

THE USE OF SOME CONNECTED SPEECH PROCESSES IN SPOKEN ENGLISH OF  
POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AND LITERARY STUDIES, BAYERO  
UNIVERSITY, KANO

**NASIRU LAWAN**

SPS/12/MEN/00007

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POST GRADUATE STUDIES,  
BAYERO UNIVERSITY, KANO IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE  
MASTER OF ARTS (M.A) DEGREE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

**MAY, 2016**

## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this work is the product of my own research efforts, undertaken under the close supervision of Dr. Amina Adamu which has not been presented elsewhere for the award of a degree or certificate. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

---

NASIRU LAWAN  
SPS/12/MEN/00007

---

DATE

## CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the research work for this dissertation and subsequent preparations of this dissertation by Nasiru Lawan (SPS/12/MEN/00007) were carried out under my supervision.

---

Dr. Amina Adamu  
Supervisor

---

Date

---

Dr. Rabi Abdulsalam Ibrahim  
Internal Examiner

---

Date

---

Dr. Amina Adamu  
Head of Department (HOD)

---

Date

**APPROVAL PAGE**

This is to certify that the dissertation titled “The Use of some Connected Speech Processes in the Spoken English of Postgraduate Students of Bayero University, Kano has been well examined and approved as it meets the regulation governing the award of MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE (in English Language), Bayero University, Kano.

Dr. Shehu Sidi Ibrahim	
External Examiner	
Dr. Rabi Abdulsalam Ibrahim	Date
Internal Examiner	
Dr. Amina Adamu	Date
Supervisor	
Dr. Amina Adamu	Date
Head of Department	
PG School Representative	Date

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I thank the Almighty Allah for His immeasurable love and kindness towards me for granting me an opportunity to pursue this M. A. programme. My profound thanks to my supervisors: Dr. Amina Adamu and Dr Rabi Abdulsalam Ibrahim. Obviously, this work will not be complete without their invaluable comments, corrections and suggestions. I would also like to express my immense gratitude to Professor Aliyu Kamal and Professor Bashir Muhammed Sambo for their advice and suggestions. I also would like to express my gratitude to all my lecturers especially Professor Mustapha Ahmed Isa, Professor Sadiya Sani Daura, Dr Rabi Abdulsalam Ibrahim, Professor Zaynab Alkali. Their academic prowess and pool of knowledge helped me enough in various ways to make this program a reality.

My gratitude also goes to my friends and brothers who assisted me in one way or the other towards the success of this work. Among them are Aminu Lawan, Sama'ila Abubakar, Sabiu Umar, Kabiru Lawan and Ibrahim Abba, in fact, this work could not have been written without the generous assistance of countless individuals who shared their knowledge and expertise. To all of you, I extend my deep appreciation.

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my beloved family: late Lawan Usman and late Altine Adamu and also my uncle, Abbas Adamu (Fagacin Ringim).

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	i
Declaration	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ii
Certification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.iii
Approve Page	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	iv
Acknowledgements	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	v
Dedication	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	vi
Table of Contents	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	vii
Abstract	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	xi

## CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
1.2 General background of the study	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
1.3 Statement of the Problem	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
1.4. Aim and Objectives of Study	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
1.5 Research Questions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
1. 6 Scope and Limitation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
1.7 Justification and Significance of the Study	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10

## CHAPTER TWO

2.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
2.2 Spoken English in Nigeria-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
2.3 Phonological Features of Nigerian English	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-19

2.4 Definition of Connected Speech	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23
2.4.1 Weak Forms	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31
2.4.2 Elision	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	37
2.4.3 Liaison	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	41
2.5 Speech Sound	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	46
2.6 Vowel Sound	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50
2.7 Consonant Sound	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	52
2.8 Stress and Rhythmic Patterns in Connected Speech	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	53
2.9 Theoretical Framework	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	57
<b>CHAPTER THREE</b>										
3.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62
3.2 Population of the Study	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62
3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62
3.4 Data Collection Instrument	--	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	63
3.5 Data Collection Procedure	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	64
3.6 Procedure for Data Analysis	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	64
<b>CHAPTER FOUR</b>										
4.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	65
4.2 Data Presentation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	66
4.3 Data Analysis	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	120
4.4 Discussion	-	-	-	-	-	--	----			122

4.5 Findings	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	132
--------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

**CHAPTER FIVE**

5.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	135
------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

5.2 Summary of Findings	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	135
-------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

5.3 Conclusion	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	136
----------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

5.4 Areas of Further Research	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	138
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

References	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	140
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

Appendix	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	152
----------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

## ABSTRACT

This study investigates the use of Some Connected Speech Processes in the Spoken English of Postgraduate Students of English and Literary Studies, 2014/2015 academic session, Bayero University, Kano. This research work aims at examining the extent to which Postgraduate students apply weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English. It also discusses instances of Connected Speech Processes including weak forms, elision and liaison. The number of the respondents involve in this study is twenty eight (28) all from Department of English and Literary Studies, using 'oral test' as a method of collecting data. However, the data gathered were analysed in tables using simple percentage. Natural Phonology is adopted as theoretical framework of this study, partly because it deals with phonological acquisition and change, and also it provides explanations for substitutions, alterations as well as variations in the speech of second language speakers. The findings show that most of the respondents do not use weak forms, vowel elision, linking /j/ and /w/ and intrusive /r/ in their spoken English. Conversely, most of the respondents produce consonant elision, linking /r/ and Consonant-Vowel linking frequently in their spoken English. Based on this observation, the study re-emphasizes the need for using Connected Speech Processes through the use of electronic media and language laboratory.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Introduction**

This study attempts to investigate the use of some Connected Speech Processes in the spoken English of Postgraduate Students in the Department of English and Literary Studies, Bayero University, Kano. This chapter provides the general background to the study of spoken English and Connected Speech Processes. The study also expounds the background to the problem. The aim and objectives of this study would be clearly stated in this chapter, followed by research questions, and scope and delimitation. A polemical defense on why the study should be carried out is described under the segment “The significance of study”.

#### **1.2 General Background to the Study**

The need for learning spoken English has, over the last few decades, grown enormously all over the world. To be precise, English occupies a high status among world international languages, as it has become the language of diplomacy, trade, communication, technology and business. Hence, learning English provides the person with an advantage as an active participant in today’s world, open a new horizon to a better future. Emphasizing this point McKay and Brown (2015:5) posit that English has occupied a high status among world international languages, because it is spoken as first language by around 375 million speakers of the world and around 750 million people are believed to speak English as a foreign language. This assertion may indeed be true as Crystal (1995 cited in Schmitt, 2010:2) submits that “English is the main second language being studied in the world; an estimate 235 million L2 learners were learning it”; interestingly, close to 2 billion people in over 120 nations speak English at some level of proficiency; it has become the

lingua franca for trade, tourism, air travel, popular media, sport, science, technology and many other fields of importance in contemporary life. For this reason, Cenoz and Jessner (2000:5) conclude that English “is a sine qua non if one wants to gain access to international electronic information networks”. In fact, this claim demonstrates once again why English has developed from a foreign language used between native speakers and non-native speakers to an international language, or to what Crystal (2004) calls a means of global language, spoken far more often by non-native speakers among themselves than between native speakers. In that respect, it is vital that students learning English for international communication learn to speak it as intelligibly and comprehensibly as – not necessarily like native speakers, but also well enough to speak English intelligibly and acceptably. It is equally important that the learners should learn to understand English when spoken by people with different accents speaking in natural conditions.

For several decades, a large number of spoken English books have appeared with the aim of helping national and international learners to achieve fluency in speaking English correctly and confidently. For instance, Avery and Ehrlich (1992) devote an entire chapter of their book *Teaching American Pronunciation* to connected speech as well as a chapter to word stress and vowel reduction. Prator and Robinett (1972), Mortley (1991); Cruttenden (2008) and Roach (2009) also devote specific attention to connected speech and reduced forms as product of stress-timed in their respective books of pronunciation. Thus, an appropriate stress and rhythmic pattern is more important for the intelligibility than the correct pronunciation of isolated segments, therefore, stress and rhythm determine the pronunciation segments in English. For this reason, it was agreed by these scholars that one goal of pronunciation training in any course, is intelligible pronunciation – not perfect pronunciation, although the former is an essential

component of communicative competence. But admittedly, communicative competence in English as a Second Language (ESL) at the phonology level, as Adejere (1994:170) points out, has two dimensions- reception and production. He further states that communicative competence in reception involves understanding a wide range of educated spoken dialects of English. Thus, communicative competence of ESL, at production level, must have international intelligibility as its goal rather than target just the native speaker, although the attainment of this demand is difficult because of interference, bad models and restrictions on the use of language. Despite this, it is, however, necessary to set realistic goals that are reasonable, applicable and suitable for communication needs of the learner. When this is properly set, it would also develop their ability to be easily understood in communication needs they face and increased self-confidence.

To put it simply, Oladipupo (2014) notes that in the process of achieving fluency in English, however, “the learners should realize that speech is not just sounds in isolation, but it is a continuous sequence of words through which phonemes are connected, grouped, and modified in a certain manner”. With this knowledge in mental faculty of the learners, the issue of connected speech would be properly addressed. It is also important to understand that the issue of connected speech helps to explain why written English is so different from spoken English. This is because written English consists of marks on paper which make no noise and are taken by the eyes, while spoken English is organized sound or words connected together with others to make up longer utterances. To put it in a nutshell, spoken English is a system of communication through speech, and written English is an attempt to represent the spoken language by visual symbols. Therefore, extensive work on the aspects of connected speech, according to Avery and Ehrlich (1992:89), “will not only contribute to students’ ability to produce fluent and comprehensible speech, but also to their ability to comprehend the spoken language”.

Apparently, according to this assertion, learners should understand that the pronunciation of consonant and vowel sounds in running speech often differs from the pronunciation of the sounds when words are said in isolation, that is, in citation form. When the learners realize this process, their fluency in communicative setting would not only be increased but also improved significantly. Also, an essential part of acquiring fluency in English was written and explained by Roach (2009:117) in his famous book 'English Phonetics and Phonology', where he explains that the learners should learn how to produce connected speech without gaps between words; and he personally submits that linking is most important feature of English when it comes to practical aspect of learning connected speech. This is for good reason because, in connected speech, for instance in English, one sound is linked or influenced closely to the next in such a way that is difficult to tell exactly where one word ends and the next begins. Though the set of phenomenon that can be labeled as connected speech processes include various kinds of assimilation that is phonemic change, weakening the reduction of vowel in monosyllable function words, elision is omission of phonemes; liaison is the process of linking and epenthesis is the insertion of segments.

It is important, at this juncture, to realize that Connected Speech Processes (CSPs) become the most diverse, complex and fascinating phonological phenomena (Alameen and Levis, 2015:21), although some aspects of connected speech processes are not familiar features to some researchers, and even to fluent speakers of English. It is surprising that the speakers, in the process of using some aspect of connected speech, tend to fully form the words in informal situations, giving the impression to L1 speakers and L2 speakers that, 'he's so arrogant about it all' (Crystal and Davy, 1975:8). Part of the reason may be because the L2 users of English are educated in the system that gives priorities in teaching the most precise and appropriate

pronunciation often learn on a basis of isolated words forms (Alameen, 2007), as this system leaves them bewildered when they hear English as spoken by L1 users. This point directly made it clear that L2 users of English considered English as an enigmatic language, partly because the L2 users of English, according to Brown (1990:60), experience a “devastating diminution of phonetic information at the segmental level when they encounter normal speech”.

Also, it appears to be generally recognized that the ability to produce appropriately connected speech is another promising area of research involving suprasegmentals. Various prosodic domains such as stress, intonation and rhythm are not considered as essential elements in English speech production, even though they constitute domain of restriction for application of different phonological rules (Selkirk, 1986 cited in Gut, 2009:159). Several researches were conducted on suprasegmental aspects of Outer and Expanding Circle of English varieties with the aim to investigate the occurrence of connected speech processes. For instance, the research conducted on phonological patterning of Englishes spoken in Africa, South and South Asia by Mesthrie (2004 cited in Low, 2014:83) identifies that varieties of English spoken in these regions tend not to use weak forms or reduced vowels in connected speech. When investigating the speech rhythm of Nigerian English, Gut (2009:166) claims that Nigerian English confirms the lack of pronounced vowel reduction and absence of vowel deletion as described in many studies (e.g. Udofot, 1996). This assumption reveals the fact that most of the languages spoken in Nigeria are syllable-timed languages. Thus, the syllable-timed languages tend to give syllable approximately equal prominence and generally lack reduced vowels. Emphasising this point Low (2014:83) asserts that the variety of English spoken in this area has to do with the tendency to be syllable-timed. For this reason, Nigerian English varieties are categorically described as syllable-timed rhythm as opposed to stressed-timing rhythm of Standard British English (SBE). But the idea of

connected speech belongs to a supersegmental level of pronunciation, focusing on stress, intonation and rhythm of pronunciation. This implies that English is typically considered as a stress-timed language, implying a regular rhythm of stressed and unstressed syllables. Consequently, a speaker, whom his language happens to be classified as syllable-timing, in which each syllable receives about the same amount of stress, may find it difficult to perceive and produce English Connected Speech Processes. This can interfere with understanding and cause confusion at the productive and reception levels for the L2 learners, if they have always been exposed to 'correct' and fully articulated speech of the native.

It is never easy to establish good English pronunciation but some speakers attempt to establish these good habits, that is, overcoming these difficulties by putting more effort to modify their accent; yet, in the process, they face public reaction to English pronunciation, particularly in the community the speakers found themselves in. Thus, Afolayan (1979 cited in Adamu, 2011:122) asserts that "there are two interesting aspects of public reaction to English pronunciation in Nigeria that touch upon acceptability". These aspects, according to Afolayan (1979), are "the greater model, the more it is frowned upon as being hypercorrection", and then; "the fluency is considered a desirable element of English pronunciation and lack of fluency is derided". With regard to these two important points, it is appropriate, at this particular point, to note that it is not one of the main targets of this study to examine the mispronunciation or hypercorrection of these processes in the spoken English of the students. Rather the study attempts to suggest ways to these students aim at native-like pronunciation. It is, however, a well-known fact that the pronunciation issues, over the last few decades, especially in English as Second Language (ESL) countries, have been the bane of Standard Englishes. For instance, in Nigeria, this case can be attributed to the fact that L2 learners, especially most educated Nigerians, in Adamu's words

(2011:121), “are generally more sensitive to the issue of correctness in English when it comes to lexis and syntax, but in relation to phonology, very few Nigerians pay attention to any ‘perfection’ or correction”. This implies that some learners do not place a high premium on acquiring close imitation of native accent of English, and consequently, they do not tend to modify or improve their accent significantly. As further supported by Pennington (1994:105 cited in Celce-Murcia et al. 1996:29) the reason why learners do not want to change their accent when they are learning English is because they perceive three barriers to pronunciation improvement: physiological (“I can’t change”), psychological (“I don’t need to change”), socio-cultural (“I don’t think it’s good to change). She finally suggests that the goal of instruction is not only to improve learner performance, but to provide “a basis for change in the psychological and social dimensions of pronunciation” (1994:105). In relation to this observation, it is good for the learners to change or modify their accent so as to have perfect as well as recognized pronunciation all over the world.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

The current study investigates the extent to which the students, especially ESL students, apply weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English, partly because most of the researches on spoken English centre around describing English at segmental and suprasegmental levels, little attention has been paid to what happens to sounds when they are combined in speech; that is, when they are connected together. Apparently, such studies were limited to mere identification of crossword processes observed within the English; they do not reveal the extent to which learners, especially students, would progress towards Received Pronunciation (RP) based in their spoken English. Consequently, this is a gap that this study intends to fill by providing an in-depth analysis of the research in the connected speech of the learner.

It should be noted that one of the most important aspects of pronunciation and listening is to understand that native speakers do not speak fast as some learners believed; but rather they connected words and change the sounds of words, for example 'stop it' becomes [st -p t], play a song becomes [ple j s ŋ], read a book becomes [r i: d 'b k], last time becomes [la:s ta m], take your time becomes [te k j 'ta m] and big grape becomes [b gre p]. Even though it seems that many of the L2 speakers have the desire to sound just like native speakers, observation from various scholars in phonology such as Low (2014), Crutteden (2008), Roach (2009) and Alameen (2007) indicates that many L2 learners of English encountered with difficulties in producing and perceiving speech sound in connected speech, simply because they are educated in the system that gives priorities in teaching most precise and appropriate pronunciation on isolated word forms. Part of the reason may be because these processes when used by the non-native speakers, it typically shows that their speech replete with pauses, since they pronounce word one after every word in precise way (Wong 1987:48-9 cited in Dalton and Seidlhofer 1994:123). In this respect, this study would attempt to tackle the problem confronting the students in using connected speech processes with a view to providing not only better alternations and directions in understanding connected speech processes, but also on how to use them effectively in casual speech by progressing towards native-like accentual competence.

#### **1.4 Aim and Objectives of the Study**

The aim of this study is to examine the use of weak forms, elision and liaison in the spoken English of some postgraduate students in the Department of English and Literary Studies in Bayero University, Kano

The objectives of this research are to:-

- (i) examine the extent to which Postgraduate students apply weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English;
- (ii) identify which particular processes students produce in their spoken English;
- (iii) find out the pattern of these connected speech processes in the English pronunciation of the Postgraduate students.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

In carrying out this research, the following questions will be used as a basis of this study:-

- (i) to what extent do postgraduate students apply connected speech processes in their spoken English?
- (ii) what type of connected speech processes do they apply frequently in their spoken English?
- (iii) which pattern do students apply when using these connected speech processes?

### **1.6 Scope and Limitation**

This research work discussed most specifically the use of some Connected Speech Processes in the spoken English of Postgraduate students. In spoken English, there are many processes of connected speech but this study covers weak forms, elision and liaison. This study also restricted itself to selection of some postgraduate students of 2014/15 academic session, who are studying English Language as an area of specialization at the Department of English and Literary Studies in Bayero University, Kano. Therefore, the number of the participants used in this study is twenty eight (28) which is relatively small. In relation to this, the data samples used in the investigation might not be enough to draw wide generalization based on the results of the study. Similarly, there are only two female participants in this investigation and as such there might be

some differences if more female speakers were to be analysed. Despite the aforementioned limitations, this study still work out to provide necessary information for the undersanding the extent to which Postgraduate Students produce some Connected Speech Processes in their spoken English.

### **1.7 Significance of the Study**

The significance of this research stems, first, from desire to investigate the use of Connected Speech Processes in spoken English of some Postgraduate students at the Department of English and Literary Studies, Bayero University, Kano. Partly because understanding the extent to which connected speech processes occur in casual and spontaneous speech is necessary to ensure spoken words recognition and account for how pronunciation variants are recognized. Since the connected speech processes of weak forms, elision and liaison alter sound of words and make them differ from the ideal shape they have when pronounced in isolation. For this reason, it paramount importance to realize that connected speech adds rhythm and musicality to the speech and it can adequately and accurately allows the speaker to speak efficiently. It should be noted that this can only be achieved when the speaker uses the rules of connected speech. Unfortunately, it was observed that learners of English, right from primary schools up to tertiary institutions, are normally instructed on accurate pronunciation based on isolated words. As such, most of them are not aware of what is happening when sounds are connected together. Despite the fact that the use of connected speech processes is essential part of English speech and the learner must learn to use them if they want their English to sound English.

With reference to the above explanation, the results of this research provide better alternations and directions in understanding connected speech processes, and how to use them effectively in

casual or spontaneous speech. Most importantly, the study sheds light on the difficulties encountered by the learners in the production of some aspects of connected speech processes. The results of this research could be significant not only to students but also to teachers and teaching of English as second language. Also, the results would help the researchers to understand and detect the extent to which postgraduate students produce weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to review the related work done by others concerning the issue of spoken English as second language (ESL) with particular reference to Nigerian English (NigE). In the process, the chapter investigates the phenomenon of connected speech, weak forms, elision and liaison. Similarly, it tries to describe and analyse the English speech sounds (vowels and consonants), the stress pattern in connected speech as well as allophonic and phonemic variations. Lastly, in theoretical framework: theory of Natural Phonology is employed for understanding the issue of connected speech processes.

#### 2.2 Spoken English in Nigeria

The spoken English in Nigeria remains the topic of discussion and it has attracted several scholarly interest of which include Jibril (1979, 1982), Banjo (1971), Jowitt (1991), Bamgbose (1995, 2004) and Awonusi (2002, 2004). The spoken English, in Nigeria, has a long history, though there were documented evidences that spoken Pidgin exists in Nigeria at an earlier time than British spoken English. At that time, Pidgin English, in Greenbaum's (1996:11) words, "serves as a means of communication between speakers of mutually unintelligible languages and may become essential in multilingual areas". Nigeria is multilingual areas; as such pidgin is widely used between speakers of mutually unintelligible languages that have existed in the country for so long. Therefore, the Nigerian Pidgin (NP), as pointed out in various literatures, is a language that is not acquired as mother tongue; and they are restricted to oral communication especially in some ethnically heterogeneous communities and to the other column of news paper,

although such claim seems to be criticized by various scholars in sociolinguistics. For instance, Jibril (1994:232) opines that Nigerian Pidgin “is now being used for news broadcasts in government owned radio stations and for serious poetry and drama by several well-educated poets and playwrights”. For this reason, Pidgin English plays an important role in Nigeria despite the fact that most of its function was mainly restricted to informal settings.

Nowdays, British spoken English, unlike Pidgin English, use in both formal and informal settings in Nigeria and it is widely used and well recognized in different places for various purposes and functions. Thus, Crystal (2003:3) asserts that a Language “achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country”. But Crystal further argues, “mother tongue used by itself cannot give a language global status... A language must be taken up by different countries around the world”. As it happens, the people of these countries must to decide to give it a special place within their communities, even though they may have few [or no] mother tongue speakers.

In the last few decades, English has spread and emerged as pre-eminent for international communication. The language spread is defined as an increase in the number of users and functions of language beyond the boundaries of the area where it was originally spoken. Bamgbose (1971) are of the opinion that when two languages come into contact, one is performing an official role; such language will be influenced both culturally and linguistically in accordance with reciprocal influence of language variation. It is, however, worth mentioning here that the varieties of spoken English across the globe are as a result of the adaptation of English to fit the culture of different countries around the world. For obvious reasons, it is possible when language was taken from its native domain to other environment to change and

adapt to new cultural and linguistic environment. Crystal (2004) explains succinctly the related areas in which this new English is affected due to this adaptation as follows:

Most adaptation in new English relates to vocabulary, in the form of new words (borrowing...from several hundred language sources, in such areas as Nigeria). Word-formulations, word-meaning, collocations and idiomatic phrases. These are many cultural domains likely to motivate new words as speakers find themselves adapting the language to meet fresh communicative needs.

The variety of Nigerian English is an indigenized variety of English with its distinctive local flavour, functioning as a second language within the Nigerian linguistic and socio-cultural setting. Supporting this assertion however, Cruttenden (2008:77) rightly observes that English has been not only an international language but second, amalgam and additional language. For instance, in a country where the speakers are non native-speakers of English, English serves as a second language used for various function and this may result in different manifestations of English such as new Englishes, world Englishes, International Englishes, Nigerian Englishes, South African Englishes among others. However, this resultant contact leads to what Dadzie calls “linguistic ferment” (2007:85), which necessitate to linguistic forms or shift from contact language, a kind of interlanguage is probably created, which has some admixture of the feature of both L1 and L2.

As for Dazie’s position on Nigerian English, scholars the likes of Crystal (1997; Mc Arthur (1998); Trugill et al. (2002); Jenkins (2003) are of the opinion that these new Englishes existed in Nigeria as result of the global spread of English that began with British colonialism during nineteenth century. Thus, Kachru (1992) is quite categorical that the term New ‘Englishes’ or ‘Diaspora Varieties’ is used for varieties which have developed in regions colonized by Britain. For instance, Nigeria, Ghana and India are countries colonized by Britain. However, English in

these regions can have formal properties (lexical, phonology, grammar) that differ from those of Britain Standard English. In this respect, English in Nigeria exhibits distinctive local Nigerian flavour e.g. at the levels of phonology, lexis, morphology, syntax and discourse, which make it different from standard native English. So the variety of English developed with these processes of adaptation in Nigeria is called Nigerian English, although Banjo (1995) and Adebija (1989) note that Nigerian English exists and indeed has numerous sociological sub-types, with the standard subvariety being the most prestigious.

Language experts in sociolinguistics made consistent attempts at various times not only to define but also to identify some of the specific features that characterize the existence of Nigerian English. To ascertain the existence of English variety in Nigeria known as ‘Nigerian English (NE)’, Ogu (1992:88) quoted Walsh as saying that:

The varieties of English spoken by educated Nigerian, no matter what their language have enough features in common to mark off a general type, which may be called Nigerian English.

Some linguists agree with Walsh’s argument, although there are others who are great adherents of Salami’s point of counter-arguments, which classify Nigerian English as error of usage. With reference to this categorisation, the concept “Nigerian English” (NigE) continued to evoke heated controversies among researchers in the field of linguistics. Undeterred by the heated arguments surrounding the definition of Nigerian English, Jibril (1986) views NigE as “a cluster of regional and social varieties which interact sufficiently in sociolinguistic continuum to qualify for a common cover term” (51). In fact, this assertion serves as stimulating ideas which made other scholars to agree that there exists a variety of English language in Nigeria which has acquired certain identifiable characteristics that make it peculiarly distinct from Standard British English (SBE) and other sub-types of Englishes spoken elsewhere in the world. As a result,

many terminologies haven been coined, such as “Nigerianism”, “nativization”, “indigenization”, “acculturation”, “domestication”, among the others, to give rise the existence of Nigerian English.

Contrary to what has just been mentioned; there are scholars who regard Nigerian English as deviation from standard variety rather than adaptation and they concluded that Nigerian English is institutionalized error or bad English. Such scholars are Brann (1985); Oji (1984); Jowitt (1996); Prator (1968); Vincent (1974); Salami (1968) etc. One of the shocking statement that clearly shows the total rejection of Nigerian English was made by Oji (1984) and continues to say “the death kneel of Nigerian English should be sounded loud and clear as it has never existed and does not exist now and will never see the sun of the day”. This claim succinctly explains that Nigerian English is a deviation from standard British English (SBE). With reference to theforgoing discussion, it is understood that the issue of existence of Nigerian English divided scholars into two groups, that is, deviationist and variationists. Thus, variationists are scholars who recognize the existence of Nigerian English and they include the likes of Adekunle (1974); Jibrin ((1982); Odumuh (1987); Adetugbo (1979) among others. Labeling Nigerian English usage as “same”, “different”, or “similar”, according to Kachru (1992:151), “must be justified in terms of three approaches”, that is, “interference approach, the deviation approach, and the creativity approach”.

However, to clarify the issue of Nigerian English, it is possible to examine the multiplicity nature of Nigerian languages. Bamgbose (1971), in his report, asserts that Nigeria has many ethnic groups and it was estimated that almost 400 languages are spoken in Nigeria. The existence of English in Nigeria results in varieties of English within the variety. In relation to this, other scholars have suggested that Nigerian English should be classified in line with three major

linguistic groups, that is, the Hausa, the Igbo and the Yoruba or what Dadzie (2007:91) classified as North, East and West. Jibrin (1986), on his part, distinguishes between the Hausa variety of English and Southern variety of English. He further claims that within each varieties there is division between what he calls 'Basic' and 'Sophisticated' varieties. Yet, to avoid all the confusions concerning the number of English varieties developed in Nigeria as a result of different languages, some scholars the like of Banjo (1995) and Jowitt (1991) have coined the new term called 'Popular Nigerian English' (PNE). The reason behind calling this term popular Nigerian English, according to Jowitt (1991), "the usage of every Nigerian user is a mixture of standard forms and popular Nigerian English forms, which are in turn composed of errors and variants".

On his part however, Brosnahan's (1958) regards education as the main criterion in defining English varieties. He further identified four levels of proficiency in the use of English: variety I describes the performance of the users who have no formal education (pidgin). Variety ii represents the performance of Nigerian speakers of English with only primary education completed. Variety iii describes the level of proficiency in the use of English with only secondary education completed. Variety iv represents the performance of Nigerian speakers with only university education completed. According to this classification, the level of performance progress with the educational achievement of the users. This assumption, though, were identified with many deficiencies; partly because the placement of pidgin in this classification is problematic, since Nigerian scholars do not recognise pidgin as a variety of English alone, but rather as an independent code.

Unlike Brosnahan's classification, Banjo's (1971) classification is centered on linguistic parameters than educational attainment. These varieties are, according to Banjo (1995: 209),

distinguished base on the degree of their deviation approximation to a world standard. This classification, perhaps, is rested on the use of the criteria of local acceptability in Nigeria and international intelligibility. He further classified Nigerian English into four varieties: variety I exhibits the greatest density of mother –tongue transfer, especially in phonology and vocabulary and it is used by with an imperfect knowledge of the English language. Variety ii is closely related to Standard British English (SBE) in syntax but with deviant phonological and lexical correctness, and it is variety marked by high social acceptability. Although variety iii is more closed to SBE but, according to Banjo (1996:78), “it represents the acroletal use of English in Nigeria”. He further submits that such variety has RP deep structure and Nigerian surface structure. Therefore, this variety is marked by low social acceptability and high international intelligibility. However, variety iv is characterized with completeness because it is marked with low social and high international intelligibility and it equates SBE but locally ridicules.

In his effort to classify the variety of spoken English in Nigeria, Odumu (1987:37) identify four existing varieties of spoken English as follows: 1. Sophisticated or near native variety. 2. Standard or educated variety. 3. Basic or general variety. 4. Non-standard. But from knowledge of the use of English Nigeria, Nigerians generally aspire to a form which could be called Standard Nigerian English. Even though there is no homogeneous accent, but it is possible to identify at least a southern and northern variety, and this is a common core which makes it identifiable from other standard spoken elsewhere.

But Jibril (1986) argues that the best way to identify varieties of Nigerian English is to recognize a continuum and plot variation within it. Within the continuum, he identifies four varieties such as Sophisticated Hausa English (S.H.E), Sophisticated Southern English (S.S.E), Basic Hausa English (B.H.E) and Basic Southern English (B.S.E). This continuum is a pyramid like shape

that indicates the competent levels of various speakers in a speech community with the most competent speakers at the top of the pyramid and less competent at the bottom of the pyramid. He further concludes that Sophisticated Hausa English and Southern English constitute standard Nigerian English.

Also, Odumuh (1987) and Adekunle (1979), in their attempt to classify Nigerian English, come up with three broad types of English that can be identified in Nigeria. These varieties include: (i) near native speaker type (ii) local colour type (iii) incipient bilingual type. The variety one is more close to native speaker English, although local colour could be traced here and there in spoken English of Nigerian speakers. But the local colour variety is highly exploited as a result of borrowing, adaptation and translation but its basic structure of English remains intact. However, the incipient bilingual variety has to do with the influence of local sociolinguistic factors which result in wrong choice of synonyms or preposition and omission of articles.

### **2.3 Phonological Features of Nigerian English**

Nigerian English (NigE), like other new Englishes, possesses unique features at various domains of phonology (segmental and suprasegmental). Most notably, as pointed out in the foregoing discussion, throughout Nigeria, there is no uniform accent of spoken English. In fact, NigE varieties often differ considerably in phonological system from Standard British English (SBE) and General American English, although the Standard Nigerian English exhibits evidence of appropriate segment and non-segment distinctions that can be understood and recognized both nationally and internationally. Thus, Jibril (1986), Jowitt (1991) examine the phonological features of Nigerian English, with special emphasis on three major Nigerian languages: Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo. At segment level, phonemes, in Nigerian English, have a wide range of different

realizations compare to Standard British English (SBE). This is because the existence of sub-varieties which correspond to the different ethnic groups within a particular environment. For instance, in Nigeria there are at least three major languages, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba, and each language has its own different phonological systems. Thus, Mesthrie (2008:38) asserts that “Hausa, for example, has five vowels which all have phonemic length contrast and a number of realizations that include centralized vowels. Igbo has eight vowels and set of vowel harmony rules, whereas Yoruba has seven vowels with phonemic length contrast”. In this regard, three broad Nigerian accents are clearly identified, that is, the Hausa accent in the North, the Igbo accent in the East and the Yoruba accent in the Southwest. Bamgbose (1971:42) observes that the Hausa “insert a vowel between a syllable-final consonant and initial consonant of immediately following syllable, saying [reziginei n] for resignation”. But the peculiarity of the Hausa accent, according to Jibril (1982) “is even more in evidence in the pronunciation of RP [o,ð] and [ ] “, and “is the occurrence of [a]for RP [ :] across the board”. Thus, Dunstan (1969:170) and Tiffen (1974:198) claim that Yoruba nasalize pre-nasals vowel, therefore producing [pen] for (pen), [tins] for (things), [modan] for (modern). Also, the Igbo pronounce your as [jud] or [jd] as oppose to the Yoruba who have [j ] (Awonusi, 1986:556). For more discussion of these aspects of Nigerian English, readers should see Bamgbose (1971), Jibril (1982), Dunstan (1969) and Awonusi (1986). So, when the speakers of these ethnic groups come to learn English; definitely there is clear expectation of reduction in the number of vowel-phonemes of the target language, let say English. Partly because their language has limited number of vowel sounds, althoughthe Standard Nigerian English according to some scholars has a total of 43 phonemes, that is, 19 vowels and 24 consonants as against 44 phonemes of British English. Indeed, these phonemes are realized differently from RP because they are reduced. RP

phonemes / / and /i:/ are reduced to only one corresponding phonemes. For instance, in Nigerian English ‘bid’ and ‘bead’ are pronounced both /bid/. Therefore, RP /æ /, / /, / / and / :/ are reduced to only corresponding phonemes, so that ‘stock’, ‘stuck’ and ‘stork’ are all /st k/. Also, there is no / / phoneme in NigE but /a/ most often being used instead. Barber et al., (2012:252) assert that there are perhaps no diphthongs in Nigerian English, the speaker only tending to replace them by a sequence of two vowels: the word ear, for example, is [i-a] pronounce as two syllables, although some researchers claim that the Standard Nigerian English has three diphthongs which include closing, centering and opening.

At suprasegmental level, the great divergences are found between basic varieties of Nigerian English and RP at the level of word stress. More importantly, stress placement appears in polysyllabic word where the NigE varieties map on one of the two melodies to apply to all such words regardless of where RP has the stress in any of them. For instance, basic varieties of Nigerian English marked with tendency for forward stress, as opposed to back stress in RP, e.g. sa’lad, col’league, mat’tress, pe’trol, bar’rier, while in RP are often pronounced as ‘salad, ‘colleague, ‘mattress, ‘petrol, ‘barrier. Therefore, the speakers of NigE shift the stress from the first syllable to the second. Similarly, basic varieties of NigE reverse the order of primary stress and secondary stress in words, therefore producing ‘education, ‘federation, etc., for RP edu’cation, fede’ration, etc. For further discussion of this area, the early work of Simo Bobda (1993) provides a comprehensive classification of these stress deviations found in NigE. It should be noted that these divergences are found in the basic varieties of NigE. Perhaps there is no significant difference in word stress between sophisticated varieties of NigE and RP. Also, it was identified that intonation is an area where the greatest divergence is found between NigE and RP. On the other hand, sophisticated varieties of NigE share some of the more subtle intonational

patterns of RP such as the use of contrastive or emphatic stress to convey attitudes and additional meaning (see Jibril 1982).

With reference to the above discussion, it was discovered that most of the researches conducted on spoken English in Nigeria were centered around segmental and suprasegmental, but little attention has been paid to what happens when sounds are connected together. Although at present time, there has been an increasing interest in the investigation and analysis of connected speech in the Outer and Expanding Circle, with a view to provide a comprehensive description on the productive and receptive aspect of the learners and also to create a situation in which learners of English language will be able to produce appropriately connected speech. When we take Nigeria, where English is a second language, there are conspicuous efforts made by some seasoned scholars in the investigation of some connected speech processes, though the works were very few. For example, Laver (1968) offers a brief informal description of assimilation in Nigerian English (henceforth NigE) and compared it with Received Pronunciation. It was clearly observed that the author does not categorise Nigerian English as partial failure; despite the fact that he identified some instances which appeared to be normally used in Nigerian English but totally absent in Received Pronunciation. Not surprisingly, Laver (1968 cited in Oladipupo, 2014:2), claims that Nigerian English (NigE) exhibits extensive cases of assimilation of place across a word or morpheme boundary, for example, “hard blow” [hab blo], “goodbye” [gub bai], and allows regressive voicing assimilation, for example, “get back” [geb bak] “make them” [meg dem], whereas received pronunciation (henceforth RP) does not.

Building on Laver’s research, Oladipupo (2014) investigates another aspect of connected speech processes in Nigerian English. The findings clearly show that NigE speakers tend toward CSPs that are more natural, especially the one that requires less articulatory effort. This is because

most dominant CSPs favour devoicing, homorganic nasal assimilation, and deletion. However, another work by Oladipupo (2014) is “Social and linguistic correlates of r-liaison in educated Yoruba English”, which systematically study the social and linguistic distribution of r-liaison in the speech of educated Yoruba English. The findings clearly show, despite r-liaison is not a predominant feature of speech in NigE, it exhibits social and linguistic patterning in educated Yoruba English. Generally, r-liaison or linking /r/ can be defined as a link between words through the articulation of a normally unarticulated final /r/.

#### **2.4 Definition of Connected Speech**

In spoken language, there are many processes that result in differences between isolated words and the same words occurring in continuous sequence, that is, when sounds and words are connected together to make up longer utterances. It should be noted that when we speak naturally we do not pronounce a word, stop, and then continue, but rather the fluent speech flows with rhythm and words meet each other by chance. In essence, the speed and rhythm of speech can cause some segments to adopt weaker articulation, some to drop out, some to be inserted and some to change their character altogether. Therefore, the changes that affect the quality of sounds and words are known as features of connected speech. Crystal (2008:101) asserts that connected speech refers to “spoken language when analysed as a continuous sequence, as in normal utterances and conversation”. The sounds and words are not only flowing continuously but also in O’Connor’s words (2004:11) “are connected together with others to make up longer utterances”. Also, the words and consonantal segment, in connected speech, can have different realizations compared to when they are uttered as part of words in citation forms. For this reason, Knight (2012:197) defines connected speech processes as “changes to the sounds when words are put together in groups, that is, when words are in connected forms”. This definition

stresses that the changes or modifications of segments normally occur at word boundaries in stream of speech, But Kerswill (1986 as cited in Oladipolu, 2014:1), reveals that in connected speech only the less prominent consonants, vowels, or the syllables in words may be modified or totally dropped; then the adjacent sound may become more like each other or a sound may be inserted to allow for speech fluency. However, caution has to be taken in treating Connected Speech Processes, partly because in a longer English utterance some words are treated as being more important to the meaning than others; therefore, O'Connor (2004:11) expounds that "words which are not regarded as being particularly important often have a different pronunciation". For instance, some function words, in English, possess an alternative pronunciation in a very rapid speech. Besides, all languages, in most cases, have some rules concerning adjustment in connected speech, though Celce-Murcia et al. (2010:175) opine that no other language has exactly the same rules as English, and teaching the conventions specific to English.

These phenomena of connected speech, according to Heike (1984:54), could be considered as "prominent markers of running speech", since they "occur in speech with sufficient consistency to be considered regular features of fluency". To buttress this point, the term connected speech, however, can be called running speech; simply because it is often difficult to understand English speakers when they are speaking in a casual speech- which often sounds fairly fast. Several attempts by researchers to find a single terminology attach to connected speech have not been successful, though Alameen and Levis (2015:5) assert that "connected speech terminology varies widely, as does the classification of the CSPs". Well, this simple statement express that it is impossible to have a single terminology assign to connected speech. But in phonology, there exist a group of scholars who widely regard Connected Speech Processes as processes of sound modifications or adjustments, which closely related to 'fast speech', 'casual speech rules',

‘reduced forms’, ‘Sandhi variations’, or ‘running speech’ (Ingram, 1989:1; Clark et al. 2007, Alameen and Levis, 2015). With reference to this point, while Heike (1984:54) opines that the phenomena of connected speech could be considered as prominent markers of running speech since they occur in speech sufficient to be considered regular features of fluency. But Clark et al., (2007:83) maintain that the changes which conventional word forms undergo, in connected speech, “are due to phonetic articulation that is sensitive to the context of rapid speech production”, or due to the temporal and articulatory constraints upon spontaneous, casual speech.

Meanwhile, the production of connected speech processes, in Roach’s (2009:8) perception, has to be linked with articulators above the larynx, partly because all sounds we make when we speak are the result of muscles contracting. Therefore, the size and shape of these articulators above the larynx varies in the production of speech sound. Clark et al., (2007:82), assert that “variations in the size and shape of the vocal tract and articulators are sufficient to yield substantial and persistent difference between speaker and another”. The articulators within the vocal cord for them to take normal positions of articulating particular sound in connected speech; instead they take a new position for every sound tend to connect sounds together using the same or intermediate articulatory gestures to save time and energy. But this saving time and energy in connected speech processes (CSPs), as opined by several scholars like Clark et al., (2007), “are responsible for a large number of variations”. In Standard British English (SBE) and General American English, scholars such as Cruttenden (1994) and Chomsky and Halle (1968) have observed that casual, rapid or colloquial expressions are characterized by considerable amount of phonemic variation among speakers, either within a word, or at word boundaries, or at syllable or morpheme boundaries. But Kohler, in his report (1990:89), provides conditions for any sound variants in an utterance, where he states that changes are only accepted (1) if they bear an

auditory similarity to their points of departure, (2) if the situational context does not force the speaker to rate the cost of a misunderstanding or break down of communication very high.

There are important some point to remember about Connected Speech Processes. More importantly, analysis of connected speech shows these processes are optional and they occur at the edge of words, hence; they must undergo a number of context-induced phonetic modifications or changes that would entirely affect the linguistic units of words. In this regard, the context plays a significant role in determining the nature and structure in which connected speech processes occur and how it affects the linguistic units. But Knight (2012) notes that context affects sound at all phonemic level rather than allophonic level. She further states that when /t/ or /d/ or /h/ is elided in an utterance, for example, we do not find that a different allophone occurs; we simply find that the phoneme is lost altogether. But, in connected speech, collocations are not fixed, and Armstrong (2001:84) argues that “the occurrences of these processes [CSPs] depend far more on phonetic conditioning than on phonological environment”. Partly because only phonetic conditioning, not phonological environment, appears to be a major factor influencing these processes in connected speech. For instance, sound is phonetically modified to become similar or even identical to another sound in its environment. But this typically happens when phonetic segments, which would otherwise be realized fully in isolation, are influenced by the articulatory demands of surrounding segments in some way (Clark et al, 2007:84). For example, in English, to produce place of assimilation, it involves alveolar stops which change their place of articulation to bilabial or velar depending on the surrounding sound, or alveolar fricatives which may change their place of articulation to post-alveolar when followed by a post-alveolar or palatal consonant.

Interestingly, another factor contributes in modifying the phonetic properties of a word, according to Gimson (1980:287) is “the accentual or rhythmic group of which it forms part”. English is classified as a stress-timed language, implying a regular rhythm of stressed syllable. Rhythm, in this regard, is the movement in speech, which is marked by stress, timing, and quantity of syllables. For this reason, being a stress-timed language, there is a strong tendency in connected speech to make stressed syllable follow each other as nearly as possible at equal distance. As far as is known, every language in the world is spoken with one kind of rhythm or with the others. For instance, French, Telugu and Yoruba are syllable-timed languages, while English, Russian and Arabic are stress-timed languages. Therefore, in stress-timed languages like English, it sounds very awkward to make each syllable the same length, it is important to have contrast, some long and some short syllables. Infact, in an utterance, if there is a regular occurrence of stressed syllable at regular intervals of time, definitely, there must be a rhythmic crushing of syllables. Pike (1945:34), in his reaction, submits that:

this rhythmic crushing of syllables into short time limits is partly responsible for many abbreviations- in which syllables may be omitted entirely- and obscuring vowels; it implies, also, that English syllables are of different lengths, with their length of utterance controlled not by the lexical phonetic characteristics of their sounds but also by the accident of the number of syllables in particular rhythmic unit to which they happen to belong at that moment.

The rhythmic crushing of syllable allow the speaker to say more in less time by omitting or inserting sounds that are not heard in isolation. With reference to this statement, connected speech allows the speakers to speak efficiently, saying most in a short of time, and to speak with flow and music is called rhythm. For instance, if there are two or three unstressed syllables between the stressed syllables, according to O’Connor (2004:96) “the unstressed syllables before the stress are said very quicly, so they are all very short as you can make them; but the stressed

syllable is as long as before, so there is a great difference of length between the unstressed syllables and the stressed one”. In addition, in order to keep rhythm, if there is no unstressed syllable, the stressed syllables are stretched out to space them equally. Therefore, the time it takes to say something in English depends on the number of stressed syllables, not the number of syllables.

The above discussion has touched some aspects of social and linguistics, therefore connected speech processes is a complex phenomenon involving aspects of sociolinguistics and phonetics in its study. This is because connected speech processes (CSPs) are among the most diverse, complex and fascinating phonological phenomena that required a deserving and greater attention in the field of phonetics and sociolinguistics (Alameen and Levis, 2015:21). Amazingly, in recent year, there has been convergence of interest on the part of phoneticians and sociolinguists in the study of connected speech processes (Kerswill, 1987; Dressler and Wodak, 1982). At first place, the idea of combining phonetics and sociolinguistics in the study of connected speech was found to be debatable; consequently, some researchers claim that these phonological phenomena should be studied only in phonetics not in sociolinguistics, since they are phonetically motivated, and they are associated with articulatory economy (Abercrombie, 1967; Foulke, 2006) as well as the operation of aerodynamic principles in the vocal tract. However, the set of phenomena which can be labeled as connected speech processes include various kinds of assimilation, reduction as well as epenthesis (insertion) of segments. At first sight, according to Kerswill (1986:40), ‘these processes seem to be quite different from the variables usually studied by sociolinguist, since they are clearly in some way phonetically motivated’. But in reality the occurrence of most of these connected speech processes have been observed to be language, variety, or dialect-specific. With reference to this statement, Kerswill argues that these processes must be included in

sociolinguistic description (1) because they may be variety-specific, and may therefore serve to differentiate (groups of speakers), and (2) because, like ‘ordinary’ variables, they may be subject to linguistic change. As explained earlier, these approaches share certain characteristics, to some extent, and perhaps sociolinguistics has incorporated all the modern phonetic methods in the quantitative analysis of language variation and change.

With this arising development, Connected Speech Processes (CSPs) are widely studied nowadays in the field of phonetics and sociolinguistics. Most basically, the interface between sociolinguistics and phonetics is called sociophonetics. Thus, phonetics, when examined closely, “is the aspect of language that is most easily observed because it can be physically measured in sundry ways, and sociophonetics takes phonetics as an entry point into language” (Thomas, 2010:2). However, the phonetics research generally deals with articulatory, acoustic and auditory aspect of the sounds used in languages. While the early sociolinguistics research, in speech production, is traditionally based on auditory and acoustic analysis of segmental properties (Celeta and Calamai, 2011:1), with little emphasis on articulatory; and this, indeed, could be seen in the work of early sociolinguist like William Labov who has popularized the use of spectrographic analysis in the study of accent variation, focusing mostly on formal analysis of vowels in some dialects of English (e.g., Labov et al. 1972; Labov 1994-2001).

But on the contrary, at a forefront of instruments for articulation is electropalatography (EPG). Thus, it is a technique that detects the tongue’s contact against the hard palate during speech and creates a visual display of the resulting pattern (Howard and Lohmander, 2011). Recent theory of electropalatography shows that the articulatory constraints on speech production have a large explanatory power with respect to phenomena of connected speech such as palatalizations, place of assimilations, segmental reductions etc., that are very often shown to be determined or

influenced by socially structured variation (Celeta and Calamai, 2011:2). Similarly, the publication by Wright and Kerswill (1989) reported on an articulatory and perceptual study of connected speech processes, with special focus on the assimilation of a final alveolar to a following velar or bilabial. According to Wright and Kerswill (1989) “the EPG investigations shows that this assimilatory processes is gradual in articulatory terms, not discrete, as assumed in most phonological theories”.

For more detailed coverage of Connected Speech Processes, the readers are advised to read Gimson and Cruttenden (2008:266-269), Roach (2009:89-95). More specifically, so many articles as well as journals on connected speech processes have been proliferated, with an attempt to examine and analyse their characteristics. For instance, some of these studies systematically investigated the processes such as Linking in American English (Alameen, 2007; Hieke, 1987; Temperly, 1987), British English Liaison (Allerton, 2000), assimilation and palatalization (Barry, 1991), Nasalization (Cohn, 1993), Contraction (Scheibman, 2000), and Deletion (Norris, 1994). Various data were collected, though their efforts in these various studies are mainly concerned with investigation of articulatory systems, perceptual processing as well as acoustic-phonetic description of the processes involved. In fact, the study of these connected speech processes are likely to be explicable in terms of vocal tract characteristics and of the motor control mechanism, as well as being influenced by speaking rate and degree of articulatory care.

The above studies, when critically analysed, mainly focus on Standard British and General American English; but similar interesting studies in the analysis of connected speech processes have been conducted in other languages, for instance, the early study by Kohler (1990), however, proposes an explanatory account of connected speech processes where he investigated

phonological facts and phonetic explanations of /r/ vocalization, weak forms, elisions and assimilations in German. Handcastle et al., (2012:7-19) assert that Kohler arrives at the conclusion that the so-called connected speech processes are a global phenomenon of reduction and articulatory simplification. In a similar vein, Igram et al., (2008), however, studied the connected speech in Warlpiri an indigenous language of central Australia, and the findings clearly show that radical lenition processes occurred in word and final syllable sequences, particularly those carrying inflectional suffixes

#### **2.4.1 Weak forms**

Sound is the smallest unit of spoken English, as such, the combination of sounds makes syllables; hence some of them are stressed while some are unstressed. Thus, the unstressed pronunciation is known as the weak form and the stressed pronunciation is the strong form. For this reason, in connected speech, Ladefoged and Johnson (2011:138) note that “words may reduce so their pronunciations are weaker than they are when you cite them from a list of words”. The key difference between citation speech and connected speech is the variable degree of emphasis placed on words in connected speech; therefore, weak forms can be seen as a process of weakening of the vowel to the central vowel schwa in unstressed syllables that is, making it less strong or powerful in an utterance.

Weakening refers to words which have various pronunciations. In phonetics, there are certain well-known English words which can be pronounced in two different ways, strong and weak forms. These words are referred to function words, although function words often when produced in the context of sentence not only lack stress, but also their pronunciation differ from that when produced in isolation. For instance, the words like pronouns (e.g. ‘she’, ‘he’, ‘her’, ‘him’),

auxiliary verbs (e.g. ‘do’, ‘must’, ‘should’), conjunctions (e.g. ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘or’), articles (e.g. ‘a’, ‘an’, ‘the’) or prepositions (e.g. ‘for’, ‘to’, ‘at’) can either be weak or strong depending on the context (Kreidler, 2004:223; Roach, 2009:99).

Below are the lists of words which have one pronunciation in their unaccented (normal) weak form and second in their accented strong form.

Auxiliary verbs	Unaccented	Accented
Am	< m > /m, m, m/	/æm/
Are	< ‘re > / / before consonants / r, r/ before vowels	/a:/ /a:r/
Can	/k n, kn,	/kæn/
could	/k d/ before consonants /kd/ before vowels	/k d/
Does	/d z, z, s/	/du: /
Have	< ‘ve > /h v, v, v/	/hæv/
must	/m st/	/m st/
Was	/w z/	/w z/
should	/ d/ Vowel + / d/	/ d/

Preposition and conjunction	Unaccented	Accented
And	/ nd, nd, n, n/	/ænd/
But	/b t/	/b t/
For	/f /before consonants /f r, fr/ before vowels	/f :(r)/
From	/fr m, frm/	/fr m/
Of	/ v, v, /	/ v/
To	/t / before consonants /tu / before vowels	/tu: /

Pronoun and determiners	Unaccented	Accented
A	/ /	/e /
An	/n/ / n/	/æn/
he	/h , i:/ ([h ])	/hi:/
her	/h , :, /	/h :/
some	/s m, sm/	/s m/
the	/ ð , ði:/ before vowels /ð / before consonants	/ði:/
them	/ð m/	/ð m/
your	/j /	/j :(r)/

Source: Cruttendent (2008)

The above tables show that weak forms are used in two different ways, that is, accented and unaccented forms and their use, especially the unaccented forms, added the general fluency in an utterance. Understandably, the speaker must know that these unaccented words are not essential for intelligibility of an utterance; they are weak, so according to Crystal (2008:519) “the weak form is that which is the result of a word being unstressed”. This implies that they are unstressed because they are not given an extra force used when pronouncing words in an utterance.

In connected speech, the content words, being the ones that convey the most information, should be pronounced loudly and clearly (stressed), simply because these words are considered as being more important to the meaning than others. In addition, O’Connor (2004:11) asserts that “words

which are not regarded as being particularly important often have a different pronunciation". Therefore, a function word has two different pronunciations. For example, the word 'can' 'a' can be pronounced in strong and weak form, examples, Yes we can! /kæn/ and 'a car' /'ei 'ka:/ with strong form in stressed position, and we can do it! /k n/ or /kn/ and I bought a car /ai 'b :t ka:/ with a weak form in an unstressed position.

Weak forms are usually distinguished by a change in vowel quality from a boarder position on the vowel quadrilateral to a central position as explained above. The vowel in weak form is usually ( ), therefore, they are pronounced more quickly and at lower volume in comparison to stressed syllables. Their main function is to serve as grammatical cement holding content words together, as well as maintaining relationships between higher syntactic units such as phrase and clause. In addition to this, there a logical explanation behind the occurrence of weak forms; so they are present in words which are necessary to construct a phrase, although they do not communicate a large quantity of information, in such a way; they are not content words.

The primary function of Connected Speech Processes in English is to promote the regularity of English rhythm by compressing syllables between stressed elements and facilitating their articulations so that regular running speech timing can be maintained (Clark and Yallop, 1995 cited in Alameen and Levis, 2015:4). This can be succinctly explained that in spoken English, some words in an utterance were given much emphasis, while others were even eliminated, simply because they are less important in the conveyance of the message. For example in the following phrase:

**I went to the hotel and booked a room for  
twonights for my father and his best friend**

The most important words are in bold, so they are central to the message and they can be emphasized. The words that are not emphasized are eliminated. Also, the words which are emphasized would bear stress, while those which are eliminated would become weak forms, simply because they are less important in the conveyance of the message.

With reference to the foregoing discussion, the most notable factor that is related to this weakening, according to Ladefoged and Johnson (2011), is stress. In linguistics, stress simply means an extra force given to a word or syllable when producing it. English has been classified as stress-timed language, trying to make the intervals between stressed syllables equal; so to give phrases rhythm, we tend to swallow or compress certain non-essential words, so that we can say the most in the shortest amount of time, with flow and music. Thus, Low (2014:77) affirms that the rhythmic patterning of English does help to account for the realization of weak forms or reduced vowels in connected speech. Perhaps this phenomenon causes comprehension problems for the learners, especially for those whose language is syllable-timed. For instance, most Nigerian languages are classified as ‘syllable-timed’ languages; if the speaker uses syllable-timing when speaking English, he may well be faced with a difficulty to produce certain sound appropriately as used in connected speech. In fact, this may cause communication gap between a native speaker of English and non-native speaker. It should be noted that English is very rhythmical language, so that a learner who can maintain the rhythm of the language is more likely to sound both natural and fluent. To speak English fluently, the learner should understand that English has arrangement; consequently, the arrangement of weak and strong syllables imparts rhythm in speech (Nitin, 2010:137). So the prominent syllables occur at regular breaks with of the weak syllables occurring between them. In order to sound natural however, it is necessary to weaken the vowels of the unstressed syllables and pronounce them.

Also, the importance of weak form can be illustrated in the following sentences:

- 1) **There**were rather a lot **of**them.
- 2) Why **was**there nobody there **to** meet **them**?

In the first sentence, we have identified five weak forms, ‘there’, ‘were’, ‘a’, ‘of’ ‘them’. Usually, in spoken English, the word with a weak forms are more numerous and, this is because they are pronounced more quickly and at lower volume in comparison to the strong one, and it is described as the normal pronunciation, therefore, do not pronounce the sentence with the same emphasis. The second example, the sentence has a contrast between a word in stressed and unstressed position. Therefore, have four weak forms, ‘was’, the first ‘there’, ‘to’, and ‘them’ and four strong forms, ‘why’, ‘nobody’, second ‘there’ and ‘meet’, so here there are contrast between unstressed ‘there’ and stressed ‘there’ in the same sentence.

Based on the above observation, the weak forms are normally used as result of speakers making their pronunciation of words as efficient as possible without compromising effective delivery of their message. But O’Connor (2004:92) asserts that English people often think that when they use these weak forms they are being rather careless in their speech and believe that it would be more correct always to use strong forms in their speech. For this reason, Wells (2008:891) advices both ‘learners of English’ (i.e. non-native speakers of English) and even the native speakers to use weak forms (rather than strong) forms in their pronunciation. Thus,Low (2014:84), in his view, suggests that it is important for first language speakers of English to bear in mind the use of full vowels when communicating with non-native speakers is important as it helps to enhance intelligibility when communicating with second language speakers, although this suggestion was strongly criticized by several scholars. For instance, Jenkins (2003 cited in

Low, 2014:84) argues that connected speech processes tend to occur in quick speech and that the generally slower rate of speaking of non-native speakers would very likely not trigger such processes. This assertion, according to O'Connor (1980:92), "is not true"; partly because, "English spoken with only strong forms sounds wrong". This statement reveals that the use of weak forms is essential part of English speech; so learners must learn to use weak forms in their spoken English.

#### **2.4.2 Elision**

In connected speech sometimes sounds do not just change in the way they are pronounced or realized but are simply elided or deleted. Elision or deletion, according to Crystal (2003:158), "is another most striking form of adjustment in connected speech, which is concerned with the omission of sounds". This simply means that the sound, present in the citation forms, that is, in isolation, is deleted or disappear but under the influence of the context. To buttress this assertion, Roach (2009:113) opines that the sounds omission occurred under certain circumstance, i.e., a phoneme may be realized as zero. These circumstances, according to Clark and Yallop (1995:90), may include the sounds that are "weakly articulated that they no longer have auditory significance or they may be omitted altogether in the stream of running speech". But this phonological phenomenon as expounded by Roach (2009:113) "is a characteristic of casual speech, or rapid and colloquial speech".

Thus, in Old English (OE) the weakly accented syllables, according to Cruttenden (2008:250), "have undergone a process of reduction whereas the same process of reduction, with resultant contraction, may be observed in operation in Present English". Therefore, in treating elision

caution has to be taken to distinguish between cases of elision which have been established in the English language for some time and those which have become current only recently.

On the other hand, many previous researchers, such as Clark et al. (2007) and Ladefoged and Johnson, (2001), are of the opinion that the essence of elision can be attributed to the law of economy where the speakers economize on the effort, avoiding; for example, difficult consonant sequence by eliding sounds (Field, 2003 cited in Alameen and Levis, 2015:4). For example,

/lɑ:st ta m / becomes /lɑ:s ta m / last time

/ ɒ ld ted/ becomes / ɒ l ted/ Old Ted

/lɑ:stka:/ becomes /lɑ:s ka:/ last car

Here the final alveolar plosive /t/ and /d/ are often elided when attached in syllable-final position or in between two other consonants just to ease articulatory system in a rapid speech. But this can also occur within affricates /t / and /d / when preceded by a consonant, e.g.

/l nt ta m/ becomes /l n ta m/ Lunch time

/stre nd de / becomes/stre nde / Strange days

In this case, elision is a common speech simplification process and can occur either in single word or in connection between two words. More specifically, connected speech processes allow the speaker to say more in less time (Clark et al., 2007:87), or effort (Ladefoged and Johnson, 2011:111).

English demonstrates two main phonetic environment where elision occur: the syllable-final clusters involving /t,d/, the elision of / / . But Low (2014:78) opines that the most common types of sound deletion are schwa deletion, /h/ deletion, /t/ deletion and /d/ deletion. It seems, in most cases, the consonant elision occurs flanking where the position of elided phoneme is at edge of the word in citation form. Thus, Flanking elision primarily affects alveolar plosive

consonants; and it is a common speech simplification process because it can occur either in single word or in connection between two words. For instance, Cruttenden (2008:304) expounds that “cluster of word-final /t/ and word-initial /t/ or /d/ are sometimes simplified in informal speech, e.g. I’ve got to go. /a v g t ‘g /, what do u want /w d ju: ‘w nt/, or / w d u: ‘w nt/”

On the other hand, elision has to be combined with assimilation, for example:

/kɑ:nt bi:/becomes /kɑ:m bi:/ can’t be.

/hændbæg/ becomes /hæmbæg/ handbag

In the first example given above, the final alveolar plosive /t/ is deleted and the later nasal alveolar regressively assimilated with its place of articulation of its successor which is bilabial plosive. Also, in the second example, the final voice alveolar plosive /d/ is deleted and leaves /n/ in a position which regressively assimilated with its place of articulation of its successor which is bilabial plosive. Based on these examples, connected speech processes have potential to influence meaning, therefore, /kɑ:m bi:/ a rendition of ‘can’t be’ with elision, or is it simply ‘can be’ in real life, the context and knowledge of the speaker’s habitual patterns and preferences would help you to decide, and you would probably opt for the most likely meaning. But learners, as Knight (2012) posits “are rarely confused by CSPs [connected speech processes]”, although level of confusion “do have the potential to cause misunderstanding”.

However, phoneme /t/ is fundamental part of the negative particle not. Thus, Cruttenden (2008:304), in his book (Gimson’s pronunciation of English), rightly observes that the /t/ of the negative /-n/ is often elided, particularly in dissyllables, before a following consonant, e.g. You musn’t lose it / j m sn lu:z t /, sometimes before a vowel, e.g. you mustn’t over –eat / j m sn v r i:t /.

A second form of elision involves the omission of schwa /ə/ before lateral /l/ and approximant /r/. In connected speech, /ə/ can be easily elided at word boundaries when the sound comes at the beginning of a word, positioned between two stressed syllables. A good example is ‘camera’ where the middle syllable is often elided in connected speech so that /kæm r ə/ is realized as /kæmr/. Here the unstressed vowel is therefore, elided. In this respect, elision can be found at word internal and the elision of vowel can be classified as allophonic variation. Thus, phonemic elision, according to Cruttenden (2008:302) “occurs when one syllable ends with a closing diphthong and the next syllable begins with a vowel, the second element of the diphthong may be elided”. Hence, schwa is often elided when it occurs between consonants in non-word final position and the result may be neutralization, smoothing as in the case of or as result of what called rhythmic structure of English, example of words:

/fra t n ɪ / becomes / fra tn ɪ / frightening

/ h st ri: / becomes / h stri: / history

/ha ‘i:n / smoothed to / ha ‘i:n /hyaena

Indeed, this may result in neutralization, but similar smoothing occurs across word boundaries, e.g.

Go away /g : ‘we /

I enjoy it / a n ‘d t /

Sometimes elision occurs alongside with linking especially when final /r/ occurs in with the following linking /r/. For example: as a matter of fact / z mætr v ‘fækt /

It is well-known fact that the consonant in terms of elision followed the central principle of English three adjacent rules where the internal one is dropped. However, such elision appears to take place most readily when /t/ or /d/ is the middle of one of the three consonants as in

/ w ndskri:n / is pronounced / w n skri:n / Windscreen

/ kr stm s/ is pronounced / kr s m s / Christmas

The internal alveolar plosives /d/ and /t/ are deleted, though elision of the alveolar plosive is relatively rare before /h/ and /j/ (Cruttenden, 2008:303).

Another very common of elision that affects the weak forms of function words like ‘he, him, his, here, have, had’. The initial /h/ in function words is often elided in casual speech, even in accents that normally retain /h/. For instance, generally, /h/ is elided in pronominal weak forms, the weak form of the pronoun, especially when they do not occur at the beginning of an utterance, for example, he passed his exam /h ‘pɑ:st z g ‘zæm/.

### **2.4.3 Liaison**

Different authors use the term ‘liaison’ in different ways, but some are of the opinion that it refers to a transition or link between sounds or words. For instance, according to Crystal (2008:280) “liaison is a term used in phonology to refer to one of transition between sounds, where a sound is introduced at the end of a word if the following syllable has no onset”. In another perspective, liaison generally defined as the smoothing out of syllable boundary in speech by adding the phoneme that is not heard in isolation. Thus, Kenworthy (1987:136) opines that liaison can be seen as the smooth link between a final consonant in one word and an initial vowel in the next word. This assertion implies that the appearance of consonant in connected speech, especially before a word with an empty onset belonging to an arbitrary lexical class, is good example of liaison. More specifically, liaison has been defined as a link between words through the articulation of a normally unarticulated word-final consonant, which is articulated only when preceded by a vowel in the same word, and followed by an initial vowel in the next word. A rather broad definition sees liaison merely as a transition between words in connected

speech, particularly when this involves an unusual phonetic feature (Skandera and Burleigh, 2011:57).

Relatively speaking, the distribution of liaison is syntactically conditioned as such liaison is the pronunciation before the following vowel, in certain syntactic context of a word-final consonant that is silent in the other relevant phonetic contexts, i.e. before a consonant or pause (Armstrong, 2001:177-78, Lodge, 1997:95). Thus, liaison, as Skandera and Burleigh (2011:57) pointed out in their book “A Manual of English Phonetics and Phonology”, is notably feature in French, but also the use of this term is sometime restricted to the description of that language. But Lodge (1997:96) argues that this phonological phenomenon “is also found in English, which in its standard British variety has the liaison consonant /r/ in a word like hear, which is silent before a consonant or pause, but pronounced before a vowel”. This idea can be well illustrated on the basis of sentence:

the aroma of tea greeted you as you entered our office

/ði:jə r m r v ti: ˈgri:t d ju: z juw ˈent d ar ˈ f s/

If transcribed the above sentence phonemically in rapid speech, three linking phonemes are used to bridge the gaps between the words, this is because linking in connected speech requires having no pauses between words within a stream of speech. This type of liaison often links two consecutive vowels belonging to different syllables or words. In this regard, the articulatory break, or gap, at syllable or word boundary of the consecutive vowels are said to be “in hiatus”. Meanwhile, McNerney and Mendelsohn (1992:194) assert that “the sentence where linking is required students must not pronounce words as separate entities, but make the words flow smoothly together.” Therefore, liaison is a link between sounds or words through the insertion of

an additional sound, usually for ease of pronunciation. There are three linking phonemes in the present day English.

The first type of liaison is palatal approximant /j/, which is normally inserted in casual speech. For example, the exercise /ði: jeks sa z/, the /j/ is used to bridge the gap between two vowel sounds. But the environment for such linking /j/ has to follow certain restrictions, for example, it only occurs in words that end with long /i:/ or diphthongal glide /ɪ/ as in my exercise /ma jeks sa z/. Thus, Cruttenden (2008:306) opines that in vocalic juncture where the first word ends in /i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /a/, or /ɔ/, a slight linking [j] may be heard between the two vowels, e.g. my arms /ma 'ja:mz/, may ask /me 'ja:sk/, he ought /hi: 'j :t/".

The second one is a labio-velar approximant /w/. This, normally, occurs in the construction of sentence as in no apple /n wæpl/ where it bridges between diphthongal glide and next vowel, or we could have context where syllable of word is in long /u:/. This also follows certain restrictions, for instance, a linking [w] may be heard between a final /u:/, /ɪ/ and /ɔ/, and a following vowel, e.g. window open [wind w p n], now and then [n w nd 'ðen] (see Cruttenden 2008).

In some accents of English, the linking /r/ is the most prominent example of the third type of liaison described earlier. In essence, these accents, according to Skandera and Burleigh (2011:26), "have lost the /r/ phoneme almost entirely over the centuries (although it still occurs in the spelling)". In present English, some phonemes are used to bridge the gaps between two vowels. There are two variants of /r/ liaison in present day English, that is, the linking /r/ and intrusive /r/. But the most well known phoneme in this respect is alveolar approximant /r/ which is generally referred to as linking /r/. Also, Skandera and Burleigh (2011:58) assert that linking

/r/ is “a link between words through the articulation of a normally unarticulated word-final /r/, especially when they are followed by a vowel”. In non-Rhotic varieties of English like “BBC speakers pronounced r at the end e.g. ‘the car is ‘ð kɑ:r z’ (Roach, 2009:50). Non-rhotic accent of English is also called an r-less accent or non-r- pronunciation, but the phoneme /r/ in this accent is articulated only before a vowel, not before a consonant or pause. This implies that the first linking /r/ which is orthographically present vocalic /r/ is pronounced between two vowels. In other words, a rhotic accent is called an r-full accent, or an r- pronouncing accent. This accent is one that has not lost the /r/ phoneme over the centuries. Therefore, the /r/ phoneme in rhotic accent is articulated whenever it occurs in the spelling. For this reason, the speakers of Standard British English and American English tend to pronounce the final /r/ as a linking /r/. For example, mother and father / m ðr n ‘fɑ:ð / or here and there /h ɪr n ‘ðe /, far away /fɑ:r ‘we /, four eggs /f :reg/. But the linking /r/ is more commonly added in rhotic varieties of English, like America, than British English.

Meanwhile, intrusive /r/ is another phenomenon of liaison. The rhotic and non-rhotic varieties of English, have gone a stage further, and have introduced /r/ into environment in which words never had a final /r/. In this case, the phoneme is inserted even there is no /r/ in the spelling, for words that never contained an /r/ when spoken in isolation, and in these instances the process is called intrusive /r/ (Knight, 2012:203). Also, the intrusive /r/, according to Skandera and Burleigh (2005), “is a process whereby a non-etymological /r/ is inserted to remove a hiatus between two consecutive vowels belonging to different words.” The environment for intrusive /r/ is restricted to a number of vowel { , ɑ:, , }# +Vowel that occurs at the end of the first word, for example:

India and China / ɪndiə rɪndtʌn /

Law and Order / lɔ: rɒndɔ:d /

This is called intrusive /r/ because the /r/ is inserted even where there is no r in the spelling. Notice intrusive /r/ also happens before words which have elided /h/. For example: Emma and Anna've gone.

Another aspect of liaison in English is the movement of a single consonant at the end of an unstressed word to the beginning of the next if that is strongly stressed: a well-known example is 'not at all', where the t of 'at' becomes initial (and therefore strongly aspirated in the final syllable for many speakers). In another case, consonant to vowel linking (c-v) take place when a final consonant of a vowel is followed by a vowel in the same thought group (Alameen, 2007:8). For example, look out / lʊk aʊt /, less often /lez'fn/, watch out /wɒt aʊt /, I need it / a ni:d t/

Finally, English speech is subdivided into tone units and within each intonation units only few words are stressed. Therefore, this triggers the following processes; assimilation that is phonemic change, elision is the omission of phoneme, weakening is the reduction of vowel in monosyllable function words and liaison is the process of linking.

## **2.5 Speech Sound**

Speech, as we are accustomed to thinking of, is a relatively continuous flow of sounds. In speech production, without sound there is no speech. The sounds we make in the production and perception of speech are not occurred suddenly, but in Roach's (2010:8) words, "all the sounds we make when we speak are the result of muscles contracting in the vocal tract". To put it simply, Clark et al. (2007:15) assert that the lungs, trachea, larynx, pharyngeal, the oral cavities, and the nasal passage constitute as a group what is termed the vocal tract. They serve as sound

source where organs of speech combine to produce speech sounds. But the combinations of organs of speech require a complementary movement. And to affirm this statement, O'connor (2004:9) claims that a sound is made by definite movement of organs of speech. With reference to this definition, this movement made by organs of speech is not just movement or energy or noise, but a systematically organized activity, intended – under normal circumstances – convey meaning(Clark et al., 2007:2). However, to clearly demonstrate how speech sounds are produced, Fromkin et al., (2011:195) state that most speech sounds are produced by pushing lung air through the vocal cords – a pair of thin membranes – up the throat, and into the mouth or nose, and finally out of the body. In brief, energy is required to produce speech sound of any kind.

When properly scrutinized, speech sounds are not produced randomly as caution has to be taken in order to recognize not only the use of sounds but also the pattern and distributions of sounds in a particular language. In relation to English, Roach (2009:35) opines that only by studying both the phonetics and phonology of English, if possible to acquire a full understanding of the use of sounds in English speech. In fact, understanding the relationship between phonetics and phonology would be enhanced by our being more inquisitive about the characteristics of natural speech production.

To put it succinctly, several scholars, especially in linguistics, observed that the sound system of a language can be studied and analyzed from two broad perspectives, namely: phonetics and phonology. Thus, Phonetics and Phonology, according Clark et al.2007:1) “are concerned with speech – with the ways in which humans produce and hear speech”. This definition implies that an important aspect of the general characteristics of language is the notion which is concerned with the fact that all languages get their own distinct rules and principles to govern the usages,

patterns and distributions of sounds. Therefore, all human languages handle readily with the speech sounds by having several ways of comprising the systematic and functional properties to express them in a meaningful way. It seems that in linguistics there is a strong link between phonetics and phonology. But the link between them remains a controversial issue among the linguists, simply because some see it as a process where phonetics gathers raw material whereas phonology cooks it. For this reason, the link is, as Clark et al. (2007:3) put it, a kind of division of labour between phoneticians and phonologists. However, it is necessary to delve into several literatures to expound the basic elements of phonetics and phonology and analyse the differences between them.

Firstly, it is clear, phonetics is a general study of the characteristics of speech sounds (Yule, 2006:30, Fromkin et.al., 2005:222), but it be regarded as the inventory and structure of speech sounds. On his part, Odden (2005:4) views phonetics “as the concrete, instrumentally measurable physical properties and production of speech sound”. With refence to this definition, phonetics, being a concrete, could be the study of production, transmission and reception of speech sounds. Thus, Roach (2009:63), on the other hand, concludes that “phonetics is the scientific study of speech”, partly because it deals with concrete characteristic of human sounds andit tells us how the sounds of language are made and what their acoustic properties are.Infact, this approach is scientific because the analysis of its subject matter is accurate and verifiable. For this reason, some scholars, especially Carr (2008), Cruttendent (2008), Clark et al. (2007), attempt to categorize phonetics into three types according to production (articulation), transmission (acoustic) and perception (auditory) of sounds.

A phonetic study of language provides an inventory and description of all the occurring phonetic segments. For instance, one will be able to identify the restriction in the occurrence of English

consonants and vowels. In English, for example, the string of consonant *zpk* or *bns* is not permitted, but *[str-]* is, as in *[streit]*, or *[pl-]* is, as in *[pleis]*. Thus, Crystal (2008:363) argues that “phonetics is the science which studies the characteristics of human sound – making, especially those sounds used in speech, and provides methods for their DESCRIPTION, CLASSIFICATION and TRANSCRIPTION”. Therefore, the central concerns in phonetics, according to Roach (2009:63), “are the discovery of how speech sounds are produced, how they are used in spoken language, how we can record speech sounds with written symbols and how we hear and recognise different sounds”. Therefore, phonetics is not only the study of production of sounds as produced by the organs of speech, but also deals with the analysis of the sounds of languages in terms of articulation, transmission and perception.

Phonology, on the other hand, has been defined extensively for several decades by different scholars such as Roach (2000, 2009), Clark and Yallop (2007, 1990), Cruttenden (2008). For instance, Phonology is defined as the study of sound system that is the study of how speech sounds function and structure in languages (Cruttenden, 2008). But, Fromkin and Rodman (1973) define it as “the system and pattern of speech sound”. On his part, Crystal (1982) views it as “the study of the sound system of a particular language”. These two definitions reveal that every language in the world has a sound system and the basic sounds of natural languages (vowels and consonants) have unique organization, grouping, patterning and distribution. Also, Clark et al. (2007:2) asserts that phonology is often concerned with the organization of speech within specific languages, or with the systems and patterns of sounds that occur in particular languages.

Since phonology investigates the systematic organization of sounds in a particular language, it is also the task of phonology to study which differences in sounds are related to differences in

meaning in a given language, or in which way the discriminative elements are related to each other and the rules according to which they may be combined into words and sentences. With regard to this, phonology can also be seen as the study of the rule system that governs how particular speech sounds are used to produce meaningful words. Thus, Crystal (2008:365), in his perspective, observes that “sounds are organized into a system of CONTRAST, which are analyzed in terms of PHONEMES, DISTINCTIVE FEATURES or other such phonological UNITS, according to the theory used”. This assertion points out that phonology is concerned with phonemes, partly because, according to Roach (2009:64), “the most basic activity in phonology is phonemic analysis in which the objective is to establish what the phonemes are and arrive at the phonemic inventory of the language”. Thus, Trubetzkoy (1939) observed a similar trend in phonology where he asserts that “it is the task of phonology to study which differences in sound are related to differences in meaning in a given language, in which way the discriminative elements...are related to each other, and the rules according to which they may be combined into words and sentences.

However, speech sound, in every language, can be divided into vowel and consonant, popularly called segments. In linguistics, the description of vowel and consonant can be identified in both phonetics and phonology. For instance, j in ‘yet’ and w in ‘wet’ are phonetically vowels but function phonologically as consonants. Therefore, Clark et al. (2007:2) concludes that a general description of how vowel sounds can be made and perceived might be the province of phonetics while the analysis and description of the vowels of English might be assigned to phonology.

## 2.6 Vowel Sound

In an attempt to define vowel sound, Carr (2008:190) asserts that “vowel is any sound which occupies the nucleus of syllable and is produced with a stricture of open approximation”. But the most common view, according Roach (2010:10) “is that vowels are sounds in which there is no obstruction to the flow of air when it passes from the larynx to the lips”. Thus, Pike (1943) argues that the sound produced through this way should not be called ‘vowels’ but rather ‘vocoids’ as the term vowel is traditional way of describing sounds. On his part also, Crystal (2008:517) provides clear description of how vowel sounds are articulated as follows:

phonetically, vowels are sounds articulated without a complete CLOSURE in the mouth or a degree of narrowing which would produce audible FRICTION; the air escapes evenly over the centre of the TONGUE. If air escapes solely through the mouth, the vowels are said to be ORAL; if some air simultaneously released through the nose, the vowels are NASAL.

With reference to the above assertion, there are two most fundamental articulatory manoeuvres in producing various types of vowel sounds, that is, the shape and position of tongue, and the shape and degree of protrusion of the lips. It is common knowledge that the tongue and lips undergo transition in anticipation of a sound, but according to Clark et al., (2007:22) “the major challenge in describing the articulation of vocalic sounds is to define the position of tongue”. In attempt to define the positions of tongue, seasoned scholars, such as Daniel Jones, have devised Cardinal Vowels, which will serve as standard reference points for the vowel description. But, the use of Cardinal Vowels appears to be abortive. It was discovered that there is difficulty of Cardinal Vowel system in the specifications of tongue position which clearly suggests invariant for each vowel quality. Yet, there are large number of literature in the field of phonetics and phonology

that extensively described vowel sounds, for example, Jones (1975); Abercrombie (1967); Ladefoged (2006); Clark et.al., (2007); Roach (2009).

For more specification, the English language has a large number of vowel sounds, which approximated to be twenty, and they can be classified as short or long vowels (often called pure vowels), and diphthongs or triphthongs. The pure vowels are those vowels which are produced by the movement of the tongue in one direction only. Thus, Roach (2009:17) opines that “a vowel which remains constant and does not glide is called a pure vowel”. Also, they are also characterized as simple vocalic sounds that have ‘a steady state of articulation’ implying that the tongue, lips and jaw achieve, however briefly, a stable configuration, commonly called Target configuration, if produced in isolation (Clark and Yallop, 1990:73). Basically, the pure vowels are divided into two, that is, short and long vowels. Short vowels, according to Roach (2009:13), are only relatively short and the symbols for these short vowels are: /e /, /ɪ /, /æ /, / ɪ /, / ʌ /, / ʊ /, / ʊ /, while the long vowels tend to be long not only in length but also in quality; their symbols consist of one vowel symbol plus a length mark of “dots”: such as /ɑ: /, /i: /, /u: /, / ɪ: /, / ɔ: /.

Unlike the pure vowels, diphthongs generally are regarded as double sounds, though they can be described by a glide from one vowel position to another. Clark and Yallop (1990:73) argue that the glide component is so prominent even though it is still heard as a single sound”. This is, perhaps, the most important thing to remember about all diphthongs is that “the first part is much longer and stronger than the second part”(Roach, 2009:17). Thus, English has a total number of eight diphthongs, for examples, centering diphthongs are three normally ending in ‘ ɪ ’, ( e ɪ , e ɪ , and ɪ ɪ ), and closing diphthongs, three normally ends in ‘ ʊ ’, (‘a ʊ ’, ‘e ʊ ’, and ‘ ɪ ʊ ’), and two ending in ‘ ɔ ’ (‘ ɔ ɪ ’ and ‘a ɔ ’). Apart from diphthongs, there are others sounds which are the most complex English sounds; they are often called triphthongs. Thus, the triphthongs are union or

fusion of three vowels pronounced in a single syllable, for example, /e / as in ‘layer’, player, and /a / as in ‘fire’, ‘lire’, /a / as in ‘hour’, ‘power’, / / , as in ‘loyal’, / /, as in ‘lower’. Roach (2009:19), in his view, argues that a triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption.

Vowel sound can be classified not only according to their tongue height but also their frontness or backness. Therefore, each vowel has a number of properties that distinguish it from other vowels. These include the shape of the lips, which may be rounded (as for an u: vowel), neutral (as for schwa) or spread (as in smile, or an i: vowel) (Roach 2009b:98).

## **2.7 Consonant Sound**

Phonetically, consonants are “sounds made by a CLOSURE narrowing in the VOCAL TRACT so that audible FRICTION is produced” (Crystal 2008:103). Consonant, in articulatory phonetics, is a sound in spoken language that characterized by a closure or stricture of the vocal tract sufficient to cause audible turbulence. Thus, vocal cords are thin membrane in the throat. Therefore, if they vibrate, it is said to be voiced, as in the production of /b/, /d/, /g/, /v/. / ð /d /z/, / / . But if the vocal cords do not vibrate, it said to be voiceless, as in /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /m/,/n /, / s/, / l/, /r/, /w/, / t /, / j /, / /, / 0 /, / ŋ /, /h/. Yet, human produces consonant sound with three different degrees of stricture. These structures, according to Carr (2008::32), are: “complete closure, close approximation and open approximation”.

The above classification of consonant is based on phonetic criteria; although the alternative approach is to look at the phonological characteristics of consonant. Phonologically, they can be defined in terms of their position in syllable structure. Thus, Roach (2009:18) notes that consonants “are typically found at the beginning and end of syllables while vowels are typically

found in the middle”. In similar trend, Carr (2008:32) posits that some consonants, such as the glides [w] and [j], often called semi consonants, share with vowel, a structure of open approximation, but, unlike vowels, do not occupy the head of syllable nucleus. For example, English has a complex syllable structure involving beginning (onset) and ending (coda) consonant clusters. English can include three consonant cluster before a vowel (CCC in the initial position of a word) and maximally four consonant clusters after a vowel (VCCCC in the final position of a word). The word strengths, for instance, exemplifies this English feature (CCCVCCCC).

## **2.8 Stress and Rhythmic Patterns in Connected Speech**

To understand what stress is all about, there is need, at first, to know the meaning of syllable. Thus, syllable, in linguistics, is a basic unit or heart of speech sound studied on both the phonetic and phonological analysis. The speakers of a language intuitively recognize the phonological units of their language and can usually count the number of syllables in a word without difficulty, although linguists have yet to agree on the accurate definition of the syllable (Crystal 1981:342). The syllable can be classified in terms of phonetics and phonology. For instance, syllable, in Fromkin et al.’s (2011:257) perspective, “is a phonological unit composed of one or more morphemes”. Thus, Laver (1994:114) argues that syllables, phonologically, can be defined as “a complex unit made up of nuclear and marginal elements”. The nuclear elements are the vowel or syllabic segments; also marginal elements are consonants or non-syllabic consonants. For example, in the syllable paint /pe nt /, the diphthong /e / is the nuclear element, whereas initial consonant /p/ and the final cluster /nt/ are marginal elements. But phonetically speaking, syllables, as opined by Roach (2000:70) “are usually described as a consisting centre which has little or no obstruction to airflow and which sound comparatively loud; before and after that

centre (...) there will be greater obstruction to airflow and/or less loud sound". For instance, in monosyllable word bag /bæg/, the vowel /æ/ is the "centre" at which little obstruction takes place, although there are complete obstruction to the airflow for the surrounding plosives /b/ and /g/.

When words are combined into sentences in English, the stressed syllables tend to recur at regular intervals of time. In the English language, for instance, some words have more than one syllable, as a result, not all phonological units receive equal amount of prominence; as such the speaker of English will pronounce one unit of sound more louder than the other unit even within the same syllable. It is almost certainly true that in most languages, some syllables are stronger than other syllables; these are syllables that have the potential to be described as stressed (Roach, 2009:80). Thus, stress is one of the so called suprasegmental features, along with rhythm and intonation, and it can be defined as a degree of force used in producing a syllable. But Trask (1996:336) argues that stress is a certain type of prominence, which in some language, is present upon certain syllables. For this reason, the stressed syllable sounds are more prominent because the stress is also associated with an intonational pitch, accent (e.g. Bolinger 1958 cited in Clark et al., 2007:331). The prominence is usually due to an increase in loudness of the stressed syllable, length and often pitch may contribute to the overall impression of prominence. Therefore, pitch, loudness, quality and quantity may help to render a syllable more prominent than its neighbours, although earlier attempts to identify stress with greater intensity of sound are now discredited among the scholars, but the current thinking holds that stress is primarily a matter of greater muscular effort by the speaker, then the listeners take advantage of several type of information to identify that effort.

Native speakers of English often find it easy to determine which syllable bear stress, and even to distinguish varying degree of stress. The reason behind this is stress actually refers to perception, and syllable is perceived as more prominent, and that the stressed syllables tend to recur at regular intervals of time. It is understandable that English is traditionally classified as stress-timed language. Thus, the stress-timed language, as classified by Pike (1945), has the intervals between stressed syllables, and this is called isochronous (Kreidler, 2004:223). This means the intervals are nearly equal in time. The speakers, in stressed-time language, try to make the amount of time to say something the same between stressed syllables, that is, inter-stress interval tends to have the same duration. For instance, in the situation where there are three or more unstressed syllable between the stressed syllables, therefore the stressed syllable will be spoken faster, so that the speaker can keep the rhythm- one pattern contains a perceptually salient followed by a less salient syllable (Carr, 2008:150), so the speaker has the ability to retain stress and rhythm patterns of English and this will add tempo to the speech. For this reason, stress and rhythm are the backbone of English pronunciation. The rhythm, however, has a correlation with stress, since the spoken English words with two or more syllables have different stress and length patterns. Therefore, some syllables are stressed more than other and some syllables are pronounced longer than others. With reference to this conclusive evidence, English is rhythmical language, so that a learner who can maintain the rhythm of the language is more likely to sound both natural and fluent. The readers interesting in finding out more about English stress, intonation and rhythm can consult the following sources: Pike (1945), Kreidler (2004); Roach (2009), Clark et al. (2007); Cruttenden (2008) and O'Connor (2004).

It is well known fact that in connected speech the simplification processes affect unstressed words, therefore in order to keep the rhythm, if there no unstressed syllable between stressed

syllable; the stressed syllables are stretched out to space them equally. Also, it is important for non-native speaker to understand and master the rhythm of English, simply because if wrongs are stressed in a sentence or if all words are pronounced with the same length or loudness, the speech will be difficult to understand. But, Roach (2009) argues that “it would be wrong to imagine that stress pattern is always fixed and unchanging in English words”. The speakers will realize that stress in connected speech is not fixed and can change in the process of speaking, as such the speakers should know the stress words that are essential for the intelligibility of an utterance and drop the stress of words that not that important. In addition, the stress position in the process of speaking varies, but it varies according to Roach (2009) for one or two reasons: either as a result of the stress on other words occurring next to the word in question, or because not all speakers agree on the placement of stress in some words. Here, the speaker’s intentions as well as the context in which words appear would affect the stress patterns of words, as the speaker, in this context, prefers to use simplification forms. Thus, Bybee (2002) suggests that high-frequency words and phrases are more often subject of structure simplification than low-frequency words.

The works of Cruttenden (2008) and Roach (2009) provide comprehensive explanations to which a word on the primary stress happens to move a preceding secondary stress, and the primary accent may be lost, if, in connected speech, a strong accent follows closely.

## **2.9 Theoretical Framework**

Natural Phonology (NP) is adopted as theoretical framework of this study, partly because it provides explanations for substitution, alternation, and variations in the speech of second language speakers (Oladipupo, 2014). It is a phonological theory which explains the discrepancy

between what the speakers intend to pronounce and what they end up pronouncing, or the discrepancy between the sounds that the listener expects the speaker produce and the actual speech signal produced. To buttress this claim, Donegan and Stampe (1979) assert that Natural Phonology “considers the focus of phonology as the discrepancies between perceived and intended sound and the actual, pronounced sound”. The proponent of this theory was Stampe who popularized the idea in his dissertation published in (1969) and later expounded by Stampe and Donegan (1979). This theory, at the beginning, was designated in the context of children’s acquisition of phonological systems as developed by Stampe (1979). Thus, Grunwell (1997:37) argues that “the notion that phonological phenomena are governed by natural forces in human systems of vocalization and auditory perception. By natural, we mean ‘natural occurring,’ given the nature of human perceptual capacities and the human speech apparatus. The Natural sounds are those that are learned sooner by children and this appears in more languages. According to Donegan and Stampe (1979:163):

The principle of naturalness allows one to establish a possible phonological representation: if a given utterance is naturally pronounceable as a result of certain intention, then that intention is a natural perception of the utterance (i.e. a possible phonological representation).

In acquiring phonological system, children begin with a set of innate and universal processes and learn to suppress those that do not occur in their home language. But the children, according to Gordon-Brannan and Weiss (2007:44), “are limited physiologically in the ability to produce some sounds and thus use phonological substitutions, omitting sound features that are difficult to produce”. Children may not have sufficient ability to fully co-ordinate the movement of their vocal apparatus; therefore, certain sounds, sound combinations or transitions from one sound to another may be currently too difficult for them to produce, so they simplify the production of

complex words. It should be noted that this process of simplification is not only exhibited by children, but also adult speakers, in their spoken language, used to simplify or substitute difficult sounds. Some scholars believe that this substitution of one sound to another is pronunciation error, but Stampe (1979) argues that these processes are not really 'error' at all but are called phonological processes. With reference to this perception, Stampe (1979:1) continues to argue that these phonological processes are not phonological deviation but rather:

a mental operation that applies in speech to substitute, for a class of sound or sound sequences presenting a specific common difficulty to the speech capacity of the individual, an alternative class identical but lacking the difficult property.

In relation to foregoing discussion, the study aims to examine the use of Connected Speech Processes in the spoken English of Postgraduate students. Technically, these processes, in natural phonology, are regarded as articulatory adjustments occur during speech production. They alter the articulatory gestures that a speaker ends up using in the production of fixed strings of phonetic segments. Speech production is not only a series of isolated events but also a series of continuous sequences, as in normal utterance and conversation, often results in the articulation of one sound affecting that of another. Thus, Osisanwo (2009:126) opines that phonological processes "are the various modifications that various speech sounds are subjected to in order to make them more similar to their neighbours". With respect to this statement, Oyebade (2008:61) reveals that these sound modifications in spoken language are "motivated by the need to maintain euphony in a language or to rectify violations of well-formedness constraints in the production of an utterance". Natural Phonology does not focus so much on well-formedness as on linguistic production and perception. In essence, many language users face difficulties to maintain euphony in a language, therefore Natural Phonological Processes constitute natural responses of the

human vocal and perceptual systems to the difficulties encountered in the production and perception of speech. Thus, Dziubalska-kolaczyk (2007:3) submits that:

It is more difficult, on purely aerodynamic ground, to produce a voiced stop than a voiceless one, as well as a voiced velar stop than an alveolar one, while a bilabial one is the easiest of the three.

With reference to Carr's (2008:108) assumption, the human system used in the production and perception of speech sound is as follows:

...the final devoicing, which is arguably grounded in the phonetic fact of vocal cords will tend to cease to vibrate at the end of an utterance. Another example is the natural tendency for vowels to undergo nasalization when followed by a nasal stop.

It was discovered that human systems engage in so many activities which give birth to different processes; and these processes are either fortition, that is, they ensure perceptual clarity in pronouncing different words; or they are lenition, that is, they represent change toward articulatory simplicity enabling the vocal apparatus to do less. This means, in casual speech, these articulators in order to take normal positions of articulation, instead they take a new position for every sound.

Also, the primary aim of connected speech is to ease communication rather than accuracy. In this respect, Natural Phonological Processes propose that innate simplification processes account for differences between children's and adults' speech patterns. When learning to talk, for instance, children attempt to match their pronunciation to adult model but tend to simplify their speech sound production as they change the innate phonological processes to match the form by suppressing and reordering phonological process as they develop (Gordon-Brannan and Weiss 2007:44). Thus, acquiring the phonology of a particular language, in Oladipupo's (2014:2) words "requires learning to gradually constrain, suppress, or order the application of those processes

rather than following rules". Natural Phonology, however, is a set of universal process that can be suppressed on a language-particular basis. But Donegan (2002:64) argues that universality of process does not mean that they apply in all languages- only that they are motivated in all speakers. This implies that these processes are phonetically motivated mental substitution arise as a result of difficulty to pronounce certain sound. For this reason, the processes allow for those substitutions so as to adapt the speaker's phonological intention to his/her phonetic capacities as well as enable the listener to decide the intentions from the flow of speech (Dziubalska-Kolaczyk 2007:71).

Although these phonological substitutions or simplifications are innate or natural, they cannot be controlled even when the child or adult learner reached certain developmental stages where they are expected to apply phonological system in their speech. But Clark et al (2007:412) submit that as the child comes closer to an adult competence, processes will be suppressed or limited in response to the demands of the phonological system. Also, Donegan and Stampe (2009) are of the opinion that the inability to fully suppress a process by child, as well as an adult learner for the second language, consequently result in frequent sound change, variable pronunciation, or speech defect. Such active processes are what governed allophony, variation, automatic alternation, one's native accent, and one's foreign accent in second-language learning (Donegan and Stampe, 2009:1). But the occurrence of most of these processes in connected speech has been observed to be language variety or dialect specific, perhaps each language variety or dialect appears to have its set of rules that regulate their language.

Natural Phonology, according to Oladipupo (2014:3) "has improved the knowledge of how language functions, and has practical applications to acquisition of secondlanguage" and it

particularly, provides a means of accounting for the second second language speaker's systematic patterns of deviation.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the procedure to be used in carrying out the study or research work, it therefore deals with the followings: population of the study, sample size, sampling techniques, data collection instrument, procedure for data collection and analysis procedure.

#### **3.2 Population of the study**

The population of this study comprises of 2014/15 session post-graduate students of Bayero University, Kano, in the Department of English and Literary studies. The total number of participants involved in this study was thirty (28); they were enough to administer the instruments. However, these students have a typical quality that we expect, partly because all have been studying English at an advanced level; this implies that they have a good proficiency of English, and they have the knowledge of connected speech and isolated colloquial speech.

#### **3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques**

The sample is a fraction or small part of population intended as representative of the whole. Morgan and Kreycie (1971) opine that for the population that runs in hundreds (100) a seventy (70) sample is recommended but if it runs in a thousand (1000) a two hundred and seventy eight (278) sample may be drawn. For this reason, the total number of the population intended to use in this study are thirty (30), therefore, the sample size selected to represent the whole as recommended by Morgan and Kreycie (1971) would be twenty eight (28) students. This

clearly shows that the sample random technique is employed considering the fact that each member of the population has equal chance of being selected.

### **3.4 Data Collection Instrument**

This research attempts to examine the use of some connected speech processes in the spoken English of postgraduate students in the Department of English and Literary Studies at Bayero University, Kano. In conducting this research, oral test was employed to collect the data needed. Thus, the respondents designed to use in this study were twenty eight. To collect the data from available respondents, two different tasks were introduced. For the first task (Task A), the respondents were given the list of words, phrases and sentences on the tables, which exhibit features of weak forms, liaison and elision, to read in a casual way. It is worth mentioning here that most of these instances of connected speech used in this study were cited from the works of Cruttenden (2008) and Roach (2009). In the process, however, each of the respondents was observed individually while reading and their voices were recorded concurrently using a mobile phone.

For the second task (Task B), two topics “Marriage” and “Football” were introduced to the participants. In this case, each of the participants was given time to discuss, in brief, about one of the proposed topics by using some words, phrases and sentences which exhibit instances of weak forms, elision and liaison as reflected on the tables in their spoken English, while their speech was recorded individually; though the respondents, at this stage, were not only restricted on the use of those listed words on the tables, they were allowed to use others examples apart from the ones listed on the tables, since they have knowledge of connected speech.

### **3.5 Data Collection Procedure**

The sample participants, whose area of specialization is English language, were postgraduate students from the Department of English and Literary Studies. In the process of collecting data, the participants, in the first task (Task A), were allowed to read list of words, phrases and sentences on the tables. In the second task (Task B), the participants were also allowed to discuss, but in brief, about the theme of 'Marriage' and 'Football', whilst their voices were recorded into a mobile phone. Then, the recorded speech is used to identify where instances of Connected Speech Processes were applied and it was later transcribed.

### **3.6 Procedure for Data Analysis**

The collected data is analysed by the use of frequency distribution table and simple percentage. In this respect, simple computation was used, but the information obtained from various sources used to analyse and answer the problem raised in the research questions.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND FINDINGS

#### 4.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to present and analyse the findings of this study. In the process of collecting the data of this research, twenty eight postgraduate students of the 2014/2015 academic session from the Department of English and Literary Studies of Bayero University, Kano, were randomly selected as sample of this study. As it was mentioned earlier, the respondents have the knowledge of connected speech and isolated colloquial speech. Therefore, an oral test was employed to extract available data from their speeches. Technically, to extract the data, two different tasks were introduced. For the first task (Task A); the respondents were given words, phrases and sentences, each exhibiting features of weakening, liaison and elision, to read in casual speech while their voices were recorded concurrently. As mentioned in Chapter Three also, most of the instances of connected speech processes used in this study were cited from the works of Cruttenden (2008) and Roach (2009). Meanwhile, in the second task (Task B), the respondents were given time to use some of the words, phrases and sentences used in task A and apply them in spontaneous speech while their voices were recorded. It should be noted that only features of connected speech processes produced by the respondents were transcribed. Then, the data were presented in simple percentage in tabular form.

## 4.2 Data Presentation

**Task A:** Performance of the students on the reading tasks

**Table 4.1-** Pronunciation showing feature of Weak forms

Sentences and Phrases used	Pronunciation showing features of weak forms	Responses Made by the students	Percentage of Students used to produce weak forms	Percentage of Student not able to produce weak forms	Total Percentage
They can wait	[ðe k n 'we t]	[ðe k n we t] [ðe 'kæn 'we t] [ðe 'kæn we t] [ðe 'ka: 'we t] [ðe k n 'we t] [ðe k n we t] [ðe 'ka:n we t] [ðe 'kæn 'we t] [ðe 'kæn we t] [ðe 'ka:we t] [ðe 'kæn we t] [ðe 'kæn we t] [ðe 'kæn we t] [ðe 'kæn 'we t] [ðe 'kæn 'we t] [ðe 'ka:n we t] [ðe k n we t] [ðe k n we t] [ðe k n 'we t] [ðe k n 'we t] [ðe 'ka:n 'we t] [ðe k n 'we t] [ðe k n 'we t] [ðe k n we t] [ðe ka:n we t] [ðe k n we t] [ðe 'ka:n 'we t] [ðe 'k n 'we t] [ðe k n we t] [ðe 'ka:n 'we t]			

Shut the door	[ t ǒ 'd :]	[ t ǒi 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t ǒ 'd :] [ t ǒi: 'd :] [ t ǒi: 'd :] [ t ǒ 'd :] [ t ǒi 'd :] [ t ǒi d :] [ t ǒi: d :] [ t ǒi 'd :] t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t ǒ 'd :] [ t ǒ 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t ǒ 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t ǒ 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t 'ǒi: 'd :] [ t ǒi 'd :] [ t ǒ 'd :] [ t ǒi 'd :]	17.7	82.3	100%
		[ri:dɑ: 'b k] [ride 'b k] [ri:de 'b k] [ri:dɑ: 'b k] [ri:d 'b k] [ride 'b k] [ri:de 'b k] [ri:de 'b k] [ri:dɑ: b k] [ri:de 'b k] [ri:de b k] [ri:dɑ: b k]			

read a book	[r i: d 'b k]	[r i d e 'b k] [r i: d e 'b k] [r i: d e b k] [r i d e b k] [r i: d 'b k] [r i: d 'b k] [r i: d e 'b k] [r i: d 'b k] [r i: d 'b k] [r i d ɑ: b k] [r i: d ɑ: b k] [r i: d e 'b k] [r i d e 'b k] [r i: d e 'b k] [r i d e 'b k]			
take your time	[t e j 't a m]	[t e k 'j : 't a m] [t e k j 't a m] [t e 'j r 't a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e j t a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e 'j 't a m] [t e k j 't a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e k j 't a m] [t e 'j r 't a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e 'j r 't a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e 'j r 't a m] [t e j t a m] [t e j t a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e j t a m] [t e j t a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e 'j r 't a m] [t e 'j r 't a m] [t e 'j 't a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e 'j : 't a m] [t e k j 't a m] [t e 'j : 't a m]			

		[te k j 'ta m]			
From work	[fr m 'w :k]	['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m w :k] [fr m w :k] ['fr m w :k] ['fr m w :k] ['fr m w :k] ['fr m w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m w :k] [fr m w :k] [fr m w :k] ['fr m w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k] ['fr m 'w :k]			
		[tra tu 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra tu 'st p] [tra t 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra 'tu 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra tu 'st p] [tra t 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p]			

try to stop	[tra t 'st p]	[tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra 'tu st p] [tra 'tu 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra t 'st p] [tra t 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra 'tu 'st p] [tra t 'st p] [tra t 'st p] [tra 'tu: 'st p] [tra 'tu: st p] [tra 'tu st p] [tra 'tu st p]			
-------------	---------------	---	--	--	--

From table 4.1, only 5 respondents representing 17.7% were able to produce phrases and sentences with features of weak forms in their spoken English, whereas 23 respondents representing 82.3% were not able to produce it. This indicates that most of the respondents do not produce the weak forms of such words can /k n/, the /ð /, a / /, your /j /, from /fr m/ and to /t / in their spoken English.

**Table 4.2-** Pronunciation showing features of consonant elision

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation	Responses made by the studens	Percentage of Students used to elide consonants	Percentage of Student not able to elide consonants	Total Percentage
		[ m s 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [ m s 'tra ] [ m s 'tra [ m st 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [ m s 'tra ]			

Must try	[m s 'tra ]	[m s 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [m st 'tra ] [m s 'tra ] [m s 'tra ]			
Last time	[la:s ta m]	[la:s ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:s ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:st ta m] [la:st ta m]	60.7	39.3	100%

		[la:s ta m] [la:s ta m]			
Big grape	[b gre p]	[b gre p] [b g gre p] [b g gre p] [b gre p] [b g gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b g gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b g gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p] [b g gre p] [b gre p] [b g gre p] [b gre p] [b g gre p] [b gre p] [b gre p]			
		[g de ] [g d de ] [g de ] [g d de ] [g de ] [g de ] [g d de ] [g de ] [g de ] [g de ] [g de ] [g d de ] [g de ] [g de ]			

good day	[g de ]	[g de ] [g de ] [g de ] [g d de ] [g d de ] [g d de ] [g de ] [g d de ] [g d de ] [g d de ] [g de ] [g d de ] [g d de ] [g de ] [g de ]			
should have	[ju d v]	[ d v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d v] [ d v] [ d h v] [ d v] [ d h v] [ d v] [ d v] [ d v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d v] [ d h v] [ d h v] [ d v] [ d v]			

Black cap	[blæ kæp]	[blæ kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæk kæp] [blæ kæp] [blæ kæp]			

The table 4.2 clearly shows that 17 respondents representing 60.7% produce consonant elision, while only 11 respondents representing 39.3% were not able to produce speech with instances of consonant elision in their spoken English in reading task. This indicates that most of the respondents elide the consonant cluster in continuous sequences of the following words: black cap [blæ kæp], good day [g de ], and must try [m s 'tra ]. Therefore, this indicates that most of the respondents have full grasp of this phonological process.







		[f 'l sfi] [f 'l sfi] [f 'l s fi] [f 'l s fi] [f 'l sfi] [f 'l s fi] [f 'l sfi] [f 'l sfi] [f 'l s fi] [f 'l s fi] [f 'l s fi]			
potato	[p'te t ]	['p te t ] p'te t ] [p 'te t ] [p'te t ] [p 'te t ] p'te t ] ['p te t ] [p 'te t ] [p 'te t ] p'te t ] [p 'te t ] ['p te t ] [p'te t ] [p 'te t ] [p 'te t ] p'te t ] ['p te t ] [p 'te t ] p'te t ] [p 'te t ] ['p te t ] p'te t ] [p 'te t ] ['p te t ] p'te t ] ['p te t ] p'te t ] ['p te t ]			

The table (4.3) shows that, only 32.3% of the respondents realize the above listed words, phrases and sentences with features of vowel elision in their spoken English, while 67.7% do not. This

means more than half of the respondents do not elide the central vowel schwa / ə / of police [pli:s], potato [p'teɪtə], go away [gə'weɪ], and try again [traɪ'geɪn] in their spoken English.

**Table 4.4-** Liaison: insertion using linking /j/

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation showing features of linking /j/	Responses Made by the students	Percentage of Students used to insert linking /j/	Percentage of Student not able to insert linking /j/	Total Percentage
The exercise	ði 'jeks səz]	[ði: ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði: ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði: eks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði: ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði 'jeks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði: ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz] [ði ks səz]			
		[a gri:] [a gri:] [a a:gri:] [a 'j gri:] [a gri:]			

I agree	[a 'j gri:]	[a a:gri] [a gri:] [a gri:] [a a:gri:]  [a gri:] [a a:gri:] [a 'j gri:] [a gri:] [a a:gri:] [a 'j gri:] [a a:gri:] [a gri:] [a 'j gri:] [a gri:] [a 'j gri:] [a gri:] [a gri:] [a a:gri:] [a gri:] [a 'j gri:] [a gri:] [a gri:] [a a:gri:]	17.7	82.3	100%
They are here	[ðe j h ]	[ðe h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe j h ] [ðe h ] [ðe h ] [ðe h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe j h ] [ðe h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe j h ] [ðe h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe h ]			

		[ðe a: h ] [ðe j h ] [ðe h ] [ðe j h ] [ðe a: h ] [ðe h ] [ðe a: h ]			
Annoy Arthur	n 'ja:0 ]	[ n a:0 ] [ n 'ja:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n 'ja:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n 'ja:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n 'ja:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n 'ja:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ] [ n a:0 ]			
		ma z] [ma z] [ma 'j z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma 'j z]			

My ears	ma 'j z]	[ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma 'j z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma 'j z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma 'j z] [ma z] [ma z] [ma z]			
Beauty and	[bju:ti: 'j nd]	[bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti:      ænd] [bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti:      'j nd] [bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti:      ænd] [bju:ti:      'j nd] [bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti:      ænd] [bju:ti:      nd] [bju:ti:      ænd] [bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti:      ænd] [bju:ti:      nd] [bju:ti:      ænd] [bju:ti:      'j nd] [bju:ti:      nd] [bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti: ænd]] [bju:ti:      ænd] [bju:ti:      'j nd] [bju:ti: nd] [bju:ti: ænd] [bju:ti:      ænd]			



		[a n t] [a n t] [a n t] [a n t] [a n t]			
Now i	[na 'wa ]	[na a ] [na 'wa ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na 'wa ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na 'wa ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ] [na a ]	10.4	89.6	100%
		[ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju w'ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju w'ent d]			

As you entered	z ju went d	[ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju w'ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d] [ z ju ent d]			
Window open	[w nd w p n]	[w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd w p n] w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] [w nd w p n] w nd p n] [w nd p n] [w nd p n] w nd p n] w nd p n]			

Now and then	[na w nd ðen]	[na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na w nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na w nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na w nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen] [na nd ðen]			
two-eyed	[tu: wa d]	[tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: wa d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d]			

		[tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: wa d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d] [tu: a d]			
--	--	---	--	--	--

Table (4.5) shows that only 10.4% of the respondents produce the above sentences and phrases with instances of linking /w/ in their spoken English, while 89.6% do not. This indicates that majority of the respondents do not use linking /w/ in their speeches.

**Table 4.6-** Liaison: Using Linking /r/

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation showing features of linking /r/	Responses Made	Percentage of Students used linking /r/	Percentage of Student not using linking /r/	Total Percentage
Mother and father	m ð r n fa:ð	m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð nd fa:ð ] m ð ænd fa:ð m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð ] m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð m ð ænd fa:ð m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð nd fa:ð m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð m ð n fa:ð ] m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð m ð n fa:ð m ð n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð			

		m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð ] m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð nd fa:ð m ð n fa:ð m ð nd fa:ð m ð r n fa:ð ] m ð n fa:ð			
For instance	[f :r nt ns]	[f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns] [f : r nt ns] [f : nt ns]	39.6	60.4	100%
		[a:ns r t] [a:ns t] [a:ns t] [a:ns r t] [a:ns t] [a:ns t] [a:ns t] [a:ns r t] [a:ns t] [a:ns r t]			

Answer it	[ɑ:ns r t]	[ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns t] [ɑ:ns r t] [ɑ:ns t]			
Far off	[fɑ: r f]	[fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: f] [fɑ: r f] [fɑ: f]			

		[fa: f] [fa: r f] [fa: r f] [fa: f]			
Four access	[f : re s s]	[f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s] [f : re s s] [f : e s s]			
		[we r t] [we t] [we r t] [we t] [we r t] [we t] [we r t] [we t] [we r t] [we t] [we t] [we t] [we r t] [we r t] [we t]			

Wear out	[we r t]	[we t]			
		[we r t]			
		[we t]			
		[we r t]			
		[we t]			
		[we t]			
		[we r t]			
		[we t]			
		[we r t]			
		[we t]			
		[we t]			

The above table displays that 11 respondents representing 39.6% pronounce the above phrases with the features of linking /r/ in their spoken English, whereas 17 respondents representing 60.4% do not. This clearly shows that average of the respondents produce linking /r/ in their spoken English.

**Table 4.7-** Liaison: Using Intrusive /r/

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation showing features of intrusive /r/	Responses Made	Percentage of Students using intrusive /r/	Percentage of Student not able to use intrusive /r/	Total Percentage
Drama and music	[dra:m r m 'mju:z k]	[dra:m r m 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m n 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m n 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m n mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m r m 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m nd 'mju:z k]			
		[dra:m n mju:z k]			

		[dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m r m'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m n mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m nd'mju:z k] [dra:m r m 'mju:z k]			
Area of agreement	['e r r v 'gri:m nt]	['e r r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r v 'gri:m nt] ['e r r v 'gri:m nt]	14.6	85.4	100%



		[r nd 't a n ] [r r n 't a n ] [r n 't a n ] [r nd 't a n ] [r n 't a n ] [r n 't a n ] [r nd 't a n ] [r r n 't a n ]			
Media are to blame	[mi:di ra: t ble m]	[mi:di ra: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu: ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di ra: t ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu: ble m] [mi:di ra: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu: ble m] [mi:di a: t ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di a: tu ble m] [mi:di ra: t ble m]			
		[l : r nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : n ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : r nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ]			

Law and order	l : r nd ' :d	[l : nd ' :d ] [l : r nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : n ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : r nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : r nd ' :d ] [l : r nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : nd ' :d ] [l : r nd ' :d ]			
---------------	---------------	---	--	--	--

The table 4.7 shows that, only 14.6% of the respondents insert intrusive /r/ as they read the above phrases and sentences, while 85.4% do not. This vividly indicates that they do not apply intrusive /r/ in their spoken English

**Table 4.8-** Liaison: Using consonant to vowel linking

Phrases used	Pronunciation showing features of CV linking	Responses Made by the students	Percentage of Students using CVlinking	Percentage of Student not able to use CV linking	Total Percentage
Look out	[l ka t]	[l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k 'ka t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t]			

		[l k a t] [l ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t] [l 'ka t] [l k a t]			
Give in	[g v n]	[g 'v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g n] [g 'v n] [g v n] [g v n] [g 'v n]	50	50	100%

Less often	[Le z' fn]	[Le z' fn] [les fn] [Le z' fn] [les fn] [Le z' fn] [lez ' fn] [Les fn] [les ' fn] [Le z' fn] [lez ' fn] [Le z' fn] [lez ' fn] [Les' fn] [les ' fn] [Le z' fn] [lez ' fn] [Le z' fn] [les ' fn] [Le z' fn] [lez ' fn] [Le z' fn] [lez ' fn] [Le z' fn] [les fn] [Le z' fn] [les fn]			
Watch out	[w t a t]	[w 't a t] [w t a t] [w t a t] [w 't a t] [w t a t] [w 't a t] [w 't a t] [w t a t] [w t a t] [w 't a t] [w t a t] [w t a t] [w 't a t] [w t a t] [w t a t] [w 't a t]			



The table 4.8 shows that 14 respondents representing 50% realize the above listed phrases with instances of consonant to vowel linking in their spoken English, whereas 16 respondents representing 50% do not. This indicates that half of the respondent can use consonant to vowel linking.

**Task (B):** Here is the data collected on performance of the students on spontaneous speech and the data were later presented in tabular form.

#### Respondent 1

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	The media, of agreement	[ðɪ mi:di ][ v 'gri:m nt]	[ð mi:di ] v 'gri:m nt
Consonant elision	I've seen him	a v 'si:n h m	[a v 'si:n m]
Vowel elision	go away	[g : 'we ]	[g : 'we ]
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/	I saw it	[a 's : t]	[a 's : w t]
Linking /r/			
Intrusive /r/	Law and order	[ l :r nd ' :d ]	[ l :r n ' :d ]
C- V Linking	Depends on	[d pendz n]	[d pend z n]

In the spoken English of the respondents, it was analysed that the first respondent produce vowel elision and C-V linking in continuous sequence as identified the above table.

#### Respondent 2

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	To, for, the, a, from	[tu:] [f ] [ði] [e ] [fr m]	[t ] [f ] [ð ] [ ] [fr m]
Consonant elision	Old technique	[a l tek 'n i:k]	[a l tek 'n i:k]
Vowel elision	Perhaps,	[p hæps]	[p'hæps]
Linking /j/	The exercise	ði eks sa z/	ði 'jeks sa z/
Linking /w/	Know it	[n t]	[n 'w t]
Linking /r/	Over and above,	[ v ænd b v]	[ v r nd 'b v]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Most of all	[m s tav ' :l]	m s t v ' :l]

Based on the spoken English of the respondent, this table shows that the respondent produces consonant elision and C-V linking.

### Respondent 3

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	a, was, do, to	[e ][w s] [du] [tu]	[ ] [w z] [d ][t ]
Consonant elision	Last night, last game	[la:s na t] [la:s ge m]	[la:s na t]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/	My opinion, he ought	[ma 'j p nj n] [hi: 'j :t]	[ma 'j p nj n] [hi: 'j :t]
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Over and above, for	[ v r n 'b v]	[ v r n 'b v]

	instance	[f : nt ns]	[f : r nt ns]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Lot of, I need it	[a ni: d t]	[a ni: d t]

This table shows that the respondent applies consonant elision, linking /j/, linking /r/ and CV linking in his utterance. This indicates that the respondent almost produces all the connected speech processes used in this study.

#### Respondent 4

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	to, for, the,	[tu] [f ] [ ði:]	[t ] [f ] [ð ]
Consonant elision	Last match	[la:st mæt ]	la:s mæt ]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Over and above	[ v r nd 'b v]	[ v r nd 'b v]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Lots of	[l t z v]	[l t z v]

As clearly shown in the above table, the respondent uses linking /r/ and CV linking in his spoken English.

Respondent 5

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	To, for me	[f : mi:] [ðɪ] [ t]	[f mi] [ð ] [ t]
Consonant elision	Must try	[m st tra ]	[m st tra ]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/	May ask	[me ɑ:sk]	[me 'jɑ:sk]
Linking /w/	Window open, now and then	[w nd p n] [na ænd ðen]	[w nd w p n] [na w nd ðen]
Linking /r/			
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Not only	[n t l]	[n t l]

This table examines the spoken English of respondent 5, and it reveals that the respondent uses C-V linking.

Respondent 6

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	To them the, from, her	[tu ðem] [ðɪ] [fr m][h :]	[t ð m] [ð ] [fr m] [h r][ r [ :r]
Consonant elision			
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/	Now and then		

Linking /r/	As a matter of fact,	æz e mæt v fækt]	z mæt r v fækt]
Intrusive /r/	idea of it	[a 'd v t]	[a 'd r v t]
C- V Linking			

The spoken English of the above respondent do not exhibit any features of connected speech process as analysed in the above table.

#### Respondent7

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	We can, from, the,	[wi: kæn][ fr m] [ð ]	[wi k n] [fr m] [ð ]
Consonant elision	Last time	[lɑ:s ta m]	[lɑ:s ta m]
Vowel elision		[p'hæps]	[p'hæps]
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/			
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Talk about	t : k ba t]	t : k ba t]

This respondent almost produces all the processes as identified in their spoken English, but as shown in the above table, the respondent do not used other processes such as linking /j/, /w/, /r/ and intrusive /r/

Respondent 8

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	To blame	[tu ble m] [s m] [ði]	[t ble m] [s m] [ð ]
Consonant elision	Kill him	[k l h m]	[k l m]
Vowel elision	Go ahead	[g 'hed]	[g 'hed]
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Far off	[fa: r f]	[fa: r f]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Kill him	[k l h m]	[k l m]

The above table shows that the respondent do not produce any of processes used, even though feature of some processes were identified in the spoken English of the speaker.

Respondent 9

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Were, from, for, the, and	[w :] [w :r] [fr m][f ] [ði]	[w ] [fr m] [f ] [ð ]
Consonant elision	Not black cap,	[n t blæk kæp]	[n t blæ kæp]
Vowel elision	Run along, in camera	[r n 'l ŋ] [ n 'kæmr ]	[r n 'l ŋ] [ n 'kæmr ]

Linking /j/	In my opinion	[ n ma p nj n]	[ n ma 'j p nj n]
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Further along	[f :ð r 'l ŋ]	[f :ð r 'l ŋ]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Round about, strike-out	[ra n d ba t] [str a ka t]	[ra n d ba t] [str a ka t]

Vowel elision, linking /r/ and C-V linking are used in the spoken English of the respondent as illustrated in the above table.

#### Respondent 10

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Come and see, could,	[k m ænd si:] [k d] [du:] [ t]	[k m ɪnd si:] [k d] [d ] [ t]
Consonant elision	Handbook	[hændb k]	[hænb k]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/	Now and the then	[na nd ðen]	[na w nd ðen]
Linking /r/	Hanger on	[hæŋ r n]	[hæŋ r n]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Mach up	[mæ t v]	[mæ t v]

This table shows that the respondent realises linking /r/ and C-V linking in his spoken English.

Respondent 11

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	He can make it, for, to,	[h 'kæn 'me k t ] [f ] [tu]	[h k n 'me k t] [f ] [t ]
Consonant elision	Test drive, must to go,	[tes dra v] [m st tu g ]	[tes dra v] [m s t g ]
Vowel elision	Police, perhaps	[pli:s] [phæps]	[pli:s] [p'hæps]
Linking /j/	Beauty and music	[ bju:ti: ænd]	[bju:ti: 'j nd]
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Answer it	[ɑ:ns r t]	[ɑ:ns r t]
Intrusive /r/	Russia and China	[r nd 't a n ]	[r r n 't a n ]
C- V Linking	Come in, watch out	[k m n] [w t a t]	[k m n] [w t a t]

This table shows that the respondent produces consonant elision and vowel elision only.

Respondent 12

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	to, for, the, and	[tu] [f :] [ð ] [ænd]	[t ] [f ] [ð ] [ nd]
Consonant elision	Should have, must try harder	[ d hæv] [m s 'tra 'hɑ:d ]	[ d v] [m s 'tra 'hɑ:d ]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	not hear of,	[n th r v]	[n th r v]

Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Hands-off	[hænds v]	[hænd z v]

Out of three (3) connected speech processes used in this study, it was examined that the respondent only realises linking /r/ in his spoken English.

### Respondent 13

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Try to go, the coach, a,	[tra 'tu: 'g ] ði: k t ] [e ]	[tra t 'g ] ð k t ] [ ]
Consonant elision	fast tract, good day	[fɑ:s træk] [g de ]	[fɑ:s træk] [ g de ]
Vowel elision	Tonight, go away	[tna t] [g : 'we ]	[t'na t] [g : 'we ]
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	For instance, awe-inspiring	[ f :r nt ns] [ ' :r nspa r ŋ]	[ f :r nt ns] [ ' :r nspa r ŋ]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Grind on, goes on	[gra n d n][g z n]	[gra n d n][g z n]

This table shows that the respondent realises all the processes in their spoken English, although there are other sub-processes such linking /j/, /w/ and intrusive /r/ which were not properly used.

Respondent 14

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Fo mer, the game, and	[f mi:] [ð ge m] [ænd]	[f mi:] [ð g m] nd] [ n]
Consonant elision	Good driving, last time	[g d dra v ŋ] [la:s ta m]	[g dra v ŋ] [la:st ta m]
Vowel elision	was annoyed, perhaps	[ w z 'n d] [p'hæps]	[w z 'n d] [p'hæps]
Linking /j/	he ought	[hi: 'j :t]	[hi: 'j :t]
Linking /w/	as you entered	[ z juw 'ent d]	[ z juw 'ent d]
Linking /r/	There are	[ðe r ]	[ðe r ]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Call on, give up	[k :l n] [g v p]	[k :l n] [g v p]

This table shows that the respondent uses consonant elision and vowel elision

Respondent 15

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Take your time, for, the,	[ te j ta m] [ð na t][ f ] [ t]	[ te j ta m] [ð na t] [f ] [ t]
Consonant elision	Must be	[m s bi] [neks ta m]	[m s bi] [neks ta m]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Not far off, for example	[n t fa: v] f	[n t fa: r v] f

		g'zɑ:mpl]	r g'zɑ:mpl]
Intrusive /r/	Drama and music	dra:m                      nd  'mju:z k]	dra:m r m 'mju:z k]
C- V Linking	read a game, kick out	[ri: d    ge m] [k  ka t]	[ri: d ge m] [k ka t]

This table shows that the respondent uses weak forms, consonant elision and CV linking as analysed in his speech.

#### Respondent 16

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Your points, got some money, the, from,	[j : p ts] [g t s m m ni] [e fa:ð ] [ð i:] [fr m]	[j 'p ts][g t s m m ni] [ fa:ð ] ð [fr m]
Consonant elision	Last night,	[la:s na t]	[la:s na t]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	For instance, mother and father	[f : nt ns] m ð  nd fa:ð ]	[f : r nt ns] [m ð r n fa:ð ]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Fall in	[f : l n] g t v ]	[f : l n] [g t v ]

This respondent uses consonant elision and CV linking as illustrated in the above table.

Respondent 17

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	I have got some, for, can	[a hæf g t s m] [f :], kæn	[a hæv 'g t s m] [f ] [k n]
Consonant elision	Lots of them, tell him, next match	[l ts v ð m] [tel h m] [neks mæt ]	[l ts ð m] [tel m] [neks mæt ]
Vowel elision	Get another	get ' n ð	[get 'n ð ]
Linking /j/	My ears	[ma z]	[ma 'j z]
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	for instance	[f : nt ns]	[f : r nt ns]
Intrusive /r/	Media are to blame	mi:di a: t ble m	'mi:di ra: t ble m]
C- V Linking	Call on me, depends on	[k :l nmi:] [d pendz n]	[k :l n mi:] [d pendz n]

This table shows that the respondent realises only C-V linking in his utterance.

Respondent 18

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	most of all, at, for, do	[ m st v ' :l] [æt] [f ] [du:]	[m st v ' :l] [ t] [f ][d ]
Consonant elision	good day, test drive,	[g de ] [tes dra v]	[g de ] [tes dra v]
Vowel elision	tonight, not alone	[t na t][n t l n]	[ t'na t][ n t 'l n]
Linking /j/	i agree	[a 'j gri:]	[a 'j gri:]

Linking /w/	now and then	[na nd ðen]	[na w nd ðen]
Linking /r/	awe-inspiring	[ˈ : nspa r ɪŋ]	[ˈ : r nspa r ɪŋ]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Stop it, call out	[st p t] [k :l a t]	[st p t] [k :la t]

The above table shows that the respondent inserts linking /j/ only.

#### Respondent 19

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	take your time, from home,	[te ˈj : ˈta m] [fr m h m]	[te j ˈta m] [fr m ˈh m]
Consonant elision	should have, black cat,	[ d v][blækæp]	[ d v][blækæp]
Vowel elision	try again, not alone	[tra: ˈgen] [n t ˈl n]	[tra: ˈgen] [n t ˈl n]
Linking /j/	They are here,	[ðe a: h ]	[ðe j h ]
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Our office	[ɑ: r f s]	[ɑ: r f s]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Look out	[l a t]	[l ka t]

It was identified from the above table that the respondent produces consonant elision, vowel elision and linking /r/.

Respondent 20

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	try to go, we can see, were,	['tra tu 'g ] [wi:kæn si:] [w :]	['tra t 'g ] [wi k n si:] [w ]
Consonant elision	big game, best dream, must try,	[b gre p] [bes dri:m] [m s 'tra ]	[b gre p] [bes dri:m] ['m s 'tra
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/	the exercise	[ð i 'jeks sa z]	[ð i 'jeks sa z]
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	Car is, for example	[ð ka: s] f : g'za:mpl]	[ð ka: r z] [f :r g'za:mpl]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Keep it, not all	[ki:p t] [n t :l]	[ki:p t] [n t :l]

This table shows that the respondent uses consonant elision and linking /j/.

Respondent 21

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Your, the fans, was,	[j : b k] [ð i: fæns] [w z] [ v]	[j b k] [ð fæns] [w z] [ v]
Consonant elision	Last day, old dress	[lɑ:s de ] [a l dres]	[lɑ:s de ] [a l dres]
Vowel elision			
Linking /j/			

Linking /w/	I know it	[a n t]	[a n 'w t]
Linking /r/	Mother and father	[m ð nd fa:ð ]	[m ð r n fa:ð ]
Intrusive /r/	Area of agreement	[e r v 'gri:m nt]	['e r r v 'gri:m nt]
C- V Linking	Stop it, kick off	[st t] [k a:f]	st p t] [k ka:f] [k k f]

This table shows that the respondent only uses consonant elision.

#### Respondent 22

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Take your time, we can see, was, the,	[te 'j : 'ta m] [wi: kæn si:] [w :] [ði ]	[te j 'ta m] ] [wi k n si:] [w z] ð ]
Consonant elision	Must try	[m s tra ]	[m s tra ]
Vowel elision	Perhaps,	[ p hæps]	[p'hæps]
Linking /j/	My opinion		
Linking /w/	Know it, now and then	[a n t] [na ænd ðen]	[a n 'w t] [na w nd ðen]
Linking /r/	Over and above, near it	[n t]	[n r t]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	Eyes up, less often	[a z p]	[a z p]

This table shows that the respondent uses only consonant elision and C-V linking.

Respondent 23

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	Better than, most of all, were	[bet ð n] [m st v ' :l] [w ]	[bet ð n] [m st v ' :l] [w ]
Consonant elision	Bad day, next match	[bæ de ] [neks mæt ]	[bæ 'de ] [nekst mæt ]
Vowel elision	tonight	[tna t]	[t'na t]
Linking /j/			
Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	For instance, near it	[f : nt ns] [n t]	[f : r nt ns][ n r t]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking			

The above table shows that the respondent produces weak forms, consonant elision and vowel elision.

Respondent 24

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	try to stop, I've got some, tea for two	[tra 'tu: 'st p] [a v 'g t 's m] [ti: f 't u]/	[tra t 'st p] [a v 'g t s m][ ti: f 't u:]
Consonant elision	Should have, next day	[ d hæv] [neks de ]	neks de d d v]
Vowel elision	Not alone,	[n t 'l n]	[n t' l n]
Linking /j/	I agree	[a gri:]	[a 'j gri:]

Linking /w/			
Linking /r/	For example, as matter of	[f g'zɑ:mpl] [æz mæt v	[f r g'zɑ:mpl] [ z mæt r v]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking	talk about, look out	t : k ba t][l ka t]	[t : k 'ba t][l ka t]

This table shows that the respondent only produces consonant elision and C-V linking

#### Respondent 25

Connected speech processes used	Words used by the respondent	Student's realisation	Actual realisation in connected speech
Weak forms	The man, to stop, for,	[ðɪ mæn] [tu st p] [f :]	ð 'mæn] [t 'st p] [f ]
Consonant elision			
Vowel elision	Philosophy, perhaps	[f 'l s fi]	[f 'l sfi]
Linking /j/	My arms	[ma ɑ:mz]	[ma 'jɑ:mz]
Linking /w/	I know it	[a n t]	[a n 'w t]
Linking /r/	Wear out	[we t]	[we r t]
Intrusive /r/			
C- V Linking			

This table shows that respondent do not produce any connected speech processes.

The above data were presented below in tabular form as follows: Key of the tables: NA= Number of Able, % able= percentage able to produce features of connected speech, NNA= Number Not Able, % NA= percentage of those not able to produce features of connected speech.

**Table 4.9-** Showing features of Weak forms

Weak forms	Frequency	Percentage
NA	3	10.7%
NNA	25	89.3%
TOTAL	28	100%

The above table has illustrated that only three respondents representing 10.7% of the total respondents produce weak forms in casual speech, while 90% of respondents do not. This indicates that majority of respondents do not produce the weak forms of ‘could’, ‘and’ ‘than’, ‘you’ and ‘to’ in these sentences [hi: k d ‘du: t], [’k m n ‘si:], [bet ð n ‘ev ], [ti: f ‘t u:] and [‘tra t ‘st p]. The respondents prefer to use strong form of such words. For instance, the weak form of ‘at’, ‘of’, ‘for’ and ‘do’ in casual speech is [ t] [ v ] [f ] and [d ] respectively. But the respondents used strong forms of such words: ‘of’ as in [ v ] or [av ] for as in [f r], [f ]and [f :], at as in [ t], [ æt]and [ t], do as in [d ], [ du] and [du:]

**Table 4.10-** Pronunciation showing features of consonant elision

Consonant elision	Frequency	percentage
NA	14	50%
NNA	14	50%
Total	28	100%

The table 4.10 has revealed 50% of respondents produce consonant elision in their spoken English, while 50% do not. This indicates that the respondents as shown in the above table elide the consonant cluster of test drive [tes dra v] and good day [g de ]. It has been observed that

some respondents have difficulty to elide the consonant cluster of the following: tell him [tel h m], nest match [nekst mæt ] and lots of them[l ts ð m].

**Table 4.11-**Pronunciation showing features of vowel elision

Vowel elision	Frequency	percentage
NA	6	21.9%
NNA	22	78.1%
Total	28	100%

This table shows that only 21.9% of the respondents produce vowel elision in spontaneous speech, whereas 80% do not. This clearly indicates majority of the student do not produce this process, partly because they failed to elide the central vowel schwa / / of camera [kæm r ], perhaps [p hæps], father and son [fɑ:ð nd 's n] and get another [get ' n ð ] as observed in their utterances.

**Table 4.12-** Liaison: Using Linking /j/

Linking /j/	Frequency	Percentage
NA	3	10.7%
NNA	25	89.3%
Total	28	100%

This table shows only three respondents representing 10.7% of total respondents insert linking /j/ in casual speech, while 25 respondents representing 89.3% do not. This shows that very few respondents produce this process as indicated in the above table.

**Table 4.13-** Liaison: Using Linking /w/

Linking /w/	Frequency	Percentage
NA	0	0%
NNA	28	100%
Total	28	100%

The table 4.13 has displayed that none of respondents were able to use linking /w/ in their spoken English as they engaged in natural conversation. This indicates that the respondents do not used linking /w/.

**Table 4.14-** Liaison: Using Linking /r/

Linking /r/	Frequency	Percentage
NA	7	25%
NNA	21	75%
Total	28	100%

The above table shows 25% of respondents use linking /r/ in spontaneous speech, while 75% do not. This indicates that most of the respondents do not use linking /r/ of ‘the car is’ [ð kɑ: z ] our office [ɑ: f s] answer it [ɑ:ns t] far off [fɑ: f] and fur inside [f : nsa d] in spontaneous speech.

**Table 4.15-** Liaison: Using intrusive /r/

Intrusive /r/	Frequency	Percentage
NA	0	0%
NNA	28	100%
Total	28	100%

Although some respondents produce some phrases and sentences which required the application of intrusive /r/, but this table has revealed that none of the respondents were able to use linking /w/ in drama and music [dra:m r m 'mju:z k] law and order [l : nd ' :d ] and I saw it [a 's : t] in their spoken English as they engaged in spontaneous speech task. This indicates that the respondents do not use intrusive /r/.

**Table 4.16-** Liaison: Using consonant to vowel linking

C-V Linking	Frequency	Percentage
NA	11	39.6%
NNA	17	60.4%
Total	28	100%

The table 4.16 shows 39.6% of respondents produce C-V linking in spontaneous speech, while 60.4% do not. This shows that almost half of the respondents apply C-V linking in their spoken English as indicated in the above tables.

### 4.3 Data Analysis

The extent to which Postgraduate Students apply weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English was low, simply because most of the respondents do not use such connected speech processes in their spoken English, although consonant elision, linking /r/ and consonant to vowel linking were identified as the most frequent processes used by the respondents. For instance, the task A systematically investigates the students' performances based on reading. In this task, the respondents read phrases and sentences, which exhibit instances of weak forms, elision and liaison. Meanwhile, in the task B, the study examines the Students' performance based on spontaneous speech. In both tasks however, the Students were allowed to speak by applying these processes in their spoken English.

Firstly, from the data presented in Tables 4.1 to 4.16, some specific details on the use of liaison, elision and weak forms by the respondents become visible. For instance, table 4.1 and 4.9 show the performance of the respondents in the production of weak forms. With reference to reading task, it was observed that only five respondents representing 17.7% produce weak form, whereas 23 respondents representing 82.3% do not. And in case of spontaneous speech, the table 4.9 shows that only 10.4% of the respondents produce weak forms, whereas 89.6% of the respondents do not. When the two tasks were compared and analysed, there are slight changes between the two tasks, although the difference in terms of usage is not very wide. But the result suggests that students produce weak forms more in reading tasks than in spontaneous speech.

As in case of elision, it is worth mentioning here that English demonstrates two main phonetic environments where elision occurs: the syllable-final clusters involving /t,d/, and the elision of / / but sometimes the loss of / h/ was separated from consonant elision. Therefore, two tables were

used in order to have clear view of the extent to which the students use elision in speeches. It is clear, the table 4.2 displays that 17 respondents representing 60.7% of the total respondents elide consonant in reading task, while 11 respondents representing 39.3% of the total respondents do not elide consonant. Meanwhile, the performance of students in spontaneous speech was also illustrated in the table 4.10, and it reveals that 50% of respondents produce and apply consonant elision in their spoken English.

As a sub-type of elision, the production of vowel elision was also examined. In this case, the table 4.3 shows that only nine respondents representing 32.3% of the total respondents elide vowel in reading task, whilst 19 respondents representing 67.7% do not. Meanwhile, the table 4.11 displays the performances of students in spontaneous speech; it discovers that only 21.9% of the respondents produce vowel elision precisely in their spoken English.

However, liaison is another connected speech processes used in this research. And it was found out that most of the respondents do not use liaison. It is well-known fact that English has many types of liaison but this study attempts to examine five types of liaison which include: the palatal approximant /j/, labio velar approximant/w/, alveolar approximant /r/ liaison, intrusive /r/ and C-V linking. Therefore, five tables were used to identify the extent to which students insert sub-types of liaison in spoken English in both reading and spontaneous speech. For instance, the table 4.4 categorically illustrates the performance of students in reading task. The table shows that only five respondents representing 17.7% of the total respondents insert /j/ in their utterances. Then, 25 respondents representing 82.3% of the total respondents do not insert /j/ as they read. Meanwhile, table 4.12 shows that only 10.4% of the total respondents insert and apply the features of palatal approximant /j/ in spontaneous speech.

Similarly, the performance of the respondents in the realization of linking /w/ was also examined; the table 4.5 displays that only 3 respondents representing 10.4% insert /w/ in reading task, although the table 4.13 shows that none of the respondents use instances of /w/ liaison in spontaneous speech. Meanwhile, the table 4.6 illustrates the performance of students in the production of linking /r/, and it examines that 11 respondents representing 39.6% produce feature of /r/ liaison in their speeches, while 17 respondents representing 60.4% do not. Meanwhile, table 4.14 displays the performance of students on spontaneous speech, it was discovered that 25% of the respondents produce an utterance with the instances of linking /r/ in their speeches. As in case of intrusive /r/, the table 4.7 discovers that only 4 respondents representing 14.6% use intrusive /r/ in their speeches in reading task, whereas 24 respondents representing 85.4% of the total respondents do not. Meanwhile, the table 4.15 clearly demonstrates that none of respondents produce instances of intrusive /r/ in spontaneous speech. Finally, the use of C-V linking was vividly revealed in table 4.8, although the student's performance was commendable in this task. Partly because the table shows that 14 respondents representing 50% use C-V linking in reading task, while 14 respondents representing 50% of the total respondents do not. Also, the table 4.16 discovers that only 39.6% of respondents produce utterances with the features of linking in their spoken English, while 60.4% do not.

#### **4.4 Discussion**

With reference to the results of this study in Task A and Task B, it discovers that majority of the respondents do not use weak forms and elision and liaison in their spoken English. Most noticeably, the results of this study validate the claim made by several researchers such as Alameen Levis (2015) that some aspects of connected speech processes are not familiar feature to some fluent speakers of English, hence they tend to fully form the words in informal

situations, giving the impression to L1 speakers and L2 speakers that, 'he's so arrogant about it all' (Crystal and Davy, 1975:8). Part of reason is because L2 users of English are educated in the system that gives priorities in teaching the most precise and appropriate pronunciation often learn on basis of isolated word forms, which mostly encourage slow rate of speaking, consequently leaves them bewildered any time they attempt to pronounce connected speech features as spoken by L1 users, although at the present time there are conspicuous efforts among the linguists in providing guidelines and language teaching materials which mostly emphasise on exercises meant to teach L2 learners on how to pronounce connected speech features more successfully. Hence, these guidelines, according to Grant (1993:159 cited in Alameen and Levis, 2015:16) "will help your comprehension as well as your pronunciation of English".

It is matter of greatest importance to relate this analysis to all of our research questions. The aim of this study was to examine the extent to which Postgraduate Students produce weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English. For this reason, three research questions were set to answer the following questions. The first one is to what extent do the Postgraduate Students use Weak forms, Elision and Linking in their spoken English? Looking more closely at the findings, it was observed that most of the students do not demonstrate strong tendency to use weak forms, and sub-types of elision, that is, elision-vowel elision, and other sub-types of liaison, that is, linking /j/, /w/ and intrusive /r/ in their spoken English as reflected in our analysis, though there were other sub-processes, such as consonant elision and consonant to vowel linking and linking /r/ which are frequently used by the respondents.

At first, it was discovered that most of the students do not produce weak forms properly in their spoken English. This is because it was observed most of the respondents lack vowel reduction in their utterances. Thus, Gut (2009:173) claims that "the lack of vowel reduction in non-native

English has been observed in connected speech”. This assertion can be supported with Ghazali and Bouchchioua’s (2003 cited in Gut 2009:173) study which analysed sentences read by Tunisian speakers of English and found that they did not produce the weak forms of words such as ‘for’, ‘to’ and that with reduced vowels but produced those with full vowel instead. In relation to this, the study of Ghazali and Bouchchioua has affirmed the claim that non-native speakers lack the vowel reduction, although their study examines only three words in isolated form, but this study uses seven words to read in forms of sentences and phrases and also allow the respondents to use such processes in spontaneous speech. For example, the table 4.1 reveals that twenty five respondents representing 82.3% of the total respondents do not reduce the vowel of the following words: can/ k n /could / k d /, of / v/, to /t /, some /s m/, your /j /, a / /, must /m st/, do /d /, for / f / properly in their spoken English. Also, it was discovered that the students opted to pronounce weak forms as strong forms as reflected in table 4.9. For example, some students were examined using these sentences with the strong form, shut the door/ t ði: ‘d :/ and the man/ ði: mæn/. Here the / ði:/ is pronounced with strong form instead of weak form the /ð /. Another examples, read a book /ri:d e ‘b k / and I have a car/a h v e ka: / was examined, where the vowel ‘a’ was pronounced with strong form as /e / instead of weak form or reduced vowel / / . This finding provides similar evidence to some research conducted on connected speech processes in Outer and Expanding circle. For instance, Mesthrie (2004 cited in Low, 2014:83) states that Englishes spoken in Africa, South and Southeast Asia tend not to use weak form or reduced vowel in connected speech, and of course this has to do with the tendency for these varieties to be syllable-timed.

Even though there is no available research conducted on the use of vowel elision in the spoken English of non-native speakers, but this study discovered that most of the respondents do not

produce vowel elision in their spoken English (see tables 4.3 and 4.11). Elision of vowels in English, according to Roach (2009:27) “happen when a short vowel, unstressed vowel occurs between voiceless consonants, e.g., in the first syllable of ‘perhaps’, ‘potato’, the second syllable of ‘bicycle’, or third syllable of ‘philosophy’”. In this study, the students performed two (2) different tasks (A and B). Thus, Task A was reflected in table 4.3. Here are some phrases and words used in the table: go away / g : ‘we /, try again / tra: ‘gen /, police /p( )li:s /, not alone / n t ‘l n /, and it was discovered that most of the respondents do not delete the unstressed word / / at first or second syllable of the above mentioned words, instead they produced it with strong vowel. It should be noted that in rapid speech, the unstressed vowel / / is especially prone to deletion.

The sound is deleted under certain circumstance, and according to Clark and Yallop (1995:90) “these circumstances may include the sounds that are weakly articulated that they do not longer have auditory significance or they may be omitted altogether in the stream of speech”. With reference to students’ reading (Task A) and spontaneous speech (Task B) on table 4.3 and 4.11, it was observed that some sounds, especially vowel, which prone to be deleted or what Cruttenden (2008:303) called smoothing which may result in neutralization especially in casual speech, are not used by the respondents. For instance, it was discovered that 67.7% and 78.1% of the respondents do not elide vowel in both reading task and spontaneous speech. For instance, go away / g : ‘we / becomes /g ‘we / try again / tra: ‘gen /, becomes / tra ‘gen /, run alone/ n t ‘l n / becomes / n t ‘l n /, he was annoyed / h w z ‘n d / becomes / h w z ‘n d/, get another/ get ‘n ð / becomes / get ‘n ð /. In relation to these utterances, it was discovered that the spoken English of the most the respondents exhibit absent of this phonological process in their speeches.

Like vowel elision, there is no available research which investigates the use of /h/ elision in the spoken English of non-native speakers of English. Hence, elision of /h/ is very important in connected speech because it can be attributed to the law of economy where the speakers economize on effort, avoiding, for example, difficult consonant sequence by eliding them (Field, 2003 cited in Alameen and Levis, 2015:4). But the result of this study reveals that /h/ elision is used less than vowel elision. When compared the extent to which students use elision in 4.3 and 4.11, it appeared that vowel and /h/ elision are produced on rare occasions despite the fact it is important aspect of spoken English. This is because in spoken English, /h/ is sometimes lost in pronominal weak forms, that is, the weak form of the pronoun when they do not occur at the start of an utterance. With clear reference to this, it was evidently identified these phenomena were not visible in spoken English of the majority of the respondents. Quite the contrary, it was discovered that most of the respondents do not elide glottal /h/ when it occurs for a second time or in the middle of the sentence as in leave him alone / li:v m 'l a n / you should have / ju d v /, tell him / tel m /, I've seen him / a v 'si:n m /, I've met her / a v 'met /.

The case of liaison was also examined in this study. English demonstrates many types of liaison; although this study examines five of them, e.g: linking /j/, /w/, /r/, intrusive /r/ and consonant to vowel linking. Therefore, this study examines the extent to which students produce liaison in their spoken English. but most of the extensive researches carried out into English liaison by Heike (1984), Anderson-Hsieh et al. (1994) and Alameen (2007) concentrated on examining the use of linking between native speakers of American English and non-native speakers of English. Possibly, their study failed to examine the extent to which non-native speakers, especially students at advanced level, produce these processes. For instance, the research of Alameen (2007) examines only two types of linking, that is, consonant to vowel linking and vowel to

vowel linking. In this regard, this study examined that most of the respondents do not use subtypes liaison. This is because out of the six phrases tested on table 4.4, only five respondents representing 17.7% of the total respondents used to insert an additional palatal approximant /j/ in their speech appropriately for smooth linking in reading task. Similarly, it was observed that only 10.4% insert /j/ in spontaneous speech as reflected in table 4.12. Here are some examples used in the tables, I agree/ a 'j gri: /, my opinion / ma 'j p nj n / 'may ask / me 'ja:sk/, they are here/ ðe j h /, he ought / hi: 'j :t /, the exercise / ði 'jeks sa z /. This clearly indicates that most of the respondents do not insert /j/ in their spoken English. For instance, the following examples are used in the reading tasks: no apple / n 'wæpl /, now I / na 'wa /, now and then / na w nd ðen/, you aren't /ju: 'wɑ:nt / I know it / a n 'w t/ as you entered / z ju: 'went d/. More importantly, liaison, in connected speech, is regarded as link between sounds or words through insertion of an additional sound, usually, for ease pronunciation. This clearly shows that the percentage of the respondents who insert additional /w/ slightly reduced when compared to the percentage of the respondents produce palatal approximant /j/. Meanwhile, it was observed that none of the respondents insert /w/ in their speech as in spontaneous speech as reflected in table 4.13. The use of linking /j/, as examined in this study, is very low, simply because most of the students do not produce this process in their speeches.

Another observation was made but this time around was based on linking r. It is worth mentioning here that English have rhotic and non-rhotic accents, hence in rhotic accent, such as General American or Scots English; /r/ phoneme is articulated whenever it occurs in spelling (Roach, 2009:51). Meanwhile, in non-rhotic accent such as BBC pronunciation the /r/ phoneme is articulated only before the vowel, not before a consonant or pause. For this reason, linking /r/ can be defined as a link between words through the articulation of a normally unarticulated final

/r/ (Skandera and Burleigh 2005:58), only before the vowel sound. To relate the assertion to this study, some phrases which show feature of linking /r/ were given to students to read such as: mother and father / m ð r n fa:ð /, Far off / fa: r f /, near it / n r t /, wear out / we r t /, four aces / f : re s s /, fur inside / f :r nsa d /. But it was discovered that eleven respondents representing 39.6% used to link /r/ phoneme before the vowel in reading task as reflected in table 4.6. Meanwhile, in spontaneous speech, the following instances were observed in the utterances of the respondents: /f :r nt ns /, for example /f :r g'za:mpl /, here and there /h r n ð /, over and above / ' v r n 'b v /, over it / ' v r t /. In this respect, the performance of the respondent, instead to rise up but it slightly move down with lowest token of 25% as reflected in table 4.14. In fact, this finding is in agreement with the claim made by Awunosi (2004) and Simo Bobda (2007 cited in Oladipolu, 2014) that the r-liaison is rare in NigE, for example, four o'clock [f ], far away [fa ewe], although their studies are more on Nigerian English. This reveals that students do not use to articulate r even it appears before vowel despite the fact that Nigerian English is non-rhotic accent. This is not reason, because Roach (2009:50) argues that even BBC speakers, their accent is classified as non-rhotic, but pronounce r at the end, e.g. the car is / ð ka:r t /. For this reason, students must not produce words as separate entities especially in sentence where linking is required, but make the words flow together. If they continue producing sound in isolated fashion, this can of course, cause their speech to sound choppy.

In the case of intrusive /r/, the phoneme/ r/ is inserted even where there is no r in the spelling. With reference to the available data collected on the table 4.7, it clearly shows that majority of the respondents lack awareness of this process, as such they do not produce it. Though in the study, it was observed that very few students insert /r/ especially in reading tasks. For instance,

out the following phrases used on the table: idea of / a 'd r v /, now and then [na r n ðen] drama and music [dra:m r m 'mju:z k ], raw onion / r :r ' nj n /, law and order / l :r nd ' :d /, awe-inspiring [ ' :r nspa r ŋ] area of agreement [ 'e r r v 'gri:m nt], only four respondents representing 14.6% of the total of respondents produce intrusive /r/ in their spoken English. Conversely, none of the respondents produce intrusive /r/ in spontaneous speech. However, it was discovered that most of the respondents speak at low rate and this will not make the word flows smoothly. Also, this can also be attributed to the notion of non-rhotic English where most of the respondents do not produce r even it appears orthographically. But students forget to remember that intrusive /r/ is sometimes used in place where glide is used otherwise in American and British English, for example: Law and Order / l :r nd ' :d /, the reason why it is used is to remove a hiatus between two consecutive vowel belonging to different words.

The results in tables 4.2, 4.10, 4.8 and 4.16 can be used to address the second research question which asked: what type of connected speech processes do students use frequently in their spoken English? The answer seems to be “consonant elision, followed by consonant to vowel linking”. This results also affirmed the findings of Laver (1968), Jibril (1982), Awonosi (2004) and Olapupo (2014) which established the fact that Nigerian English demonstrates tendency for consonant elision for example, don't buy [d n ba ], test drive [tes dra ], although the scholars do not specify which consonants Nigerians use to elide in their spoken English. In addition to this, their researches do not tell us how learners would progress towards RP English. For this reason, this study attempts to suggest ways to the students to achieve near native competence when it comes to pronunciation. For example, in rapid speech or L1 English, syllables are simplified by the means of elision, which bears some similarity to the processes consonant elision. However, the consonantal word in terms of elision followed the central principle of English three adjacent

rules where the internal one is dropped. In relation to this study, here are some observations made concerning consonant elision. The findings show that most of the students elide one consonant in the middle of such words: windscreen is pronounced as / w nskri:n /, here the voice alveolar plosive /d/ is completely elided, Christmas is pronounced as / kr sm s / here also the voiceless alveolar plosive /t/ is elided, it is also the same as in case of scripts as in / skr p /. With this observation, elision of consonant in English happens most commonly when a speaker “simplifies” a complex consonant cluster, for instance, acts becomes æks rather than ækts, although the simplification processes of elision do not only occur on a single word but also can occur in connection between two words where, for instance, in connected speech two sounds meet in certain context. For example, cluster of word-final /t/ and word final /t/ or /d/ are sometimes simplified in informal speech, e.g. I’ve got to go / a v g t ‘g /, what do you want /w d ju: ‘w nt/, or / w d u: ‘w nt/. This phenomenon of consonant elision was discovered in the students’ speeches not only in reading task but also in spontaneous task, as it identifies that 56.7% and 46.7% of the respondents used to simplify their speech by deleting /t/ and /d/ consonants. For instance, the students elide the first /t/ and /d/ in the following: last time/ la:s ta m/, you must try harder / ju m s ‘tra ‘ha:d /, good day /g de / blind man /bla n mæn /, test drive / tes dra v /, Old technique / a l tek ‘n i:k /,. Also, it discovers the /t/ of the negative /-nt/ is often elided especially in natural conversation, here are examples used: we mustn’t lose it / w m sn lu:z t /, doesn’t he know? /d zn i ‘n /, you mustn’t over-eat /j m sn v r ‘i:t/. Thus, the elided /t/ of the negative /-nt/ is particularly found in disyllables before a following consonant (Cruttendent, 2008:304).

Consonant to vowel linking recorded the highest token of 50% and 39.6% in both tasks. Consonant to vowel linking (c-v) takes place when a final consonant of a word is followed by a

vowel in the same thought group. With reference to this, it was discovered in table 4.8 and 4.16 that some students link the consonant and vowel in the same thought group. For instance, the following instances were identified in spoken English of the respondents: look out / l k a t /, give in / g v n/, less often/lez ' fn / watch out / w t a t/, depends on / d pendz n / keep your eyes up / k i:p j a z p /, I need it / a ni:d t/ read a book for me / ri:d b k f mi:/, stop it/ st p t/, call on me / k :l n mi:/. This clearly shows that most of the students use consonant to vowel linking. In essence, the linking in this case helps to break up and simplify the cluster as in salt and pepper [s l. t m. pe. p r] where the consonant that is moved over /t/ is weakly released and aspirated.

Lastly, the research questions three concerned with the pattern students use when using these connected speech processes. To answer whether postgraduate students use the same pattern as native speakers of English when using connected speech processes, this study compare the pronunciation of the respondents and the pronunciation showing features of weak forms, elision and liaison normally cited in the works of Cruttenden (2008) and Roach (2009). And it has been observed that the students tend to have too many stresses in their speech. Instead to stress content words only as they speak but they continue to stress the function words as well. This finding is in line with the work of Dalton and Seidlhofer (1999) which affirmed that non-native speakers of English tend to have too many stresses in their speech. As a result of this, most of the students pronounced each word loudly and precisely. This was identified clearly in table 4.1 they can wait/ ðe k n 'we t / were only wait can receive stress but respondents continuous to stress can also, similarly, as in case of most of all / 'm st v ' :l / most and all received stress, tea for two/ 'ti: f 'tu:/, tea and two received stress, I'm home from work/a m 'h m fr m 'w :k/, home and 'week' received stress, what do you like? /'w t d ju 'la k/, both what and like received stress,

but the respondents stress the function words also. Learning of weak forms is necessary in both casual and rapid speech. Thus, Dhamija (1999:157) claims that “almost all native speakers of RP use weak forms in their pronunciation”. This implies that learners of RP will find it very difficult to understand what they hear unless they learn these weak forms themselves. Another observation, but almost similar to the above one, was also made in spontaneous speech such as: there were rather a lot of them / ðe we ‘rɑ:ð ‘l t v ðem /, here there are only five weak forms, the price is the thing that annoys me / ð ‘pra s s ð ‘0 ns ðæt ’n s mi: /. Here instead to have three strong forms but respondents use more than three strong forms, and it is also the same with the following observation: leave him alone / li:v m ’l a n /, they invited all of us / ðe n’va t d ‘ :l v s /, I shall forget it / a d f ’get t/. It was analysed that most the respondent stress many word and this affect their speaking, because they do not use profer weak forms. Essentially, weakening affects connected speech where monosyllable function words may be unstressed and may even delete for it to produce their central vowel / /. Similarly, one way in which many (but not all) function words are shown to be unstressed in connected speech is for them to have weak forms.

#### **4.5 Findings**

The general findings of this study reveal that most of the postgraduate students do not use weak forms, vowel elision and linking in their spoken English. In contrast to this, it was observed that the some students also use consonant elision and consonant to vowel linking frequently, partly because they had the highest number of respondents. Based on this, the researcher was able to discover the following:

## Weak forms

- (1) Most of the respondents do not produce weak forms properly in their spoken English. As shown in the analysis, 82.3% of the students do not produce weak forms in reading task, while 89.6% of the students do not use weak forms in spontaneous speech.
- (2) It has been observed that most of the respondents do not produce the weak forms of the following words: can /k n/, could /k d/, for /f / and do /d /. On the contrary, the respondents used to produce those words with full vowels instead. For instance, can as in /kæn/, could as in /k d/, for as in / f :/, do /as in / du: /.
- (3) It also identifies that very few students use weak forms with proficiency in their spoken English.

## Elision

- (1) It was examined that most of the students tend to use consonant elision in spoken English. Therefore, the most elided consonants produce in their spoken English are voiceless alveolar plosive /t/ and voiced alveolar plosive /d/.

## Liaison

- (1) It was observed that most of the students do not insert palatal approximant /j/ in both reading and spontaneous speech. This indicates that very few students produce palatal approximant /j/ in their spoken English.
- (2) It also identifies that most of the students do not insert labio-velar approximant /w/ in reading task but none of them could insert it in spontaneous speech.
- (3) The students use linking /r/ in their spoken English as reflected in both activities.

- (4) Very few students insert intrusive /r/ in reading task while none of them use it in spontaneous speech.
- (5) The study also reveals that most of the students use consonant to vowel linking in their spoken English as reflected in both tasks.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a summary of the entire aspect of this study. It stresses the findings that paved way for conclusion that was reached and the recommendations were made to the other researchers who are interested in this study. Since the use of weak forms, elision and liaison in the spoken English of some postgraduate students has not been widely study.

#### 5.2 Summary

The need to improve pronunciation in the spoken English of non-native speaker requires concerted effort for the teachers and learners. Yet, a learner who says that he can get a good English pronunciation without making efforts is proved to be wrong, unless he happens to be one of the very small number of lucky people to whom pronunciation comes fairly easy. To improve the learner fluency in spoken English as expounded by O'Connor (2004), Roach (2009) and Cruttenden (2008), the learners would make sure that the sounds and words use in connected speech are significantly differed from those use in citation forms. This is because in connected speech, sounds and words are connected together to make up longer utterances. Hence, there is possibility for some segments to influence the neighbouring segments in the stream of speech. For this reason, learners were advised to learn not only how to produce sound in isolation forms but also how to produce connected speech without gaps between words. This study investigates the use of some connected speech processes in the spoken English of postgraduate students of English and Literary Studies, Bayero University, Kano. The theory of Natural Phonology proposed by Stampe (1979) is used as theoretical framework for this research. The total number

of participants involved in this study was twenty eight (N = 28) and oral test was employed to extract the data from the speech of the participants. In the process, two tasks were used (reading and spontaneous speech tasks) and in each tasks, the participants' voices, which exhibit features of connected speech processes, were recorded. The final finding shows that very few postgraduate students use weak forms, vowel elision and linking /w/, /j/ and intrusive /r/ in their spoken English. In contrast, it was also observed that consonant elision and Consonant to Vowel linking (CV linking) are the most frequent processes used by the students. The findings of this research will hopefully lay the foundation for further academic research into other features of connected speech processes.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

The aim of this study was to investigate the use of weak forms, elision and liaison in the spoken English of some Postgraduate Students of English and Literary Studies, Bayero University, Kano. Initially, the oral test was employed to collect the available data from respondents. To extract the data, the study was divided into two different tasks. For instance, in the first task (task A), each respondent was given time to read some words, phrases and sentences which exhibit features of weak forms, liaison and elision and their speech were recorded simultaneously. Almost similar to this, but here the respondents, in the second task (task B), were allowed to use some of the words, phrases and sentences used in task A and use them in spontaneous speech, at the same time their voices were also recorded. It is a well-known fact that especially in the findings and discussions of this study, effort has been made by the researcher to address the three research questions on which the investigation set to be answered:

(a) to what extent do postgraduate students apply weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English?

If relate this finding to our research objectives, it can say that the extent to which the students use these processes in their spoken English was low. This is because majority of the students do not use these connected speech processes in their spoken English, even those who want to use these processes, sometimes do not have the interest to apply it always except on specific occasions. Based on this, most of them do not use the processes in their spoken English as reflected in the analysis of this work. For instance, considering the performance of the students in two tasks, the researcher concludes that students produce more weak forms, elision and liaison on the reading task than on spontaneous speech. Therefore, the outcome of the finding shows that very few students use weak forms, vowel elision, linking /j/, /w/ and intrusive /r/.

(b) What types of connected speech processes do students use frequently in their spoken English?

It was observed that consonant elision and consonant vowel linking are the most common speech simplification processes in English and can occur either in a single word or in connection between two words. For this reason, most of the respondents, as explained in data analysis, apply these processes in their spoken English. And it was discovered that the most elided consonant sounds used by the students are /t/ and /d/. Partly because these two processes help to delete or break up and simplify the cluster as what happens in the spoken English of most of the respondents, where the consonant that is moved over /t/ is weakly released and not aspirated (salt and pepper [sol ta m pep p]). It can also conclude that from

this result, consonant elision and consonant vowel linking are frequently used as reflected in the analysis.

(c) which pattern do students use when producing connected speech processes in their spoken English?

It was discovered from the findings that students use many stresses when producing words or sentences in connected speech. It should be noted that the pronunciation of consonant and vowel sounds in connected speech often differs from the pronunciation of the sounds when words are said in isolation. For this reason, citation form pronunciation occurs in isolated words under heavy stress or in sentences delivered in a slow and careful style. Thus, connected speech forms often undergo a variety of simplifications which cannot always be predicted by applying phonological rules. The speaker can try to pronounce any phonetic target-any series of phonetic segments imaginable-any phonetic string can be the input of a phonological derivation. To achieve near-native competence in connected speech, it was suggested that the learners should observe the rules concerning weak forms. This will help them to cultivate the correct variations of word accentual patterns and make a proper use of liaison forms. In addition to this, the special emphasis must be given to the use of weak forms because it is essential part of English speech and learners were advised to learn to use weak forms of 35 English words, available in various books, if they want their English to sound like native English.

#### **5.4 Areas of Further Research**

This research examined the extent to which postgraduate students use weak forms, elision and liaison in their spoken English. More research is required into other features of connected speech

processes which would consider larger and more varied data. Therefore, the following areas could be researched on:

- i) the Use of Phonological Assimilation in the Spoken English of Nigerian Undergraduate students;
- ii) reduction of English vowels and consonant in the speech of Hausa English speakers;
- iii) the patterns of English linking in educated Nigerian English speakers;
- iv) segmental reduction in Connected Speech: phonological facts and phonetic explanation;
- v) the use weak forms in reading and spontaneous speech of non-native English speakers; and
- vi) coarticulation and Connected Speech Processes in Northern Nigerian English.

## REFERENCES

- Abercrombie, D. (1967). *Element of General Phonetics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Adamu, A. (2011). "The Attitudes of Nigerians to Affectation in Communication". In *Fais Journal of Humanities*. Vol. 5 No 2. pp 121.
- Adejare, O. (2005). Communication Competence: English As A Second Language. In Bambose, Banjo and Thomas (eds). *New Englishes. A West African Perspectives*. Musuro.
- Adegbija, E. (1989). *Lexico-Semantic Variation in Nigerian English*. *World Englishes*. Vol. 8, No2.
- Adekunle, M.A. (1974). "The Standard Nigerian English". In *Journal of the Nigerian English studies Association*. JNSES.A.
- Afolayan, A. (1979). Acceptability of English As Secondary Language in Nigeria. Cited in Adamu (2011). The Attitudes Of Nigerians To Affectation In Communication. *Fais Journal of Humanities*, Vol.5 No 2. Pp122.
- Ajani,T. (2007). *Is There Indeed A 'Nigerian English'*. Scientific Journal International
- Alameen, G (2007). *The Use of Linking by Native and Non-Native Speakers of American English*. A thesis submitted to the graduate faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts. Iowa State University. Copyright Ghinwa Alameen, 2007. UMI number 1446026.
- Alameen, G. and Levis, J. M. (2015). *Connected Speech*. ResearchGate

- Allerton, D. (2000). *Articulatory Inercia vs "Systemzwang"*. *Changes in Liaison Phenomena in Recent British English*. *English Studies*, 6, 574-581.
- Anderson, A. and Lynch, T. (1988). *Listening*. In *the Series Language and Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Armstrong, N. (2001). *Social and Stylistic Variation in Spoken French: A Comparative Approach*. John Benjamins publishing company.
- Avery, P. and Ehrlich, S. (1992). *Teaching American English Pronunciation*. Oxford Universty Press.
- Bamgbose, A. (1971). The English in Nigeria. In: Spencer, J. (ed). *The English language in West Africa*. London: Longman
- Bamgbose, A. (1982). "Standard Nigerian English: Issues of Identification": In B. Kachru (ed) (1992). *The Other Tongue: English Across the Cultures*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Bamgbose, A. (1995). "English in the Nigerian Environment". In *New Englishes: A West African Perspective*, Bamgbose, Banjo.
- Bamgbose, A. Banjo, A. Wilson. A. (1995).eds *New Englishes: A West African Perspective* Mosuro Publisher, Ibadan.
- Banjo, A. (1974). *On the State of English Studies in Language*. JNSES vol.6.
- Banjo, A. (1995). *On Codifying Nigerian English: Research So Far*. Ibadan University Press.

- Banjo, A. (1996). *Making a Virtue of Necessity. An Overview of the English Language in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Ibadan University Presss.
- Bansal (1998). *A Manual of Speech and Phonetics*. Orient Blackswan.
- Barry, M. (1984). *Connected Speech: Processes, Motivation, Models*. Cambridge Papers in Phonetics and Experimental Linguistics, 3.
- Bolinger, D. (1958). *A Theory of Pitch Accent in English*. reprinted in Bolinger (1964).
- Brosnahan, L.F. (1958). *English in Southern Nigeria: English Studies*.
- Brown, G. (1990). *Listening to Spoken English. 2<sup>nd</sup> edn*. London: Longman.
- Brown, J. D., and Hilferty, A. (1989). *Teaching Reduced Forms*. Gendai Eigo Kyoiku January:26-28. In Mono Rosa.
- Brown, J. D., and Kondo-Brown, K. (2006). Introducing Connected Speech. In J. D. Brown, and K. Kondo-Brown, *Perspectives on Teaching Connected Speech to Second Language Speakers*.
- Bybee, J. L. (2001). *Phonology and Language Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carnie, A. (2007). *Syntax: A Generative Introduction*. Second edition. BlackWell Publishing.
- Carr, P. (2008). *A Glossary of Phonology*. Edinburg university press Ltd.
- Celce-Murcia, M. Brinton, M. D. and Goodwin, M. J. (1996). *Teaching Pronunciation: A Reference for Teachers of English to Speakers of other Language*. Cambridge University Press.

- Celeta, C. and Calamai, S. (2011). *Introduction to 'Articulatory Techniques for Sociophonetic Researcher'*. [www.academia.edu/10920862/\\_to\\_Articulatory techniques](http://www.academia.edu/10920862/_to_Articulatory_techniques).....
- Cenoz, J. and Jessner, U. (2000). *English in Europe: The Acquisition of a Third Language*. Multilingual Matters publishing company.
- Clarey, M. E., and Dixon, R. J. (1963). *Pronunciation Exercise in English*. New York, New York: Regents.
- Clark, J. Yallop, C. and Fletcher, J. (2007). *An Introduction Phonetics and Phonology*. Third edition. Blackwell publishing.
- Clark, J., and Yallop, C. (1995). *An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology*. Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- Collins, B. and Mees, M. I. (2008). *Practical Phonetics and Phonology: A Resource Book for Students*. Routledge.
- Cruttenden, A. (2008). *Gimson's Pronunciation of English*. 7<sup>th</sup> edition, Hodder education.
- Crystal, D. (1995). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (1993). *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2004). *The Language Revolution*. Cambridge, Polity Press.
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Sixth edition. Blackwell publishing

- Crystal, D., and Davy, D. (1975). *Advanced Conversational English*. London: Longman.
- Cummins, J. and Davidson, C. (2007). *International Handbook of English Teaching*. Springer Publishing Company.
- Dazie, A.B.K. (2007). *Bilingualism. Nigerian English: Influences and Characteristics*. In Dazie A.B.K and Awonusi, A. (eds). Lagos: Concept Publication Ltd.
- Dalton, C. and Seidlhofer, B. (1994). *Pronunciation*. Oxford University Press:Oxford.
- Dhamija, P.V. (1999). *A Course in Phonetics and Spoken English*. PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd.
- Donegan, P. (2002). *Phonological Processes and Phonetic Rules*. Universty of Hawai'i at manoa, Honolulu, Hawai'i, [donegan@hawaii.edu](mailto:donegan@hawaii.edu)
- Donegan. P. J. and Stampe, D. (1979). *The Study of Natural Phonology*. In Dinnsen 1979.
- Donegan. P. J. and Stampe, D. (2009). *Hypotheses of Natural Phonology*. Retrieved from [http://www.Ling.hawaii.edu/faculty/donegan/papers/2009\\_hypotheses.Pdf](http://www.Ling.hawaii.edu/faculty/donegan/papers/2009_hypotheses.Pdf).
- Dressler, W. U., and Wodak, R. (1982). *Sociophonological Methods in the Study of Sociolinguistic Variation in Viennese German, Langue in Society volume ii*.
- Dziubalska-kolaczyk, K. (2007). *Natural Phonology: Universal Principles for the Study of Language (insiders meet outsiders)*.
- Edwards, M.L, & Shriberg, L. (1983). *Phonology: Applications in Communicative Disorders*. San Diego, CA: College Hill.
- Field, J. (2003). *Promoting Perception: Lexical Segmentation in L2 Listening*. ELT Journal.

- Foulkes, P. (2006). "Phonological Variation: A global perspective". In Oladipupo, R.O. (eds). *Aspect of Connected Speech Processes in Nigerian English*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Fromkin, V. Rodman, R. and Hyams, N. (2011). *An Introduction to Language*. 9<sup>th</sup> edition. Cengage Learning Products.
- Giegerich J. Heinz. (1992). *English Phonology: An Introduction*. Cambridge University Press.
- Gimson, A. C. (1980). *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gordon-Brannan, E., and Weiss, C.E. (2007). *Clinical Management of Articulation and Phonological Disorder*.
- Greenbaum, S. (1996). *English Grammar*. Oxford University Press.
- Grunwell, P. (1997). "Natural Phonology". In M.J. Ball & R.D. Kent (Eds.), *The New Phonologies: Developments in Clinical Linguistics*.
- Gut, U. (2009). *Non-native Speech: A Corpus-based Analysis of Phonological and Phonetic Properties of L2 English and German*. Peter Lang. Frankfurt am- Berlin-Bern- New York-Oxford.
- Hakon Jahr, E. (1992). *Language Contact: Theoretical and Empirical Studies*. Walter deGruyter.
- Hardcastle, J. W., Laver, J. and Gibbon, E. F. (2012). *The Handbook of Phonetic Sciences*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Heike, A. E. (1984). *Linking as a marker of fluent speech. Language and Speech*. 54,59

- Heike, A. E. (1987). *Absorption and fluency in non-native casual speech in English*.
- Heike, A.E. (1990). *Towards Listening Strategies for Decoding Fluent Speech*.
- Hyman, L. M. (1975). *Phonology: Theory and Analysis*. U.S.A: Holt, Rinehard and Winston
- Hymes, D. (1972). "On Communicative Competence". In Pride, J.B., Holmes, J. (eds.).  
*Sociolinguistics*. New York, NY: Penguin.
- Ingram, J. C. L. (1989). Connected Speech in Australian English. *An Australian Journal of Linguistics*, printed in Australia.
- Ingram, J. and Laughren, M. (2008). *Connected Speech Processes in Warlpiri*. Linguistics Program, University of Queensland. J.ingram@edu.au
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The Phonology of English as an International Language*. Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2003). *World Englishes: A Resources Book For Students*. Oxford: Routledge.
- Jibril, M. (1982). *Phonological Variation in Nigerian Spoken English*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, University of Lancaster.
- Jibril, M. (1986). *Sociolinguistic variation in Nigerian English' English world-wide 7*.
- Jibril, M. (1994). "The Elaboration of the Function of Nigerian Pidgin". In *New Englishes: A West African Perspective*, Bamgbose, Banjo and Thomas
- Jones, D. (1957). *The History and Meaning of the Term 'Phoneme'*. London: International Phonetic Association (supplement to Le Maitre Phonetique).

- Jones, D. 1969 (1918). *An Outline of English Phonetics*. Cambridge: Heffer and Sons.
- Jowitt, D. (1991). *Nigerian English Usage: An Introduction*. Ikeja: Longman Nigeria Ltd.
- Kacru, B. (ed.) (1992). *The Other Tongue: English Across Cultures*. Urbana: University press.
- Kenworthy, J. (1987). *Teaching English Pronunciations*. London: Longman.
- Kerswill, P. E. (1985). *A Sociophonetic Study of Connected Speech Processes in Cambridge English: An Outline and Some Results*. Cambridge Papers in Phonetics and Experimental Linguistics, 4.
- Kerswill, P. E. (1986). *Level of Linguistic Variation in Durham*. Department of Linguistic Science University of Reading. J. Linguistic 23 (1987) printed in Great Britain.
- Knight, R. (2012). *Phonetics: A coursebook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kohler, K. (1990). *Segmental Reduction in Connected Speech: Phonological Facts and Phonetic Explanations*.
- Kredler, Charles W. (2004). *The Pronunciation of English: A Course Book (2<sup>nd</sup> ed)*. New York: Willey-Blackwell.
- Ladefoged, P. and Johnson, K. (2014). *A Course In Phonetics*. Cengage Learning publishing company.
- Laver, J. (1968). *Assimilation in Educated Nigerian English*. ELT Journal.
- Laver, J. (1994). *Principles of Phonetics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Lavob, W. (1994-2001). *Principles of Linguistic Change* (2 vols). Oxford and Malden: Blackwell. In Celeta and Calamai (2011). *Introduction to 'Articulatory techniques for sociophonetic reseacher'*. Academic journal.
- Lavob, W., Malcah, Y., and Steiner, R. (1972). A Quantitative Study of Sound Change in Progress. Philadelphia: U. S. Regional survey. In Celeta and Calamai (eds). *Introduction to 'Articulatory techniques for sociophonetic reseacher'*. Academic journal.
- Lodge, R. A. (1997). *Exploring the French Language*. Willey and Sons.
- Low, E. (2014). *Pronunciation for English as an International Language*. Rouldege Publishing Company.
- McCarthy, A. (2002). *An Introduction to English Morphology: Words and their Structure*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Mckay, L. S. and Brown, D. J. (2015). *Teaching and Assessing EIL in Local Contexts Around the World*. Routledge publishing company.
- McNerney, M., and Mendelsohn, D. (1992). "Suprasegmentals in the Pronunciation Class: Setting Priorities". In P. Avery and S. Ehrlich (Eds), *Teaching American English pronunciation*. Oxford University Press.
- Meyer G. Paul. (2005). *Synchronic English Linguistics: An Introduction*. Gunter Narr Verlag. Copyright.
- Mollin, S. (2006). *Euro-English: Assessing Variety Status*. Gunter Narr Verlag.

- Nicolaidis, K. (2011). *An Electropalatography Study of Greek Spontaneous Speech*. Journal of international Phonetic Association.
- Nitin, B. (2010). *Communicative English for Engineers and Professionals*. Pearson Education India.
- Norris, R. W. (1994). *Keeping up with Native Speaker Speed: An Investigation of Reduced Forms and Deletions in Informal Spoken English*. Studies in Comparative Culture, 25, 72-79.
- O'Connor, J. D. (2004). *Better English Pronunciation*. Second edition. Cambridge University Press.
- Odden, D. (2005). *Introducing Phonology*. Cambridge University Press, New York.
- Odumuh, A.E. (1987). *Nigerian English (NigE)*. Zaria: University Press.
- Ogu, j. (1992). *A Historical Survey of English and Nigerian Situation*. Lagos: Krafts Books Ltd.
- Oji, E. (1984). *English Studies Nnsuka*. University Press.
- Oladipupo, R.O. (2014). *Aspect of Connected Speech Processes in Nigerian English*. Sgo.sagepub.com.
- Osisanwo, A. (2009). *Fundamentals of English Phonetics and Phonology*. Ibadan: Femelous-Fetop Publishers.
- Pike, K. L. (1945). *The Intonation of American English*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

- Roach, P. (2009a). *English Phonetics and Phonology*. A Practical course, fourth edition. Cambridge University.
- Roach, P. (2009b). *English phonetics and Phonology*. Glossary. A little Encyclopaedia of phonetics.
- Schane, S. A.(1973). *Generative Phonology*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *Applied Linguistics. Second edition*. Hodder Education. An Hachette UK Company.
- Scheibman, J. (2000). *I dunno: A Usage-based Account of the Phonological Reduction of don't in American conversation*. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 32, 105-124.
- Simon Bobda, A. (2007). "Some Segmental Rules of Nigerian English Phonology. English World-Wide". In Oladipupo, R.O.(eds). *Aspect of Connected Speech Processes in Nigerian English*. Sgo.sagepub.com
- Skandera, P. and Burleigh, P. (2011 ). *A Manual of English Phonetics and Phonology: Twelve Lesson with an Integrated Course in Phonetic Transcription*. Gunter Narr Verlag.
- Stampe, D. (1979). *A Dissertation on Natural Phonology*. New York: Garland. (published) version of doctoral dissertation. University of Chicago 1973.
- Stoel-Gammon, C. (1992). *Phonological Development: Models, Research, Implication*, 8 editions. World Cat member libraries worldwide.
- Thomas, E. (2010). *Sociophonetics: An Introduction*. Palgrave Macmillan.

- Thomas, R. M. (2003). *Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods in Theses and Dissertations*. Corwin press, INC- A sage publications company. Thousands oaks, California.
- Trubetzkoy, N. S. (1939). *Grundzuge der Phonology*. Travaux du cercle Linguistique de Prague 7. Reprinted 1958, Gottingen: Vandenhoeck and Ruprecht.
- Trudgil et al. (2002). *International English: Guide to the Varieties of Standard English*. London: Arnold. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Wardhaugh, R. (1977). *Introduction to Linguistics*. McGraw-Hill.
- Wells, J. (2008). *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary*. Longman Italia.
- Widdowson, H.G (1979). *Explorations in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wright, S. and Kerswill, P. (2009). *Eletropalatography in the Analysis of Connected Speech Processes*.
- Yule, G. (2006). *The Study of Language*. Cambridge University Press.

## APPENDIX A. STUDY OF TASK MATERIALS

### Reading task

#### WEAK FORMS

Sentence and Phases used	Pronunciation (weak forms)
They can wait	[ðe k n 'we t]
Shut the door	[ t ð 'd :]
Read a book	[r i:d 'b k]
take your time	[te j 'ta m]
From work	[fr m 'w :k]
Try to stop	[tra t 'st p]

#### CONSONANT ELISION

Phases used	Pronunciation (consonant elision)
Must try	[m s 'tra ]
Last time	[lɑ:s ta m]
Big grape	[b gre p]
Good day	[g de ]
should have	[ d v]
Black cap	[blæ kæp]

## VOWEL ELISION

Words and Phases used	Pronunciation (vowel elision)
go away	[g : 'we ]
try again	[tra: 'gen]
run along	[r n 'l ŋ]
Police	[pli:s]
Philosophy	[f 'l sfi]
Potato	[p'te t ]

## LIAISON: LINKING /J/

Sentences and phrases used	Pronunciation
The exercise	ði 'jeks sa z]
I agree	[a 'j gri:]
They are here	[ðe j h ]
Annoy Arthur	n 'ja:0 ]
My ears	ma 'j z]
Beauty and	[bju:ti: 'j nd]

**LIAISON: LINKING /w/**

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation
I know it	[a n 'w t]
Now i	[na 'wa ]
As you entered	z ju went d
Window open	[w nd w p n]
Now and then	[na w nd ðen]
two-eyed	[tu: wa d]

**LIAISON: LINKING /r/**

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation
Mother and father	[m ð r n fa:ð ]
For instance	[f : r nt ns]
Answer it	[ɑ:ns r t]
Far off	[fa: r f]
Four aces	[f : re s s]
Wear out	[we r t]

### LIAISON: INTRUSIVE /r/

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation
Drama and music	[dra:m r m 'mju:z k]
Area of agreement	[ 'e r r v 'gri:m nt]
Media event	[mi:di r vent]
Russia and China	r r n 't a n ]
Media are to blame	[mi:di r a: t ble m]
Law and order	[l :r nd ' :d ]

### LIAISON: CONSONANT TO VOWEL LINKING

Sentences and Phases used	Pronunciation
Look out	[l ka t]
Give in	[g v n]
Less often	[Le z' fn]
Watch out	[w t a t]
Read a book for me	ri:d b k f mi:]
Not all	[n t :l]