1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....................................................................5
1.3 Purpose of the Study...........................................................................7
1.4 Significance of the Study.....................................................................7
1.5 Research Questions.............................................................................7
1.6 Research Design and Methodology....................................................8
1.7 Scope of the Study..............................................................................8

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Framework.....................................................................10
2.1.1 Mother-tongue...............................................................................10
2.1.2 Second Language..........................................................................11
2.1.3 Second Language Learning and Proficiency.................................12
2.1.4 The Origin of the Ikwerre People..................................................13
2.1.5 The Culture of the Ikwerre People................................................15
2.1.6 The Geographical Location..........................................................16
2.1.7 The Ikwerre Language ................................................................. 17
2.1.8 Classification of Ikwerre Language ........................................... 18
2.1.9 The Origin of the Target Language (English) ............................ 24
2.1.10 English Language in Nigeria .................................................. 28
2.1.11 English Language in Ikwerre ................................................. 28
2.2 Theoretical Framework ............................................................. 29
2.2.1 The Behaviourist Theory ......................................................... 29
2.2.2 The Cognitive Theory ............................................................ 32
2.2.3 Stephen Krashen Theory of SLA .............................................. 34
2.3 Related Empirical Study ............................................................. 36
2.4 Summary of Literature ............................................................. 46

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE
3.1 Introduction ................................................................................. 49
3.2 Research Design ................................................................. 49
3.3 Area of Study ........................................................................... 50
3.4 Populations ................................................................................. 50
3.5 Sampling Technique ............................................................ 51
3.6 Research Instrument ............................................................. 51
3.7 Method of Data Analysis ......................................................... 51

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION
4.1 Introduction .............................................................................. 53
4.2 Research Question No. 1 ......................................................... 53
4.3 Research Question No. 2 ......................................................... 58

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION
5.1 Discussion of Findings ............................................................. 62
5.2 Conclusion ................................................................. 65
5.3 Implications of the Study.................................................................66

5.3.2 Organizing Seminars on Ikwerre Language for Teachers within the Region.................................................................66

5.3.3 Allotting More Time to the Teaching of Oral English.........................66

5.3.4 Motivation of Students by Teachers.............................................66

5.4 Recommendation for Further Studies.............................................67

Works Cited.................................................................68

Appendix.................................................................76
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction of the Background

Learning a second language has been important to human beings from earliest historical times. The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics states that “the Sumerians of the third millennium BC used bilingual tablets in Sumerian and Akkadian to educate their children, and compiled the world’s oldest known bilingual dictionaries. Bilingual tablets were used in ancient Egypt, and, in the Ptolemaic period, the upper classes in Egypt received their education in Greek. In the Hellenistic period, the majority of people in Asia Minor who could read and write did so in Greek, their second language. Until the fourth century BC, bilingual education in Greek and Latin was an important part of the curriculum for Roman children” (3742).

In line with this, Otagburuagu states that “second language learning could arise from a social or political factor. For instance, colonization, trade and commerce could create a conducive atmosphere for the development of a second language” (1). He continued by saying that “the colonization of Nigeria, Ghana etc by Britain must be seen as the primary factor that gives rise to the adoption of the English language as the second language in these countries. Multilingualism as well as the desire for social integration could give rise to second language learning too” (Otagburuagu 1). In support of this view, Verghese also states that “it is a historical accident that led to English taking deep roots in Canada, Australia and the United States” (Verghese 1). He further states that “history again has played a part in English being used widely in other countries in Africa and Asia. Those countries were the colonies of Great Britain, and since the day they came under Britain rule, English has been taught and used as a medium of communication there” (Verghese 1).
Apart from colonization, other possible reason(s) why English is mostly used as a second language is that it “is spoken around the globe and has wider dispersion than any other language. From its earlier home within what is now called the united kingdom (with 56 million speakers), English has spread to nearby Ireland (three and a half million), across the Atlantic for America (where some 232 million people speak in the united states, with perhaps as many as 24 million additional speakers in (Canada), and across the world to Australia and New Zealand (with about 17 million English speakers between them)” (Finegan 77-78).

Hence, English language is “is the sole official language in more than two dozen other countries: Ghana, Liberia, Nigeria, Uganda and Zimbabwe in Africa; Jamaica, the Bohamas, Dominica and Barbados in the Caribbean; and Vanuatu’s, Fiji and the Solomon Island in the pacific, to a sample” (Finegan 77–78) etc. Supporting this view, The Encyclopedia Americana, states that more than half of the world’s scientific research and technical journals, as well as newspapers are printed in English. Three fourths of the world’s mail is written in English, and English is the language of three fifths of the worlds radio station” (417). To take German as an example between 1762 and 1968 alone the proportion of articles published in English in Physikalische Zeitschrift rose from 2 percent to 50 percent” (Quirk et al 5). Beyond its uses as first and second language in ordinary intercourse, Finegan states that English is now established as the lingua Franca of much scholarship, particular of a scientific and technical nature” (78). He further states that ‘reflective of the wide spread dissemination of English and perhaps of an extraordinary adaptability is the fact that noble prizes in literature have been awarded to more writers using English than any other language, and that these laureates have been citizens of Australia, Ireland and India, as well as the United States and Britain (Finegan 79). Campbell also
asserts that English is the acceptable medium in the travel industry and in international communication” (Campbell 145). There is no doubt that, the English language is a language of communication between the people with different cultures. It is also the language of computers that help people to communicate with the people around the world through internet technology and e-mail. All these reasons given above could result to the learning of a second language.

Several factors affect the learning and proficiency of a second language. Among them are the nature and structure of the first language, culture environment, age, method of acquisition and the amount of efforts invested. The degree of differences and similarity between the mother-tongue and the target language are important factors in the learning of a second language. One crucial feature of L2 learning is that the learner has had experience of another language. An experience which enables him to master, assimilate and internalize the system of learning of the first language. As they learn the new language, second language learner incorporates the new linguistic input into their model of the language. To buttress this point, Lado states that “Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture (2). A second language learner thinks in his language, tires to express himself in the second language which results to conflicts, and this conflict is as a result of mother-tongue interference.

On exposure to a new and different language, i.e. English, the individual is now faced with the problem of communicating effectively in his new language as a result of this influence of his native language. The degree of differences and similarities between the mother tongue and the target language are important factors in the learning of second language. As mention earlier,
other factors could also affect the learning and proficiency of the target language. In agreement with the above, Gardner and Maclntyre states that “in the language learning situation, many such factors have been identified” (1). But in their own article, they focused “on two broad classifications of affective factors, namely, language attitude and motivation, and language anxiety and self confidence” (1). In support of this opinion, Vergherse opines that “one of the important conditions of learning a second language is abundant exposure to the language” (20). He further states that “a very significant factor in language learning is motivation” and he pointed out other factors like “the duration of exposure to the language”, “availability of the right type of teaching materials and aids” (22, 23).

Base on this reason, the theoretical framework of this study is based on two theories of second language learning, the behaviourist theory which states that “properties of the L1 are thought to exercise an influence on the course of L2 learning: learners ‘transfer’ sounds, structures, and usages from one language to the other. Contrastive analysis is the name given to the study of the similarities and differences in the morphology and syntax between two languages” (Marco 23). The contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) was proposed to account for the role of the L1 in L2 learning. (International Encyclopedia of Language 300). When put to test CAH was not fully supported, it failed to predict errors that learners were observed to make, and it predicted some errors that did not occur (Spada et al 19).

The main alternative to the behaviourist approach (which is cognitive theory) sees as central the role of cognitive factors in language learning. And this theory makes use of Error analysis. Crystal states that “error analysis plays a central role in this approach. Errors are likely to emerge when learners make the wrong deductions about the nature of the L2, such as assuming that a pattern
is general, when into fact there are exceptions” (372). Error analysis showed that contrastive analysis was unable to predict a great majority of errors. (e.State Master – Encyclopedia: second language acquisition. Master Nation .com.).

However, the analysis of errors turns out to be a highly complex matter, involving other factors than at the cognitive. According to crystal, “some errors are due to the influence of the mother-tongue, as contrastive analysis claims. Some come from external link influences, such as inadequate teaching or materials” (372). The researcher believes that the best way to investigate this research is by combining the two theories of second language learning: behaviourist and cognitive theories. Since, the influence of mother-tongue seems inevitable in the learning of a second language, the aim of this research is to highlight this influences (its nature, causes and extent) by analyzing the errors made by the JSSI and JSS 2 students of some schools in Emohua local Government of Rivers State (where Ikwerre is an indigenous language and the sole medium of communication outside the classroom) so as to recommend necessary solution for eliminating them.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Interference is the influence of one language, dialect or other linguistic features upon another’s phonology, grammar and vocabulary. In the course of using English as a second language, there is inter-lingual interference. That is, the influence of one language upon another’s phonology, grammar and vocabulary. The language which a group of people considered to be inhabitants of an area acquire in their early years and which normally becomes their natural instrument of thought and communication may interfere with the second language, and these interferences may manifest itself in any aspect of the language such as phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. When an
Igbo man for instance says; “I hear a smell” to mean “I perceive an odour” or when the Hausa man says “I am coming here yesterday” to mean “I came here yesterday; or also when the Ikwerre man says “did you hear me” to mean “did you understand me?”; they transliterate the syntax of their respective mother-tongue into English Language. It is also a well known fact that Igbo learners’ interference problem is different from that of the Hausa and Yoruba learners’ and vice versa.

A lot of views have arisen with respect to what causes mother-tongue interference. Mother-tongue interference is the linguistic interference of a child’s first language. The controversy is that a child has a biological ability that enables him to acquire a language and depend on factors of his environment during the process of language development that affects the learner-users of English as a second language because he transfers some of the features of his language into his second language which in this study is English language. These features as earlier mentioned are found in the way he pronounces English words and the way he constructs sentences.

Although some researchers have carried out investigation on this problem of mother-tongue interference in Nigeria, their main focus has been on the three major Nigerian languages: Igbo, Yoruba and Hausa. Based on this, the researcher seeks to carry out a similar research on the Ikwerre language which is one of the minority languages in Nigeria, and which an investigation of this nature has not been done.

This research work, therefore, seeks to identify the ways in which the mother-tongue ‘Ikwerre’ influences the learning and proficiency of the target language which in this study is the English language.
1.3  **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of the mother-tongue ‘Ikwerre’ on the learning and proficiency of English among the junior secondary school students of Emohua local government area of Rivers State, where Ikwerre is an indigenous language and is mostly used in communication.

This research will be carried out under the following sub leadings.

The phonological impact of the L₁ on the L₂ and
The syntactical impact of the L₁ on the L₂.

1.4  **Significance of the Study**

This study will help individuals and groups of people or learner – users of English in Ikwerre land to identify the lexical, and speech problems they encounter while learning the second language. This study will urge at least some Ikwerre learner – users of English language to be conscious of the way they speak English and how they pronounce words and construct sentences in English language. It will make them to correct and subdue negative influences of their mother tongue on English and it will also help teachers of English language in Ikwerre land to be aware of the problems facing the Ikwerre learners of English.

1.5  **Research Questions**

This study seeks to investigate and provide answers to the following questions:

1. Does the phonology of the Ikwerre language affect the learning and proficiency of the English Language? And

2. Does the syntax of the Ikwerre Language affect the learning and proficiency of the English Language?
1.6 Research Design and Methodology

The design in this research work will be a case study conducted at some secondary schools in Emohua local government area of Rivers State. “A case study is an intensive investigation of the previous life, current position and environment of a person or group of people. It is the intensive investigation of the background, current status, the social, economic, political and other environmental interaction of the individual or group. The focal point of a Case Study is the unit or single case” (Iwuama et al 12).

The data for this research will be generated from the student’s

- Utterances
- Reading passages (from JSS 1 and JSS 2 English text books), and
- Written composition (which will be used in finding out the impact or influence of the mother-tongue on the second Language). It will be a descriptive research which “entails the systematic collection and presentation of data to give a clear picture of a particular situation” (Eboh 25).

1.7 Scope of the Study

The study will focus only on the Ikwerres’ people’s experience. It will focus on learner-users of English as an L2 in Ikwerre taking note of its phonological, and lexical impact on English language. The study covers some secondary schools located in Emohua local government area where Ikwerre is their indigenous language and the English language is usually learnt in school.

The population will be made up of junior secondary school students of JSS 1 and 2.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature related to this study was reviewed under the following subheadings:

2.1 Conceptual Framework
  2.1.1 Mother-tongue
  2.1.2 Second language
  2.1.3 Second language learning and proficiency
  2.1.4 The origin of the Ikwerre people
  2.1.5 The Culture of the Ikwerre people
  2.1.6 The Geographical location
  2.1.7 The Ikwerre language
  2.1.8 Classification of Ikwerre language
  2.1.9 The origin of the target language (English)
  2.1.10 English language in Nigeria
  2.1.11 English language in Ikwerre

2.2 Theoretical framework
  2.2.1 The behaviourist theory
  2.2.2 The Cognitive theory
  2.3.3 Stephen Krashen Theory of SLA

2.3 Related Empirical Study

2.4 Summary of Literature
2.1 Conceptual Framework

For us to have a better understanding of this research work we need to define some of the basic linguistic concepts which include, mother tongue, second language, second language learning and proficiency. We also need to know the nature of the target language as well as that of the native language. Hence, we shall discuss the following: the origin of Ikwerre people, the culture of the people, the geographical location, and the Ikwerre language, the origin of the target language, English language in Nigeria and the origin of English language in Ikwerre land.

2.1.1. Mother Tongue

Mother tongue is the language which a group of people considered to be the inhabitants of an area, acquire in their early years and which normally becomes their natural instrument of thought and communication (Awoniyi 27). Bamisaye supports this view when he states that “first language or mother tongue (LI/MT) is the first language a child picks up. It is not learnt but acquired. It is the language that encodes early concepts of the child. Mother tongue speakers are regarded as ‘A’ speaker of that very language (23). It is also seen as “one’s native language” (The Webster’s Comprehensive Dictionary of the English language 830).

In some countries such as Kenya and India “mother tongue” is used to indicate the language of one’s ethnic group, in both common and journalistic parlance (e.g. I have no apologies for not learning my mother tongue rather than one’s first language). A similar usage of the term was employed in Ireland in the early –to- mid twentieth century, with Irish being referred to as the “mother tongue” of all Irish people, even of those whose first language was English.
Also in Singapore, “mother tongue” refers to the language of one’s ethnic group regardless of actual proficiency, while the ‘first language refers to the English language, which is the language of instruction in government schools and as a working language despite it not being a native tongue for most Singaporeans (Online free Wikipedia Encyclopedia).

Reinforcing Bamisaye’s view, Nutsukpo defines mother tongue as “the child’s first language as well as the language of the child’s father or mother or of both” (1).

In this research work mother tongue will be regarded as the language of one’s ethnic group which is also the language of the linguistic environment of the students.

2.1.2 Second Language

A second language (SL) is a non-native language that is widely used for purposes of communication, usually as a medium of education, government, or business. English for example, has foreign language status in Japan, but second language status in Nigeria (David Crystal 368). Nutsukpo defines it as “the language learnt after the mother tongue, or first language(s) has or have been acquired. It may be an indigenous or non-indigenous language (2). In support of these definitions by these authors, The Wikipedia Free Online Encyclopedia states “the term second language is used to describe any language whose acquisition starts after early childhood (including what may be third or subsequent language learnt). The language to be learned is often referred to as the “target language” or “L₂” compared to the first language L₁” (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/second-language).
2.1.3 Second Language Learning and Proficiency

Second language learning is a conscious learning activity by a person who has already acquired a first language or mother tongue. The L₂ learner may be seen as a “linguistic Adult” in the sense that he is already with the knowledge of the working of language and has learned to use language to communicate using the system operating in his mother tongue (L₁)” (Alo 70). It is the process by which people learn a second language (s),” (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/second_language). Second language learning is what takes place in classrooms when following a structured course with a teacher” (Crystal 368).

Second language learning could arise from social or political factors. For instance, colonization, trade and commerce could create a conducive atmosphere for the development of a second language. The colonization of Nigeria, Ghana etc. by Britain must be seen as the primary factor that gave rise to the adoption of the English language as the second language in these countries (Otagburuagu 1).

Proficiency refers to the degree of skill with which a person can use a language such as how well a person can read, write, speak or understand language (Jack, John and Weber 159). One group of linguist defines proficiency as linguistic contents. While, until 1970 or so, phonology, vocabulary, and grammar have predominated, the more recent definition of proficiency includes semantic discourse, and sociolinguistic features. Thus, one analysis of proficiency comprises, besides grammatical well-formedness, speech act rules, language functions, and language varieties. Proficiency is today emphatically expressed in communicative and not merely linguistic (i.e. grammatical) terms (Stern 347).
Proficiency is usually distinguished from competence, which refers to knowledge: “proficiency refers to the learner’s ability to use this knowledge in different tasks” (Ellis 720). Because any test of competence is a task of some sort, it may be argued that all measures of competence are in effect measuring some form of proficiency. Both proficiency and competence are internally complex they do not reflect a single attribute, but many different forms of knowledge in complex interrelationship. (http://en.wikipedia.org). As a result of this complex nature of proficiency and competence, Stern said “that knowing a language, competence, or proficiency in the first or second language can be summarized as:

1. The intuitive mastery of the forms of the language
2. The intuitive mastery of the linguistic, cognitive, affective and socio cultural meaning, expressed by the language forms,
3. The capacity to use the language with maximum attention to communicative and
4. The creativity of language use” (346).

2.1.4 The Origin of the Ikwerre People

The origin of the Ikwerre people is traceable to the waves of migrations, which started in the 13th century AD in Benin Kingdom (Eke and Chukwu, 19). Alagoa and Kpone-Tonwu supported this view. When they stated that “the Ikwerre group comprises the following major communities: Elele, Isiokpo, Rumuji, Emohua, Ogbakiri, Aluu, Igwuruta, Akpo, and Obio. Traditions collected from these communities in recent times record a majority, especially in the Northern and Central Sectors, adopting a history of migration from Benin” (176). According to Woke et al, “This oral tradition holds that one
epoch in the reign of Oba Ekwere witnessed the mysterious death of his two sons. The Benin Monarch therefore issued a decree making it punishable by death for any man to give birth to a son before the Oba had two new sons to replace his dead ones. Alaka and Ochichi, the putative founding fathers of Ogba, Ikwerre and Ekpeye rejected this draconic decree. Their refusal to accept the decree attracted the attention of Oba Ewuare. Realizing the enormity of rejecting the Oba’s order, the two brothers fled at night. They moved southwards to Agbor, Obigwe and later settled by River Imoku from where Omuku derived her name” (qtd. In Eke, et al 21). Alaka had two sons, Ogba and Ekpeye. As both sons had started procreating, Ekpeye was said to have accidentally killed one of the children of his brother, Ogba, when the latter was away on a hunting expedition. This ugly incident coincided with when Ochichi was to move further south. Ekpeye, for fear of obvious reprisals joined his uncle. They moved towards the Sombreiro River; Ekpeye settled at Ula-Ehuda (Now Ahoada) the traditional headquarters of Ekpeye Land. Ochichi crossed the river at Akpabo through Eligbo before finally settling at the present site of Elele, the traditional headquarters of Ikwerre Land (Eke, et al 21). The second tradition traces the origin of Ikwerre people to Ijo. The proponents of this tradition suggest Northwards movement from the Niger-Delta. The Ijo tradition is very popular in Ogbakiri and other Costal Ikwerre communities. Alagoa and Tamuno pointed to age-long Ikwerre-Ijo ties encouraged by trade and social contacts. But this Ijo tradition is not acceptable as neither historical contacts nor kingship can explain the Ikwerre-Ijo relationship.

There is also another claim to autochthony among the Omerelu and Akpo communities in Northern and Southern Ikwerre areas. The traditions suggest that evolution of the people owes nothing to migration from other centers outside their present homeland. In other words, God created them in their
present abode. The Omerelu communities clearly pointed this claim with the meaning of their name Omerelu-children of Heaven. Oral traditions clearly suggest that the people originated from heaven. Archival evidence supports this claim of autochthony of the Akpo communities.

2.1.5 The Culture of the Ikwerre People

The Ikwerre ethnic nationality as a people constitutes one of the major ethnic groups in River State of Nigeria (Okajile 4). Though, there are some variations among the Ikwerre, Ikwerre speaking communities share common cultures such as marriages, burial and new yam ceremonies, which are to a large extent similar to those of Igbo speaking communities (Alerechi 9). Each Ikwerre speaking community has a chief who presides over the village heads, and the village heads settle disputes among their people especially those concerning land. They are communalistic in outlook, sharing each other’s burdens, sorrow, joy, and happiness. Traditional wrestling is a major annual event, rotated among the villages. Masquerade dances of various types and styles are performed during Christmas period and New Year. It is believed in Ikwerre communities that if a pregnant woman sees masquerades, she has to perform some rituals otherwise; she would give birth to a masquerade.

The majority of the Ikwerre people are subsistence farmers. They practice the slash and burn methods of bush clearing and use hoes, machetes and spades to till the land. The farm produce includes cassava, yams, cocoyam, and variety of vegetables. A few people fish with hooks, net and long baskets at the pond. Just like the Igbo’s, palm wine tapping is extensively practiced in the villages. Able-bodied men also practice hunting although this is done on specific days.

Sunday et al further states that “the institution of Oha is also another important peculiar and distinct heritage or characteristic of the Ikwerre people.
The Oha member (nye Oha) is the oldest and usually the Owhor holder of the family. The institution of Oha is never politicized—it is achieved by age, honesty and integrity. Most if not all the towns and villages in Ikwerre have the system of Oha deeply embedded in their social structures. (30)

Before the advent of the missionaries, the Ikwerre people recognized the existence of the Almighty God called (Cheokike). The worship however has been through their gods; forefathers and other deities. Since the advent of the missionary, their religion has been Christianity. So many denominations are now in existence in the towns and villages. Few communities, however, still maintain the worship-of their deities” (Okajile 4).

2.1.6 Geographical Location

Ikwerre people are found in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria. They are within the rain forest belt. The area notices high annual rainfall. Achinewhu stated that “the Ikwerre Ethnic Nation Covers a land of about 21, 400km², which is about 20% of cultivable land in the old Rivers State… identifies this Landmass within the coordinates of 4 degrees 50 minutes North, 5 degrees 15 minutes North, 6 degrees 30 minutes East and 7 degrees 15 minutes East (qtd in Eke et al 15).

The blessed geographical location of Ikwerre has endowed it with strategic position in Rivers State and Nigeria at large. With regards to the city of Port Harcourt, which the people called Igwuocha, a tourist is at once introduced to the economic, commercial, industrial, and academic and communication nerve center of the Niger Delta (Eke 17).

Woji stated that “on entering the River State Capital (Port Harcourt) by road, one would find out that geographically the Ikwerre people inhabit the three main gateways into the Garden city. From Aba in Abia State, you will get
to Rumuokwurushi, in Obia/Akpo-Local Government Area; from Owerri in Imo State, you will get to Omerelu in Ikwerre Local Government Area. From Yenagoe the Balyasa State Capital, you will get to Elele Almini in Emohua Local Government Area, while from the International Airport Omagwu, you will get to Igwuruta in Ikwerre Local Government Area of River State”(4). In present-day Rivers State, the Ikwerre ethnic nation with 1.5 million people account about 35% of the population of the state estimated at 4.388 million people (Eke et al 32).

2.1.7 The Ikwerre Language

Ikwerre (also Ikwere) is a language of the Ikwerre people of the River State Nigeria. Ikwerre, being one of the majority languages in Rivers State, is spoken by over 1, 9800,000 people according to the 1991 census (Online Wikipedia Encyclopedia). Ikwerre is the largest language of the Igbo group represented in River State. It is spoken in four Local Government Areas in River State. They are Ikwerre, Obio/Apikor, Emohua and Port Harcourt Local Government Areas. Ikwerre comprises many dialects, which have not been adequately studied. The major dialects include Akpo, Obio (including Rebesi) Emowha, Ogbakiri, Rundele, Rumuekpe, Odegnu, Obele/Ibaa, Aluu, Igwuruta, Omagwa, Isiokpo, Elele, Egbeda, Omudioga, Omerelu, Akpani, Ubima, Ipo, Ozuaha, Omademe, Omuanwa, Akpabu, and Ubimini (Ndimele and Williamson, 152).

There appears to be mutual intelligibility between speakers from the different parts of Ikwerre even though the dialects differ. Ikwerre is used regularly for radio and television news broadcast in River State.
2.1.8 Classification of Ikwerre Language

In terms of language, Ekpeye, Ikwerre, Ogbah, Egbema, Ndoni and Echie are all close to Igbo and are classified as Igbo by the linguists (Alagoa and Kiebel 55). The classification of Ikwerre as an Igbo language or dialect remains a subject of controversy. Over the 19th century, several falsified documents which appear to be signed and supported by the Ikwerre claimed that Ikwerre both people and language was strictly Igbo. In 1957, a body entitled The Ikwerre National Congress which pretended to represent the entire community submitted such a claim in a memorandum. However, this body inappropriately referred to oral traditions and to a booklet on the Aro people which had been written by an Aro man (Online Wikipedia Encyclopedia).

Ndimele et al holds the view that “the relationship between languages can be closed or distant, just like the relationship between humans. Languages, which are closely related, are known as “Sister Language” (151). Based on this grounds, Williamson and Blench have revealed from their investigation that, “though there are features which make the Ikwerre language unique, it is indeed more appropriate to describe Igbo, Ikwerre, Ogbah and other sister language (except Ekpeye) as language cluster” (4). Efere et al supported this view, when he stated that, “language from the same group are descended from the same parent language, and therefore are genetically related to each other. We call them sister languages. They are similar to each other in many respects but are usually not mutually intelligible, that is, speakers of one language in the group usually cannot communicate with speakers of the other languages in the same group. Each language has its dialects. Dialects are varieties of the same language, and usually mutually intelligible; which the speakers can understand each other in spite of some differences” (43).
Following the “invitation of the Federal Ministry of Education to examine Ikwerre Language (10th-13th November 1985): the National Language Center which is an arm of the Federal Ministry of Education responsible for the systematic development of Nigerian Languages…the Ikwerre language and its orthography would be(sic) examined with a view to standardizing it along other Nigerian Languages…and at the end of it the Ikwerre orthography was approved…the decision of the Language Conference are contained in manual v (Ikwerre) publish by the federal ministry of education…with this singular success at the Lagos Conference the Ikwerre language with its orthography has come to stay, and has now taken its proper and official place among other Nigerian Languages.’”(Ekwulo 168-169) .In support of this fact, Enyia states that the Ikwerre language has come to be a distinct language in Federal Republic of Nigeria by the approval of the Federal Ministry of education of the Ikwerre language orthography in 1985. Unlike the Danish language which is 90% Sweddish, the worse Ikwerre language (particularly the slants spoken in northern Ikwerre areas) is only 20-26% Igbo which is why the defense and preservation of the original tongue of Ikwerre people became a preoccupation of the linguistic experts spearheaded by late professor Kay Williamson and professor Shirley Donwa-ifode both of the faculty of Humanities, University of Port Harcourt (39).

2.1.8.1 The Ikwerre Phonology

According to Ekwulo, Ikwerre has “9 vowels; 28 consonant =37 letters” (1). However, Ndimele et al, somehow disagrees with this fact when they state “Ikwerre and Ogba also have nine vowels, but the ‘e’ is limited” (168). These vowels are as follows:

/a/    /e/    /ɛ/    /i/    /ɪ/    /o/    /ɔ/    /ʊ/    /u/    /ʊ/
a e ɛ I ɨ o ɔ u ŋ (Ndimele et al 168).

Ikwerre distinguishes vowels by quality (frontness and height), the presence or absence of advance tongue root (Online Wikipedia Encyclopedia).

**The Ikwerre Vowel Chart**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ATR</td>
<td>ɪi</td>
<td>uu̇</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ATR</td>
<td>ɪ̱</td>
<td>o̱</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ATR</td>
<td>ɛɛ</td>
<td>o ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ATR</td>
<td>ɛ̱̱</td>
<td>ɔ̱</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>-ATR</td>
<td>Aǎ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. **Vowel Harmony**

   A modification (ASSIMILATION) of pronunciation of vowels in a word so that one agrees or “harmonizes” with another one. (Richards et al 310). Ikwerre exhibits two kinds of vowel harmony. Every vowel in an Ikwerre word, with a few exceptions, agrees with other vowels in the word as to the presence or absence of advance tongue root. Vowel of the same height in adjacent syllables must all be either front or back, ie, the pairs /i/ & /u/, /I/ & /ʊ/, /e/ & /o/, and /ɛ/ & /ɔ/ cannot occur in adjacent syllables. Vowels of different height need
not match for frontness/backness either (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ikwerre
language). For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ikwerre words</th>
<th>English equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1       ñwai</td>
<td>Money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2       Rụmụntiti</td>
<td>Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3       Òro Okwukwo</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4       Ògbo olu</td>
<td>Aeroplane</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the example given above, the vowels I U and O agrees with the other
vowels I, u and O as to the presence or absence of advance tongue root.

2. **Nasalized Vowels**

A nasalized vowel is one that is produced with air passing through the
nose as well the mouth (Ndimele et al 169). These vowels are

/â/  /ê/  /ī/  /Ī/  /ō/  /Ô/  /ū/  /ʊ/  /ő /
(C)na (C)ne (C)ni (C)ni (C)no (C)nô (C)nu (C)nû

The (c)’ indicates the preceding oral consonant. The nasal vowels are written
with ‘n’ in between the consonants and the vowel. After a nasal consonant, the
vowel is automatically nasalized and so the ‘n’ is omitted. (Ndimele et al 169).

Ogum states that, “nasalization is distinctive because it marks differences in
words” (72). In line with this, Enyia states that “nasalization is very typical
feature of the Ikwerre language and its presence or absence makes a difference
to the meaning of words in the language. More importantly, it distinguishes
Ikwerre language from Igbo” (46). Examples include
| Re  | rē        | “to smell”          |
| Re  | Ré       | “To sell”           |
| Ra  | Rā       | Sexual intercourse  |
| Ra  | Rá       | Drink               |
| Be  | bē       | Slice               |
| Be  | Bé       | They                |
| Whu | Whū      | See                 |
| Whu | Whú      | Blow with mouth     |
| Vekwu | Ekwú | Firewood            |
| Ukwu | ekwú    | Waist               |

**Consonant**

The Ikwerre consonants are as follows;

b ch d f g gb gh gw h j k kp kw l m n nw ny ñ p r s t v w wh y z

(Ekwulo 1).

**The Ikwerre Aphabeths**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>CH</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>Ė</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>GB</td>
<td>GH</td>
<td>GW</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Ì</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>KP</td>
<td>KW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NW</td>
<td>NY</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| U  | Ù  | V  | W  | WH | Y | Z (Ekwulo 1).

**3. TONE**

Tone is meant by a phonetic or phonological unit belonging to a set characterized by levels of pitch. Tone is the change in the pitch of the voice that
produces a change in the meaning of a word or sentence, even when the
c consonants and the vowels are the same (Ndimele et al 170). The tone language
is a language in which the meaning of a word depends on the tone used when
pronouncing it (Richard et al 294). In a tone language the pitch of the voice
usually makes difference to the meaning of words (Ogum 101). It is the tone-
marking that brings out the difference in meaning, based on the pronunciation
of the words (Ndimele et al 170). Ikwerre is a tonal language, because it uses
“the pitch of individual vowels or syllables to contrast meaning of words”
(Fromkin et al 243). The Ikwerre language so far has shown only two
distinguishable tones viz: High and low tone .but downstep , often confused for
mid tones, occur in some dialects of Ikwerre as well as falling rising
glide.(Enya 46)
Consonant Chart of Ikwerre Language (Online Wikipedia Encyclopedia).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Consonants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explosive stop or affricate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voiced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voiced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonexplosive stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voiced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glottalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unrounded | Rounded
---|---
Unrounded | Rounded


2.1.9 The Origin of the Target Language (English)

English derives from the West Germanic branch of Indo-European family of languages. It is most closely related to the low German dialects in northern Germany and to Dutch and Frisian, Sharing with them the characteristic absence of the second, or High German sound shift, Occurring around AD 600 and markedly differentiating the phonology of the west Germanic varieties of the highland south from those of the low land north (Conric 82). According to Campbell “English itself derives from three low German dialects spoken by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, who came from Denmark, and North Germany to settle in English from the middle of the fifth century onwards” (143).

The Celts were the first inhabitants of the British Isles about whom any historical records exist. They did not speak English, but their languages belong to the Indo-European family of languages, to which English also belongs. (Jowitt 2). It was in AD 449, according to Bede’s Ecclesiastical History of the English people, that bands from the three Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes began leaving the areas known today as northern Holland and Germany and Southern Denmark. These Teutons sailed to Britain, which had been deserted by the Romans forty years earlier, to assist the Celtic leader Vortigern who had called upon them to help repulse the invading Picts and Scots from the north of England. Preferring Britain to their continental home lands, the Teutons settled, driving the Hapless Celts into remote corners. (Finegan 83). Furthermore surviving the Roman occupation of the Britain Isle there remained but few linguistic relics of Latin origin including the second element of such place names as Lancaster, Manchester, and Rochester etc. It is not until the end of the seventh century that we have written records of the Germanic language spoken in England and not until the reign of king Alfred (871-99) that we have ‘Englisc’ recorded in quantity.
At the end of the eighth century and during the ninth, a series of invasions from the Scandinavian cousins of the Anglo-Saxons brought a secondary Germanic influence into the English lexicon. After king, Alfred defeated these Vikings in 878 and signed the treaty of Wedmore with Guthrum, who agreed to become Christian, there followed a period of integration during which bilingualism prevailed in the Danelaw, an era governed by Danish practices and including Northumbria, East Anglia, and half of central English.

In addition, in the development of the English language, the most significant historical event is the invasion by the Normans in 1066. In that year, William, Duke of Normandy crossed the channel and with his French-speaking retinues established an Anglo-Norman kingdom in England. (Finegan 84). The polarization of society which followed this upheaval was reflected in an equalent polarization of language: as the language of the conquerors, Norman French assumed the dominant role, while West Saxon lost its privileged status, and joined other forms of old English as a dialect of the English peasantry. (Campbell 143). Only when King John lost Normandy to King Philip of trance in 1204 did the knot between England and the Anglo-Norman language start to come undone.

Finally a plague known as ‘the Black death’ struck English in 1348, wiping out perhaps 30 percent peasant life. This shifted the lower (English speaking) classes to positions of greater appreciation and enhanced value for their work and along with their own rise in status came their language. In 1362, the status of pleading passed by parliament, mandating that all courts proceedings, should thenceforth be in English. By about 1300 all the inhabitants of England knew English, and French had begun to fall into disuse. During the fourteenth century, English again became the language of England and her literature. (Finegan 84).
Having established the above points, the history of English language is divided into three major periods: (1) the old English (Anglo-Saxon period) starting with the coming of the Germanic tribes into England—traditionally 449 AD—and ending around 1100; (2) the middle English period 1100-1500; and (3) the modern English period—from 1500 to the present, with the early modern English period extending to about 1700” (Encyclopedia Americana 419). These periods are briefly discussed below:

1. Old English originated when the languages of Angles and Saxon tribes replaced those of the native Britons invasion from the 6th to the 8th century. (21st Century Webster International Encyclopedia 382). Initially, old English has a diverse group of dialects, reflecting the varied origins of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of Great Britain but one of these dialects, late West Saxon, eventually came to dominate, and it is in this part of the poem Beowulf is written (Online Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia). The old English lexicon was almost purely Germanic, with traces of Latin and Celtic influences. This lexicon largely shared etymons with the other Germanic languages and like them developed its word stock chiefly by compounding (Finegan 86). The Grammar of ‘old English was a highly synthetic or inflected language…. Nouns, personals pronouns, adjectives, and the definite article were inflected for number, case, and gender”. (Jowitt 20).

2. Middle English (1100-1500 AD)

The twelfth century was the century of transition between late old English and early Middle English. Almost nothing was written in English, and very little was borrowed from French. The English dialects ceased to reflect the original tribal division, and tended to polarize on areal or typological basis into two groups: Northern (including Northumbrian and Mercian, from which latter the important midland dialect was emerged) and Southern (Comprising West Saxon
and Kentish) (Campbell 130). According to Jowitt “The greatest of the grammatical changes marking the transition from OE to ME was the massive loss of inflections. It was due to invasions, not only of the Normans but also of the Danes before them”. (53)

3. Modern English (1500- till date).

The key feature in the phonological transition from late middle to modern English is the so-called Great Vowel Shift, which took place in the fifteenth/sixteenth centuries. Briefly, five of the long vowels were raised by one degree; the remaining two were diphthongized; a:> :: >e:>i::; >o: >u:: i: >ay; u: >aw (Campbell 152).

Modern English, includes the work of William Shakespeare and the king James Bible, is generally dated about 1550, and when united kingdom became a colonial power, English served as a Lingua Franca of the colonies of the Britain empire. (Online Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia).

In conclusion, old English is marked by the possession of a rich extensive system of Germanic inflection and a purely Germanic vocabulary: Middle English by extensive erosion of the morphological apparatus, and the intake of large number of French words; modern English by the near total disappearance of inflections. Today, as the mother-tongue of some 350 million people, English is demographically surpassed only by modern standard Chinese, which cannot, however claim anything approaching the international status of English. The main components in this total are: USA 232 million speakers; United Kingdom 56 million; Canada 24 million; Australia and New Zealand 17 million (Campbell 144).
2.1.10 English Language in Nigeria

English language did not begin to play a significant part in Nigeria society until the nineteen century. This was the period in which white men began coming to the country in steadily increasing number as missionaries and traders and in the latter part of the century, as soldiers and government officials” (Jowitt 15).

The introduction of English language into Nigeria can be traced to the coming of missionaries just before the middle of the 19th century with the first English mission in 1842. Trade was the second institution through which English gained a foothold in Nigeria. By the middle of the 19th century, English traders had developed legitimate trade in palm oil and other commodities, with the natives along the Niger and Calabar Areas. Schools were built in these areas because the chiefs and traders wanted their children to be taught English and how to keep account.

When the Berlin Conference was convened for the partition of Africa, Nigeria was claimed by British and colonialism started in this country. The British Colonial administration appointed Governors and districts for the business of administration, which was conducted in English. In this way, the need arose for Nigerians to speak and write in order to become personnel in the colonial administration. English therefore become established as a necessary medium in Nigeria through the instruction of religion (Christianity) trade and politics.

2.1.11 English Language in Ikwerre

The Christian missionaries played a vital role as harbingers of the British Conquest of parts of Southern Nigeria and this Conquest of Southern Nigeria was economically motivated. In other words, the British Conquest of Southern Nigeria promoted palm oil trade among the Delta States of which Ikwerre forms
an integral part and it was as a result of the contact with the Missionaries and trade, that English Language came into Ikwerre Land that is to say that at the advent of colonialism, the Ikwerre people were exposed to English Language and special English.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework for second language learning presents a number of different perspectives or theories of second language learning. This study will review three of these theories, which are relevant to this study. They include behaviourist, cognitive and Krashen’s theory of second language learning.

2.2.1 The Behaviourist Theory

The first coherent theory of learning was the behaviourist theory based on the work of Pavlov in the Soviet Union and of Skinner in the United States (Tom-Hutchinson et al 40). A great deal of language learning and teaching in the 1950s and 1960s was influenced by the tenets of behaviourism (Crystal 372). Behaviourism was based on the view that all learning – including language – learning – occurs through a process of imitation, practice, reinforcement and habit formation. Behaviourist claimed that when learners correctly produce language that approximates what they are exposed to in the input, and these efforts receive positive reinforcement, habits are formed (Spada et al 118). In this view, FLL is seen as a process of imitation and reinforcement: learners attempt to copy what they hear, and by regular practice they establish a set of acceptable habits in the new language (Crystal 372).

Behaviourist theories attempted to explain how learners can learn the more difficult aspects of the L2, that is, the elements which are least like their first language (L1). For example, I will buy / j’achéterai are reasonably similar and stable structures in English and French. By constrast I gave it to him / je le
lui ai donné are diverging structures in the two languages. Similar structures needed relatively little stimulus – response practice, dissimilar structures needed a lot. (Marco 23).

Properties of the L₁ are thought to exercise an influence on the course of L₂ learning: learners ‘transfer’ sounds, structures, and usages from one language to the other. Contrastive analysis is the name given to the study of the similarities and differences in the morphological and syntax between two languages (Marco 23). The contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) was proposed to account for the role of the L₁ in L₂ learning. The C[ontrastive] A[nalisis] hypothesis claims that the potential negative transfer from NL onto FL can be predicted by juxtaposing description of the two language system in order to identify the dissimilarities (‘constrasts’) between them (International Encyclopedia of Language 300). CAH predicted that where similarities existed between L₁ and L₂ structures, there would be no difficulty for L₂ learning, where there were differences; however, the L₂ learner would experience problems (qtd by Spada et al 119). To prepare teaching materials, researchers carried out a constrastive analysis of the phonological and grammatical structures of the native and target languages. Thus, they produced a list of morphological, grammatical, and phonological features that could be expected to prove difficult for learners because they differed from those of the first language (Finegan 466 – 467).

The concept of contrastive analysis relies heavily on the psychosocial theory of transfer. A transfer is the effect of a preceding activity upon the learning of a given task. According to Odlin, “transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (27).
Language transfer refers to the learners trying to apply rules and forms of the first language into the second language. The term can also include the transfer of features from one additional language to another (such as from a second to a third language).

Contrastive analysis, discussed above, sought to predict all learner errors based on language transfer. Transfer is an important factor in language learning at all levels. Typically learners begin by transferring sounds (phonetic transfer) and meanings (semantic transfer), as well as various rules including word order and pragmatics (online Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia).

When put to test CAH was not fully supported, it failed to predict errors that L₂ learners were observed to make, and it predicted some errors that did not occur. (Spada, et al 19).

According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982, researchers found that L₂ learners from different backgrounds made some of the same errors and that some of these errors would not have been predicted by a contrastive analysis between learners’ L₁ and L₂. These findings, together with the rejection of behaviourist learning theories which CAH had been associated with, led a number of second language acquisition researchers in the 1970s and 1980s to argue that there was, in fact, very little L₁ influence in second language acquisition (qtd by Spada et al 119).

Exclusive attention to NL – induced errors morbidly distracted attention from the often facilitative effects of NL/FL similarities, which ought to be emphasized in teaching. There is in other words positive as well as negative transfer (International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, 301).

An important reaction to behaviourism was the inter language studies. Inter language scholars seek to understand learners’ language in its own terms,
as a natural language with its own consistent set of rules. (Online Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia).

Interestingly enough, apart from appreciating the problems of interference from the learner’s native language, “later research has tended to re-establish the importance of L₁ influence, but it has also shown that the influence is complex and that it changes as the learner’s competence in the second language develops.

2.2.2. The Cognitive Theory

In recent year’s cognitive psychologists have begun to challenge the basic tenets of behaviourist theories of learning. Their theories rest upon neuro-psychological bases of thought and language, and as such are said by mentalist. Learning is not viewed as an array of conditioned responses to previously met stimuli, as the acquisition and storage of knowledge. Behaviourist psychologist focus on the individual’s response while cognitive physiologist emphasized the mental process underlying that response (Tom Hutchinson et al 52)

The main alternative to the behaviourist approach sees as central the role of cognitive factors in language learning. In this view, learners are credited with using their cognitive abilities in a creative way to work out hypothesis about the structure of the F.L. They construct rules, try them out, and alter them if they prove to be inadequate. Language learning, in this account proceeds in a series of transitional stage as learners acquire more knowledge of the L₂. (David Crystal 372). Crystal further states that “error analysis plays a central role in this approach. Errors are likely to emerge when learners make the wrong deductions about the nature of the L₂, such as assuming that a pattern is general, when in fact there are exceptions. The errors provide evidence about the nature of the learning process, as the learner gradually works out what the Fl system is” (372)
According to Abisamara “Error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison between the error made in the target language (TL) and that TL itself. Pit Corder is the “father” of Error Analysis (the EA with the “new look”). It was with his article entitled “the significance of learners Error” (1967) that EA took a new turn. Errors used to be “flaws” that needed to be eradicated. Corder presented a completely different point of view. He contended that those errors are “important in and of themselves”. For learners themselves errors are ‘indispensable’, since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. In 1994, Gass and Selinker defined errors as “red flags” that provide evidence of the learner’s knowledge of the second language” (www.cwru.edu../BBP_ESLHandout.pdf.).

According to Corder (1974) error analysis has two objects: one theoretical and another applied. The theoretical object serves to “elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language”. And the applied object serves to enable the learner “to learn more efficiently by exploiting our knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes”.

Crystal stated that “Since the 1970’s cognitive approaches to FLL have been in the ascendant, and error analysis in particular has attracted a great deal of attention. However, the analysis of errors turns out to be a highly complex matter, involving other factors than at the cognitive. Some errors are due to the influence of the mother tongue, as contrastive analysis claims. Some come from external influences, such as inadequate teaching or materials. Some arise out of the need to make one self understood by whatever means possible (e.g. replacing words by gestures). Above all, error analysis is complicated by the fact that it is often unclear what the learner intended to say, and thus how to identify the errors that have been made” (Crystal 372-372). Moreover, in
support of this view, Corder also states what “we should be aware that different types of written materials may produce a different distribution of error or a different set of error types…. the recognition of errors ….depends crucially upon the analyst making a correct interpretation of the learner’s intended meaning of the context (Corder 126-127).

Despite the difficulties, research into errors continues to provide a fruitful way of investigating the processes underlying FL acquisition. However, as with constrastive analysis, the approach cannot provide a complete explanation (Crystal 374).

2.2.3 Stephen Krashen’s Theory of SLA

This hypothesis by Stephen Krashen is one of the most controversial theoretical perspectives in second language acquisition. It is based on a set of five interrelated hypotheses that are listed below.

1. The Acquisition – Learning Hypothesis

Krashen claims that there is a difference between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is ‘a subconscious and intuitive process of constructing the system of a language, not unlike the process used by a child to ‘pick up a language’. Learning is a conscious process in which ‘learners attend to form, figure out rules, and are generally aware of their own process’ (Brown 275).

2. The Monitor Hypothesis

The monitor has nothing to do with acquisition but with learning. The learned system acts only as an editor or ‘monitor’, making minor changes and polishing what the acquired system has produced. (Alexandra AltenaichinGer 9). According to Krashen, three conditions are necessary for monitor use: 1 sufficient time, 2. focus on form, 3 knowing the rules (Lightbown and Spada 27).
3. **The Natural Order Hypothesis**

The hypothesis states that we acquire the rules of a language in a certain order that is predictable (Lightbown, and Spada 27). The natural order hypothesis is based on research findings (Dulay & Burt, 1974, Fathman, 1975; Makino, 1980 cited in Krashen, 1987) which suggested that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a ‘natural order which is predictable. However, this does not mean that every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in exactly the same order. It states rather that, in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and others to be acquired late (Krashen, and Terrell 28).

4. **The Input Hypothesis**

This hypothesis states that it is important for the acquirer to understand language that is a bit beyond his or her current level of competence. This means, if the learner is on level i, the input he gets should be i + 1. This means that the language that learners are exposed to should be just far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still is challenged to make progress (Brown 278).

5. **The Affective Filter Hypothesis**

Finally, the fifth hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, embodies Krashen’s view that a number of ‘effective variables’ play a facilitative, but non-casual, role in second language acquisition. These variables include: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can combine to ‘raise’ the affective filter and form a ‘mental block’ that prevents comprehensible input from being
used for acquisition (Ricardo Schütz, http://www.sk.com.br/sk-krash.html). According to Dulay and Burt, performers with optimal attitudes have a lower effective filter. A low filter means that a performer is more open to the input language (Krashen, Terrell 38).

Krashen’s assumption has been hotly disputed. Many psychologists like McLaughlin have criticized Krashen’s unclear distinction between subconscious (acquisition) and conscious (learning) processes. According to Brown, second language learning is a process in which varying degrees of learning and of acquisition can both be beneficial, depending upon the learner’s own styles and strategies. Furthermore, the i + 1 formula that is presented by Krashen raises the question how i and 1 should be defined. Moreover, what about the ‘silent period’? Krashen states that after a certain time, the silent period speech will ‘emerge’ to ‘the learner’, which means that the learner will start to speak as a result of comprehensible input. Nevertheless, there is no information about what will happen to the learners, for whom speech will not ‘emerge’ and for whom the silent period might last forever (Brown 281).

Swain also goes against Krashen’s radical position towards the role of input and argues in favour of the output hypothesis. She claims that practicing the language helps learners observe their own production, which is essential to SLA. It is her contention that “output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production” (Swain 128).

2.3 Related Empirical Study

The ultimate goal of any research into second language learning is to achieve an understanding of the events itself. The issue of mother- tongue influence or interference has received a larger attention over time. Empirical
research has attempted to account for variables detailed by SLL (second language learning) theories and provide an insight into L₂ learning processes, which can be applied in educational environments. Recent SLA investigations have followed two main directions: one focuses on pairings of L₁ and L₂ that renders L₂ acquisition difficult, and the other investigates certain aspects of language that may be maturationally constrained. The empirical study in this work is divided into foreign based studies and the Nigerian based empirical studies.

Onike Rahaman (2009) carried out a research on mother tongue interference on the Yoruba learners of English and he found out that ‘a Yoruba – English bilingual stresses every syllable in the utterances he produces in English, e.g. cha ́ra ́cher instead of character or máry instead of Mary. At the level of intonation, because all the syllables are stressed, a carryover effect from the dialects of Yoruba language, it becomes difficult to understand what part of an utterance a Yoruba – English bilingual is trying to emphasize. In the areas of syntactic and discourse problems of Yoruba learner of English, he states that “the syntax of English and Yoruba language have recognized problem areas such as the nominal system (such as number, quantifiers, pronoun) gender, embedded structures relative pronouns, complements) and the expression of passives. According to him, “the discourse level is ‘more pronounced at the level of greeting. For instance, the system of greeting in Yoruba differs considerably from that of English. And a Yoruba English bilingual transfers the system of greeting in Yoruba into English. The system of greetings is also observed via the production of language greetings in place of casual greetings which characterize the English discourse. (Online Wikipedia encyclopedia).
Emenanjo (1978) explains that Igbo Language has only one preposition /na/. In Igbo this preposition is a source of difficulty for the Igbo speakers when learning a language with many prepositions. This is because the preposition /na/ can stand as at least three prepositions in English language. For example

“Oge im na eje ahia izu akwa, a huru im chioma”
(Igbo version) when I was going to the market to buy cloth, I saw Chioma (English version).

Similarly, Osisanya – Olumojiwa (1984) gives instances of interference common among the Yoruba speakers of English. Her examples were taken from the primary school level. In English all nominals with the exception of pronouns are not inflected in the nominative or accusative cases. There is inflection in most common nouns only when they change from singular to plural forms thus:

(a) “I see a man”
(b) “men are kind”.

Here, the problem of the primary school learner of English lies in his inability to use the correct inflected plural forms of nouns and also to use the article with nouns in English. It is common to read from exercises of these learners, such deviant sentences as:

(a) “mans are kind” ‘Awon Okunrim ni akanu
(b) “mens are nice” ‘Awon Olurin dara’.

Anke Nutskpo (1996) also carried out researches on the influence of mother tongue on English Language and found out that a number of elision errors are derived from mother tongue interference. Some of these include consonant clusters. Most of West African languages have no consonant clusters and this affects pronunciation of English words. Thus, words like ‘look’ for
‘looked’ or ‘pack’ for ‘packed’ appears normal. Also in specific language like the Yoruba or Ijaw language /h/ is also introduced where there is non as in /h⁰gz/ for egg.

Kay Williamson (1969) did some detailed work on the problems the Igbo learners of English encounters with the learning of English sounds. She notes that most Igbo dialects, with regards to the vowels [e] and [ε] are allophones of one phoneme. This is why most Igbo speakers who tend to use [e] for the English diphthong /ei/ does not clearly distinguish between such words as ‘gate’ and ‘get’. Also the central vowels /Λ/, /3:/ and /ə/ are difficult for Igbo speakers because there are no Igbo vowels that are similar in quality.

Furthermore, Adetugbo (1984), states that the inability to express the English norms, culture and thoughts as the native speakers does, and imposing one’s way of expressing one’s native language on English is the source of semantic interference. To make this point clearer, he illustrates with words/expression’s ‘sorry’ and ‘well done’. ‘Sorry’ is used in Nigerian English as an expression of sympathy, for example when somebody coughs. While ‘well done’ is used as a greeting to anyone at work. The use of these lexical items in British English would be wrong and inappropriate ‘sorry’ in native English can be used to express a feeling or repentance (I am sorry for what I have done); ‘well done’ according to Adetugbo (1984) is a high praise salutation in native English culture for someone who has excelled at doing something.

LoCoco (1975), in a study of American college students learning Spanish and German in U.S, a foreign language situation, reported that the “high incidence of interlingual (L₁ interference) errors in German was due to word order errors…” (p. 101) typical examples include

Hoffentlich du bist gesund
Hopefully you are healthy.

Correct: Hoffentlich bist du gesund
and
Ich bin glücklich sein heir
I am happy to be here
Correct: Ich bin glücklich leer ze sein

First language – based errors in Spanish were less numerous and “pertained primary to adjective position”. The greater word order differences between English and German as compared to English and Spanish accounts for the difference in frequencies in interference word order errors. Spanish students were more often correct in using English surface structures in utterance initiation due to the greater surface similarity between English and Spanish. This also accounts for Chan’s (1975) finding that English to Spanish interference errors occurred mainly ‘on grammatical categories absent in either the NL or TL “and not in word order. LoCoco also found that second level Spanish students showed an increase in interference type errors that LoCoco calls “whole expression terms”, or word-for-word translation of an L1 expression, which is similar to what Duskova reported (qtd by Krashen 65 – 66).

Flege, Mackay and piske investigated whether the age at which participates learned English affected dominance in Italian English bilinguals, and found that early bilinguals were English (L₂) dominant and the late bilinguals Italian (L₁) dominant. Further analysis showed that dominant Italian bilinguals had detectable foreign accents when speaking English, but early bilinguals (English dominant) had no accents in either language. This suggests
that, though Interlingua interference effects are inevitable, their emergence, and bilingual dominance, may be related to a CP (Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia).

Sebastián - Gallés, Echeverría and Bosch (2005) also studied bilinguals and highlight the importance of early language exposure. They looked at vocabulary processing and representation in Spanish – Catalan bilinguals exposed to both languages simultaneously from birth in comparison to those who had learned L₂ later and were either Spanish – or Catalan – dominant. Findings showed ‘from birth bilinguals’ had significantly more difficulty distinguishing Catalan words from non-words differing in specific vowels that Catalan – dominants did (measured by reaction time).

Mayberry and Lock (2003) questioned whether age restrains both L₁ and L₂ acquisition. They examined grammatical abilities of deaf and hearing adults who had their initial linguistic exposure either early childhood or later. They found that, on L₂ grammatical tasks, those who had acquired the verbal or signed L₁ in life showed near-native performance and those who had no early L₁ experience (ie born deaf and parents did not know signed-language) performed weakly. Mayberry and Lock concluded early L₁ exposure is vital forming life-long learning abilities, regardless of the nature of the exposure (verbal or signed language). This corresponds to Noam Chomsky’s UG which states that while language acquisition principles are still active, it is easy to learn a language, and the principles developed through L₁ acquisition are vital for learning an L₂ ( Online Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia).

Some researchers have focused exclusively on practical applications of SLA research. Asher (1972) insists teenagers and adult rarely successfully learn an L₂, and attributes this to teaching strategies. He presents an L₂ teaching strategy based on infants’ L₁ acquisition, which promotes listening as central in language learning: listening precedes, and generates a readiness’ for, speaking,
assumptions supported by Carroll (1960). Asher shows that in L₂ acquisition, and in this case German listening fluency is achieved in around half the usual time if the teaching is based on L₁ acquisition, and that learners taught in this way still develop reading and writing proficiency comparable with those whose training emphasizes literacy skills. Similarly Horwitz (1986) summarizes findings of SLA research, and applies to L₂ teaching some principles of L₂ acquisition honed from a vast body of relevant literature. Like Asher, Horwitz highlight the importance of naturalistic experience in L₂, promoting listening and reading practice and stressing involvement in life-like conversations. She explicitly suggests teaching practices based on these principles. (Online Wikipedia, Free Encyclopedia).

According to Krashen, Duskova (1969) notes that errors in bound morphology e.g. omission of plurals on nouns, lack of subject – verb agreement, adjective – noun agreement are not due to first language influence in her Czech students of EFL: Czech nouns do not distinguish singular and plural and in Czech ‘the finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number”. These errors are, rather, “interference between the other terms of the English subsystem in question” (p. 21). Moreover, these errors “Occur even in cases where the English form is quite analogous to the corresponding Czech form” (21). Of 166 morphological errors, only nineteen were judged as due to Czech interference (66).

Wode (1978) also carried out some research on the influence of L₁ on the L₂, and he pointed out, that, first-language influenced errors may only occur at certain stages in development. Wode’s example is quite clear, and is reviewed here.

In English, the negative participle appears after the auxiliary, as in

(1)  I cannot go
But before main verbs, with do – support, as in

(2) I don’t know

In German, however, the negative particle appears both auxiliaries and main verbs, as in

(3) Ich kann nicht gehen
    I can not go.

and (4) Ich weiss notch,
    I know not,

Wode’s children, German – speakers acquiring English as a second language in the United States, produced some sentences using apparent first language influence, such as

(5) John go not to the school.

What is interesting, Wode points out, is that they did not produce such sentences early on. Their first attempt to negation were similar to what one sees in first language acquisition, such as

(6) No, you
(7) No, play base ball

They only produce sentences such as (5) when they begun to acquire the aux + neg. rule, i.e. when they had begun to produce sentences such as

(8) Lunch is no ready,

Only did they “fall back” on the more general German rule. Wode (1978, 1979) “suggests that there is, therefore, a structural prerequisite for first language influence: the performer’s interlinguistics structural description, his idea of the target language rule, must be similar to the structural description of the rule in first language, Wode’s children’s English negation rule was not all at all similar to the German rule in early stages, but it became similar when they progressed
to aux – neg stage. Hence, first language influence appeared but not earlier” (qtd by Krashen, 69).

Further more, Ejenihu Juliet Ngozi, (2001 ), carried out a research on “The Interference of Phonology of Igbo Language in Acquisition of English: Ikeduru local Government Area of Imo State” using the oral speech of students in the acquisition of English Language. She found out that the segmental feature of the student’s mother tongue (Igbo) interfered with their responses to the oral tests. She gave an instance of most them pronouncing the English language vowel numbers five /æ:/ and diphthong number thirteen as Igbo vowel /a/. The inability of the students to distinguish the long vowels from the short ones is a major factor responsible for their deviation in pronouncing English long vowels. According to Ejenihu, all the students deviated in pronouncing the English sound segments that were not available in Igbo phonology also constituted pronunciation problems to the students tested.

Odumuh (1987) also studied the influence of ethno linguistics on English language usage of Nigerians. He found out that these influences affect all levels of linguistic analysis in the areas of phonology, morphology. According to him, the main pronunciation problems of our people are due to interference from MT. we are so conditioned by the habits of our mother tongue that very often we cannot hear the strong sounds of a new language let alone producing them. This is true of an English man learning Igbo, as of an Igbo man learning English.

Similarly, Idiagboni (1999) carried out a research on the ethno linguistic influence of the attitude towards the English language in Nigeria – A socio linguistic Approach and he found out that “of all the three major tribes in Nigeria, Hausa seems to be the least that attaches great importance or exerts pressures on itself in speaking standard English. This underscores the value attached to the duo factors of ethnicity and religion. The Hausa people do not
only regard their language as a primus inter pares among Nigeria languages but also sees the language as a language of Christianity. The English language is also seen as a language of foreigners who have come to subdue our cultural and religious institutions. However, all the major tribe’s nurture different varieties and are mostly proud of them because of what “core values” have come to represent in socio-political system in Nigeria. He observed that ethnic influences are inevitable, and indeed necessary. According to him, “one must equally recognize the influence of the mother tongue which serves as the pioneer language thoughts: feels and experience; the English language, against this backdrop, is then viewed as not having enough expressive resources that can match any of the native languages. Base on these findings, he gave some common expressions in the Nigerian English as regards to the three major Nigerian languages Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba genesis respectively,

i. I want to give you a message (I have a message for you) zan ba da sako

ii. I want to enter taxi (I want to board a taxi) = ina so in shiga mota

iii. I want to do marriage (I want to organize a marriage ceremony) = in a so in yi aure

(i) He has brain (He is intelligent/brilliant)

(ii) It is good the way you came now (it is good that you have come /it is good that you are present)= o di nma etu isiri bia ugbua

(iii) My stomach is paining me (I have stomach upset) = Afo na ahim

(iv) My mother bought me market things (my mother bought me some things (items) from the market) = Nem zurulam Ihe ahia.
(i) I came down from the motor (I alighted form the motor) = mo so kale ninu oko naa.

(ii) Call me Jide (call Jide for me) bami pe jide

(iii) They are calling you (you are called) won npe O.

Idiagboni has tried to launch a campaign against the discriminatory and segregationist postures of the standard Nigerian English in particular or the (British) Standard English in general against the dialectal varieties available in Nigerian. He advocates that in spite of the social dichotomy and accent bar inhibiting proper placement for the varieties of the Nigeria English they must be recognized as long as they are functional and socially relevant. (A:/M.S.A Idiagbon.doc. Date created March 30, 1999).

2.4 Summary of Literature Review

The literature review was divided into three sections or subheadings, which are the theoretical framework, the conceptual framework and related empirical studies. Under the theoretical framework, three theories of second language learning were reviewed which includes the behaviourist theory which is based on the view that all learning – including language learning – occurs through a process of imitation, practice, reinforcement and habit formation. The behaviourist theories attempted to explain that properties of the L₁ are thought to exercise an influence on the course of L₂ learning and that learners ‘transfer’ sounds, structures, and usage from one language to the other. As a result of these transfers, the constrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) was proposed by the behaviourist to account for the role of the L₁ in L₂ learning. The cognitive theory believed that learning is not viewed as an array of conditioned responses to previously met stimuli, as the acquisition and storage of knowledge. They believed that language proceeds in a series of transitional stages, as the learners
acquire more knowledge of the L₂. They came up with error analysis which is a type of linguistic analysis that consists of a comparison between the errors made in the target language (TL) and the TL itself. The last theory reviewed was that of Krashen’s input hypothesis which was based on a set of five interrelated hypothesis that are listed below: the acquisition – learning hypothesis, the monitor the natural order, the input and the affective filter hypothesis. Krashen’s input hypothesis “claims that exposure to comprehensible input is both necessary and sufficient for second learning to take place. His monitor theory states that learners develop two language systems, one, the acquired system, is established through the operation of inherent language learning capacities on language experienced through the process of communication, this being an almost wholly unconscious process, the learned system, is established in an instructional environment in which attempt is drawn to the regularities of the language system and the learners remain conscious of the language system in both learning and using the language.

In spite of some differences in the theoretical accounts offered, there are two things on which most researchers would agree. First, the learner does not approach the task of learning a language tabula rasa, on the contrary, learners have complex cognitive attributes which enables them to interact very positively with the language environment. Secondly the situation which places the greatest demands on the learner’s language system is that of attempting to use the spoken language for spontaneous communication. (Wikins 532).

Under the conceptual framework, some linguistic terms were examined in order to have a better understanding of the research work. These terms included mother-tongue which was defined as the child’s first language as well as the language of the child’s immediate linguistic environment. It was also defined as the language of one’s ethnic group. Second language was defined as a language
which is not a native language in a country but which is widely used as a medium of communication and which is usually used alongside another language or languages. Other concepts which were also examined included second language learning and proficiency, the former has to do with ‘a conscious learning activity by a person who has already acquired a first language or mother-tongue. While the latter goes beyond the simplistic views of good pronunciation, correct grammar and even mastery and control of a large number of interdependent components and elements that interact with one another and that are affected by the nature of the situation in which communication takes place.

Finally, under the related empirical studies, which were divided into foreign and Nigerian based studies, various researches conducted by different researchers were reviewed. From these findings, the researcher was able to draw the conclusion that the influence of mother-tongue on second language learning and proficiency seems to be strongest in “acquisition poor” environment and that first language influence is not proactive inhibition, but simply the result of the performer being “called on to perform before he has learned the new behaviours”. The result is “padding”, using old knowledge, supplying what is known to make up for what is not known.

The researcher, through the above mentioned theories, conceptual framework and review of related empirical studies decided to base this research on two particular theories: the behaviourist and cognitive theories of second language learning as they provide the basis on which the research work operates.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

3.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to explain the methodology employed in this research. To achieve the objectives of this study, the outline of this chapter will include the following:
(i) Research design
(ii) Area of study
(iii) Population
(iv) Sampling technique
(v) Research instrument
(vi) Method of data analysis

3.2 Research Design

A research design is a plan or blueprint which specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analyzed. It provides the procedures for the conduct of any given investigation. (Nworgu 67). It is “the blueprint or plan which determines the nature and scope of study carried out or purpose” (Ali 53). For the purpose of this research, the researcher has decided to use the descriptive research design. According to Ali “descriptive design studies are mainly concerned with describing events as they are without any manipulation of what is being observed. Any study which seeks merely to find out “what is” and describes it is descriptive” (57). From the foregoing, it is apparent that
“most descriptive studies rely on observations and survey techniques for gathering information which is then described” (Ali 60).

The descriptive research design is suitable for this study because the study is on the impact of mother tongue on second language learning and proficiently: the Ikwerre native speakers’ experience. The descriptive research design will therefore be suitable to ascertain to an extent the impact of the mother tongue ‘Ikwerre’ on the learning and proficiency of the target language (English) of the students of Junior secondary schools (JSS1 and JSS 2) in Emohua Local Government Area of Rivers State where ‘Ikwerre is an indigenous language.

3.3 Area of Study

The area covered by this study is schools in Emohua local government area of Rivers State, where Ikwerre is an indigenous language and is mostly used as the medium of communication outside the school environment.

3.4 Population

Ordinarily, the term population refers to all the people in a given geographical area. In research “the term is used in a more general sense to include all members or elements, be they human beings, animals, trees, objects, events etc. of a well defined group” (Nworgu 94).

The population of this study comprised JSS1 and JSS2 students of Junior Secondary Schools in Emohua local government area of Rivers State. These schools were:
Ojims College Rumuji,
Community Secondary School Rumuji,
Community Secondary schools Oduhua Emohua,
Community Junior Secondary School Ndele, and
Community Girls Secondary School Omofo/Egami Rundele.

3.5 Sampling Techniques

Through simple random sampling, five schools in the local government were selected for this study. The students of JSS1 and JSS2 were used for this study. In case of schools with large population of students in JSS1 and JSS2, an arm of the class was selected. The total population for this study was hundred (100) students comprising ten (10) students from each class and twenty (20) students from each school.

3.6 Research Instrument

Instrument for data collection was through:

- Tapes (which consist of storytelling, pronunciations of words, reading of comprehension passages and answering questions from the comprehension passages) and

- Written composition.

3.7 Method of data analysis

The data were analyzed by the use of tables and percentage. Percentage scores for the questions were computed by multiplying the number of correct answers by hundred and then dividing the sum with the summation of frequency of the total number of respondent in a given or particular section. Further analyses of the data were done by the percentages of the total number of deviant answers.

Formula: $\% = \frac{T}{FR^*} \times \frac{100}{1}$

$T = \text{Total number of correct words pronounced or total number of sentences.}$
Fr = Frequency of the total number of respondent in a particular section i.e. total number of respondents multiply by the total number of words pronounced in a particular section or total number of sentences.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction
This chapter focuses on the analysis of data generated from the written composition and the tapes which contain utterances - which consist of storytelling, pronunciations of words, reading of comprehension passages and answering questions from the comprehension passages. The data is divided into two: phonological and syntactical analysis. The aim of this chapter is to answer two research questions which have guided this investigation. These research questions are: Does the phonology of Ikwerre affect the learning and proficiency of the English language? And, does the syntax of Ikwerre affect the learning and proficiency of the English language? The results were presented in tables and figures after which interpretation and discussions of data were given.

4.2 Data Analysis and Interpretation on Research Question NO 1
RQ1: Does the phonology of Ikwerre affect the learning and proficiency of the English language?
The data collected from the tapes which consist of the pronunciation of some English words, reading of comprehension passages and answering the questions from the passages sought to find out if the phonology of the Ikwerre language affects the learning and proficiency of the English Language. The table 1 presents the statistics of JSS1 students’ responses to the pronunciation of some English words. Table 2 also presents the statistics of JSS2 students to the response of some English words. Tables 3 and 4 give the statistics of the percentage of the causes of the errors. Below each table is the interpretation of the data collected.
Table 1 presents the statistics of the responses of JSS1 students to the pronunciation of words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total NO. of words pronounced</th>
<th>Total NO. of respondent</th>
<th>Frequency of the total NO. of words</th>
<th>Total NO. of deviant response</th>
<th>Total NO. of correct response</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>% of deviant response</th>
<th>% of correct response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5200</td>
<td>3700</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, 104 words were pronounced by 50 JSS1 students which give a total of 5200 words, only 1500 words were correctly pronounced out of the 5200 total words representing 29% of the total words while the deviant words pronounced were 3700 out of 5200 total words representing 71% of the total number of words. The analysis shows that a great number of the student encounter problem with the pronunciation of some English words.

Table 2 presents the statistics of JSS2 students’ responses to the pronunciations of some English words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total NO. of words pronounced</th>
<th>Total NO. of respondent</th>
<th>Frequency of the total NO. of words</th>
<th>Total NO. of deviant response</th>
<th>Total NO. of correct response</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>% of deviant response</th>
<th>% of correct response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>96</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4800</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, 96 words were given to 50 JSS2 students to pronounce, only 1800 words were pronounced correctly out of the 4800 total words representing 30% of the total number of words while the deviant words were 3000 out of the 4800 words representing 62% of the total words pronounced.

From the percentage of the deviant pronunciation of words in the two tables, it is glaring that the phonology of Ikwerre language hinders the effective acquisition of the English language.
Further analysis is given on the causes of the deviant pronunciation of these English words. As observed by the researcher these causes range from phonemic differences between the two languages, vowel harmony, wrong placement of stress, effect of the system of nasalization in Ikwerre, and insertion of vowels between consonant clusters. The percentages of each of this causes is presented in the tables below.

**Table 3 below presents further analysis of the causes of the deviant pronunciations in JSS1 students using the percentage of the deviant errors in table 1.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total NO. of deviant response</th>
<th>Phonemic differences</th>
<th>Vowel harmony of Ikwerre</th>
<th>Insertion of vowels between consonants</th>
<th>Wrong placement of stress</th>
<th>Nasalisation system of Ikwerre language</th>
<th>Phonemic differences</th>
<th>Vowel harmony of Ikwerre</th>
<th>Insertion of vowels between consonants</th>
<th>Wrong placement of stress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3700</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows that the total number of deviant words is 3700 and 1500 deviant words from this figure occurred as a result of the phonemic differences between the two languages representing 28% of the number of deviant words pronounced. 500 deviant responses was as a result of the interference of the Ikwerre vowel harmony system into that of the English language representing 9.6% of the total number of deviant words pronounced while the insertion of vowels between consonant clusters and the effect of the system of nasalization in Ikwerre has a number of 500 each, and each of them is representing 9.6% of the total number of deviant words pronounced. Finally, 700 out of the total number of deviant pronunciation are as result of wrong placement of stress representing 13.4% of the deviant words.
Table 4 below also presents further analysis of the causes of the deviant pronunciations in JSS2 students using the percentage of the deviant errors in table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total NO. of deviant response</th>
<th>Phonemic differences</th>
<th>Vowel harmony of Ikwerre</th>
<th>Insertion of vowels between consonants</th>
<th>Wrong placement of stress</th>
<th>Nasalisation system of Ikwerre language</th>
<th>% Phonemic differences</th>
<th>% Vowel harmony of Ikwerre</th>
<th>% Insertion of vowels between consonants clusters</th>
<th>% Wrong placement of stress</th>
<th>% Nasalisation system of Ikwerre language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the statistics of the causes of deviant pronunciation by JSS2 students. As observed in the table above, 1500 deviant pronunciation of words occurred as a result phonemic differences between both languages representing 31% of the total number of deviant words. Deviant responses caused as a result of Ikwerre vowel harmony system and the process of nasalization in the language is 300 each and each of them is representing 6.2% of the total number while 500 deviant pronunciations occurred as a result of wrong placement of stress representing 10.3 % of the total number of deviant words.

In conclusion, the sum of the findings in tables 3 and 4 shows that the major causes of the deviant pronunciation of some English words is as a result of the phonemic differences between the two languages. This fact is supported by Ngonebu when she states that “phonological interference occurs when the speech patterns – phonemes, intonation, stress, or the bulk of the phonemic system – of the first language (L₁) adversely affects the use of second language (L₂). This particularly occurs when a phoneme in English does not exist in the speaker’s first language or when the second language user finds it difficult to articulate a particular configuration of speech pattern” (22).

Ikwerre Language has (9) nine vowels. These vowels are “/a e ɛ i į o ʊ u ʊ/” (Enyia 42). While the English Language has 20 vowel sounds, they are / ɪ e
æ a: ə ɔ: ə u: ʌ a: ɔ eɪ aʊ aɪ əʊ ɪə ɛə. Secondly, the Ikwerre has 28 consonant sounds and these sounds are:/b ch d f g gb gh gw h j k kp kw l m n nw ny np s t v w wh y z/. Whereas English has 24 consonant sounds, these sounds are: /P, b, t, d, k, g, f, v, o, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h, tʃ, dʒ, ɪ, r, w, j, m, n, η/. Some of the consonants of English Language differs from that of Ikwerre Language while some others are absent in Ikwerre phonology, examples are:/ð ʃ dʒ/. Also in English, distinction in vowel sound is marked by Length i.e. the long and the short vowels whereas in Ikwerre Language, the distinction in vowels is made with a dot under the vowel. Examples are seen in the English and Ikwerre vowels above.

Next to this problem of phonemic differences is the wrong placement of stress on words which represents 10.3% and 13.4% in the two tables above. This also shows that part of the problem encountered by the Ikwerre learners of English as second language is the stress patterns of the English language. Onuigbo asserts that “the way stress and intonation are used in English differs greatly from the way the same features are used in most Nigerian languages” and he further stated that “the difference between the stress-timed English Language and the syllable time Nigerian Languages creates some difficulty for Nigerian learners of English pronunciation”(5).

Also, the application of the Ikwerre vowel harmony and nasalization system into the English language also constitutes part of the problem responsible for the deviant pronunciation of some of the words by the students. As shown in the tables above, each factors is responsible for 9.6% of the errors in JSS1, and 6.2% for JSS2 representing the total percentage of 71% for JSS1 and 62% for JSS2.

In chapter two of the literature review, Enyia stated that “nasalization is a very typical feature of the Ikwerre language and its presence or absence makes a
difference to the meaning of words in the language” (46). As a result of the constant use of this factor in the Ikwerre language, the students tend to transfer it to the English language.

Finally, the insertion of vowels between consonant clusters also constitutes part of the reason for the deviant pronunciation of some of the English words, as 8.3% for JSS1 and 9.6% for JSS2 of the deviant pronunciation is as a result of this factor. The insertion of these vowels between these consonant clusters could be attributed to the absence of consonant clusters in Ikwerre language. Onuigbo supported this fact when he states that “in many Nigerian languages, there are no consonant clusters but in English, there may be an initial cluster of two or three consonants” (75).

Conclusively, the phonology of Ikwerre language affects the learning and proficiency of the English language

4.3 Data Analysis and Interpretation on Research Question No.2

RQ2: Does the syntax of Ikwerre affect the learning and proficiency of the English language?

The written essay and the stories contained in the tapes, sought to find out if the syntax of Ikwerre affects the learning and proficiency of the English language.
Table 5 below shows the statistics of JSS1 and JSS2 students’ errors in making a grammatical sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total NO. of sentences</th>
<th>Total population of student</th>
<th>Frequency of the total NO of sentences</th>
<th>Total no. of grammatical sentences</th>
<th>Total no of ungrammatical sentences</th>
<th>% of grammatical sentences</th>
<th>% of grammatical sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that 2 sentences were collected from 100 students in JSS1 and 2, which gives a total frequency of 200 sentences, 50 sentences were grammatically correct out of these 200 sentences representing 25% of the total number of sentences while 150 sentences were incorrect grammatically also representing 75% of the total number of sentences.

To further illustrate the causes of these ungrammatical sentences, the researcher decided to concentrate on three aspects of syntax which were the major causes of these errors, they are: wrong use of tenses, omission/ wrong use of the rules of concord and wrong use of prepositions.

Table 6 below shows the statistics of the causes of the ungrammatical sentences made by the students.
From the above table, 100 sentences out of the 150 incorrect sentences were as a result of wrong use of tenses, which represents 50% of the total number of incorrect sentences. While 30 sentences out of the 150 ungrammatical sentences were as a result of omission/wrong use of the rules of concord, which represents 15% of the total number of ungrammatical sentences. The remaining 20 ungrammatical sentences were as a result of wrong use of tenses which also represents 10% of the total number of sentences.

This result shows that the major problem encountered by the students in making a grammatically correct sentence is as a result of wrong use of tenses which according to the table forms about 50% of the total number of sentences .This could be attributed to the fact that “the Ikwerre verb is not inflected in any way; be it for tense, aspect, mood or whatever. However, when talking about temporal relationships, the message is not confused. Actions are completed or non- completed. Furthermore, although the verb is not inflected, there are isolated preverbial elements that indicates the completeness of an action” (Enyia 74). While in English language “verbs change forms by the use of inflections, such as –ed as in form – formed; -d as in use – used; -s as in run – runs; and –es as in go – goes”(Ngonebu 34). This could be the major reason inhibiting the student from using their tenses correctly. This wrong use of tenses is not only attributed to the negative influence from the mother tongue but could also be traced to how English language forms its tenses, for instance “some irregular
verbs have the same form for past tense and past participle” (Akudolu and Osakwe 18). They further stated that “there are some irregular verbs that are often used incorrectly. The error in usage stems from the fact that one verb may be used in place of the other” (Akudolu and Osakwe 19). So, these inconsistencies in the rules of the target language could also be responsible for the wrong use of tenses.

Secondly, the complicated nature of the rules of concord (which is the agreement between words in gender, number, case and person) also contributes to the difficulties the students encountered in making a grammatical sentence. This accounts for 15% of the ungrammatical sentences out of the 75% of the total percentage of ungrammatical sentences.

Preposition poses a very great difficulty for second language learners since there are various prepositions in English language. As a result of this, the students tend to use the English language prepositions indiscriminately. An example is seen in the sentence “I am schooling on community secondary school Rumuji” (see appendix).

Based on these findings, we can conclude that students make ungrammatical sentences because of the mother tongue interference; however, their biggest number of syntactical errors emanates from the inconsistencies in the rules of the English language.
CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Discussion of Findings

In view of the data analysis presented in chapter four and its interpretations, the following were the findings of the research work based on the two research questions. They are as follows:

5.1.1 The Phonological Effect of the Ikwerre Language on the English Language

Under this phonological aspect, the following factors were observed as been responsible for the deviant pronunciation of words: they are phonemic differences, wrong placement of stress, interference of Ikwerre vowel harmony, interference of Ikwerre vowel nasalization system, and insertion of vowels between consonant clusters.

- Phonemic differences between the two languages: from the data analysis in chapter four, it was observed that about 28% of the pronunciation problems encountered by JSS1 students and 31% of the pronunciation problem encountered by JSS2 students are as a result of the phonemic differences between the Ikwerre language and the English language. As a result of these differences, the Ikwerre learners of English tend to
substitute the English dental fricative /θ/ and /ð/ for either /t/ or /d/. (see appendix) This constitutes part of the reason Onuigbo stated that we should “note the distinctive characteristics of each consonant and pay special attention(sic) to the three consonants which do not occur in Nigerian languages. These consonants are /φ/, /δ/ and /ζ/ and experiences shows that they are usually substituted with other consonants which occur in the learners mother tongue” (66).

- Wrong placement of stress on English word: next to this problem of phonemic differences is the wrong placement of stress on some English words which accounted for 10.4% for JSS1 and 13.3% for JSS2 students of the total number of deviant pronunciation of words. This problem is not only attributed to the fact that ‘the Nigerian languages are syllable-time languages’ while ‘the English language is stress-time language’ but to the fact that ‘there are no clearly defined rules governing the stress pattern of words of three or more syllables’ (Onuigbo 88).

- Interference of Ikwerre vowel nasalization system: The researcher observed that the use of nasalization in Ikwere language affects the Ikwere learners of English as a second Language. Findings from the data analysis showed that 9.6% of the deviant pronunciation in JSS1 and 6.2% of the deviant pronunciation in JSS2 is as a result of this factor. From the researcher’s observation, majority of the students were having problems
with these sounds “y, n, w”, especially when they occur in the initial position of words. For instance, the phoneme “n” is usually added in the beginning of the word young, hence pronouncing the word as “Nyoung”. But this problem is not peculiar to the students’ pronunciation only but also reflects in their writings. The students interchanged the nasal sounds /m/ and /n/. For examples, the word ‘man’ is pronounced as ‘mam’ thereby replacing ‘n’ with ‘m’, other examples include cane as “came”, own as owm (see appendix).

- Interference of Ikwerre vowel harmony: One of the concepts that were also observed was the interference of the Ikwerre vowel harmony system into the English language, which resulted in the wrong pronunciation of some of the words that were presented in chapter four. From the words, the JSS2 students were given to pronounce, it was also observed that some words were also wrongly pronounced due to this interference of Ikwerre vowel harmony, an example is seen in the pronunciation of ‘table’ as ‘tabulu’(see appendix).

- Insertion of vowels between consonant clusters: absence of consonant cluster in Ikwerre language could be a major reason why the students insert vowels between consonant clusters. This accounted for 9.6% of the pronunciation problem for JSS1 and 8.3% for JSS2. Supporting this fact Onuigbo states that “in many Nigerian languages, there are no consonant clusters but in English, there may be an initial cluster of two or three consonants”. (75) In line with this, the researcher observed that Ikwerre learners of English tend to insert a vowel before a syllabic consonant in order to simplify the pronunciation. An example is seen in the pronunciation of the word ‘Scrap’ as ‘Sucrap’ (see appendix)
5.1.2 Syntactical Effect of the Ikwerre Language on the English language

Apart from the problem of the wrong use of tenses which was partly traced to the way Ikwerre language shows tenses by not inflecting the verbs, the other two syntactical problems (which have to do with omission/wrong use of concord and wrong use of the preposition) occurred mainly as a result of the students either making over-generalization or the inconsistencies in the rules of the English language. From the findings one could state that, the syntax of Ikwerre language does not hinder the effective learning and proficiency of the English language rather the inconsistencies in the rules of the English language contributed to the problems that resulted to the ungrammatical sentences.

5.2 Conclusion

The impact of the mother-tongue ‘Ikwerre’ on the learning and proficiency of the target language was the research problem that prompted this research work. The problem was formulated in chapter one as follows: What impact does the mother-tongue Ikwerre have on the learning and proficiency of the target language. Throughout the investigation the guiding factor was this problem. Thus by means of a detailed literature review and an empirical investigation other studies related to this were reviewed. The data collection, analysis and interpretation supported the evidence that the research problem has been solved. That is to state that the mother-tongue Ikwerre actually influences the learning and proficiency of the target language. This is seen in the cases of phonological interference discussed above, but the syntax of Ikwerre language to an extent does not interfere with the learning of the English language, rather the inconsistencies in the rules of the second language contributed to hindrances in the effective learning of the language.
5.3 Implications of the study

In view of these findings by the researcher, the following measures are hereby recommended, they are as follows:

**5.3.1 Organizing Seminars on Ikwerre Language for Teachers within the Region.**

The introduction of Ikwerre language and English phonology to both the newly employed teachers and the old ones should be done regularly through organizing seminars and workshops. This seminar should not be for language teachers alone, but teachers from other disciplines should also be included, so as to create awareness on the problems encountered by the Ikwerre learners of English, and to also make them become a good model to the students.

**5.3.2 Allotting More Time to the Teaching of Oral English**

Since English is a second language in Nigeria, the researcher suggests that enough time should be made available for the teaching of oral English. Adequate time is one way the goal of effective communication in the language will be achieved. Emphasis should also be laid on stress and intonation right from the primary school.

**5.3.3 Motivation of Students by Teachers**

Teachers’ motivation of the student’s is necessary, especially in encouraging the students to use Received Pronunciation even when they are been made jest of by their fellow students. They should be made to understand that English is not just a subject to be passed during examinations but that the ability to express one clearly and to be understood by the native speakers of English is the ultimate goal.
5.4 Recommendation For Further Studies

The sampled population that was used for this study was the JSS1 and JSS2 students from Emohua local government area of Rivers State, which is just one of the local government areas that use the Ikwerre language as its medium of communication outside the classroom. In view of this, the researcher is suggesting that another research could be carried out in this area of study using the five local governments where Ikwerre is been used as the medium of communication outside the school environment.

Secondly, the researcher is also suggesting that researches could be carried out in this field using the senior secondary school students or the undergraduate students from these local governments to ascertain if the problems encountered by the junior secondary school student, is the same with those of the senior secondary schools.
WORKS CITED

www.cwru.edu/..../BBP_ESLHANDOUT. PDF.


APPENDIX I

The following are deviant pronunciations of JSS1 and JSS2 student as a result of phonemic differences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s/no</th>
<th>English Words</th>
<th>Students Pronunciations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Then</td>
<td>Den</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Thin</td>
<td>Tin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Birth</td>
<td>Bat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Above</td>
<td>Abouv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What</td>
<td>Wot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Another</td>
<td>Anoda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Follow</td>
<td>Folo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Game</td>
<td>Gem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Nem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>House</td>
<td>Hauss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Aloud</td>
<td>Alawd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Hurt</td>
<td>Hot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Purse</td>
<td>Pos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>Norse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Rub</td>
<td>Rob</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Throw</td>
<td>Trow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Moda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>Broad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Church</td>
<td>Chorchi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Three</td>
<td>Tiree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Thought</td>
<td>Tought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Work</td>
<td>/wɔːk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Threat</td>
<td>Tret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>Dey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Comfort</td>
<td>Comfot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Univasiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Teacha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>Furnicho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Heir</td>
<td>heɪər</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Hesitate</td>
<td>Hasitate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Board</td>
<td>Bord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Packet</td>
<td>/pæket/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX II

The following are the JSS1 and 2 students’ deviant pronunciation as a result of Ikwerre system of vowel harmony

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>English word</th>
<th>Students’ Pronunciations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Tabulu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tomorrow</td>
<td>Tumuoro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Note</td>
<td>Notu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Witch</td>
<td>Witchi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Operation</td>
<td>Oparation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Comb</td>
<td>Combu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Cockroach</td>
<td>Cocukruchi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Bucket</td>
<td>Bucketi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Cube</td>
<td>Cubu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX III

Deviant pronunciation of words by JSS1 and 2 students as a result of influence from Ikwerre vowel nasalization system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s/no</th>
<th>English word</th>
<th>Students Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Witch</td>
<td>Nwitchi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Doll</td>
<td>Dom(baby)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Man</td>
<td>Mam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Zoo</td>
<td>Zoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Yam</td>
<td>Nyam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Young</td>
<td>Nyoung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Own</td>
<td>Own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Christmas</td>
<td>Christmans</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX IV

Deviant pronunciation of words by JSS1 and 2 students as a result of wrong placement of stress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>English Language</th>
<th>Students Pronunciations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>/mɪˈk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Oneday</td>
<td>/ˈwɒnˈdeɪ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>/ˈɪndɪˈvɪdʒuəl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Finish</td>
<td>/ˈfɪnɪʃ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>/nɜːs/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>/ˈkənˈtreul/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>/ˈvɪl.ɪʤ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>/ˈwʊmən/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>College</td>
<td>/ˈkɒl.ɪdʒ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Toilet</td>
<td>/təˈlɛt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Mosquitoes</td>
<td>/ˈmɒsˌkɪˈteuz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>/ˈjel.ˈɔə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Citizen</td>
<td>/ˈsɪt.ɪ.ˌzen/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>/ˈbʊk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Infection</td>
<td>/ˈɪnˈfɛksən/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX V

The following ungrammatical sentences were made as a result of wrong use of tenses.

1. I go to farm and work with my parents
2. I help them do other thing at home
3. I enjoy myself very well
4. We cook rice
5. I spend my holiday in port Harcourt
6. We go back to our various houses
7. I enjoy myself over there
8. I help my parent
9. We follow and go to beach
10. God has bring us to a new year
11. We eat and drink
12. I am there during my holiday
13. I went to my friends house and we play together because we Jehovah witness
14. I enjoy it because nobody die in my family
15. I spend my charismas holiday with my aunty at Benin city
16. He buy a cloth for me
17. I help her in the farm to weed the grass
18. When we get to our uncle house
19. We help him to wash his machine
20. I spend my Christmas holiday at Rumuji
21. She care for me
22. During the holiday, I help my parents and I read my book
23. I enjoy myself by eating rice, bean, banana, ndomic, yam, egg, plaintain etc
24. We enjoy our self in the Christmas time
25. We have a carnival that is party.
26. This is how I spend my last Christmas holiday
27. My sister buy a cloth for me
28. When I was ready to returned she gave me some gifts
29. My father take me to Mr. Bigs
30. I help her to sell the tablets
31. My holiday was so fantastic that I even go Lagos
32. We prepare some delicious food for them
33. I am very happy in that day because we eat and enjoy ourselves
34. This was how I spend my holiday
35. My sister take me to port Harcourt
36. We are there the first day

37. I watch a football match

38. I was first position in my school

39. As we get there….

40. My uncle tooks me to the village

41. I enjoy my holiday with my ground mother

42. My father used to bought cloth for us during holiday

43. This is how I spend my holiday

44. When school has open my aunty send message to my grandmother

45. My grandmothers sister who is 34yrs give birth to twin girl

46. In my home I see my brother, sisters, and everyone was happy to see me

47. I go to farm during my holiday

48. I help my mother at Rumuewhor on her farm

49. We go back to our various houses

50. Emeka run after the boy, the boy begin to cry, slap and push him

51. Emeka tell me what happen

52. His aunt become angry with emeka

53. Ngozi help her aunt in the market and emeka help his father on the farm

54. She did well in the school
55. Chike was the only first son
56. When they reach the sky
57. When they reach there
58. Tortoise beg eagle for another wing, eagle refuse
59. As they was eating…
60. The policemen asked who kill this man
61. They go market and bought bananas
62. The rabbit come and checked the banana
63. The next day coming the banana are ripe
64. The girl do as if she is died
65. Both of them go to uniport
66. The mother love the one that is poor
67. Because the town boy want Emeka to get out of his way
68. The town boy slap and pushed him
69. Because he think that emeka was the one that pick the quarrel
70. All of them refuse her to go
71. The bird fly away

Note: most of these sentences were repeated by some of the student and that was what gave rise to the 100 sentences
APPENDIX VI

The following ungrammatical sentences were made as a result of omission/wrong use of the rule of concord

1. The one that is rich went there with the one that are poor

2. I spend my holiday in my sister house

3. I saw many thing like animals

4. My youngest brother are in my primary school

5. The Christmas day are the happiest days of my life

6. My father bought me and brother cloth to wear

7. She care for me

8. Emeka prefer hunting and fishing

9. Because he was farm boy and like the activities of the farm

10. No the twins were not alike, Emeka look like the father and Ngozi look like the mother

11. I also likes going out with my friends

12. I also likes reading my books every night

13. I was with my parent, my brother and sister and other too numerous to mention

14. My grandmother sister who is 34years give birth to twin girls

15. The person I saw in the masquerade was friend brother

16. Sokari does not tell lie
17. The two foolish goat

18. the one that is rich went there with the one that are poor

19. one day, two men are dragging onething, one are reach and one are poor
APPENDIX VII

The following ungrammatical sentences were made as a result of wrong use of prepositions

1. I am schooling on community secondary school Rumuji

2. The animals will be having the meeting there on the farm

3. As he was waiting on the airport

4. We can be more serious to our studies

5. We enjoy our ourself in the Christmas time

6. My brother bought me a cloth in the Christmas time

7. I am very happy in that day because we eat and enjoy ourself

8. I help my mother at Rumuewhor on her farm

9. I came back to Rumuji and continued by education

10. My name is Beauty Otena from JSS1

11. They have never spoken English since their life

12. She was hoping on God

13. Ngozi help her aunt in the market and Emeka help his father on the farm
my name is Dushy Elrouch.

my school name is Government Secondary School.

I can stay here because I love my family and my friends and my brother and my sister and that I enjoy my holiday with my grandpa there.

and my grandfather and my grandfather love me very much and I love them too.

and my older sister love me so much and I also love her too my mother sisters both run to me and then I hug them. This is the end of my story.
NAME: Stanley Woods
AGE: 12 years old
SCHOOL: Nimbe group of Schools, Rumuefumbung local government area

TOPIC: How I Spend My Christmas Holiday

Composotion

My name is Stanley Woods.

My Christmas holiday was very interesting because my uncle that I have
never seen had heard his name it was very interesting and my
father hosted a party because I was 1st position in my school.

On 23th we ate fried rice, fish rice, yam and soup with beef meat and
the chicken, I was also taken to Games and totalizing hotel and they
would also beautiful clothes for me on the first January they were on
the street Carnival and everybody was happy and we were having
very knockout battle, cool for you.

The Christmas day was the happiest day of my life.

Conclusions on the 31st we all gathered in the hall and sang
and celebrated our new year festive.

Best wishes
By my name Gold Ekouonah
Class 5 S S II
Composition about how I spend my christmas holiday
Composition 28/12/2011

Reader community girls Secondary school amosu/Gemini

Dear Family,

How are you I hope all is well my purpose of writing this letter is to tell you how I spent my last Christmas holiday with my family. I spent my Christmas holiday with my family because she care for me because she treated me very well she took me to many places like Zoo our Biggest beach etc.

Thanks,

Yours Faithfully

Gold Ekouonah
Community Junior Secondary School
October, 2011
Roma Court, Feb 18th 2011

Dear Uncle,

Compliments of the Season! How are you?

I hope all is fine.

My reason of writing this letter is to tell you how I spent my holiday on 1st of July, 2011. That day my lady took me to my house to enjoy my "self time" and I had my morning and daily in the farm on that day. My family back home was sad and interesting although and my money sister came to carry me back to school on 11th July. They buy me school uniform and test books for me to read in house. I was very happy because my daddy did well for me and my brother and sister. I did well and read and write very well on that day. I do something in that test book. My daddy gave me some money.

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]

[Name]
Name: Gift Duodu
Class: T S S I
School: Rundele Community Girls Secondary School
Domofo / Ejamin:

Composition about how I spend my Christmas holiday

The holiday started on 19th December

I stay with my grandmother in the village. I help her in the farm to do some weeding. I enjoyed the holiday very well. The holiday was very nice.

Gift Duodu
How I Spent my Christmas holiday was at Lagos, when my brother took me down to Lagos. I was very delighted, when I saw my brother. I was at Lagos I was very delighted, and I told him to provide one room for me, and he gave me the one room, when I told my brother at village my brother said that I am not telling truth, one of friends came to that were where we are, and told me that he has bought a new ball, very lucky that there is one field just behind us. Some of our friends were in the playing football and that time we are just coming back from message they told us that we should be very fast, that they are having a football match against Ikere people on Sunday. reaching on Sunday, they told us that we should get of that match, why we are playing the match on the field, there is delicious short that we play against them and very lucky short we was entering four inside the good foot and it was goals we were very delighted, and finally the football match was won by Lagos people, people, for that glory be to the almighty God in the name of Jesus amen.
My name is Ogechi Onyeukwu. I am 13 years old. I spent my holiday in my Lagos to visit my brothers, wife and their children. While I was there, they gave me all types of food and I enjoyed very well. And there throughout the holiday. On my way back, they gave me, Rice, Gari, School bag, an types of things and I gave them back to my home. And my daddy and mummy ask me about what did I bring from Lagos. I gave them the foods and my daddy's brother came to carry me around that I could come. Let us go to Barquis and we went there and we eat all things in Barquis and we went to everywhere and that is how I spent my holiday.

THAT IS HOW I SPENT MY HOLIDAY

THANKS
HOW DID YOU SPEND YOUR CHRISTMAS HOLIDAY

ON HOW I SPENT MY HOLIDAYS

I spent my holiday very happily. I enjoyed it. Me and my friends went to visit our grandparents, brothers, sister, uncles, cousins, etc. We go to their houses one by one. We eat their drinks together. Then we set out to another place to greet others. I helped my mother in doing something like fetching water, buying things. They give me money to buy something new. I also was very happy. Me and my friend we play together, tell stories, etc.

I also use to spend my Christmas holiday. In what we use to go every December, we calls it retreat. We spend some days together to listen to the word of God preached by our pastor. Sometimes we comes on the day Christmas will hold sometime we stays till Christmas is been celebrated so this is how I spent my Christmas holidays.