

RÉPUBLIQUE DU CAMEROUN
Paix- Travail- Patrie

UNIVERSITÉ DE YAOUNDÉ I

FACULTE DES ARTS, LETTRES
ET SCIENCES HUMAINES

DÉPARTEMENT D'ANGLAIS



REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON
Peace- Work- Fatherland

UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I

FACULTY OF ARTS, LETTERS AND
SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

**CONNECTED SPEECH PROCESSES IN THE UTTERANCES OF
LEVEL ONE STUDENTS: THE CASE OF THOSE READING
ENGLISH MODERN LETTERS, GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY IN
THE UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I**

*A Dissertation Submitted to the University of Yaounde I in Partial Fulfilment of the
Requirements for the Award of the Master's Degree in English*

SPECIALISATION: ENGLISH LANGUAGE

BY

JEAN-CAMILLE NYACHA KANMENI

**BA IN AFRICAN LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF DOUALA**

**DIPES II IN ENGLISH
HIGHER TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE-YAOUNDE**

SUPERVISOR

JEAN-PAUL KOUEGA

**PROFESSOR
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I**



JUNE 2023

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my father, Mr Kanmeni Emmanuel.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful completion of this work was thanks to the collaboration and assistance of many people to whom I am highly indebted.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to my supervisor, Prof. Jean-Paul Kouega, who, despite his numerous commitments, took out time to supervise this work with patience and diligence.

I am grateful to all my lecturers of the Departments of English in the University of Yaounde I, for the knowledge they imparted in me throughout my M.A. coursework in this prestigious institution.

A special appreciation goes to my respondents of the Departments of English, Geography and History for their collaboration during the collection of the data for this study.

My sincere gratitude also goes to my parents, siblings, course mates, and friends whose constant pieces of advice and encouragements have been profitable for the successful completion of this work.

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of History	10
Table 2: Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of Geography	11
Table 3: Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of English.....	12
Table 4: The renditions of the letter T	27
Table 5: The renditions of the letter D	28
Table 6: The renditions of the letter N	28
Table 7: The renditions of the sequence of letters NT	29
Table 8: The renditions of the letter S	29
Table 9: Voicing assimilation.....	30
Table 10: Elision.....	32
Table 11: Elision at word-medial position	33
Table 12: Elision of the consonants /t,d/	34
Table 13: Elision of word final /t/	34
Table 14: Elision of word final /d/	35
Table 15: Determiners.....	40
Table 16: Pronouns.....	40
Table 17: Auxiliaries	40
Table 18: Prepositions	41
Table 19: Conjunctions and adverbs	41
Table 20: Lexical words.....	42
Table 21: Classification of Respondents according to Fields of Study.....	62
Table 22: Classification of Respondents according to Dominant Official Languages	62
Table 23: Classification of Respondents according to Gender	63
Table 24: Linguistic items involving the Connected Speech Processes of Assimilation.....	68
Table 25: Linguistic items involving Connected Speech Processes of Elision.....	69
Table 26: Linguistic items involving Connected Speech Processes of Liaison	70
Table 27a: Rendition of the phrase ‘this year’	71
Table 27b: Rendition of the phrase ‘this year’	72

Table 28: Rendition of the phrase ‘could you’	72
Table 29: Rendition of the phrase ‘on the table’	73
Table 30: Rendition of the phrase ‘newspaper’	74
Table 31: Rendition of the phrase ‘ten glasses’	74
Table 32: Rendition of the phrase ‘don’t pin’	75
Table 33: Rendition of the phrase ‘was sent’	76
Table 34: Rendition of the phrase ‘have finished’	76
Table 35: Rendition of the phrase ‘blind man’	77
Table 36: Rendition of the phrase ‘got to’	78
Table 37: Rendition of the phrase ‘bend down’	78
Table 38: Rendition of the phrase ‘government’	79
Table 39: Rendition of the phrase ‘university’	80
Table 40: Rendition of the phrase ‘usually’	80
Table 41: Rendition of the phrase ‘go out’	81
Table 42: Rendition of the phrase ‘four o’clock’	81
Table 43: Rendition of the phrase ‘the apple’	82
Table 44: Rendition of the phrase ‘left alone’	83
Table 45: Rendition of the phrase ‘law and order’	84
Table 46: Rendition of the phrase ‘thank you all’	84
Table 47: The overall performance of the respondents	85
Table 48: Classification according to the frequency and the category of deviant renditions	87

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA:	Contrastive Analysis
CamE:	Cameroon English
EA:	Error Analysis
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ELT:	English Language Teaching
EMI:	English Medium of Instruction
ENL:	English as a Native Language
ESL:	English as a Second Language
FMI:	French Medium of Instruction
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
NE:	New Englishes
RCSP:	Restructured Connected Speech Processes
RI:	Reading in Isolation
RP:	Received Pronunciation
SBE:	Standard British English
SRS:	Sentence Reading Style

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ii
LIST OF TABLES	iii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
ABSTRACT	x
RESUME.....	xi
INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	4
Introduction	4
1.1 Evolution of English in the World.....	4
1.2 English in education in Cameroon.....	7
1.2.1 English language in the syllabus	8
1.2.2 English language phonology in textbooks	9
1.2.3 Time devoted to English Language teaching	9
1.2.3.1 Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of History	10
1.2.3.2 Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of Geography.....	11
1.2.3.3 Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of English	12
1.2.4 Proportion of phonology in English language teaching.....	13
Conclusion.....	13
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	14
Introduction	14
2.1 Theoretical framework	14
2.1.1 Error Analysis	14
2.1.1.1 Precursors to Error Analysis.....	14
2.1.1.2 Error Analysis proper	15
2.1.1.3 Steps for analyzing errors using Corder’s EA Theory	16

2.1.1.4	Further insights on Corder’s EA Theory	18
2.1.1.5	Types and Sources of Errors.....	19
2.1.1.6	The Importance of Errors in Second Language Learning	21
2.1.1.7	The Relevance of EA to this work.....	21
2.1.2	Connected speech processes	22
2.1.2.1	The connected speech process of assimilation	22
2.1.2.1.1	Types of Assimilation	23
2.1.2.1.2	Differentiating assimilation from similitude.....	25
2.1.2.1.3	Phonological rules for assimilation.....	27
2.1.2.1.4	The Difficulties for Non-Native Speakers in Producing Assimilation	30
2.1.2.2	The connected speech process of elision.....	32
2.1.2.3	The connected speech process of liaison.....	36
2.1.2.3.1	Types of Liaison.....	36
2.1.2.4	The connected speech process of vowel reduction.....	39
2.2	Review of related literature	43
2.2.1	Cameroon English (CamE) phonology	43
2.2.1.1	Cameroon English vowels	43
2.2.1.1.1	Replacement of RP vocalic segments	44
2.2.1.1.2	Replacement of diphthongs.....	45
2.2.1.1.3	Monophthongisation of RP diphthongs	46
2.2.1.1.4	Restructuring of triphthongs	47
2.2.1.2	Cameroon English consonants	47
2.2.1.2.1	The consonantal processes in CamE	47
2.2.1.3	Spelling Pronunciation	49
2.2.1.3.1	Silent Letters Pronounced	49
2.2.1.3.2	Other Spelling Induced Pronunciation	49
2.2.1.4	Stress Deviation.....	50
2.2.2	The relationship between phonological variables and sociolinguistic variables	52
2.2.2.1	Language use and level of education	52
2.2.2.2	Works on connected speech	54

2.2.3 Gaps and contributions.....	59
Conclusion.....	60
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY.....	61
Introduction.....	61
3.1 Area of the study.....	61
3.2 Population of the study.....	61
3.3 Methods of data collection.....	63
3.3.1 Tools for data collection.....	64
3.3.2 Data collection procedure.....	66
3.4 Method of data analysis.....	67
3.5 Difficulties encountered.....	67
Conclusion.....	67
CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS.....	68
Introduction.....	68
4.1 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘this year’.....	71
4.2 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘could you’.....	72
4.3 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘on the table’.....	73
4.4 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘newspaper’.....	73
4.5 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘ten glasses’.....	74
4.6 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘don’t pin’.....	75
4.7 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘was sent’.....	76
4.8 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘have finished’.....	76
4.9 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘blind man’.....	77
4.10 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘got to’.....	77
4.11 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘bend down’.....	78
4.12 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘government’.....	79
4.13 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘university’.....	80
4.14 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘usually’.....	80
4.15 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘go out’.....	81
4.16 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘four o’clock’.....	81

4.17 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'the apple'	82
4.18 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'left alone'	83
4.19 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'law and order'	83
4.20 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'thank you all'	84
4.21 CamE features of connected speech	90
4.21.1 CamE features of assimilation	90
4.21.2 CamE features of elision	92
4.21.3 CamE features of liaison	93
Conclusion.....	94
CONCLUSION.....	95
REFERENCES	101
APPENDICES	106

ABSTRACT

This study set out to investigate Connected Speech Processes in the utterances of Level One students. The frame used for the analysis is Jackson's (1982), and the tool for the analysis is Error Analysis developed by Corder (1967). In order to collect the data needed for the study, 20 informants selected from the University of Yaounde I, involving 10 English Modern Letters students and 10 History and Geography students, were subjected to the reading of some 20 pre-prepared sentences containing phonological variables involving assimilation, elision and liaison, and a tape recorder was used to record their phonological renditions. The analysis of the data revealed many interesting findings. It was found out that Level One students' use of connected speech is insignificant. It is only in a few situations, namely in the production of *could you*, *newspaper*, *got to* and *bend down*, that the respondents observed strict SBE connected speech, with percentages of 5%, 20%, 5% and 100%, respectively. Surprisingly enough, it was also found out that there is no significant difference in the performance of English Modern Letters and History and Geography students, given that out of the 20 linguistic items that were administered to the students, both levels recorded a percentage of 0% in 16 of them. It is only in the renditions of 2 linguistic items (*could you* and *got to*), that English Modern Letters recorded percentages of 05% and 05%, respectively, while their History and Geography counterparts recorded 0% in both items. These percentages, as can be observed, are mediocre and not significant enough to place English Modern Letters students above their History and Geography counterparts, with regard to knowledge or use of SBE connected speech. Also surprising was the emergence of new connected speech processes that considerably deviated from what obtains in SBE. Considering the dominant percentages of those new processes, it can therefore be maintained that, the phonological area of connected speech significantly contributes to the literature on CamE.

RESUME

Cette étude a pour but d'examiner les processus de discours connectés dans le discours des étudiants de niveau 1. Le cadre utilisé est celui de Jackson (1982), et l'outil d'analyse est l'Analyse des Erreurs développée par Corder (1967). Afin de collecter les données nécessaires à l'étude, 20 répondants sélectionnés à l'Université de Yaoundé I, dont 10 étudiants en lettres modernes anglaises et 10 étudiants en histoire et géographie, ont été soumis à la lecture d'une vingtaine de phrases préparées à l'avance contenant des variables phonologiques impliquant l'assimilation, l'élision et la liaison, et un magnétophone a été utilisé pour enregistrer leurs interprétations phonologiques. L'analyse des données a révélé de nombreux résultats intéressants. Il s'est avéré que l'utilisation par les étudiants du niveau 1 du discours connecté est insignifiante. Ce n'est que dans quelques situations, à savoir dans la production de *could you*, *newspaper*, *got to* et *bend down*, que les répondants ont observé un discours connecté du strict SBE, avec des pourcentages de 5%, 20%, 5% et 100%, respectivement. De manière assez surprenante, il a également été constaté qu'il n'y a pas de différence significative dans les performances des étudiants en lettres modernes anglaises et en histoire et géographie, étant donné que sur les 20 items linguistiques administrés à ceux-ci, les deux niveaux ont enregistré un pourcentage de 0 % pour 16 d'entre eux. Ce n'est que dans les interprétations de deux items linguistiques (*could you* et *got to*) que les lettres modernes anglaises ont enregistré des pourcentages de 05% et 05%, respectivement, tandis que leurs homologues d'histoire et de géographie ont enregistré 0 % dans les deux items. Ces pourcentages, comme on peut le constater, sont médiocres et pas assez significatifs pour placer les étudiants de lettres modernes anglaises au-dessus de leurs homologues d'histoire et de géographie, en ce qui concerne la connaissance ou la conscience du discours connecté du SBE. Il est également surprenant de constater l'émergence de nouveaux processus de discours connecté qui s'écartent considérablement de ce qui se passe en SBE. Tenant compte de la dominance de ces nouveaux aspects phonologique du discours connecté, nous pouvons conclure qu'ils contribuent de manière significative à la littérature du *CamE*.

INTRODUCTION

The languages of the colonial nations constitute one of the remarkable colonial heritages of the colonized counterpart nations across the world. These languages gained approval and recognition, in most cases, to the point that they now serve different communicative purposes in most postcolonial nations. Cameroon, like most countries sharing a similar colonial experience (India, Ghana, Nigeria, Tanzania, Kenya, Zimbabwe and many others), has given a particular status to English, by making the language one of her Official Languages. English is used in education, legislature and judiciary, commerce, medicine, the newspaper, and other communicative situations. English has enjoyed, and continues to enjoy this special status in Cameroon. With close regard to education, which sets the pace for the effective and efficient use of the language in the other domains, Standard British English is the variety of English recommended as a medium of instruction in the Cameroonian classroom. In this part of the work, the research problem, the research questions, the research objectives, the scope of the study, the significance of the study, and the structure of the work are handled in turns.

Research problem

It has been observed that, most works on the phonological features of Cameroon English have laid emphasis on isolated phonemes (Massanga, 1983; Kouega, 1991; Simo Bobda, 1994), and works targeting features that go a little bit beyond the segmental, like connected speech processes such as assimilation, elision and liaison are lacking in number. On top of that, despite the fact that Standard British English (henceforth, SBE) is both the variety recommended as a medium of instruction and the model to be promoted in the Cameroonian classroom, indigenised features are observed in the speech of a great deal of Cameroonian speakers of English, involving students of the university. Past studies have proven that even English Language teachers, who are considered as linguistic models by the general public and are expected, as such, to disseminate and promote SBE features in Cameroon through their teachings, are not exempted from this situation (Atechi, 2006; Ngefac, 2010; Angwah, 2015; Yaah, 2016; Eyenga-Ngoa, 2020).

Research questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1- To what extent do Level One students observe connected processes in their speech?
- 2- What are the discrepancies that exist between Level One students' features of connected speech and what obtains in RP?
- 3- How predictable are Level One students' features of connected processes?

Research objectives

This study, therefore, sets out to investigate: the extent to which Level One students observe connected processes in their speech (1), how the Level One students' connected processes differ from what obtains in RP (2) and whether the Level One students' features of connected processes are syncretic enough to be considered a Cameroonian variety (3). In recent years, the whole notion of connected speech has occupied a central position in the literature. Jackson (1982), quoted in Kouega (1999: 161), claims that 'connected speech describes the changes that individual sounds representing various letters undergo when people engage in ordinary talk or rapid speech. The changes are grouped under assimilation, elision, liaison and vowel reduction.' According to Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (1994:78), 'In isolation, segments are in their ideal forms. But in company of others, they undergo a number of modifications. The phenomena affecting sounds in company include: assimilation, elision, and liaison.' All these definitions, no doubt, suggest that spoken language is more than a matter of consonants, vowels and stress as observed by Tench (1981), quoted in Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (1994: 13). Spoken language, rather, is a blend of a great deal of phenomena that speakers of a language need to master in order to communicate accurately and adequately.

Scope of the study

The study has a well-defined linguistic and sociolinguistic scope. From a linguistic standpoint, it investigates the phonological aspect of connected speech, also known as sounds in company. From a sociolinguistic standpoint, it focuses on the sociolinguistic variable of level of education and specialty. As concerns this sociolinguistic variable, the focus of this study is on Level One students of the university, the case of those reading English,

Geography and History in the University of Yaounde I. This sets out to investigate whether the students observe connected speech processes at all, and if there is a predictable difference between what they observe and what obtains in RP. And, consequently, if the students' features of connected processes are systematic enough to be christened a Cameroonian variety.

Significance of the study

This study is significant in many ways. Firstly, most previous works on the phonological features of Cameroon English have laid emphasis on isolated phonemes (Massanga, 1983; Kouega, 1991; Simo Bobda, 1994), and works targeting features that go a little bit beyond the segmental, like connected speech processes such as assimilation, elision and liaison are lacking in number. Secondly, the relationship between linguistic variables and sociolinguistic variables has been studied mostly in the Western world (See Labov, 1966; Trudgill, 1974; Macaulay, 1976; Newbrook, 1982) and there are few of such works in postcolonial contexts like Cameroon. Thirdly, this study provides further evidence that SBE has undergone some significant twists and turns in a New English context like Cameroon. Finally, this work is an attempt to further codify and lay the foundations of a Cameroonian variety of English, since it is the variety of English spoken by a good majority of Cameroonians. With regard to the promotion of SBE (the sole target variety promoted in the classroom and beyond) which is not yielding the expected fruits, indigenised Cameroon English, which dominates the speech of a good number of Cameroonians, needs to be adequately described for subsequent codification or standardisation by policy makers.

Structure of the work

The work is made up of four chapters. Chapter One takes up the background to the study, which spans across the evolution of English in the world and English in education in Cameroon. Chapter Two is an insight into the theoretical orientations of the work and the review of related literature. Chapter Three brings to the limelight the methodology used in carrying out the work. Chapter Four presents an analysis of the data collected and discusses the findings of the investigation.

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the evolution of English in the world (1.1) and English in education in Cameroon (1.2). The section on the evolution of English in the World explores how English has left its traditional seats, and has crossed both national and continental boundaries to new areas, where it serves various communicative functions. The section on the situation of English in the Cameroonian educational system is concerned with the English subsystem, paying particular attention to the English language syllabus, English language phonology in the prescribed textbooks, the timetables and course dispensations of the targeted level (Level One students of the University of Yaounde I), and the devoted to English Language teaching.

1.1 Evolution of English in the World

The English language, which was once considered as a language restricted to some nations in the Western world like, the United Kingdom, America, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, has witnessed a considerable change in status. English has spread its tentacles from its traditional seats to the four corners of the world, making it a global language. The language has journeyed across national, international and continental boundaries (Kachru, 1985, 1986; Schneider, 2007 and Ngefac, 2010). Consequently, English is now used on all the six continents of the world and it enjoys the status of either first, second or foreign language on these continents (Crystal, 1997). Swan (1996: 12), quoted in Yaah (2016), claims that English “is more widely scattered, more widely spoken, and written than any other language on the planet, the first truly global language”. The language is so widely spread and used in the world today that even countries like Burundi, Gabon, Rwanda, and South Sudan, in short, countries which have no colonial history with English tend to go for it as a reference language as stated by Plonski and Teferra (2013), quoted in Angwah (2015). The fact that English has gone beyond its traditional boundaries has transformed the language

into a very heterogeneous system that has been adopted and adapted. Schneider (2007), quoted in Ngefac (2010: 3), in the statement below, captures the extent to which the English language has been disseminated in the different nooks and crannies of the planet, and has acquired diverse forms, statuses and functions according to the contextual realities of the different postcolonial contexts in which it has been transplanted:

Its pull and attractiveness are immense. From Barbados to Australia, from Kenya to Hong Kong, a traveller will today get along with English, but he or she will also realise that the Englishes encountered are quite different from each other- pronounced with varying accents, employing local words opaque to an outsider, and even, on closer inspection, constructing sentences with certain words in slightly different ways. What is perhaps even more interesting is that our virtual traveller will encounter native speakers of English not only in Canada and New Zealand where this would be expected, but also in Nigeria and Singapore, and in many other parts of the world in which English is not an ancestral language. (Schneider, 2007)

A number of models have been brought forth to explain the spread and classification of English in the world, amongst which: Strevens's world map of English; Kachru's model of World Englishes; Schneider's dynamic model of postcolonial Englishes; McArthur's "wheel model"; Görlach's circle model, and Modiano's model. The most influential model of the spread of English is Kachru's model of World Englishes. In this model, the diffusion of English is captured in terms of three Concentric Circles of the language: The Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle.

The Inner Circle refers to English as it originally took shape and was spread across the world in the first diaspora. In this transplantation of English, speakers from England carried the language to Australia, New Zealand, North America and White South Africa. The Inner Circle thus represents the traditional historical and sociolinguistic bases of English in regions where it is now used as a primary language: the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. These countries are referred to as traditional or cultural bases of the language, or countries that have English as a mother tongue.

The Outer Circle of English was produced by the second diaspora of English, which spread the language through imperial expansion by Great Britain in Asia and Africa. In these regions, English is not the mother tongue, but serves as a useful lingua franca or one of the official mediums of communication between ethnic and language groups. In such countries, education, the legislature and judiciary, national commerce and so on are all carried out predominantly in English. This circle includes countries like India, Nigeria, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Malaysia, Tanzania, Kenya, the Philippines (colonized by the United States of America) and others.

The Expanding Circle encompasses countries where English plays no historical or governmental role, but where it is nevertheless widely used as a medium of international communication. This includes much of the rest of the countries not categorized above, including territories such as China, Nepal, Russia, Japan, non-Anglophone Europe (especially the Netherlands and Nordic countries), South Korea, Egypt, Togo, Morocco, and Gabon.

By analogy, Kachru's Inner, Outer and Expanding circle countries refer to countries that were traditionally classified as ENL (English as a Native Language), ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) nations.

It is worthy to note that, by virtue of her significant colonial experience with Britain leading to the appropriation of English to serve diverse functions, Cameroon can justifiably be classified under the Outer Circle. Cameroon, like most postcolonial nations of Britain (India, Ghana, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, just to name but these), has given the language an official status. By official status, it means that the language functions as one used in the media, government, law courts, and educational system. It is worth mentioning that the language can be a sole official (the only official language) or co-official (sharing the status of official language with another language), like the case of Cameroon where English shares the status of official language with French. This special status, no doubts, implies the indispensable need to master at least one of the languages for a successful insertion into such a country. Echu (2003) points out that, besides English and French being the official languages of the country, Cameroon has an intrinsic linguistic landscape wherein several other languages share communicative functions. They include Cameroon Pidgin English

which serves as a lingua franca, and about 247 indigenous languages which are used as means of communication among speakers from different ethnic groups that make up the country.

With regard to the situation of English in such a multilingual and multicultural context, it is worth mentioning that the language has acquired several context-based characteristics that are significantly drifting from those of SBE at all linguistic levels like that of, phonology, syntax, morphology, lexicology etc. This can account for Pence's and Justice's (2008) claim that "languages are not static; they grow and develop as tools for communication as the cultures and communities of which they are part of change". Notwithstanding the falling standards of English in Cameroon, SBE is the pronunciation model that is officially recommended in the English Language Teaching industry and teachers, irrespective of their backgrounds, are expected to impart its knowledge in students. Owing to the fact that these pedagogic prescriptions aimed at instilling SBE norms in students, it is of prior importance to investigate the extent to which such prescriptions are yielding their expected fruits.

1.2 English in education in Cameroon

This section of the work sheds light on the situation of English in the Cameroonian educational systems, with close regard to the English subsystem, paying particular attention to the English language syllabus (1.2.1), the proportion of phonology in the prescribed textbooks (1.2.2), the time devoted to English Language teaching (1.2.3) and the proportion of phonology in English Language teaching (1.2.4).

Cameroon, like most postcolonial nations of Britain (India, Ghana, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, just to name but these), has adopted the language of the colonial master in her educational system. As pointed out in Kouega (2007a and 2013), formal education in English was introduced in pre-independence British Cameroons (henceforth, Anglophone Cameroon) by a church planting team of English Baptist Missionaries led by Joseph Merrick in 1843. At independence in 1960, the part of Cameroon under French administration (henceforth, Francophone Cameroon) adopted French as its official language and, therefore, as the medium of instruction in all schools. In 1961, when Francophone Cameroon federated with

part of Anglophone Cameroon, the new country adopted both French and English as its joint official languages, with French becoming a subject in Anglophone schools and English a subject in Francophone schools, as corroborated in Njika (2016:220). Since then, two systems of education have operated in the country, namely the Francophone and the Anglophone sub-systems. The description of the Anglophone sub-system, which is provided in a document published by the Cameroon GCE Board (General Certificate of Education Board) in 1997 and MINEDUC (Ministère de l'Education Nationale) in 2000, is as follows. Primary education in Cameroon is offered by three types of institutions: public schools run by the state, mission schools run by Catholic and Protestant clergy, and non-ecclesiastical schools run by businessmen. At the primary school level, Anglophone pupils are taught the English language subject and all other curriculum subjects through the English medium for a period of seven years.

1.2.1 English language in the syllabus

The English language syllabus, which is devised by Government-appointed school inspectors, lays emphasis on three skills, i.e., reading, writing, and listening, with little space being devoted to pronunciation and speaking. At the end of the seventh year, Anglophone pupils sit for the FSLC (First School Leaving Certificate). At the secondary school level, which also lasts for seven years, Anglophone students are taught in the English medium, a variety of subjects including accounting, biology, chemistry, commerce, and economics, just to name but these. In addition, they are taught the English language subject in the first five years of secondary education. At the end of the fifth year, i.e., in Form Five, they sit for the GCE O' Level (General Certificate of Education, Ordinary Level). It is required that, of all the subjects taught in class, candidates should choose not less than six, which may or may not include English. The syllabus of the English language subject, for those who choose to take it, comprises three papers. These are listening comprehension (Paper 1, 25 minutes), composition (Paper 2, 60 minutes), and writing (Paper 3, two hours and 15 minutes). In the listening comprehension test, a passage of about 400 words is read aloud by a teacher and the candidates' comprehension of this passage is checked in their answers to the multiple choice questions based on it. As can be inferred from this description, the candidates' own spoken performance is not evaluated. Two observations can be made here. First, one can obtain the

GCE O' Level without taking the English language subject. Second, even those candidates who take the English language subject can pass it with a very low proficiency in the speaking skill, as this skill is not evaluated. The next two years of secondary education are devoted to the reinforcement of knowledge in the subjects chosen by the learners. At this level, the English language disappears from the curriculum, as it is assumed that the learners are already competent in English; the nearest subject which is retained is English literature, whose component parts include drama, prose, and poetry. It is not until the year 2013 that English language was added to the Advanced level syllabus, yet as an optional paper. At the end of secondary education, candidates sit for the GCE A' Level (General Certificate of Education, Advanced Level). They are allowed to take up to five subjects from a list of 14 curriculum subjects. The chosen five, as can be guessed, may or may not include English literature and English language. In short, at the secondary level, very little place is devoted to the English language subject, and within this subject, very little place is devoted to pronunciation and speaking. This is likely to have a devastating effect on secondary learners' spoken performance.

1.2.2 English language phonology in textbooks

The prescribed textbook for the teaching of English in Upper Sixth for a couple of years now has been the 'Advanced Level English Language for Cameroon GCE'. It has been observed that in this prescribed textbook, sounds are only treated as single units like the sounds /æ, ɑ, ε, ə, ɜ, ɪ, i, ɒ, ʌ, ɔ, ʊ, u/, just to name but the monophthongs, and no attention is paid to sounds in company, which constitute the undoubted hallmarks of fluent speakers of English. As you will notice on the sample table of contents of the prescribed English Language text for Upper Sixth, found in the appendices, there is no space for features beyond the segmental, like the connected speech processes of assimilation, elision and liaison.

1.2.3 Time devoted to English Language teaching

It is worth pointing out that, in the University of Yaounde I, courses are lectured using both the English Medium Instruction (henceforth, EMI) and the French Medium Instruction (henceforth, FMI), though not with equal proportions. The degree of exposure to English

Language teaching in the departments that constitute the focus of our study, that is History, Geography and English Modern Letters, are handled in turn.

1.2.3.1 Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of History

The degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of History with regard to instruction is presented the Table 1 below.

Table 1: Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of History

N°.	Course Codes	Course Titles	Percentage of English Medium Instruction
1	HIS111	INITIATION À L'HISTOIRE ET À LA DISSERTATION HISTORIQUE. /	0%
2	HIS112	INTRODUCTION À L'EGYPTOLOGIE. /	0%
3	HIS121	EXPLICATION DES TEXTES HISTORIQUES. /	0%
4	HIS122	LES EMPIRES DE L'AFRIQUE OCCIDENTALE ET CENTRALE. /	0%
5	HIS131	HISTOIRE DU PEUPLEMENT ET DES INSTITUTIONS DU CAMEROUN ANCIEN. /	50%
6	HIS132	HISTOIRE DE L'AMÉRIQUE ET DE L'ASIE. /	50%
7	HIS141	THE ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS OF ANCIENT CAMEROON. /	100%
8	HIS142	HISTOIRE DE L'EUROPE ANCIENNE. /	0%
9	GEO151	GÉOGRAPHIE PHYSIQUE 1 /	0%
10	HIS152	ENGLISH POUR FRANCOPHONES/FRANÇAIS POUR ANGLOPHONES /	0%

As illustrated on Table 1 above, the degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of History with regard to instruction is quite insignificant. The History students only had 100% EMI in 1 course (HIS141), and 50% EMI in 2 (HIS131 and HIS132) out of

the 10 courses they read throughout the year. That is, they were predominantly lectured in the French Language.

1.2.3.2 Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of Geography

The degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of Geography as concerns instruction is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of Geography

N°	Course Code	Course Title	Percentage of English Medium Instruction
1	GEO111	INITIATION À LA GÉOMORPHOLOGIE ET À LA BIOGÉOGRAPHIE /	50%
2	GEO112	INITIATION AUX ÉTUDES ENVIRONNEMENTALES /	0%
3	GEO121	INITIATION À LA CLIMATOLOGIE ET À L'HYDROLOGIE /	0%
4	GEO122	GÉOGRAPHIE RÉGIONALE I /	0%
5	GEO131	INITIATION À LA GÉOGRAPHIE RURALE ET URBAINE /	0%
6	GEO132	TECHNIQUES DE LA GÉOGRAPHIE II /	0%
7	GEO141	INITIATION À LA GÉOGRAPHIE ÉCONOMIQUE ET DE LA POPULATION /	0%
8	GEO142	TECHNIQUES DE LA GÉOGRAPHIE I /	50%
9	GEO152	FORMATION BILINGUE /	0%
10	HIS151	HISTOIRE DE L'AFRIQUE NOIRE DES ORIGINES À L'ARRIVÉE DES EUROPÉENS /	0%

As showcased in Table 2 above, a similar situation as that in Table 1 is observed. The degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of Geography, as concerns instruction, is quite insignificant. The Geography students only had 50% EMI in 2 courses

(GEO111 and GEO142) out of the 10 courses they read throughout the year. That is, they were predominantly lectured in the French Language.

1.2.3.3 Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of English

The degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of English is presented the Table 3 below.

Table 3: Degree of exposure to English Language in the Department of English

N°.	Course Code	Course Title	Percentage of English Medium Instruction
1	ENG111	HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE /	100%
2	ENG112	WRITING SKILLS I /	100%
3	ENG121	GRAMMAR AND LEXICOLOGY /	100%
4	ENG122	ENGLISH PHONOLOGY I /	100%
5	ENG131	INTRODUCTION TO LITERARY STUDIES /	100%
6	ENG132	AMERICAN LITERATURE: FROM BEGINNING TO 18TH CENTURY /	100%
7	ENG141	BRITISH LITERATURE: ANGLO-SAXON TO RESTORATION /	100%
8	ENG142	INTRODUCTION TO COMMONWEALTH LITERATURE /	100%
9	ASC151	THEATRE AND TELEVISION /	100%
10	ENG152	FRANÇAIS /	0%

As opposed to the low exposure of the History and Geography students to English Language (as illustrated in Tables 1 and 2 above), Table 3 rather reveals that the Department of English strictly follows an EMI policy. All the 10 courses read in Level One, are lectured in English Language, but for the Bilingual Training course (ENG512), as one would expect.

Summarily, the statistics presented on the tables above inform us on the fact that our informants (Level One students of the departments of History, Geography and English), though of English expressions, have an unequal exposure to the English Language in the University of Yaounde I. That is, their only equal exposure to the English Language ended in Upper Sixth.

1.2.4 Proportion of phonology in English language teaching

As pointed out in previous studies, and as observed by the researcher during his teaching, the teaching of pronunciation is a neglected area in secondary schools. During the little amount of time granted to its teaching (speech work, as it is called), teachers focus on sounds in isolation, as suggested in the prescribed textbooks put at their disposal, to the detriment of connected speech aspects, like assimilation, elision and liaison. Consequently, in the course of teaching pronunciation, these teachers inadvertently make students believe that a letter is equal to a sound, what actually leads them astray; given that sounds undergo a good number of changes when they come in contact with other sounds. This goes as far as leading to a problem of spelling pronunciation (as English words tend to be pronounced as their orthography suggest), as pointed out in Kouega (2013). Further studies like Yaah (2016) and Eyenga-Ngoa (2020) have revealed that even English language teachers themselves do not make use of connected speech features, like liaison and assimilation, in their speech. This goes in line with what Ngefac (2011) refers to as a situation when the blind lead the blind.

Conclusion

In summary, this chapter explored the evolution of English in the World, and English in education in Cameroon. It can be contended that, irrespective of the fact that Cameroon has English as one of its colonial heritages, the situation of English in education in Cameroon (the English language syllabus, the English language prescribed textbooks, the time devoted for the teaching of English language in schools, and, of course, the proportion of phonology in English language teaching), prepares the ground for learners' low performance in the spoken English skill in general and in accuracy in pronunciation in particular.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter outlines the framework adopted for this study (2.1) and the review of related literature (2.2). The frame underlying the study is that proposed by Jackson (1982), while the tool for the analysis is Error Analysis by Corder (1967). With regard to literature review, works on Cameroon English phonological features and Standard British English phonology (with close attention to those on connected speech processes) are reviewed.

2.1 Theoretical framework

The focus of this section of the work is on the theoretical orientation that determined the perspective from which this study was carried out. The tool for the analysis is Error Analysis by Corder (1967) (2.1.1), and the frame for the phonological descriptions is Jackson's (1982) (2.1.2).

2.1.1 Error Analysis

As mentioned above, Error Analysis (henceforth, EA) is the tool for the analysis of this study. The following items are discussed under Error Analysis: Background to Error analysis (2.1.1.1), Error Analysis proper (2.1.1.2), steps for analyzing errors using Corder's EA theory (2.1.1.3), further insights on Corder's EA theory (2.1.1.4), types and sources of errors (2.1.1.5), the importance of errors in second language learning (2.1.1.6), and the relevance of Error analysis to this work (2.1.1.7).

2.1.1.1 Precursors to Error Analysis

EA was born from the shortcomings of its predecessor, the Contrastive Analysis (henceforth, CA). Propounded by Lado, in 1957, CA was, then, popularly used in the domain of Applied Linguistics, or Second Language Learning, to be more specific. Lado, in his CA,

hypothesized that learners' first language (L1) has a great influence on the acquisition of another language, which may be the second language (L2) or the target language. CA sought to investigate the extent to which the learner's L1 either threatened or enhanced the acquisition of an L2. As postulated in the literature on CA, a learner's L1 was believed to enhance the acquisition of the L2, so long as both languages had convergent structures, in this case pronunciation. A difference in structure between the learner's L1 and the L2 would, therefore, result in learning impairment. That is to say, in a case where the languages were similar in structure, learners would focus on these similarities to generate correct forms in the course of the L2 learning. Meanwhile, in a case where the languages were different in structure, learners would face challenges in acquiring the L2 structures. This hypothesis was termed positive and negative transfers, respectively, by Weinreich (1953:10). He maintained that linguistic structures that were similar in the L1 and L2 would enable learners to easily grasp and produce them correctly, while those that were different would cause learners to produce erroneous utterances. The relegation of CA to the backseat came about when subsequent empirical studies proved that a greater proportion of L2 learners' errors did not stem from the L1. A case in point is Ellis' (1985), in which the author made a striking discovery; only about 3 to 51% of learners' errors could be traced back to their L1. This led to the birth of a theory that could investigate, identify, describe, and classify learners' errors, that is EA.

2.1.1.2 Error Analysis proper

Corder laid the foundations of EA in his (1967) seminal paper entitled "The Significance of Learners' Errors", which is the landmark work that paved the way to Error Analysis. He viewed EA as a peak of studies that sets out to analyse learner's errors. It does so by studying the differences between native speaker's speech and the learner's. It is in this line that the learner is considered as a positive stakeholder to his own learning process and, believes that, as he is still discovering the language, this learner engages in a process of "trial and errors". This is of utmost importance in that errors are concrete data which serve to better evaluate the learner's input. In fact, they represent the divergence between the learner's "transitional competence" and the target language. The theoretician argues that the study of errors made by second language learners is important for understanding the process of second

language acquisition. He suggests that errors are not simply random mistakes, but elements that rather reflect the learner's underlying knowledge of the target language. He proposes that errors can be classified into two categories: systematic errors and random errors. Systematic errors are consistent errors that reflect the learner's knowledge of the target language, while random errors are occasional mistakes that do not reflect the learner's knowledge. The study of systematic errors can provide insights into the learner's interlanguage, which is the learner's developing knowledge of the target language. By analyzing the systematic errors made by learners, researchers can identify the areas of the target language that are difficult for learners and develop more effective language teaching methods.

Two types of errors are distinguished: errors of performance and errors of competence. Errors of performance are slips, mistakes, or lapses in language use that are typically caused by factors such as fatigue, stress, or distraction. Errors of competence, on the other hand, are errors that reflect learners' lack of knowledge or understanding of the target language system.

Errors were classified according to their significance, distinguished into two types: global errors, which affect the overall meaning of the utterance, and local errors, which affect the form of the utterance but not its meaning. Global errors are more significant than local errors because they can interfere with communication.

2.1.1.3 Steps for analyzing errors using Corder's EA Theory

The theoretician suggests six steps to consider when analyzing errors using the EA theory. They include: data collection, error identification, error description, error source identification, error evaluation, and providing feedback. They are handled in turns below.

- **Data collection**

By data collection, the researcher is expected to collect a sample of the learner's production in the target language. This can be done by either recording the learner's speech or writing, or by collecting samples of their work.

- **Identification of errors**

Here, one is expected to identify the errors made by the learner. Errors can be categorized into three types: omission, addition, and substitution. Omission has to do with

when a required element is missing, while addition suggests that an unnecessary element is added, and substitution, makes reference to when a wrong element is used in place of another.

- **Description of the errors**

This has to do with describing each error in detail, including the type of error and the context in which it occurred, and identifying the linguistic features that were affected by the error, such as grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation.

- **Identification of the source of errors**

Identify the source of the errors by analyzing the learner's underlying knowledge of the language. Errors can be caused by a number of factors, including interference from the learner's first language, overgeneralization of language rules, or incomplete or incorrect input.

- **Evaluation of the errors**

Evaluate the errors by considering their significance. Determine whether the errors are serious enough to interfere with communication or comprehension. Consider the frequency and consistency of the errors, as well as their impact on the overall language ability of the learner.

- **Providing feedback**

Provide feedback to the learner based on the analysis of the errors. This feedback should be specific, targeted, and focused on helping the learner improve their language proficiency. Provide examples of correct usage and encourage the learner to practice using the language in context.

Overall, Pit Corder's Theory of Error Analysis provides a useful framework for analyzing errors made by second language learners. By identifying the source of errors and evaluating their significance, teachers can provide targeted feedback to help learners improve their language proficiency.

2.1.1.4 Further insights on Corder's EA Theory

The ideas outlined above were further emphasized by a number of researchers, amongst whom Corder (1974), who asserts that “what has come to be known as Error Analysis has to do with the investigation of the language of the second language learner.” According to Lenon (1991:182), an error is a linguistic combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by speaker's native speaker counterpart. Hocking (1974), distinguishes between an error and a mistake. A mistake is a performance error due to random guess or a slip, while an error refers to the idiosyncrasies in the interlanguage of the learner, manifesting in the learner's system of operation while they are learning. An error can be seen as an L2 deviation from the adult's grammar of a native speaker which reflects the interlanguage of the learner. The ‘grammar of the adult native speaker’ serves as a model for the L2 learner. Thus, if an L2 learner deviates from the language of the native speaker, it is considered an error. More to this, errors cannot be self-corrected when made. In other words, errors are the bridge between the learner's current input with regard to the target language and the desired goal. Brown (2000), postulates that EA is “the process to observe, analyse, and classify deviations of the rules of second languages and then to reveal the systems operated by learners”.

A discussion of EA would not be comprehensive without the discussion of the notion of an error itself. An error can be defined as a deviation from the spoken or written production of a native speaker of a language. On his part, Corder (1973) views errors, especially learners' errors, as “breaches of code”, that is, errors that learners are most often not capable of correcting on their own. According to Dulay and Krashen (1982) errors are considered as “the flawed side of learner speech or writing. They are those parts of conversation and composition that deviate from some selected norms of mature language performance.” Some linguists even go further to differentiate between a mistake and an error. In this wise, Norrish (1983) thinks that errors are proofs that the learner has failed to learn something. Therefore, he views errors as “systematic deviation when a learner has not learnt something and constantly gets it wrong”. These are, thus, distortions or defaults of the language which the L2 learner can neither identify nor correct by himself.

According to Brown (2007), it is vital to make a distinction between mistakes and errors. He posits that mistakes are “a performance error that is either a random guess or a slip [of the tongue/ pen] in that it is a failure to utilise a known system correctly”. This basically means that the learner masters or has internal knowledge of a particular aspect, but just fails to realise it correctly because of a probable distraction or inadvertent moment. He goes on to affirm that mistakes are inherent to every human being, be they native, second or foreign language speakers who are competent in that language. He further refers to mistakes as “noticeable deviations from the adult grammar of a native speaker”. They reflect the “portion of the learner’s competence in the target language” (Brown: *ibid*). For James (1998) cited in Brown (2007), mistakes can be self-corrected by the speaker if they are pointed out to him while errors cannot, as the learner is ignorant of the correct forms. With such a clear classification, it would be wise to precise that the researcher will be focusing on errors, and not on mistakes.

2.1.1.5 Types and Sources of Errors

A number of classifications of errors have been brought forth by proponents of EA, and these classifications are of an indispensable importance to any researcher who uses EA as their theoretical premise. Some of these classifications are considered in turn in the paragraphs hereafter.

Two types of errors are distinguished: expressive and receptive errors. Expressive errors refer to those errors which are striking and obvious, and can be readily spotted in the speech of the learner. He thinks that expressive errors reflect the least mastery learners have of the target language. In other words, they are observable and can be easily analysed. Meanwhile, receptive errors are those errors that cannot be easily detected, since they are often dissimulated. They include “smiles, grunts, or other paralinguistic behaviours” that show that the learner has not understood (Corder, 1967).

Drawing from Chomsky’s ideas on competence and performance in language learning, Corder (*ibid*), goes on to show a significant difference between competence and performance errors. The latter denotes errors that are not systematic. He also calls them mistakes. These

are merely slips of the tongue which do not reflect the learner's performance in the target language. Therefore, he insists, such errors are not that important so, they should not be paid much attention. Ogrady et al (1981) shares a similar view, as he contends that performance errors are not the effect of incompetence in the target language, but the effects of lapses in the spontaneous flow of speech production, as a result of fear, hunger, fatigue, stress, excitement. Meanwhile, competence errors are such errors which are reflective of the least exposure the learner or the speaker has of a target language.

Cook (1999) cited in Kabilan (2013: 165) identifies four types of errors namely substitution, omission, insertion and transposition errors. This classification is not different from that of Corder (1973: 277) who subdivides errors into four types: omissions, additions, selections and misorderings. Further classifications of errors include Dulay et al. (1982), who classify errors into linguistic categories such as morphology, syntax, semantics, lexicology, discourse and phonology. It is worthy to emphasize the fact that the latter category (phonological errors) constitutes the focus of our work.

Richard et al (2002), talk about intralingual and interlingual sources of errors. Interlingual errors are those which occur as a result of a negative transfer from the first language (L1) to the target language (L2). According to Richards et al (ibid), interlingual errors (also known as interference or linguistic interference) are caused by the interference of the L1, whereby the learners tend to use their linguistic knowledge of the L1 on some linguistic features of the target language. Meanwhile, intralingual errors, as observed by Richards et al (ibid), are those that occur due to the misuse of a particular rule of the target language. Thus, putting focus on the target language as an error cause. Richards et al (ibid) considered such errors as those that result from the faulty or partial learning of the target language. They result from overgeneralisation of the rules of the target language. According to Ogrady et al. (1981:310), intralingual errors are developmental, since they occur within the L2 system.

2.1.1.6 The Importance of Errors in Second Language Learning

The importance of errors to second language learning cannot be left aside. Corder (1967) opines that errors are visible proofs that learning is taking place. The author asserts that a systematic study of errors can provide a significant insight into how a language is actually learned by an ESL learner. He adds that errors provide feedback, since they tell the teachers something about the effectiveness of their teaching. Dulay (1982:138), stresses three ways in which errors are important in second language learning. First, they help teachers know how much progress their learners make/have made; they provide the teacher with a picture of linguistic development and can give indications as to the learning process. This guides the teacher in his or her choice of material. Second, errors provide evidence to the researcher on how the second language is acquired and various learner strategies in the learning of a new language. Third, errors are indispensable to the learner because the making of errors is an indication of a learner's learning strategies. Sharma (1980) holds a similar view as Dulay (1982). According to her, Error Analysis can create a wash-back effect on the teacher, and cause him or her to review his or her teaching methods and techniques, because it can give the teacher hints on whether the learning process has recorded a success or a failure.

2.1.1.7 The Relevance of EA to this work

The relevance of EA to this study needs to be emphasized. EA is relevant to the present work because this work investigates the respondents' ability in connected speech and analyses the difference between their speech and what obtains in the standard variety of English (SBE). This is because the informants' renditions of phrases containing the targeted phonological variables (assimilation, elision and liaison), will be assessed in relation to RP norms, which is the variety of English pronunciation recommended in the English Language Classroom in Cameroon. In short, EA is of importance to the present study as it will reveal the extent to which the rules that bind sounds in company (with reference to assimilation, elision and liaison) are violated and the plausible reasons for this violation.

2.1.2 Connected speech processes

As Jackson (1982) points out, one of the hallmarks of fluent speakers of English is their ability to link words together in connected speech. The central processes in connected speech include assimilation, elision, liaison, and vowel reduction. They are considered in turn.

2.1.2.1 The connected speech process of assimilation

Assimilation in SBE, as Jackson (*ibid*) and many other researchers like Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (2008) and Kouega (2017) have pointed out, is a phenomenon whereby a sound takes on features of a neighbouring sound on his part, says assimilation is a process that has to do with the modification that a sound undergoes so as to become like another sound in its vicinity. Kouega (2017: 161) proceeds by saying that functionally, assimilation makes speaking smoother and more effortless, and it makes transition from one sound to the next more economical and less strenuous for the speaker. The Cambridge English Pronunciation Dictionary's definition of assimilation does not shift from the above-mentioned scholars' definitions, on the contrary, it sheds more light on them by telling us that assimilation is "a process found in all languages".

Assimilation is then used to ease the speech of native speakers as it helps them fluctuate with lots of ease from one sound unit to the next and increases the aesthetics and euphony of their English. It is of utmost importance to note here that native speakers have a tacit ability to assimilate sounds in their speech; that is, they do it quite unconsciously without having to rely on any rule. Assimilation is caused by phonological conditioning. The changes of sounds are mainly caused by the speaker's speed of utterance or the rapid movement of the speech organs from one position to another. This phenomenon causes both of the two sounds to change either into a third or into two other sounds very similar to one another. Usually, it happens in fast speaking. Such as "this young man", spoken rapidly, would be pronounced as [ðɪʃʌŋ mæn].

The process of assimilation is said to be more existing in English than the other processes of connected speech. It is worth to note here that assimilation is an aspect of connected speech like elision, liaison and vowel reduction. As a matter of fact, such features

are present in the speech of those who speak English as a native language, a mother tongue. Such speakers are equally called active speakers

To sum up, we can say in simpler terms that assimilation is a process through which a sound blends with another to create a new sound or a sound that looks like one of the two sounds involved in the blend. It is important, as pointed out by Kelly (2000: 52-73), to distinguish between the segment which is being assimilated called the assimilee, the segment which assimilates another segment (transfers some features into it) called the assimilator, and the segment resulting from the assimilation is called the assimilant. For example, in the phrase “ten cups” [tɛn kʌps], assimilated as [tɛŋkʌps], the sound [k] is the assimilator, the sound [n] is the assimilee, whereas the sound [ŋ] is the assimilant.

2.1.2.1.1 Types of Assimilation

Based on a mixture of analytical perspectives, the typology of assimilation is very important to this work. In distinguishing the types of assimilation, some linguists have different names for each process of assimilation; some talk about types of assimilation that others do not group in their own approaches to the study of assimilation as a whole.

Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (2008) distinguish between historical and contextual assimilation, coalescent and ordinary assimilation, progressive and regressive assimilation, contact and distant assimilation. Kouega (2017: 161) on his part opines that assimilation processes are grouped into various parameters including the types of changes that a phoneme undergoes and the position that this phoneme occupies in a given word or sequence of words. As a result, Kouega (ibid) groups assimilation processes into three classifications. The first classification distinguishes three categories labelled: regressive assimilation, progressive assimilation and coalescent assimilation. A second classification, to him, distinguishes between allophonic and phonemic assimilation. A third classification distinguishes a number of categories including place of articulation assimilation and voicing assimilation. Lacy (2006: 335) talks about local and long-distance assimilation. We will consider in this section, if we go according to Kouega’s (2017) classifications, the first classification that comprises coalescent, progressive and regressive assimilation.

2.1.2.1.1.1 Coalescent/ Reciprocal Assimilation

Coalescent assimilation refers to the phenomenon whereby a sequence of two sounds coalesce, that is, come together and merge to give place to a single new sound different from either of the original sounds (Simo Bobda and Mbangwana, 2008). Kouega (2017: 164) also refers to coalescent assimilation as palatalisation. For instance, a native speaker of English will coalesce the [d] and [j] of ‘they called you’ [ðeɪ kɔld ju] into [dʒ]: [ðeɪ kɔldʒu]. The core sound of coalescent assimilation is the voiced palatal semi-vowel [j]

Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (ibid) report that another common case of coalescence even comes about with a sound phonemically foreign to English. This can be seen when native speakers merge [n] and [j] into [ɲ] in phrases like [kəɲu] (can you)

2.1.2.1.1.2 Progressive or anticipatory assimilation

Progressive assimilation refers to a tendency whereby a sound influences the following sound due to their proximity resulting in the creation of a new sound which is similar to one of the sounds in its vicinity. For example, [fʊpɒl] (football) for [fʊtɒl], [əʊpɪn] (open) for [əʊpɪn], [sɛvn] (seven) that becomes [sɛvɪn]. Other examples include [ɔl lə seɪm] (all the same) for [ɔl ðə seɪm], [ɒn nə teɪbl] (on the table) for [ɒn ðə teɪbl], etc. (Simo Bobda and Mbangwana, 2008).

2.1.2.1.1.3 Regressive assimilation

Regressive assimilation is defined as a phenomenon whereby a sound influences the preceding/previous owing to their close proximity, bringing about the creation of a new sound which is similar to one of the sounds in close proximity. It is worth noting here that regressive assimilation is the most common type of assimilation. Some examples of regressive assimilation include the following:

[wʌm mæn] (one man)	for [wʌn mæn]
[hæfʃi] (has she)	for [hæzʃi]
[njuzpeɪpə] (newspaper)	for [njuzpeɪpə]

[kəŋ klitəs] (can Cletus) for [kən klitəs]

[hab bæŋ] (hard back) for [had bæŋ]

[hak kʌvə] (hard cover) for [had kʌvə]

(Simo Bobda and Mbangwana 2008)

2.1.2.1.2 Differentiating assimilation from similitude

Many linguists are of the opinion that assimilation and similitude should not be treated separately because they are quite similar processes. Some include similitude, which they do not name similitude, within a broader scope that can be coined as “assimilation processes”. Similitude, it should be noted first, refers to the phenomenon whereby a sound due to its proximity with another sound, bears some [slight] resemblance with the latter (Simo Bobda and Mbangwana, 2008). Similitude, unlike assimilation, does not bring about the creation of a new sound, but rather brings about allophonic variations to a sound. An allophone, basically, can be defined as the variant of the same sound better still the variant of a phoneme. In other words, allophones are simply variants or alternative representations of the same sound and do not have any semantic relevance. These allophonic variations do not create a new word but rather bring about a word that has a slight phonological difference.

Some of the allophonic variations that are commonly encountered with reference to similitude are: aspiration, roundedness, vowel length, dentalisation, nasalisation, palatalisation, voicedness, voicelessness and syllabicity. This is justified in other terms by Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (2008) who point out that similitude can be observed in the following parameters: length, voice, tongue position, lip position, place of articulation, nasality, etc.

Some experts in linguistics, despite this quite clear-cut difference exposed here, still go on to think that assimilation and similitude are similar processes. Kouega (2017: 161) classifies similitude, that he does not name similitude, as an assimilation process. Kouega (ibid) says to justify the upcoming groupings he will make that “assimilation processes are grouped into various parameters including the type of changes that a phoneme undergoes and

the position that this phoneme occupies in a given word or sequence of words”. In his classifications of assimilation processes, he groups “similitude” that he refers to as “allophonic assimilation” under his second classification. This classification of his is questionable in many ways as it creates “phonological oxymoron”. The contradiction here is quite clear. Bringing together “allophonic” that does not create a new sound and which does not have any semantic value with assimilation that creates the reverse can be subject to many pending questions.

“Allophonic assimilation”, in Kouega’s (2017: 162) classification, shares the class with “phonemic assimilation”. For example, ten thick slices: [tɛn θɪk slɑɪsɪz] becoming [tɛ̃ θɪk slɑɪsɪz]. This example is somewhat allophonic, because under the influence of the dental [θ], [n] becomes slightly dentalized as shown in his own example [ɲ]. This example, tildes more towards similitude than assimilation, for there is no new sound that has been created here. [ɲ] is merely a variant of the consonant sound [n]. The second example Kouega (ibid) takes is ten folders: [tɛn fəʊldəz] becoming [tɛ̃ fəʊldəz]. This example another case of similitude, because the transformation operated here is not allophonic but rather phonemic, because under the influence of the voiceless labiodental fricative [f], the voiced alveolar nasal [n] has been transformed into [ɱ] that shares some features of [f] namely place of articulation (labiodental).

Other scholars (Crowley, 1997; Hardcastle and Hewlett, 2006) relate assimilation with coarticulation effect (that is, from the explanations given, another name we can give to similitude). Other linguists go against this point of view when they say that co-articulation effect (similitude) refers to the processes that occur as a result of physical properties of articulators (dentalization, palatalisation etc.), whereas assimilation refers to the processes that are thought to be planned before articulation (progressive assimilation, coalescent assimilation etc.). Just like these linguists, Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (2008) recognise the significant difference that exists between assimilation and similitude.

2.1.2.1.3 Phonological rules for assimilation

Assimilation has some rules that must intervene in order to create the new sounds that are heard when people speak fluently. Here, when sounds meet, a new sound is created sharing some features with either one of the two sounds or being completely autonomous and different from the original sounds. These transformations usually occur across word boundaries, but within words too. The phonemes which are likely to undergo assimilation include the alveolar sounds [t, d, n, s, z] (Kouega, 2017:162). These sounds are usually represented by the letters T, D, N, S, Z. These letters are considered in turn below.

Letter T

When a word ending in the letter T is followed by a word beginning with the letters P, B, M, K G and Y, this letter T is likely to be realised as [p, b, m, k, g], and as [tʃ] when it coalesces with Y as seen in these examples:

Table 4: The renditions of the letter T

Environment	Rendering	Illustration	Illustration with Assimilation
Letter T+P	[p] + [p]	That passenger	[ðæp pæsɪndʒə]
Letter T+B	[p] + [b]	That boss	[ðæp bɒs]
Letter T+M	[p] + [m]	That mansion	[ðæp məɪnʃn]
Letter T+C or K	[k] + [k]	That cutlass	[ðæk kʌtləs]
Letter T+G	[k] + [g]	That gun	[ðæk ɡʌn]
Letter T+ Y	[t] + [j] = [tʃ]	What you (gave me)	[wɒtʃu]

(Kouega, 2017 : 163)

Letter D

The letter D is likely to be represented by the phonemes [b, g, k] when it is followed by words beginning with the letters P, M, B, C, K, G, and by [dʒ] when it coalesces with the letter Y as shown below:

Table 5: The renditions of the letter D

Environment	Rendering	Illustration	Illustration with Assimilation
Letter D+P	[b] + [p]	Good people	[gʊb pipl]
Letter D+B	[b] + [b]	Good bed	[gʊb bɛd]
Letter D+M	[b] + [m]	Good men	[gʊb mɛn]
Letter D+C or K	[k] + [k]	Good cook	[gʊk kʊk]
Letter D+G	[g] + [g]	Good girl	[gʊg gɜl]
Letter D+ Y	[d] + [j] = [dʃ]	Mind your business !	[maɪndʒə bɪznɪs]

(Kouega, 2017: 163)

Letter N

N is likely to be represented by the phoneme [m] when it is followed by words beginning with the letters P, B, and M. It may also be represented by the phoneme [ŋ] when followed by a word beginning with the letter K or G:

Table 6: The renditions of the letter N

Environment	Rendering	Illustration	Illustration with Assimilation
Letter N+P	[m] + [p]	Ten people	[tɛm pipl]
Letter N+B	[m] + [b]	Ten bottles	[tɛm bɒtlz]
Letter N+M	[m] + [m]	Ten messages	[tɛm mɛsɪdʒɪz]
Letter N+C or K	[ŋ] + [k]	Ten countries	[tɛŋ kʌntrɪz]
Letter N+G	[ŋ] + [g]	Ten glasses	[tɛŋ glɑsɪz]

(Kouega, 2017:163)

When this letter N and the letters T, K and G form sequences like NT, NC, NK and NG, these sequences may assimilate when they are followed by words beginning with the letters P, B, M, C, K, and G. These are illustrated below:

Table 7: The renditions of the sequence of letters NT

Environment	Rendering	Illustration	Illustration with Assimilation
Sequence NT + P	[mp] + [p]	Don't pin it!	[dəʊmp pɪn ɪt]
Sequence NT+ B	[m] + [b]	Don't be late!	[dəʊmp bi leɪt]
Sequence NT+ C	[ŋk] + [k]	Don't come!	[dəʊŋk kʌm]
Sequence NT + G	[ŋk] + [k]	Don't go!	[dəʊŋk gəʊ]

(Kouega, 2017: 164)

Letter S

S is likely to be represented by the phonemes [ʃ, s, ʒ] when followed by words beginning with the letters SH as in “shop” and Y as in “year”. These are illustrated below:

Table 8: The renditions of the letter S

Environment	Rendering	Illustration	Illustration with Assimilation
Letter S + SH	[s] + [ʃ] = [ʃ] + [ʃ]	This shop	[ðɪʃ ʃɒp]
Letter S(E) + SH	[z] + [ʃ] = [ʒ] + [ʃ]	Has she? These ships?	[hæʒ ʃiː] [ðiʒ ʃɪps]
Letter S + Y	[z] + [j] = [ʒ] + [j]	This year	[ðɪʃ jɪə]
Letter S (E) + Y	[z] + [j] = [ʒ]	These years	[ðiʒ jɪəz]

(Kouega, 2017:164)

Assimilation also occurs in the transformation of initial voiced sounds into voiceless ones. Some linguists (Abercombie, 1969) call this voicing assimilation. Here are few illustrations culled from Kouega (2011: 165)

Table 9: Voicing assimilation

Voiced→Voiceless	Illustrations	Voicing assimilation
[z]→[s]	(He) was sent	[wəs sent]
[v]→[f]	(They) have finished	[həf fɪnɪʃt]
[ð]→[θ]	With thanks!	[wɪθ θæŋks]

The S-morpheme is rendered in three ways in English, namely [s, z, ɪz]. It is rendered as [s] when it is added to words (nouns, verbs) ending in letters such as:

P or PE: pap, tape

T or TE: pot, packet, climate

K or KE: hook, cake

PH: photograph

TH: month

These phonological rules are very helpful in the testing of speakers' performance in assimilation. At this point, phonological rules apply. Phonological rules account for the exact pronunciation of the morphemes since there is evidence that some phonological information about morphemes is not stored in the lexicon (Anderson, 2001). By phonological rules, we can get much information about someone's ability in their pronunciation.

2.1.2.1.4 The Difficulties for Non-Native Speakers in Producing Assimilation

Given that it has been pointed out above that assimilation occurs usually in the speech of native speakers or in Inner Circle Englishes, we therefore understand that this aspect of connected speech is a specific one that only native speakers or speakers who have native varieties in their contexts are able to produce in their speech. Such speakers use English every day and have been speaking English right from birth. Assimilation is closely linked to fluency, and these speakers are often very fluent in their use of English.

The situation is very distinctive in Outer Circle contexts, where English is used as a second language. English is referred to as an L2 in such settings. As a result, speakers who do

not use English as their mother tongue have different attitudes towards assimilation. It is often very difficult and challenging for second language speakers to stick to SBE pronunciation, and many factors account for this.

Assimilation will be very rare to find in the English spoken by non-native speakers who are rooted in their indigenous languages or surrounded by an array of other languages. When these speakers get to learn English, they learn it as new dialect and it is important to acknowledge these feelings, and learning a new dialect does not mean eliminating the home dialect. For example, the way Cameroonians or Nigerians speak English still brings aspects of their mother tongues into their speech.

Assimilation as a type of connected phoneme realisations in native and fluent speech always poses a problem to second/foreign speakers of English. Since their mother tongues have a completely different phonetic and phonological systems, learning English, that has many features (assimilation) that are not present in their first languages makes learning particularly difficult (Carter, 2007:165).

Also, it can be a very unfamiliar discussion for the second language speaker/learner, because they cannot listen when the phonemes are joined, and then create a new sound. “The first point of interest here is that typical monolingual speakers can only assimilate phones to the phonemes that are in their native language as they are not sensitive to phonetic contrasts that are not distinctive in their native language” (Baljit, 1999). Assimilation, therefore, becomes strange to second/foreign language speakers/learners because they are not familiar with that new pattern of connected sounds. As a result, assimilation will be difficult to be found in their speech. In some cases, it will be quasi non-existent or speakers will tend to create “new assimilation processes” that fit with their background knowledge and culture.

Speakers’ awareness of the actual behaviour of sounds when they come together (we consider here the modification of the sound in connected speech with reference to the process of assimilation) is very important. Mc Coll Millar (2015) argues that “some people may consider such modification of features of careless speech”. Mc Collar Miller (ibid) simply means here that some people consider these modifications that sound undergo as mere

elements relating to a “non-controlled” speech, speech that is uttered inadvertently, with no real thinking. Consequently, the people “might” know the sound(s) modified but they ignore it. Second language speakers might equally look at speakers who use assimilation as pompous.

By realising those features in phonology (assimilation), as pointed out by Rogerson-Revell (2015:62), it gives non-native speakers many benefits. In Trask’s theory, she said that an awareness of these modifications is essential, in that it helps speakers/learners understand first language speech better, and also enable those who want to aim towards fluent, near native production of English. We can then see here that if speakers realise the presence of assimilation in their speech, automatically their knowledge about phonology will increase. Speakers/learners can easily get fluency in their speech. Besides, the non-native speakers that they are can approximate native speakers.

2.1.2.2 The connected speech process of elision

Kouega (2017: 168) defines elision as the deliberate omission of a sound segment in rapid speech. From a graphological perspective, it is the leaving out in fast speech of a letter which is normally represented by a sound in slow speech. For example, the Word ‘friendship’ /frɛndʃɪp/ contains the letter D pronounced /d/. In rapid speech, the /d/ sound is usually elided. The same phenomenon occurs in the word ‘blind’ in a phrase like ‘blind man’. These are illustrated below:

Table 10: Elision

Word	Slow speech	Rapid speech
Friendship	/frɛndʃɪp/	/frɛnʃɪp/
blind man	/blaɪnd mæn/	/blaɪn mæn/

Elision is divided into two types according to the place in the word where it occurs; it can occur within a word (at word-medial position) as in ‘attempt’; it can also occur at word boundary (at word-final position) as in ‘blind man’. Elision at word-medial position can be illustrated by the following cases:

Table 11: Elision at word-medial position

Word	Slow speech	Rapid speech
Attem(p)t	/ətɛmpt/	/ətɛmt/
Cab(i)net	/kæbɪnɪt/	/kæbnɪt/
Desp(e)rate (Adj)	/dɛspərət/	/dɛsprət/
Ev(e)ry	/ɛvəri/	/ɛvri/
Gov(ern)ment	/gʌvɛnmənt/	/gʌvmənt/
Han(d)bag	/hændbæg/	/hænbæg/
Int(e)rest	/ɪntərəst/	/ɪntrest/
Partic(ular)ly	/pətɪkjʊləli/	/pətɪkli/
Pos(t)man	/pəʊstmən/	/pəʊsmən/
Pum(p)kin	/pʌmpkɪn/	/pʌmkɪn/
Sec(re)tary	/sɛkrətəri/	/sɛktri/
S(u)ppose	/səpəʊz/	/spəʊz/
Te(rro)rist	/tɛrərɪst/	/tɛrɪst/
Un(i)vers(i)ty	/jʊnɪvɜːsɪti/	/jʊnvɜːsti/
Usu(al)ly	/juːzəli/	/juːzli/

Kouega (2017: 168)

As the examples show, the letters T, D, P are usually omitted when they preceded and followed by a consonant letter e.g. san(d)wich. In other words, the consonants /t, d, p/ may be lost when they occupy medial position in consonant clusters.

A similar situation obtains when the consonants /t, d/ occur at word boundary: they tend to be elided when they are preceded by a consonant and are followed by a word-initial consonant as the following cases illustrate:

Table 12: Elision of the consonants /t,d/

Word	Slow speech	Rapid speech
Blin(d) man	/blaɪnd mæn/	/blaɪn mæn/, /blaɪm mæn/
Ben(d) down	/bend daʊn/	/ben daʊn/
Hol(d) tight	/həʊld taɪt/	/həʊl taɪt/
Mov(ed) back	/muvd bæk/	/muv bæk/
Chang(ed) hands	/tʃeɪndʒd hænz/	/tʃeɪndʒ hænz/
Belove(d) by all	/bɪlʌvd baɪ əl/	/bɪlʌv baɪ əl/
Kep(t) quiet	/kept kwaɪət/	/kep kwaɪət/
Nex(t) page	/nekst peɪdʒ/	/neks peɪdʒ/
Unkemp(t) beard	/ʌŋkempt brɪəd/	/ʌŋkemp brɪəd/
Approach(ed) them	/əprəʊtʃ ðem/	/əprəʊʃ ðem/
Mash(ed) potatoes	/mɑʃt pətetəʊz/	/mɑʃ pətetəʊz/
Stopp(ed) payment	/stɒpt peɪmənt/	/stɒp peɪmənt/
Lik(ed) jam	/laɪk dʒæm/	/laɪk dʒæm/
Reach(ed) Peter	/ri:tʃd pi:tə/	/ri:tʃ pi:tə/

Kouega (2017: 169)

The letter T in final position is systematically elided when it follows a consonant in one word and is followed by a word beginning with the letters T and D, as in the example ‘left turn’, which contains the sequence ‘FT+T’. In phonological terms, word-final /t/ undergoes elision when followed by a word beginning with /t/ or /d/, as shown below:

Table 13: Elision of word final /t/

Word	Slow speech	Rapid speech
Left turn	/left tɜ:n/	/lef tɜ:n/
(I've) got to (go)	/aɪv gɒt tə gəʊ/	/aɪv gɒ tə gəʊ/
Sit down	/sɪt daʊn/	/sɪ daʊn/
You mustn't lose (it)	/ju mʌstnt lʊz ɪt/	/ju mʌsn lʊz ɪt/
Doesn't she (know)?	/dʌznt ʃi nəʊ/	/dʌzn ʃi nəʊ/
What do (you want)?	/wɒt du ju wɒnt/	/wɒ du ju wɒnt/, /wɒ dʒu ju wɒnt/

Kouega (2017: 168)

Similarly, word-final D undergoes elision when followed by a word beginning with /t/ or /d/ as in the following:

Table 14: Elision of word final /d/

Word	Slow speech	Rapid speech
Changed <u>u</u> trains	/tʃeɪndʒd treɪnz/	/tʃeɪndʒ treɪnz/

In brief, elision occurs in contexts such as /t+/t/ as in ‘got to’, /t+/d/ as in ‘what do’, /d+/t/ as in ‘changed trains’. The process is sometimes referred to as consonant cluster simplification.

Katamba (1989:154) corroborates that elision or sound deletion affects the distribution of phonemes at and across word-boundary. In addition, the original syllabic structures and the syllabification of words may be changed as a result of such a process, and to some extent miscomprehension, misunderstanding and confusion may occur as well.

Crystal considers elision as:

A term used in phonetics and phonology to refer to the omission of sounds in connected speech. Both consonants and vowels may be affected, and sometimes whole syllables may be **elided**. Unstressed grammatical words, such as *and* & *of*, are particularly prone to be elided, as when the ‘f’ is dropped in *cup of tea* (cf. *cuppa tea*), or the ‘a’ and ‘d’ are dropped in *boys ’n’ girls*. Within polysyllabic words, the vowels and consonants in unstressed syllables regularly elide in conversational speech of normal speed, e.g. *camera* (/ckamrv/), probably (/cprɒbl/), *February* (/cfebr/). (2008:166).

Crystal goes further to state that this phenomenon is of further functions, especially in rhetoric:

Traditional rhetoric was much concerned with the phenomenon of elision, because of the implications for constructing well-formed metrical lines, which would scan well. In rhetorical terminology, an elision in word-initial position was known as *aphaeresis* or *prosiopesis*, in word-medial position as *syncope*, and in word-final position an *apocope*. A similar classification was made for the opposite of elision, *intrusion*. (ibid.)

A change from the ideal form in connected speech may involve the deletion of a phoneme, e.g. English *first class* /fɜːst 'klaːs/ or /fɜːs 'klaːs/, and Dutch *mistbank* /'mɪstbɒnk/ or /'mɪsbɒnk/. The phoneme is said to be **elided** and the process is termed **elision**. Frequently,

assimilation processes may lead to elision, e.g. English *standpoint* /'st[nd]point/ or /'st[mbp]oint/ or /'st[mp]oint/, Dutch *brandpunt* /'brantpent/ or /'bramppent/ or /'brampent, a case described by Katamba (1989:277) as moving from lexical to post-lexical/. The converse of elision is **liaison**, i.e. the insertion of an extra sound in order to facilitate the articulation of a sequence (see Roach,2000:77). Liaison is found in English RP, and other non-rhotic varieties, in the form of **linking-r** and **intrusive-r**. Dutch has **linking-n** and **intrusive-n** (Buuren,1993: 178f). French is notable for its elaborate system of liaison, e.g. *Elle est assez intelligente*, where 'est' and 'assez', pronounced /e/ and /ase/ in citation form, recover the final consonants when they occur pre-vocally in connected speech: /el et asez e~teliza~/ (see Collins & Mees:2003:206).

2.1.2.3 The connected speech process of liaison

As Jackson (1982) points out, one of the hallmarks of a fluent speaker is the ability to link words together in connected speech. Common processes in connected speech include assimilation, elision and liaison. As far as liaison is concerned, it involves the insertion of a sound that is by and large unmotivated from the phonemic context. Liaison also consists in joining the last sound of a word (especially a consonant) with the first sound of the following word (especially a vowel). It is also held that, liaison is not just the insertion of a sound between a sequence of phonemes, but also the articulation of a sound that already exists in the phonemic shape of the word, or at least, in its orthography.

2.1.2.3.1 Types of Liaison

The phonological categories under which the errors will be classified are drawn from Jackson (1982). These categories were further described by Simo Bobda and Mbagwana (2008), and by Kouega (2017). These categories include liaison involving linkage and liaison involving intrusion, which are subdivided into subtypes of liaison, as will be shown below.

2.1.2.3.1.1 Liaison involving linkage

This type of liaison occurs in a consonant-vowel environment, that is, an environment where a word-final consonant is followed by a word-initial vowel. Linkage usually takes place in rapid speech when a word ending with the consonant letters P, B, T, D, K, G, F,

V(E), M, N, R, is followed by a word beginning with a vowel. These consonant letters are usually represented by the sounds /p, b, t, d, k, g, f, v, m, n, r/.

- **Linking final consonant (except /r/) and initial vowel sounds**

Take the following examples, where the sequences ‘read a’, ‘book at’, ‘at our’, are linked:

Sentence: He read a book at our table

Slow speech: /hi rɛd ə bʊk ət aʊə teɪbl/

Fast speech: /hi rɛdə bʊkə taʊə teɪbl/

Several other instances are found in the following sequences:

Sequence	Fast speech
-----------------	--------------------

First of all:	/fɜːstəvəl/
---------------	-------------

Not at all:	/nɒtətəl/
-------------	-----------

Could have armed Iraq:	/kədəvɑːmdɪrək/
------------------------	-----------------

Should have sent him out here:	/ʃədəvsentɪmaʊtəvɪə/
--------------------------------	----------------------

- **Linking /r/**

When a word ends in *r* or *re* and the following word begins with a vowel sound, the pronunciation of /r/ is recommended for the purpose of euphony, that is, to avoid the hiatus occasioned by the occurrence of two adjacent vowels. The following sequences can be considered:

Sequence	Fast speech
-----------------	--------------------

Car owner:	/kɑːrəʊnə/
------------	------------

More and more:	/mɔːrənɪmɔː/
----------------	--------------

Fire extinguisher:	/faɪərɪkstɪŋgwɪʃə/
--------------------	--------------------

Four o'clock:	/fɔrəʊklɒk/
Father and mother:	/fɑðərənɪməðə/
For instance:	/fɔrɪnstəns/

2.1.2.3.1.2 Liaison involving intrusion

This type of liaison occurs in a vowel-vowel environment, that is, an environment where a word-final vowel is followed by a word-initial vowel as in 'go out'. In such environments, a consonant sound, which is not represented in the orthography of the words in question, is inserted between them. This can be justified by the fact that English does not usually allow a word-final vowel to precede another vowel beginning a word. Such intrusive consonants are usually /r, w, j/, and are handled in turns according to the following distributions:

- **Intrusive /r/**

By analogy with the linking /r/, words ending with vowels (except /i/ and /u/ sounds) are sometimes lengthened with a /r/ when the following word begins with a vowel, even if there is no orthographic *r*. The intrusive /r/ occurs in expressions such as the following:

Sequence:	Law and order.	Idea of
Slow speech:	/lə ænd ɔdə/	/aɪdɪə ɒv/
Fast speech:	/lərənɔdə/	/aɪdɪərɒv/

- **Intrusive /w/**

Intrusive /w/ (/w/ coloration) tends to come after words ending in the monophthongs /u, ʊ/ and the ʊ-diphthongs namely /əʊ, aʊ/, as in these illustrations:

Sequence:	You always.	Go away!
Slow speech:	/ju əlweɪz/	/gəʊ əweɪ/
Fast speech:	/juwəlweɪz/	/gəʊwəweɪ/

Other instances include the following sequence: 'too early', 'so on', 'you all', 'allow us', 'to answer', 'to eat'.

- **Intrusive /j/**

Intrusive /j/ (/j/ coloration) tends to come after words ending in the vowel /ɪ/ and i-diphthongs namely /aɪ, eɪ, oɪ/, as in the following:

Sequence:	He explained	My arm
Slow speech:	/hi ɪkspleɪd/	/maɪ ɑːm/
Fast speech:	/hɪjɪkspleɪd/	/maɪjɑːm/

Other instances include the following sequence: ‘the answer’, ‘my aunt’, ‘they arrived’, ‘the apple’, ‘try again’, ‘three o'clock’.

2.1.2.4 The connected speech process of vowel reduction

Reduction is a process which involves the replacement of segments, especially front and back vowels, by the monophthongs /ə/ or /ɪ/. The elements which are usually reduced are grammatical items and lexical words.

The grammatical words affected are generally monosyllabic words, which of pronounced in the strongest form when they occur in isolation and in their weak form when they occur in connected speech. For example, the determiner “a” (a car) is pronounced /eɪ/ in its dictionary form and /ə/ in natural conversation. Some words like in the auxiliary “can” have as many as three different renderings: /kæn/ in slow speech, /kən/ in fairly fast speech and /kn/ in very fast speech. The common grammatical words which are this reduced include the following:

-determiners: a, an, some;

-pronouns: he, her, us, them;

-auxiliaries: be, are, is, was, we’re, have, has, do, does, can, could, should, would, shall, will;

-prepositions: at, to, from, of, into;

-conjunctions: and, as, that, but, just, then

These forms are presented in the table below:

Table 15: Determiners

	Slow speech	Fairly rapid speech	Very fast speech
A	eɪ	ə	ə
An	æn	ən	ən
the	ðɪ	ðə	ðə
Some	sʌm	səm	səm
Your	jɔ	jə	jə
Her	hɜ	hə	hə
His	hɪz	ɪz	ɪz

(Kouega, 2017:172)

Table 16: Pronouns

	Slow speech	Fairly rapid speech	Very fast speech
you	ju	jʊ	jʊ
he	hi	ɪ	ɪ
him	hɪm	ɪm	ɪm
her	hɜ	hə	ə
us	ʌs	əs	s
them	ðeɪm	ðəm	ðəm

(Kouega, 2017:172)

Table 17: Auxiliaries

	Slow speech	Fairly rapid speech	Very fast speech
be	bi	bɪ	bɪ
am	æm	əm	əm
are	ɑ	ə	ə
is	ɪz	z, s	z, s
was	wɒz	wəz	wəz
were	wɜ	wə	wə

can	kæn	kən	Kn
could	kʊd	kəd	Kd
shall	ʃæl	ʃəl	ʃl
should	ʃʊd	ʃəd	ʃd
will	wɪl	l	L
would	wʊd	wəd	D
have	hæv	həv	V
has	hæz	əz	z, s
had	hæd	həd	D
do	du	də	D
does	dʌz	dəz	dəz
must	mʌst	məst	məs

(Kouega, 2017:172)

Table 18: Prepositions

	Slow speech	Fairly rapid speech	Very fast speech
at	æt	ət	ət
for	fə	fə	fə
from	fɹɒm	fɹəm	fɹəm
of	ɒv	əv	əv
to	Tu	tʊ	tə
upon	ə'pɒn	ə'pən	ə'pən

(Kouega, 2017:173)

Table 19: Conjunctions and adverbs

	Slow speech	Fairly rapid speech	Very fast speech
and	ænd	ənd	N
but	bʌt	bət	Bt
or	ɔ	ə	ə
that	ðæt	ðət	ðət

as	æz	əz	Z
just	dʒʌst	dʒəst	dʒəs
not	nɒt	nət	Nt
than	ðæn	ðən	ðn
there	ðeə	ðə, ðər	ðə, ðər

(Kouega, 2017:173)

Lexical words which are affected by vowel reduction are usually stems or derived words. Stems undergoing reduction are generally words ending in the consonant sounds /l/ and /n/ or in the consonant letters L (label), LE (table), N (cotton). In rapid speech, stems ending /l,n/lose the vowel preceding them, which therefore gives them a syllabic correlation. Syllabic /l/ is represented by the symbol /l̩/ whereas syllabic /n/ is represented by the symbol /n̩/. Here are a few instances of each case:

Table 20: Lexical words

Words	Slow speech	Fast speech
button	bʌtən	bʌt̩
cotton	kɒtən	kɒt̩
bottle	bɒtəl	bɒt̩
table	teɪtəl	teɪt̩
juggle	dʒʌgəl	dʒʌg̩

(Kouega, 2017:174)

Derived words which undergo vowel reduction are usually words in which stress shifts from a given syllable in stem to another syllable in the derivative. Take for example the word pairs “an object/ to object” and “differential/different”. As stress shifts from one syllable to the next one, some vowels are affected, as the transcription below shows:

- object (an) /'ɒbdʒɪkt/ object (to) /əb'dʒɪkt/
 (here, the letter O rendered as /ɒ/ in the derivative is reduced to/ə/ in the stem)
- differential /dɪfə'renʃl/ difference /'dɪfərəns/
 (here, the letter E rendered as /ɪ/ in the derivative is reduced to// in the stem)

In summary, Jackson's contributions to English phonology and the study of connected speech, in his 1982 book, have had a lasting impact on the field of linguistics. His work has helped to shed light on the complex patterns of English pronunciation and has provided a framework for understanding the ways in which individual sounds are combined to form meaningful speech.

2.2 Review of related literature

This section discusses relevant related literature, with the focus on previous works on Cameroon English phonological features (2.2.1); a review of existing literature on the relationship between phonological variables and sociolinguistic variables like level of education, and Standard British English phonology with close reference to aspects of connected speech (2.2.2). The review of these works will place this study in its right context and bring to the surface its contribution (2.3).

2.2.1 Cameroon English (CamE) phonology

A significant number of research works have been carried out on Cameroon English phonology by outstanding scholars namely Masanga, 1983; Mbangwana 1987, 1992; Kouega, 1991, 1999; Simo Bobda and Mbangwana, 1993; Simo Bobda, 1994, 1997, 2000; Ngefac 1997; Achimbe 2005; Atechi 2006. All these scholars, in their studies, have come to the conclusion that Cameroon English phonology differs significantly from RP at both the segmental and supra-segmental levels. Recent scholars like Fonyuy (2005); Yaah (2016) and Eyenga-Ngoa (2020) obtained similar results in their various studies. The different features of Cameroon English phonology are discussed in the following subsections.

2.2.1.1 Cameroon English vowels

The vowel system in Cameroon English (Henceforth CamE) is very different from that of RP. RP has a vowel system containing 12 monophthongs, eight diphthongs, and five triphthongs, but CamE rather has eight monophthongs, 12 diphthongs and no triphthongs. The eight monophthongs they identify are [ɪ, e, ɛ, a, u, o, ə, ɔ] as exemplified below.

[ɪ]: seat, sit, period

[e]: late, medical

[ɛ]: pen, rest

[a]: pat, part

[u]: pull, pool, plural

[o]: go, so

[ɔ]: pot, port, notice

[ə]: able, tribalism

2.2.1.1.1 Replacement of RP vocalic segments

In CamE, it has been noticed that there is a great tendency of RP monophthongs to be replaced with locally determined monophthongs. Authors argue that the NURSE vowel [ɜ] is one of the RP vowels that has undergone lots of restructuring in CamE. In Cameroon therefore, the vowel [ɜ] is generally rendered as [ɛ, a, ɔ]. The general tendency is [ɛ] in words containing the graphemes -er, -ir, -ear, -yr, and -ur as below:

Words	RP	CamE
Serve	[sɜv]	[sɛv]
Concern	[kənsɜn]	[kənsɛn]
Heard	[hɜd]	[hɛd]
Learn	[lɜn]	[lɛn]
Bird	[bɜd]	[bɛd]
Burn	[bɜn]	[bɛn]

[ɜ] is rendered [ɔ] and [a] respectively in the following words

Words	RP	CamE
Purpose	[pɜpəs]	[pɔpəs]
Work	[wɜk]	[wɔk]
Further	[fɜðə]	[fɔðə]
Maternity	[mætɜnətɪ]	[mataniti]

The [ɜ] is significantly restructured in CamE phonology and is referred to as the “single most distinguishing parameter in the regional, national and even ethnic identification of a speaker”.

The schwa in CamE is replaced with [e, ɛ, ɔ, a, o, u, ɪ, ia, aja] as can be seen in the instances below:

Words	RP	CamE
Common	[kəmən]	[kɔmən]
Again	[əgeɪn]	[egen]
Human	[hjumən]	[hjuman]
Police	[pəlɪs]	[pɔlɪs]
Today	[tədeɪ]	[tude]
Flexible	[flɛksəbl]	[flegzibəl]
Socialist	[səʊʃəlɪst]	[sɔʃalist]
Martyr	[mɑtə]	[mataja]

It was observed that the mid-low unrounded vowel [ʌ], on its part, is completely non-existent in the speech of Cameroonian speakers of English. It is rendered as [ɔ, a, ɛ, aʊ] as seen in the words blood, but, one and country which are rendered in RP as [blʌd], [bʌt], [wʌn], [kʌntri], and in CamE as [blɔd], [bet], [wan], and [kaʊntri] respectively.

Cases of the ignorance of vowel length have been exposed in a number of works. According to Atechi (2006), for instance, this non-respect of vowel length causes word pairs like sit/seat, hid/heat, fit/feet [ship/sheep] to be homophonous, what is actually not the case.

2.2.1.1.2 Replacement of diphthongs

It has been observed by Atechi (ibid) that CamE makes use of three RP diphthongs namely [aɪ], [ɔɪ], and [aʊ], but diphthongs such as [ɪə], and [ʊə] occur less often. He reports that the set of diphthongs that are common in CamE are as follows:

[ie] nearly
 [iɛ] fear
 [ia] India
 [iɔ] interior
 [iu] Ignatius
 [ua] continual
 [ue] fluency
 [ea] Korea

2.2.1.1.3 Monophthongisation of RP diphthongs

It has been established by previous works that there is a tendency in CamE to monophthongise RP diphthongs. It has been indicated that RP diphthongs [aɪ] and [ɔɪ] tend to move forwards the primary cardinal vowel [i], instead of the centralised RP [ɪ]

[eɪ] is replaced by mid-high front vowels ranging from the lax and low [ɛ] to a high and tense [e], as illustrated below.

Words	RP	CamE
State	[steɪt]	[stet]
Evacuated	[ɪvækjuetɪd]	[evakwɛtɛt]
Waged	[weɪdʒd]	[wedʒd]
Made	[meɪd]	[med]

It has also been observed that [əʊ] is replaced in final syllable by [o] and elsewhere by [ɔ], as follows:

Words	RP	CamE
Blow	[bləʊ]	[blo]
Phone	[fəʊn]	[fon]
Go	[gəʊ]	[go]
Close	[kləʊz]	[klos]
Focus	[fəʊkəs]	[fɔkəs]

Total	[təʊtəl]	[total]
Poland	[pəʊlənd]	[pələnd]

[eə] is rendered [iɛ, ia, ɛ] in CamE as evident in words like tear [tiɛ], their [dia] and parent [pɛrɛnt].

2.2.1.1.4 Restructuring of triphthongs

Authors have outlined that CamE has no triphthongs. In the realization of a triphthong, the medial vowel of an RP triphthong changes into corresponding semi-vowels [j] and [w], respectively. The following examples have been provided:

Words	RP	CamE
Fire	[faɪə]	[faja]
Surveyor	[səveɪə]	[səvejə]
Highest	[haɪəst]	[hajest]

2.2.1.2 Cameroon English consonants

The consonant system of CamE is similar to RP's, except for the dental fricatives [θ] and [ð] which are replaced with the alveolar plosives [t] and [d]. It was observed that [θ] and [ð] are rendered [t] and [d], respectively, in the following words:

Words	RP	CamE
Think	[θɪŋk]	[tɪnk]
Worth	[wɔθ]	[wɔt]
Together	[təgɛðə]	[tugɛda]
That	[ðæt]	[dat]

2.2.1.2.1 The consonantal processes in CamE

Authors posit that CamE uses almost the same consonants as RP. He notes that the twenty-four consonants that exist in RP also exist in CamE. He, however, observed that in CamE, the following consonants tend to be realized differently when they occur in certain contexts. They are [f, v], [θ, ð], [s, z], [ʃ, ʒ], [t, d].

The following are consonantal processes which are attested in CamE:

1. The devoicing of obstruents in final position of words; e.g.: [lap, tʃatʃ, bik, drɔks, stifs] for lab, charge, big, drugs and Steve's where RP has [læb, tʃædʒ, bɪg, stɪvz].
2. Words in +Vtion have a [ʃ] instead of RP [ʒ] e.g. [dɪvɪʃən, ɪntruʃən] for division and intrusion where RP has [ʒ].
3. Word-medially, [s] sometimes occurs for [z] and sometimes [z] occurs for [s]; e.g. [dʒosɛf, fɪsɪkəl, prɛzɪdənt] (Joseph, physical, president) for RP [dʒəʊzɪf, fɪzɪkəl, prɛzɪdənt]; conversely [əzjum, dɪzɛmbə, kɔnzjum] (assume, December, consume) for RP [əsjum, dɪsɛmbə, kənsjum].
4. While in RP [gz] occurs only before stressed syllables, it is used in CamE in all environments, producing [tɛgzəs, mægzɪmum, flɛgzɪbl] (Texas, maximum, flexible) for RP [tɛksəs, məksɪməm, flɛksɪbəl].
5. [u], rather than [ju], occurs between a consonant and a following [l] or a vowel; e.g. [mul, ambuləns, ənuəl] (mule, ambulance, annual) for RP [mjul, æmbjuləns, ænjuəl].
6. [h] is deleted before [j]; e.g. [juman, jutʃ, jumə] (human, huge, humour) for RP [hjumən, hjudʒ, hjumə].
7. Consonant clusters are often simplified in final position. The process mostly affects [nd, -st, -ld, -ft]; e.g. [faɪn aʊt, pɔsɔfɪs, lɛfəli] (find out, post office, left early) for RP [faɪndaʊt, pəʊstɔfɪs, lɛftlɪ].
8. Postvocalic [r] is often dropped in the environment of a following vowel; e.g. [fɔ əwəs] (four hours) for RP [fɔraʊz].
9. Stem-final [b] and [g] are not deleted, as in [bɔmbɪŋ, plɔmbə, sɪŋgə, hæŋŋɪŋ] (bombing, plumber, singer and hanging) for RP [bɔmɪŋ, plʌmə, sɪŋə, hæŋŋɪŋ].
10. -stion is pronounced [-ʃf-] instead of RP [-stʃ-]; e.g. [kwɛʃən] question, instead of RP [kwɛstʃən].
11. Unlike RP, CamE has no dark l. All its "ls" are clear; e.g. [tɛl] tell, [bɛlt] belt

2.2.1.3 Spelling Pronunciation

It has been reported in past studies that the influence of spelling is very strong on the speakers of English as a second language and this is very true of CamE speakers who pronounce words reckoning their orthographic representation. Authors posit that the reason why spelling has so much influence on speakers of English like CamE speakers is because they make their first contacts with words through reading, and not through listening, as is the case with native speakers. Two types of spelling induced pronunciation were discussed. First, the case where silent letters are pronounced. Second, the case where words are given deviant phonological values as a result of their orthographic representations.

2.2.1.3.1 Silent Letters Pronounced

In English, silent letters are those that appear in words, but are not articulated. In CamE, however, the letters which are silent in SBE are pronounced, as illustrated below.

Words	RP	CamE
Sword	[sɔd]	[swɔd]
Circuit	[sɜkit]	[sekuit]
Colonel	[kɜnl]	[kɔlənel]
Debt	[dɛt]	[dɛbt]

2.2.1.3.2 Other Spelling Induced Pronunciation

CamE speakers rely on spelling for their pronunciation. It has been indicated that, because of the influence of spelling on their pronunciation, pairs of homophones in RP rendition with different spellings tend to be differentiated in CamE, as illustrated below.

Words	RP	CamE
Kernel/ colonel	[kɜnl]	[kɛnɛl, kɔlənel]
Baron/barren	[bærən]	[barən, bærɛn]
Mare/mayor	[mɛə]	[miɛ, mɛjɔ]
Symbol/cymbal	[sɪmbəl]	[sɪmbɔl, simbal]

Kouega (2013) made an overview on RP and Cameroon English (henceforth CamE) accent. In this work, the author focused on the English of Anglophone speakers in Cameroon and examined the acrolectal variety of English as a second language (L2) in Cameroon, with a view to identifying its characteristic segmental features. This acrolectal variety referred to the English spoken by teachers, lawyers, medical doctors, and journalists who are considered by the society as linguistic paragons. The work explored three main poles: the first discussed English in Cameroon's education; the second described the vocalic system of Cameroon English in relation to the model adopted for education in Cameroon, that is RP (Received Pronunciation), and the third looked into the consonantal system of this variety. The informants were teachers, lawyers, medical doctors, and journalists. The data for this work were collected through recordings of the latter's speeches, and later analyzed using the RP (Received Pronunciation) model. The framework of analysis was mainly structural, though insight from the generative approach was occasionally used to explain some generalizations. The findings revealed that the L2 English accent in Cameroon exhibits a dominant feature known as spelling pronunciation, as English words tend to be pronounced as their orthography suggest, which caused a homophony between word pairs such as tree/three, bet/birth, was/worse, etc. Consonant clusters tend to be simplified while vowel lengthening tends not to be observed. As central vowels are hardly realized, peripheral vowels tend to occur more frequently than they do in native accents. The author postulated that the Cameroonian English language syllabus prepared the ground for learners' low performance in the spoken English skill in general and in accuracy in speaking in particular, which is being transmitted from one generation to the next through education. This hinders or does not guarantee a possible change in the speech of the speakers.

2.2.1.4 Stress Deviation

It has been observed that stress that in CamE is very deviant from RP. A number of observations have been made about the stress pattern of CamE. Unlike RP, which generally has a backward stress pattern, stress in CamE is usually established one or two syllables later than its position in RP, as exemplified below.

RP

'Ancestor

'Petrol

'Challenge

In'dustrialise

CamE

an'cestor

pe'trol

chal'lenge

industria'lise

In some cases, stress falls earlier in the words, moving one or two syllables backward, as illustrated below.

RP

A'cute

A'gender

Ex'treme

Di'ploma

CamE

'acute

'agender

'extreme

'diploma

Compounds usually have their primary stress on the first element in RP, but in CamE, they are generally stressed on the second, as illustrated below.

RP

'Passport

'Blackmail

'Brainwash

'Firewood

CamE

pass'port

black'mail

brain'wash

fire'wood

It was also reported that nouns and adjectives have a much greater tendency to be stressed initially in CamE than in RP. This is illustrated below.

RP	CamE
Pro'fessor	'professor
As'sassin	'assassin
Ad'vice	'advice
Ex'treme	'extreme
Ap'parent	'apparent

Unlike in RP where prefixes are stress-neutral, previous studies have reported that in CamE, prefixes are stress determined, as illustrated below.

RP	CamE
Il'legal	'illegal
Ir'rational	'irrational
Im'possible	'impossible
In'capable	'incapable

2.2.2 The relationship between phonological variables and sociolinguistic variables

A number of researchers have made some attempts to investigate the relationship existing between phonological variables and sociolinguistic variables in a postcolonial setting like Cameroon (Ngefac, 1997; Njoke, 1996; Fonyuy, 2005; Ndisom, 2013; Kouam, 2015; Ndepe, 2015; Yaah, 2016, Eyenga-Ngoa, 2020, Nyacha, 2021).

2.2.2.1 Language use and level of education

Ngefac (1997) made an investigation on the influence of some sociolinguistic variables on the pronunciation of English. The author took as informants some Form One and Upper Sixth students in Anglophone schools in the city of Yaoundé, to find out the influence of level of education on their speech. For this investigation to be successful, the author administered some words for the two groups of students to read out, and had their renditions tape-recorded. Country, colonel bosom and mayor, are some of the words that were

administered to the students. These words were analysed on the basis of the students' ability to articulate SBE, the model adopted for education in Cameroon. The results obtained by the author revealed that 13.33% and 26.66% of Upper Sixth students successfully articulated the words 'country' and 'colonel' respectively, while their Form One counterparts recorded 0% and 6.66% respectively in the articulation of the same words. These results, therefore, show that students improve in the pronunciation as they ascend the academic ladder.

In a similar vein, Fonyuy (2005) carried out an investigation on the evolution of pronunciation in some regional varieties of Cameroon English (the Nso, Kom, Bafut, and Bokossi varieties) along the educational ladder. For a successful outcome of this investigation, the author administered some words for the informants to read out, and had their renditions tape-recorded, so as to check the recurrence of the /i/ for /ei/ and /u/ for /əu/. The results obtained by the author revealed that an average of 83% of the informants at the basilectal level replaced SBE /ei/ in n/ei/me and m/ei/tain by Lamso /i/, yielding n/i/me and m/i/tain, 97% replaced SBE /əu/ by Lamso /u/. At the mesolectal level, a change from 83% to 30% was witnessed in the /i/ and /u/ phenomena in the Nso English, and 97.3% to 51% in the recurrence of /u/ for /əu/. As concerns the acrolectal level, the speakers attained a more standard pronunciation tilting towards SBE. Like Ngefac (1997), the findings reveal that students improve in the pronunciation as they ascend the academic ladder.

Ndisom (2013), investigated the occurrence of hypercorrection in CamE pronunciation and how this phenomenon correlates with some sociolinguistic variables. The informants for the study were secondary school students and university students. The author's findings revealed that hypercorrection is a phenomenon that is gradually ground in CamE, especially in the speech of highly educated CamE speakers. That is, the features of hypercorrection were more frequent in the speech of university students than in the speech of secondary school students. Thus, Ndisom (ibid) concluded that level of education does not cause one's pronunciation to move to the direction of RP. This goes in line with Jibril's (1992) claim that a speaker's level of education does not determine his or her linguistic ability, but the amount of speech training a speaker receives that influences his or her performance in English phonology.

2.2.2.2 Works on connected speech

Eyenga-Ngoa (2020) investigated the correlation between professional status and the phonological concept of assimilation. For the success of the investigation, the author selected 40 informants according to the sociolinguistic variable under study, who were subjected to the reading of some 20 pre-prepared sentences containing targeted phonological variables involving assimilation, and had their renditions tape-recorded. The professionals of English involved 20 English Language teachers, while the non-professionals comprised of 20 teachers of other subjects (maths, physics, biology, economics, history, and chemistry). The framework of analysis spanned across the Error Analysis framework, the World Englishes framework and the Correlation framework. The findings revealed the following results: there was no significant difference in the performance of teachers of English and teachers of other subjects, given that out of the 20 linguistic items that were administered to them, both groups recorded a percentage of 0% in 16 of them. In the other 4 linguistic items, Teachers of English recorded percentages of 05%, 05%, 10% and 30% respectively. The researcher concluded that the results were poor and not significant enough to place teachers of English ahead of teachers of other subjects as regards knowledge of SBE assimilation, thus revealing that professional status does not enhance the speakers' ability to make use of assimilation as required in Standard English pronunciation. Moreover, the findings revealed that 95% of the informants' renditions tilted towards Cameroon English (CamE). Their renditions witnessed typical features of CamE, including the monophthongisation of diphthongs, the diphthongisation of monophthongs, the mispronunciation of the TH grapheme in certain environments, the absence of dark ls and so on. What was more striking in these renditions was the emergence of unusual assimilation patterns that shifted considerably from what obtains in SBE. These results show that CamE is significantly predictable with regard to assimilation, which displays CamE rules that are significantly different from those of SBE. It was observed that in CamE, a coalescent-like assimilation is likely to occur when the /s/ is followed by the /j/ (generally in the word *you*, and less often in *your* and *year*), they assimilate, and the sound or sequence of sounds that is produced is the /sj/ in some environments (bless you, /blesju/; last year, /lasjɛ/), and /zj/ in some others (in case you, /ɪn kezju/). The author, therefore, maintained that the phonological area of assimilation

significantly reveals the existence of a new English in Cameroon, given that features of CamE, with regard to this phonological concept, dominated the speech of up to 95% of the informants.

Nyacha (2021) investigated the use of liaison by secondary school goers. The author selected 20 informants, involving 10 Form One students and 10 Upper Sixth students, and subjected them to the reading of some 15 pre-prepared sentences containing targeted phonological variables involving liaison, while a tape recorder was used to record their renditions. The frame used was Jackson's (1982), and the tool for the analysis was Error analysis developed by Corder (1967). The findings revealed the following results: there was no significant difference in the performance of Form One and Upper Sixth students, given that out of the 15 linguistic items that were administered to them, both levels recorded a percentage of 0% in 8 of them. While, in the 3 other linguistic items, Upper Sixth students recorded percentages of 10%, 10% and 15%, respectively. The researcher concluded that the results were mediocre and not significant enough to place Upper Sixth students above Form One students with regard to the knowledge of SBE liaison, thus revealing that one's educational attainment does not have any significant influence on one's knowledge of SBE liaison. Furthermore, the findings revealed that most of the informants' renditions witnessed typical features of CamE, including the monophthongisation of diphthongs, the diphthongisation of monophthongs, the mispronunciation of the TH grapheme in certain environments, the absence of dark ls and so on. What was more striking in these renditions was the emergence of unusual liaison patterns that considerably drifted from what obtains in SBE. These results showed that CamE is significantly predictable with regard to liaison, which displays CamE rules that are significantly different from those of SBE. Examples included the tokens '*first of all, I am and more and more*', which were rendered as /fesəf əl/, /aɪjam/ and /mɔran mɔ/, with percentages of 65%, 20% and 20%, respectively. The author, therefore, maintained that the phonological area of liaison significantly corroborates previous studies, as per the existence of a New English in Cameroon.

Yaah (2016) investigated the correlation between liaison and two sociolinguistic variables, namely level of education and professional status. As concerns the sociolinguistic

scope for the study, the author selected 80 informants comprised of form four and lower sixth students of GBHS Etoug-Ebe, undergraduates of the University of Yaoundé I, and postgraduate students of HTTC Yaoundé students (comprised the level of education variable), while the professional status variable involved English teachers and journalists (considered as professional users of English), and doctors and lawyers (considered as non-professional users of English). The informants were subjected to the reading of some pre-prepared sentences which targeted the phonological variable, liaison, while their renditions were tape-recorded. The framework of analysis spanned across the Error Analysis framework, the World Englishes framework and the Correlation framework. The findings revealed the following results.

Groups	Tokens	Correct responses	Frequency	Percentage
	Far away	/fərəwei/	5	50
Form	The only way	/ðijəʊnlɪwei/	0	0
Four students	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	1	10
	Be actively involved	/bijæktivlirɪnvɔlvd	0	0
	To answer	/tuwansə/	0	0
	Total		6	60
	Mean		3	30
Lower	Far away	/fərəwei/	5	50
Sixth students	The only way	/ðijəʊnlɪwei/	1	10
	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	0	0
	Be actively involved	/bijæktivlirɪnvɔlvd	0	0
	To answer	/tuwansə/	0	0
	Total		6	60
	Mean		3	30
Undergraduate	Far away	/fərəwei/	4	40
students	The only way	/ðijəʊnlɪwei/	1	10

	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	0	0
	Be actively involved	/bijæktivlirɪnvɔlvd	0	0
	To answer	/tuwansə/	0	0
	Total		5	50
	Mean		2.5	25
Postgraduate students	Far away	/færəwei/	6	60
	The only way	/ðijəʊnlɪwei/	3	30
	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	0	0
	Be actively involved	/bijæktivlirɪnvɔlvd	0	0
	To answer	/tuwansə/	0	0
	Total		9	90
	Mean		4.5	45

As can be observed above, with regard to level of education, the form four and lower sixth students recorded no difference, as they both scored a 30% approximation of SBE liaison. The undergraduate students registered a 25% in their renditions of SBE liaison, putting them below their secondary school counterparts. Only the postgraduates performed better as they recorded 45% approximation of SBE liaison.

Groups	Tokens	Correct responses	Frequency	Percentage
	Far away	/færəwei/	4	40
Secondary school teachers	The only way	/ðijəʊnlɪwei/	0	0
	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	2	20
	Be actively involved	/bijæktivlirɪnvɔlvd	0	0
	To answer	/tuwansə/	2	20
	Total		8	80

	Mean		2.7	26.7
Journalists	Far away	/fɑrəweɪ/	6	60
	The only way	/ðɪjəʊnlɪweɪ/	3	30
	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	0	0
	Be actively involved	/bɪjæktɪvlɪrɪnvɔlvd/	0	0
	To answer	/tuwɑnsə/	1	10
	Total		10	100
	Mean		3.3	33.3
Medical practitioners	Far away	/fɑrəweɪ/	3	30
	The only way	/ðɪjəʊnlɪweɪ/	1	10
	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	0	0
	Be actively involved	/bɪjæktɪvlɪrɪnvɔlvd/	0	0
	To answer	/tuwɑnsə/	0	0
	Total		4	40
	Mean		2	20
Lawyers	Far away	/fɑrəweɪ/	4	40
	The only way	/ðɪjəʊnlɪweɪ/	3	30
	Too angry	/tuwæŋgri/	0	0
	Be actively involved	/bɪjæktɪvlɪrɪnvɔlvd/	0	0
	To answer	/tuwɑnsə/	1	10
	Total		8	80
	Mean		2.7	26.7

As exemplified above, with regard to professional status, journalists were the highest in the category, scoring 33.3% in the approximation of SBE liaison, as teachers and lawyers could only score 26.7% each. Thus, the results of the teachers and lawyers annulled the assertion that professionals of English are better than their non-professional counterparts.

Considering the findings recapitulated above, the author also concluded that one's level of education and professional status has no significant influence on his or her knowledge of SBE liaison.

2.2.3 Gaps and contributions

After looking at the review of related literature, we can observe that only three works, namely Yaah (2016), Nyacha (2021) and Eyenga-Ngoa (2020), attempted a similar investigation by looking at the relationship between aspects of connected speech, like liaison and assimilation, and sociolinguistic variables, like level of education and professional status. Together with this work, they constitute the few studies carried out on this aspect of connected speech in a postcolonial setting like Cameroon. The concerns of these previous works are significantly different from those of this work. Firstly, Ngefac (1997), Fonyuy (2005), Kouega (2013) and Ndisom (2013), on their part, were concerned with sounds in isolation while the present study tackles aspects of sounds in company (assimilation, elision and liaison). Secondly, Yaah (2016) and the present study both investigate the relationship between an aspect of connected speech (liaison), and sociolinguistic variables, but differ at the level of the scope. Unlike Yaah (ibid) whose scope spans across two sociolinguistic variables (level of education and professional status), this study focuses on only one sociolinguistic variable (level of education and specialisation, involving level one students of the university). This work goes further to provide features peculiar to connected process of assimilation, elision and liaison, found in the speech of Cameroonian speakers of English, what previous works like Yaah, (ibid) did not consider. Moreover, Yaah (ibid) exploited only five tokens, namely “far away”, “the only way”, “too angry”, “be actively involved”, and “to answer”, but the present study involves 20 tokens. With regard to Eyenga-Ngoa (2020), the author’s main concern was the relationship between the phonological variable of assimilation and the sociolinguistic variable of professional status, while Nyacha (2021) focused on the use of liaison by secondary school goers, which is not the concern of the present study. The present study also seeks to investigate whether specialisation can influence one’s performance in connected speech processes of assimilation, liaison and elision. Moreover, the present work is also different from the previous in the sense that it seeks to investigate the educational level at which Cameroon English (CamE) is acquired by Cameroonian students, an aspect which is not the focus of the above works.

Conclusion

This chapter has given us an insight into the theoretical framework and the review of related literature. Corder Error analysis (1967) was used as the tool for the analysis, and frame proposed by Jackson (1982) was explored. A review was made on related literature on Cameroon English phonological features an socio-phonetics. The next chapter will focus at the methodology used to give this study its scientific quality.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter considers the methodology that guided the study. The research design of this study is a survey, and it takes up in turns: the area of the study (3.1), the population (3.2), the research methods and tools of data collection (3.3), the methods of data analysis (3.4) and the difficulties encountered (3.5).

3.1 Area of the study

This two-year-long study (October 2021- July 2023) was carried out in the city of Yaounde, the capital city of Cameroon, and precisely in the University of Yaounde I. The city of Yaounde was chosen because of a number of reasons. First, Yaounde is easily accessible to the researcher, as it is his city of residence. Second, Yaounde is a highly cosmopolitan town, and harbours people from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Above all, the mother University of Yaounde I, is fertile for the researchers' data collection process. As concerns the choice of the institution, it was based on the following reasons. First, the researcher has the opportunity to be a student the University of Yaounde I, and thus is acquainted to the school. Second, the school is quite populated with a significant number of fields of study, so it was judged to be a convenient context for a study of this magnitude. The institution has a great deal of English-speaking background learners, that is, learners having English as their second language and their medium of instruction.

3.2 Population of the study

The population for this study comprised 20 Level One students: 10 reading English Modern Letters, 05 reading History and 05 reading Geography in the University of Yaounde I. The researcher chose the level students having English as their second language (that is, Advanced Level holders), because they are all expected to have learned and acquired a certain mastery of the language in general, and aspects of pronunciation in particular. The total number of informants was 20, selected through a random sampling. The random sampling was done through the selection of 2 to 3 respondents each from the different rows

of the four columns of the amphitheatres. That is, the researcher chose his respondents by skipping four rows and alternating in the sitting positions of students. This was aimed at making those who make up the sample population, representative of the larger one. Thus, the results obtained from the investigation can be generalized. For the purpose of clarity, these respondents were grouped in terms of level of their fields of study, dominant home languages and gender in Tables 12-14.

Table 21: Classification of Respondents according to Fields of Study

Field of study	Number of respondents	Percentage
English Modern Lettres	10	50%
History and Geography	10	50%
Total	20	100%

From Table 21, it can be observed that the respondents constituted 10 level one students studying English Modern Letters, and 10 level one students studying History and Geography. The choice of this selection was triggered by the quest to find out whether English Modern Letters students are more proficient in the target language and speech than their History and Geography counterparts.

Also, besides the fact that the respondents were Advance Level holders, the researcher thought wise to investigate their dominant Official Languages they speak. Table 22 below classifies the respondents according to their dominant home languages.

Table 22: Classification of Respondents according to Dominant Official Languages

Field of study	Dominant Official Languages	Number of respondents	Total	Percentage
English Modern Letters	English	07	10	50%
	French	03		
History and Geography	English	05	10	50%
	French	05		
Total			20	100%

From Table 22, it can be observed that the English Language is not only the respondents' language of instruction, but also one of the languages spoken in their homes.

Moreover, in order to avoid gender bias in the investigation, the respondents under study were classified according to gender: male and female. Table 23 below classifies the respondents according to gender in each class.

Table 23: Classification of Respondents according to Gender

Gender	Field of study	Number of respondents	Total	Percentage
Male	English Modern Letters	04	07	35%
	History and Geography	03		
Female	English Modern Letters	06	13	65%
	History and Geography	07		
Total			20	100%

Table 23, shows that amongst the 20 respondents, who constituted the sample from both fields of study, the female gender was dominant with 65%, while the male gender constituted 35%. This can be justified by the fact that there were fewer males in the amphitheatres, although we did not check whether the difference was systematic or occasional.

3.3 Methods of data collection

This section takes up the tools used for data collection (3.3.1), and the data collection procedure (3.3.2).

3.3.1 Tools for data collection

Two main tools were used to collect the data for this investigation. First, a production test, consisting of a series of mini dialogues, was used to test the respondents' ability to observe the phonological variable under study (connected speech) in their speech. The Sentence Reading Style (SRS) used by Simo Bobda (1994), was adopted. The use of such a formal and careful style was to avoid the possibility of considering a deviant pronunciation and production as a result of a style which is not formal. Second, a tape recorder was used to record the respondents' utterances for subsequent analysis. The respondents read a total of 20 mini dialogues (see appendices), containing the targeted phonological variable (the connected speech processes of assimilation, elision and liaison). The phrases consisted of tokens which were observed and suspected to be problematic to Cameroonian speakers of English. These phrases, together with the targeted tokens (in bold) and the different connected speech processes can be presented as follows:

ASSIMILATION

1. A: When did you get into the university?

B: I got into the university **this year**. **Coalescence**

2. A: Give me the book over there!

B: **Could you** be polite, please? **Coalescence**

3. A: Where are the pens I kept here?

B: The pens are **on the table**. **Regressive**

4. A: What are the students doing?

B: They are editing some **newspaper** headlines. **Regressive**

5. A: How many glasses did he buy yesterday?

B: He bought **ten glasses**. **Phonemic/progressive**

6. **A:** Can I pin this picture on the wall?

B: No, **don't pin** that picture. It is not beautiful.

Phonemic/progressive

7. **A:** I didn't see your sister the other day.

B: yes. She **was sent** to the market when you came.

Voicing

8. **A:** Why are the students out of the hall?

B: They must **have finished** writing.

Voicing

ELISION

9. **A:** Who is at the door?

B: It is a **blind man**.

Word boundary

10. **A:** Can we have a ride together?

B: Sorry, I've **got to** go now.

Word boundary

11. **A:** What did John say that got you that mad?

B: "**Bend down** and pick up my pen", he thundered.

Word boundary

12. **A:** Is Cameroon ruled by a monarch?

B: No, by a president. Cameroon has a democratic system of **government**. **Word median**

13. **A:** Where do you study?

B: I study at the **University** of Yaounde 1.

Word median

14. **A:** When do they have breakfast?

B: They **usually** have breakfast in bed.

Word median

LIAISON

15. **A:** What will you do at 4pm tomorrow?

B: I will **go out** with friends.

Intrusive /w/

16. **A:** At what time do lectures stop here?

B: Lectures stop at **four o'clock**.

Linking /r/

17. **A:** What did she bring?

B: She brought **the apple** you requested for.

Intrusive /j/

18. **A:** What was his reply?

B: He demanded to be **left alone**.

Linking

19. **A:** What role do the police play in a country?

B: They maintain **law and order**.

Linking /r/

20. **A:** This is the last sentence, I guess.

B: Thank **you all**.

Intrusive /w/

3.3.2 Data collection procedure

The data for this study were collected following a number of methodological steps. First, 20 mini dialogues involving connected speech processes were administered to the informants (20 Level One students), for them to read aloud. The tape-recorder was then used to record the phonological renditions of the respondents, which the researcher took out time to transcribe and meticulously analyse, in order to obtain the findings that are presented in this work. This was to test the informants' knowledge of connected speech processes, and to find out if the Level One students' features of connected differ from what obtains in RP. This recording of the phonological renditions of the respondents equally helped in pointing out the

features of connected speech in Cameroon English, as well as the classification of these peculiar features in terms of whether they were dominant, minor or idiosyncratic.

3.4 Method of data analysis

The collection of data was, thus, followed by the analysis. The recorded sentences were later played back and transcribed. The analysis of available data was carried out based on a comparative method. First, the renditions of the selected respondents of each of the groups were played and transcribed following the SBE norms having to do with the use of connected speech. Second, the frequencies of the respondents' responses were calculated and presented on tables for a further comparison of the performance of both schools. In addition to this, the frequency of each incorrect response of the informants was checked. In this case, if a certain response had a very high frequency, then it was said to constitute the features of what is termed as Cameroon English (CamE) and the incorrect responses were then classified according to whether they were dominant, minor or idiosyncratic.

3.5 Difficulties encountered

The data collection process for this study was not an easy task, as the researcher faced a number of challenges. Firstly, a good number of the respondents whom the researcher chose in the random sampling were either shy to read aloud for fear of being mocked at by their mates or have their voices recorded, or felt too important. Some students were rather too rowdy and anxious to do the exercise, but this was not very challenging for the researcher to handle. Nonetheless, the researcher managed to persuade the class delegates to seek for the collaboration of their mates in the data collection exercise.

Conclusion

To sum up, this chapter focused on the methodology that guided the study, with close emphasis on the area of the study, the population studied, the research methods and tools of data collection, the methods of data analysis, and the difficulties encountered. Therefore, the research design of this study is a survey.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis and the discussion of the findings drawn from personal observation and tape recording of the informants' speech.

Tables 24, 25 and 26 below present the twenty linguistic items that were tested in relation to the connected speech processes of assimilation, elision and liaison, respectively.

Table 24: Linguistic items involving the Connected Speech Processes of Assimilation

No.	Linguistic items	Pronunciation in isolation	Pronunciation following rules of Assimilation	Type of Assimilation process observed
1.	I got into the university this year .	/ðɪs jɜː/	/ðɪʃɜː/	Coalescence
2.	Could you be polite, please?	/kʊd ju/	/kʊdʒu/	Coalescence
3.	The pens are on the table .	/ɒn ðə teɪbl/	/ɒn nə teɪbl/	Regressive
4.	They are editing some newspaper headlines.	/njuz peɪpə/	/njuspeɪpə/	Regressive
5.	He bought ten glasses .	/ten glɑːsɪz/	/tɛŋ glɑːsɪz/	Phonemic/progressive
6.	No, don't pin that picture. It is not beautiful.	/dəʊnt pɪn/	/dəʊm pɪn/	Phonemic/progressive
7.	Yes. She was sent to the market when	/wɒz sent/	/wəs sent/	Voicing

	you came.			
8.	They must have finished writing.	/hæv fɪnɪʃt/	/hæf fɪnɪʃt/	Voicing

As can be observed from Table 24 above, after the numbering, the first column presents the various sentences containing the targeted tokens which were tested. The second column presents the tokens as they are pronounced in isolation (in SBE), while the third column presents the pronunciation of the tokens following the rules of SBE assimilation. Last but not least, the fourth column indicates the different kinds of assimilation processes observed.

Table 25: Linguistic items involving Connected Speech Processes of Elision

No.	Linguistic items	Pronunciation in isolation	Pronunciation following rules of Elision	Type of Elision process observed
1.	It is a blind man .	/blaɪnd mæn /	/blaɪn mæn/ /blaɪm mæn/	Word boundary
2.	Sorry, I've got to go now.	/gɒt tu/	/gɒ tu/	Word boundary
3.	" Bend down and pick up my pen", he thundered.	/bend daʊn/	/ben daʊn/	Word boundary
4.	No, by a president. Cameroon has a democratic system of government .	/gʌvnmənt/	/gʌvmənt/	Within a word
5.	I study at the University of Yaounde 1.	/junɪvɜːsɪti/	/junvɜːsti/	Within a word
6.	They usually have breakfast in bed.	/juːʒəli/	/juːʒli/	Within a word

With regard to Table 25 above, after the numbering, the first column presents the various sentences containing the targeted tokens which were tested. The second column presents the tokens as they are pronounced in isolation (in SBE), while the third column presents the pronunciation of the tokens following the rules of SBE Elision. Finally, the fourth column indicates the different kinds of Elision processes identified.

Table 26: Linguistic items involving Connected Speech Processes of Liaison

No.	Linguistic items	Pronunciation in isolation	Pronunciation following rules of Liaison	Type of Liaison process observed
1.	I will go out with friends.	/gəʊ aʊt/	/gəʊwaʊt/	Intrusive /w/
2.	Lectures stop at four o'clock .	/fɔ əklɒk/	/fɔrəklɒk/	Linking /r/
3.	She brought the apple you requested for.	/ðɪ æpl/	/ðɪjæpl/	Intrusive /j/
4.	He demanded to be left alone .	/left ələʊn/	/leftələʊn/	Linking
5.	They maintain law and order .	/lə ænd ɔdə/	/lərənɔdə/	Intrusive /r/
6.	Thank you all .	/θæŋk ju ɔl/	/θæŋkjuwɔl/	Intrusive /w/

As concerns Table 26 above, after the numbering, the first column presents the various sentences containing the targeted tokens which were tested. The second column presents the tokens as they are pronounced in isolated SBE, while the third column presents the pronunciation of the tokens following the rules of SBE Liaison. Last but not least, the fourth column indicates the different kinds of Liaison processes considered.

The respondents' rendition of the 20 tokens is outlined below from table 27 to table 48.

4.1 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'this year'

Table 27a below illustrates the frequencies and percentages of the respondents' rendition of the token 'this year'. The different renditions are as follows:

Table 27a: Rendition of the phrase 'this year'

Groups of Respondents	Tokens	RP	Recorded renditions	Frequency	Percentage
English Modern Letters Students	This year	/ðɪfɜ:/	/disiɛ/	7	70%
			/dis jɛ/	3	30%
		Total		10	100%
History and Geography Students	This year	/ðɪfɜ:/	/disiɛ/	3	70%
			/dis jɛ/	7	30%
		Total		10	100%

As illustrated in Table 27a above, the token 'this year' was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students and 10 History and Geography Students) in two different ways. 10 of them rendered the token as /disiɛ/, while 10 rendered it as /dis jɛ/. While 10 of them (involving 7 English Modern Letters Students and 3 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in a restructured kind of assimilation process, the other 10 (3 English Modern Letters Students and 7 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in isolation. Thus, none of the respondents rendered the token following the SBE rule of assimilation. The data on Table 27a above can also be presented in the following Table 27b.

Table 27b: Rendition of the phrase ‘this year’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percent age
This year	/ðɪfɜ:/	/disiɛ/	7	3	10	50%
		/dis jɛ/	3	7	10	50%
Total			10	10	20	100%

Table 27b above shows that, of all the respondents, 10/20 (7 English Modern Letters Students and 3 History and Geography Students) assimilated the token as /disiɛ/, while 10/20 (3 English Modern Letters Students and 7 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in isolation, as /dis jɛ/. Therefore, 50% of 20 students rendered the token in a restructured assimilation process, while 50% rendered the token in isolation. Thus, the respondents recorded a 100% failure in the observation of the rule of SBE liaison in the token ‘this year’.

Given that the format of Table 27b above happens to be quite economical and straightforward, it will be adopted for the rest of the analysis.

4.2 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘could you’

With regard to the rendition of the token ‘could you’, the following results were obtained.

Table 28: Rendition of the phrase ‘could you’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Could you	/kɒdʒu/	/kuld ju/	6	6	12	60%
		/kuldju/	3	4	7	35%
		/kɒdʒu/	1	--	1	5%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As evidenced in table 28 above, the token ‘could you’ was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in three different ways. 12/20 (6 English Modern Letters Students and 6 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /kuld ju/, while 7/20 (3 English Modern Letters Students and 4 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /kuldju/, and 1/20 (involving an English Modern Letters Student) rendered it as /kʊdʒu/. Therefore, of all the respondents, only 5% (English Modern Letters Students) rendered the token following the SBE rule of assimilation, while up to 60% of them (involving 6 English Modern Letters Students and 6 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in isolated CamE, and 35% of them (3 English Modern Letters Students and 4 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in a CamE-like assimilation, /kuldju/.

4.3 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘on the table’

The renditions of the token ‘on the table’ are showcased on table 9 below.

Table 29: Rendition of the phrase ‘on the table’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
On the table	/ɒn nə teibl/	/ɒn de teibl/	10	10	20	100%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As elucidated in Table 29 above, none of the respondents (English Modern Letters Students, and History and Geography Students alike) could observe the rule of SBE assimilation in the rendition of the token ‘on the table’. They all rendered the token in isolation as /ɒn de teibl/, which is typical of what obtains in CamE, thus, recording a 100% failure in the observation of SBE assimilation in the token ‘on the table’.

4.4 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘newspaper’

The respondents’ renditions of the token ‘newspaper’, as observed by the researcher, are presented as follows.

Table 30: Rendition of the phrase ‘newspaper’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Newspaper	/njuspeɪpə/	/njuspepa/	8	8	16	80%
		/njuspeɪpə/	2	2	4	20%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As presented in table 30 above, the token ‘newspaper’ was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in two different ways. 16/20 (8 English Modern Letters Students and 8 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /njuspepa/, while 4/20 (2 English Modern Letters Students, and 2 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /njuspeɪpə/. Therefore, of all the respondents, only 20% (2 English Modern Letters Students, and 2 History and Geography Students) rendered the token following the SBE rule of assimilation, while up to 80% of them (involving 8 English Modern Letters Students and 8 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in a CamE-like assimilation, with the restructuring of the final mid-low central unrounded vowel /ə/ sound into /a/, which is typical of CamE.

4.5 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘ten glasses’

The token ‘ten glasses’ recorded the following renditions, as observed by the researcher.

Table 31 : Rendition of the phrase ‘ten glasses’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Ten glasses	/tɛŋ glasɪz/	/tɛn glasis/	8	10	18	90%
		/tɛn glasɪz/	2	--	2	10%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As showcased in table 31 above, the token ‘ten glasses’ was rendered by the 18 respondents (8 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in two different ways. 18/20 (8 English Modern Letters Students and 10 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /tɛn glasis/, while 2/20 (2 English Modern Letters Students) rendered it as /tɛn glasisz/. Therefore, all the respondents rendered the token in isolation. As can be observed above, 90% of the respondents (8 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) went as far as restructuring the final voice alveolar fricative /z/ into its voiceless counterpart /s/. A phenomenon which is typical of CamE.

4.6 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘don’t pin’

As concerns the renditions of the token ‘don’t pin’, the following frequencies and percentages were obtained.

Table 32: Rendition of the phrase ‘don’t pin’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Don’t pin	/dəʊm pin/	/dɒnt pin/	7	6	13	65%
		/dəʊn pin/	2	2	4	20%
		/dəʊnt pin/	1	2	3	15%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As illustrated in Table 32 above, the token ‘don’t pin’ was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in three different ways. 13/20 (7 English Modern Letters Students and 6 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /dɒnt pin/, while 4/20 (2 English Modern Letters Students and 2 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /dəʊn pin/, and 3/20 (1 English Modern Letters Student, and 2 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /dəʊnt pin/. They all rendered the token in different isolated forms, thus, recording a 100% failure in the observation of SBE assimilation in the token ‘don’t pin’.

4.7 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'was sent'

With regard to the renditions of the token 'was sent', the following frequencies and percentages were obtained.

Table 33: Rendition of the phrase 'was sent'

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Was sent	/wəs sent/	/wɒs sent/	10	10	20	100%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As showcased in Table 33 above, all the respondents (English Modern Letters Students, and History and Geography Students) observed the rule of SBE assimilation in the rendition of the token 'was sent', but for the fact that they restructured the short vowel in the word /wəs/ as /wɒs/, which is typical of what obtains in CamE. Thus, recording a 100% success in the observation of a CamE-like assimilation in the token 'was sent' as /wɒs sent/.

4.8 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'have finished'

The renditions of the token 'have finished', recorded the following frequencies and percentages.

Table 34: Rendition of the phrase 'have finished'

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Have finished	/hæf fɪnɪʃt/	/haf fɪnɪʃt/	10	10	20	100%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As presented in Table 34 above, the token ‘have finished’ was rendered by our respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) as /haf finiʃt/. Therefore, all the respondents observed the assimilation rule, though with a restructured segment. As can be observed above, 100% of the respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) restructured the front-low-unrounded vowel /æ/ into /a/; a phenomenon which is typical of CamE, therefore resulting in a CamE-like assimilation.

4.9 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘blind man’

As observed by the researcher, the renditions of the token ‘blind man’ recorded the following frequencies and percentages.

Table 35: Rendition of the phrase ‘blind man’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Blind man	/blaɪn mæn/	/blaɪn man/	9	8	17	85%
	/blaɪm mæn/	/blaɪnd man/	1	2	3	15%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As illustrated in Table 35 above, the respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) rendered the phrase ‘blind man’, in two different ways. While only 15% of the respondents (1 English Modern Letters Student, and 2 History and Geography Students) utterly failed to observe SBE elision by rendering the token as /blaɪnd man/, up to 85% of them (9 English Modern Letters Students, and 8 History and Geography Students) rendered the token following SBE elision rules as /blaɪn man/, though with a CamE-like rendition of the word ‘man’.

4.10 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘got to’

The respondents’ renditions of the token ‘got to’, as observed by the researcher, are presented as follows.

Table 36: Rendition of the phrase ‘got to’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Got to	/gɒ tu/	/gɒt tu/	9	10	19	95%
		/gɒ tu/	1	--	1	5%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As presented in table 36 above, the token ‘got to’ was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in two different ways. 19/20 (9 English Modern Letters Students and 10 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /gɒt tu/, while 1/20 (1 English Modern Letters Student) rendered it as /gɒ tu/. Therefore, of all the respondents, only 5% (1 English Modern Letters Students) rendered the token following the SBE rule of elision, while up to 95% of them (involving 9 English Modern Letters Students and 10 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in isolation, which is typical of CamE.

4.11 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘bend down’

As concerns the token ‘bend down’, the following renditions were recorded by the researcher.

Table 37: Rendition of the phrase ‘bend down’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Bend down	/ben daʊn/	/ben daʊn/	10	10	20	100%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As can be observed in table 37 above, the token ‘bend down’ was rendered by our respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) as /ben daun/. Therefore, all the respondents observed the SBE elision rule in the rendition of the token ‘bend down’, although with a restructuring of the diphthong /aʊ/ as /au/. A phenomenon which is peculiar in CamE.

4.12 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘government’

With regard to the renditions of the token ‘government’, the following frequencies and percentages were obtained.

Table 38: Rendition of the phrase ‘government’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Government	/gʌvmənt/	/gʊvmən/	6	3	9	45%
		/gʊvmənt/	4	7	11	55%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As presented in Table 38, the token ‘government’ was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in two different ways. 9/20 (6 English Modern Letters Students and 3 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /gʊvmən/, while 11/20 (4 English Modern Letters Students, and 7 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /gʊvmənt/. Therefore, of all the respondents, 45% (6 English Modern Letters Students, and 3 History and Geography Students) rendered the token following a restructured elision pattern, while 55% of them (involving 4 English Modern Letters Students and 7 History and Geography Students) rendered the token in a CamE-like elision, with the restructuring of the short vowel /ʌ/ sound into the long /ɔ/, which is typical of CamE.

4.13 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'university'

As concerns the renditions of the token 'university', the researcher recorded the following renditions.

Table 39: Rendition of the phrase 'university'

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
University	/junv3stɪ/	/junivɛsiti/	10	10	20	100%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As evidenced in Table 39 above, the token 'university' was rendered by all our respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) as /junivɛsiti/. Therefore, all the respondents failed to observe the SBE elision rule in the rendition of the token, as they rather rendered it as /junivɛsiti/, which obtains in isolated CamE.

4.14 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'usually'

The respondents' rendition of the token 'usually', as observed by the researcher, are presented as follows.

Table 40: Rendition of the phrase 'usually'

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Usually	/juʒlɪ/	/juʒwali/	10	10	20	100%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As showcased in Table 40 above, the token 'usually' was rendered by both sets of respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students)

as /juʒwali/. Thus, all the respondents failed to observe the SBE elision rule in the rendition of the token, and rather rendered it as /juʒwali/, as is the case in isolated CamE.

4.15 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'go out'

As observed by the researcher, the renditions of the token 'go out', recorded the following frequencies and percentages.

Table 41: Rendition of the phrase 'go out'

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Go out	/gəʊwaʊt/	/go aut/	10	10	20	100%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As illustrated in Table 41 above, of all the respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students), none could observe the rule of SBE liaison in the rendition of the token 'go out'. They all rendered the token as /go aut/, typical of what obtains in isolated CamE. Thus, recording a 100% failure in the observation of SBE liaison in the token 'go out'.

4.16 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'four o'clock'

As concerns the respondents' rendition of the token 'four o'clock', the following results were obtained.

Table 42: Rendition of the phrase 'four o'clock'

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Four o'clock	/fɔːrəklɒk/	/fɔː oklɒk/	8	2	10	50%
		/fɔː ɔklɒk/	2	8	10	50%
Total			10	10	20	100%

The data in table 42 above shows that, of all our 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students), none of them could observe the rule of SBE liaison in their rendition of the token ‘four o’clock’. The token was utterly rendered by the respondents two in isolated forms. That is, 50% of the respondents (8 English Modern Letters Students, and 2 History and Geography Students), rendered the token as /fə oklək/, while another 50% (2 English Modern Letters Students, and 8 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /fə əklək/. Thus, all the respondents recorded a 100% failure in their observation of SBE liaison with regard to the token ‘four o’clock’.

4.17 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘the apple’

Table 43 below presents the renditions of the token ‘the apple’, as recorded from our respondents’ speech.

Table 43: Rendition of the phrase ‘the apple’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
The apple	/ðɪjæpl/	/ðə apl/	8	--	8	40%
		/dɛ apl/	2	5	7	35%
		/də apl/	--	5	5	25%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As presented on Table 43 above, the token ‘the apple’ was rendered in three different ways by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students). 8/20 (8 English Modern Letters Students) rendered the token as /ðə apl/, while 7/20 (2 English Modern Letters Students, and 5 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /dɛ apl/, and 5/20 (5 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /də apl/. Therefore, of all the respondents, none rendered the targeted token following the SBE rule of liaison. Up to 40% of them (English Modern Letters Students) rendered the token in isolated SBE, though with a restructured segment, while 35% of them (2 English Modern Letters

Students, and 5 History and Geography Students) rendered it in an unusual isolated pattern, and 25% (5 History and Geography Students) rendered it in isolated CamE.

4.18 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'left alone'

The renditions of the token 'left alone' are presented in the Table 44.

Table 44: Rendition of the phrase 'left alone'

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Left alone	/leftələʊn/	/leftelən/	6	6	12	60%
		/left elən/	4	4	8	40%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As exemplified on table 44 above, the token 'left alone' was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in two different ways. 12/20 of them (6 English Modern Letters Students, and 6 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /leftelən/, while 8/20 (4 English Modern Letters Students, and 4 History and Geography Students) rendered it as /left elən/. Therefore, of all the respondents, 40% rendered the token in isolated CamE, while 60% of them rendered the token in a CamE-like liaison, /leftelən/. Thus, yielding a 0% result in the observation of the token 'left alone' following the SBE rule of liaison.

4.19 Respondents' rendition of the phrase 'law and order'

As concerns the informants' rendition of the token 'law and order', the following results were obtained.

Table 45: Rendition of the phrase ‘law and order’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Law and order	/lɔːrənɔːdə/	/lɔ an ɔdə/	6	10	16	80%
		/lɔ and ɔdə/	4	--	4	20%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As presented in Table 45 above, the token ‘law and order’ was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) in two different ways. 16/20 (6 English Modern Letters Students and 10 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /lɔ an ɔdə/, while 4/20 (4 English Modern Letters Students) rendered it as /lɔ and ɔdə/. Therefore, of all the respondents, none could observe the token following SBE liaison rule, as they all rendered it in isolated CamE.

4.20 Respondents’ rendition of the phrase ‘thank you all’

With regard to the informants’ rendition of the token ‘thank you all’, the following results were obtained

Table 46: Rendition of the phrase ‘thank you all’

Token	RP	Recorded renditions	English Modern Letters Students	History and Geography Students	Frequency	Percentage
Thank you all	/θæŋkjuwɔl/	/tʌŋkju ɔl/	7	10	17	85%
		/θaŋkju ɔl/	3	--	3	15%
Total			10	10	20	100%

As showcased in Table 46 above, the token ‘thank you all’ was rendered by the 20 respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students)

in two different ways. 17/20 (7 English Modern Letters Students and 10 History and Geography Students) rendered the token as /tʌŋkju əl/, while 3/20 (3 English Modern Letters Students) rendered it as /θʌŋkju əl/. Therefore, up to 85% of the respondents rendered the token in a restructured type of liaison /tʌŋkju əl/, worthy enough to be termed a CamE-like one, while only 15% of them adopted an even more uncommon liaison pattern /θʌŋkju əl/. In a nut shell, of all the respondents, no one could observe the token following SBE liaison rule.

The overall performance of our respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students), in terms of the observation of the RP connected speech processes of assimilation, elision and liaison, are summarised in Table 47 below.

Table 47: The overall performance of the respondents

Token	Correct Responses (RP)	English Modern Letters Students		History and Geography Students	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
This year	/ðɪfɜː/	0	0%	0	0%
Could you	/kʊdʒu/	1	5%	0	0%
On the table	/ɒn nə teɪbl/	0	0%	0	0%
Newspaper	/njʊspeɪpə/	2	10%	2	10%
Ten glasses	/teŋ glɑːsɪz/	0	0%	0	0%
Don't pin	/dəʊm pɪn/	0	0%	0	0%
Was sent	/wəs sent/	0	0%	0	0%
Have finished	/hæf fɪnɪʃt/	0	0%	0	0%
Blind man	/blaɪn mæn/, /blaɪm mæn/	0	0%	0	0%
Got to	/gɒ tu/	1	5%	0	0%
Bend down	/ben daʊn/	10	50%	10	50%
Government	/gʌvmənt/	0	0%	0	0%
University	/junɪvɜːstɪ/	0	0%	0	0%

Usually	/juʒli/	0	0%	0	0%
Go out	/gəʊwaʊt/	0	0%	0	0%
Four o'clock	/fɔːrəkloʊk/	0	0%	0	0%
The apple	/ðɪjæpl/	0	0%	0	0%
Left alone	/lɛftələʊn/	0	0%	0	0%
Law and order	/lɔːrənɔːdə/	0	0%	0	0%
Thank you all	/θæŋkjuwɔːl/	0	0%	0	0%

Table 47 above shows that both sets of respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students, and 10 History and Geography Students) attempted to observe connected speech processes of assimilation and elision in their renditions of some two tokens, involving: *newspaper* and *bend down*, with cumulative percentages of 20%, and 100%, respectively.

It can also be observed, on Table 47, that some English Modern Letters Students stood out in their observation of the connected speech processes of assimilation and elision, in their rendition of two tokens, namely *could you* and *got to*. However, they did so with some restructured segments, and mediocre percentages of 5% and 5%, respectively. Their History and Geography counterparts failed to observe connected speech processes in the in the two tokens and, thus, recorded 0%.

Irrespective of the fact that only English Modern Letters Students recorded the above-mentioned percentages in the rendition of two tokens, which is somehow better than the 0% recorded by the History and Geography Students, we can clearly notice that the frequencies themselves are not the best, as they represent an insignificant percentage of English Modern Letters Students' correct renditions; which is actually a poor performance on their part.

Also important is the fact that, in the rendition of all the other tokens (*this year, on the table, ten glasses, don't pin, was sent, have finished, bind man, government, university, usually, go out, four o'clock, the apple, left alone law and order, and thank you all*), as can be observed in table 47 above, none of the respondents (10 English Modern Letters Students,

and 10 History and Geography Students) could render the tokens following the rules of SBE connected speech processes (assimilation, elision and liaison), thus, yielding a 0% performance in the rendition of the above-mentioned tokens.

The statistics in Table 47 above reveal an inconsistency and instability in the respondents' rendition. English Modern Letters Students, who would normally be expected, as language students that they are, to shine bright in their recorded performances, did not meet the expectation, as they recorded 0% in up to 16 out of the 20 tokens that were presented to them. All the informants failed to observe the rules of SBE connected speech processes in the way they rendered the targeted segments, as they found themselves drifting from the correct renditions. All the informants (English Modern Letters Students, and History and Geography Students alike), in their good majority, produced renditions typical of what obtains in CamE. This phenomenon pushes us to have insights into interesting features peculiar to the process of connected speech processes in CamE.

It is worthy to classify the deviant or erroneous forms of the respondents' renditions into the different categories, that is: dominant, minor or idiosyncratic. Thus, their frequencies and percentages are presented on table 48 below.

Table 48: Classification according to the frequency and the category of deviant renditions

Token	Deviant rendition	Frequency	Percentage	Category (Dominant, Minor or Idiosyncratic)	Phenomenon taking place: RI (Reading in Isolation) / RCSP (Restructured Connected Speech Processes)
This year	/disiɛ/	10	50%	Dominant	RCSP (assimilation)
	/dis jɛ/	10	50%	Dominant	RI
Could you	/kuld ju/	12	60%	Dominant	RI
	/kuldju/	7	35%	Minor	RCSP (assimilation)

On the table	/ɒn də teɪbl/	20	100%	Dominant	RI
Newspaper	/nʃuspəpə/	16	80%	Dominant	RCSP (assimilation)
Ten glasses	/tɛn glæsɪs/	18	90%	Dominant	RI
	/tɛn glæsɪz/	2	10%	Minor	RI
Don't pin	/dɒnt pɪn/	13	65%	Dominant	RI
	/dəʊn pɪn/	4	20%	Minor	RI
	/dəʊnt pɪn/	3	15%	Minor	RI
Was sent	/wɒs sɛnt/	20	100%	Dominant	RCSP (assimilation)
Have finished	/hɑf fɪnɪʃt/	20	100%	Dominant	RCSP (assimilation)
Blind man	/blaɪn mæn/	17	85%	Dominant	RCSP (elision)
	/blaɪnd mæn/	3	15%	Minor	RI
Got to	/gɒt tu/	19	95%	Dominant	RI
Government	/gɒvnmənt/	11	55%	Dominant	RCSP (elision)
	/gɒvnmən/	9	45%	Minor	RCSP (elision)
University	/junɪvɛsɪti/	20	100%	Dominant	RI
Usually	/juʒwəli/	20	100%	Dominant	RI
Go out	/go aʊt/	20	100%	Dominant	RI
Four o'clock	/fɔr ɒklɒk/	10	50%	Dominant	RI
	/fɔr ɔklɒk/	10	50%	Dominant	RI
The apple	/ðə ɒpl/	8	40%	Minor	RI
	/dɛ ɒpl/	7	35%	Minor	RI

	/də apl/	5	25%	Minor	RI
Law and order	/lɔ an ɔdɑ/	16	80%	Dominant	RI
	/lɔ and ɔdɑ/	4	20%	Minor	RI
Left alone	/lɛftɛlɔn/	12	60%	Dominant	RCSP (liaison)
	/lɛft ɛlɔn/	8	40%	Minor	RI
Thank you all	/tɑŋkjʊ əl/	17	85%	Dominant	RCSP (liaison)
	/θɑŋkjʊ əl/	3	15%	Minor	RI

Table 48 above showcases the frequencies and the categories of each deviant rendition that was produced by the 20 respondents. Looking at the renditions, it is crystal clear that a good majority of them tilted to a variety of English that utterly violates SBE norms by conspicuously modifying its original pronunciations of the targeted tokens. The variety of English referred to here is known as CamE, and the statistics above bring to the limelight the fact that CamE is the English that the respondents, irrespective of their specialty, are more comfortable with, and use in their daily communicative situations.

Also important is the fact that, Table 48 above illustrates the classification of the deviant renditions according to whether the renditions are dominant, minor or idiosyncratic. Dominant renditions are those that constitute a characteristic feature of the speech of people using CamE. These renditions, in our table, were those with a percentage ranging between 100% and 50%. Surprisingly enough, as can be noticed on our table above, a good majority of the renditions in the table are dominant.

As concerns the minor renditions, they are those that occur in the speech of CamE speakers, but not as frequent as the dominant ones. Minor renditions, as showcased in the statistics on Table 48 above, were those that recorded, at most, a percentage of 45%, and at least, a percentage of 10%.

With regard to idiosyncratic renditions, they are those renditions that are not very common. In Table 48 above, we can notice that idiosyncratic renditions are those with a percentage below 10%. Moreover, looking at the table, we definitely get to notice they are actually rare.

The above classification, therefore, sets out to categorise the above-stated CamE-like features according to their likely chance of occurrence in the speech of Cameroonian speakers of English. In a nut shell, a close look at Table 47, which sums up the frequencies and the percentages of correct renditions, and the Table 48 presented above, gives us a clear understanding that deviant renditions, in this case, CamE renditions, are prevalent in the speech of the respondents.

On top of that, the fact that CamE renditions were dominant not only in the speech of History and Geography Students, but also in the speech of English Modern Letters Students reveals that the learners are more accustomed to CamE than SBE. Thus, the need to consider lifting up CamE to a more lucrative position in our university classrooms and amphitheatres.

4.21 CamE features of connected speech

As observed in Table 48 above, it illustrates some characteristic features of CamE with regard to phonological process of connected speech, involving assimilation, elision and liaison. They will be considered in turns in the following lines.

4.21.1 CamE features of assimilation

It can be observed from our data that assimilation, as observed in SBE, is an almost nonexistent phonological process in CamE, as a good majority of the linguistic items were rendered in isolation (RI) with significant modifications of sounds recorded in RP. Of all the deviant renditions of the tokens, as observed on Table 48 above, the informants predominantly rendered the tokens in isolation as peculiar of CamE.

As evidenced in Table 47, the only tokens that recorded an observation of assimilation following SBE norms are /kɔdʒu/ and /njuspeipə/, with insignificant percentages of 5% and 20% respectively.

Besides the two correctly rendered tokens above, some five other tokens (this year, could you, newspaper, was sent and have finished) witnessed an unusual assimilation process, as they were rendered /disiɛ/, /kuldju/, /njuspepa/, /wəs sent/, and /haf finiʃt/, respectively. As illustrated on Table 48 above, these renditions recorded percentages of 50%, 35%, 80%, 100%, and 100%. But for ‘could you’, which was categorized as ‘minor’, the four other tokens, were classified as ‘dominant’, due to their recorded percentages varying between 50% and 100%. In spite of the fact that the renditions of the tokens were not typical of SBE renditions, thus, marked as deviant forms, some assimilation rules were somehow observed.

It was observed that, while the SBE assimilation rule for the articulation of the token ‘this year’ warrants a coalescence or fusion of the final alveolar sound of the first word /s/, and the initial palatal sound of the following word /j/, to get in the palato-alveolar /ʃ/ (resulting in /ðɪʃɜ/), 50% of the respondents rather opted for the linking of just the final consonant /s/ to a restructured form of the initial consonant /j/ as /i/, with a further restructuring of the final vowel /ɜ/ as /ɛ/ (resulting in /disiɛ/).

A similar process of assimilation occurs in the rendition of the token ‘could you’. While it is expected that a coalescence or fusion of the final alveolar sound of the first word /d/, and the initial palatal sound of the following word /j/, to get the palatal /dʒ/ (resulting in /kʊdʒʊ/), 35% of the respondents rather glided from the final alveolar sound of the first word /d/, to the initial palatal sound of the following word /j/, to get a restructured palatal /dj/ (resulting in /kuldju/).

With regard to the token ‘newspaper’, the SBE assimilation process of devoicing was observed by 80% of the respondents, as they rendered voiced morpheme-boundary the /z/ in ‘news’ as /s/ because of the proceeding voiceless plosive /p/. However, they deviated from strict SBE rules by monophthongizing the diphthong /eɪ/ in ‘paper’ into /e/, and restructuring the word-final /ə/ into /a/, resulting in /njuspepa/. A phenomenon which is typical of CamE.

A similar restructuring phenomenon was recorded in the respondents’ rendition of the token ‘was sent’. The SBE assimilation process of devoicing was observed by 100% of the

respondents, as they rendered morpheme-boundary the /z/ in ‘was’ as /s/ due to the influence exerted by the preceding word-initial voiceless fricative /s/. Nonetheless, the respondents deviated from strict SBE rules by restructuring the word-median /ə/ in ‘was’ into /ɔ/ (which is typical of CamE), resulting in /wɔs sent/.

As concerns the token ‘have finished’, an analogous phenomenon, as the latter and former, was observed. Up to 100% of the respondents respected the SBE assimilation rule of devoicing, as they rendered the voiced morpheme-boundary the /v/ in ‘have’ as /f/ because of the influence of the preceding word-initial voiceless fricative /f/. Nevertheless, the respondents failed to observe strict SBE rules as they restructured the word-median /æ/ in ‘have’ into /a/, and the word-median /ɪ/ in ‘finished’ into /i/, resulting in /haf finiʃt/. As pointed out in the previous cases, such processes are typical of CamE.

4.21.2 CamE features of elision

Just like the SBE assimilation, it can be observed from our data showcased on Table 48 that the SBE elision is a quasi-nonexistent phonological process in CamE, as a good majority of the linguistic items were rendered in isolation (RI) with significant restructuring of RP sounds. Of all the tokens involving SBE elision, the only tokens that recorded an observation of elision following SBE norms are /gɒ tu/ and /ben daun/, with percentages of 5% and 100% respectively.

With regard to the deviant renditions of the tokens, as observed in Table 48 above, the informants predominantly rendered the tokens in isolation as peculiar of CamE.

As evidenced in Table 48, apart from the two correctly rendered tokens above, some two other tokens (blind man and government) recorded an unusual elision process, as they were rendered /blain man/ and /gɒvnmnt/, respectively. As illustrated on Table 48 above, these renditions recorded dominant percentages 85%, and 55%. Despite the fact that the rendition of the tokens did not follow strict SBE elision rules, thus, marked as deviant forms, some elision rules were recorded.

As concerns the token ‘blind man’, the SBE elision process of word-boundary deletion was observed by 85% of the respondents, as they elided the word-boundary /d/ of ‘blind’

because of the preceding word-initial consonant /m/. However, the respondents deviated from strict SBE rules by restructuring of the word-median diphthong /ai/ in ‘blind’ into /ai/, and the word-median monophthong /æ/ in ‘man’ into /a/, resulting in /blaɪn man/. A phenomenon which is typical of CamE.

A similar restructuring phenomenon was recorded in the respondents’ rendition of the token ‘government’. The SBE elision process of word-medial deletion was observed by 55% of the respondents, as they elided the word-median letters ‘-ern-’ in ‘gov(ern)ment’. Nonetheless, the respondents deviated from strict SBE rules by restructuring the word-median /ʌ/ and /ə/ in /gʌvnmənt/ into /ɔ/ and /ɛ/, resulting in /gɔvnmənt/. This is also a phenomenon typical of CamE.

4.21.3 CamE features of liaison

It can also be observed from our data illustrated on Table 48 that the SBE liaison is an absent phonological process in CamE, as a good majority of the linguistic items were rendered in isolation (RI) with significant restructuring of RP sounds. It could be strikingly observed that no single respondent managed to observe strict SBE liaison rules in all the 20 tokens submitted to their rendition. As concerns to the deviant renditions of the tokens, as observed in Table 39 above, the informants predominantly rendered the tokens in isolation as peculiar of CamE.

Also important is the fact that, although no respondent could observe strict SBE liaison rule in the administered to them, the researcher recorded some dominant renditions involving an unusual liaison rule in two tokens, namely ‘left alone’ and ‘thank you all’. Their renditions were considered dominant, because they recorded percentages of 60% and 85%, respectively.

With regard to the token ‘left alone’, the respondents actually observed the SBE liaison rule by linking the word-final consonant /t/ (of the first word) with the word-initial consonant /ə/ (of the following word). Nevertheless, they deviated from strict SBE rules by restructuring the word-initial monophthong /ə/ in ‘alone’ into /e/, and the word-median diphthong /əʊ/ into /o/, resulting in /leftelɒn/. A phenomenon which is typical of CamE.

As concerns the token ‘thank you all’, which involved both and linking and an intrusive /w/ liaison process, the respondents only observed the SBE liaison rule by linking the word-

final consonant /k/ (of the first word) with the word-initial consonant /j/ (of the second word), and left isolated the third word. In addition to that, they failed to respect strict SBE rules as they restructured the word-initial voiceless interdental fricative /θ/, and the word-median vowel /æ/ in ‘thank’ into /t/ and /a/, respectively. All of those, put together, resulted in the rendition /taŋkju əl/. A phenomenon which is typical of CamE.

Conclusion

In a nut shell, this chapter has given us a clear insight into the statistics gotten from the analysis of the data collected in the field. The chapter has equally enabled us to have a close look at the in-depth analysis made on the figures that were obtained. The chapter has gone further to discuss the unusual connected process patterns (assimilation, elision and liaison) identified, whose dominant percentages made them to be categorized as CamE features of connected process.

CONCLUSION

This section of the work takes up the summary of the findings gotten from the analysed data collected in the field, presents the sociolinguistic and pedagogic implications of the findings and makes recommendations and suggestions for further research.

Summary of findings

This work was guided by a number of research questions. Below is reproduced each research question and its findings.

- To what extent do Level One students of the university make use of SBE connected speech?

A production test containing series of short dialogues, involving 20 targeted connected speech processes, was administered to Level One students (English Modern Letters, and History and Geography) of the University of Yaounde I for them to read aloud. Their renditions were analysed in order to find out if Level One students observe SBE connected speech, in a New English setting like Cameroon. The findings revealed that in a few situations, namely in the production of *could you*, *newspaper*, *got to* and *bend down*, the respondents observed strict SBE connected speech, with percentages of 5%, 20%, 5% and 100%, respectively. While both sets of respondents rendered *newspaper* and *bend down* with equal percentages (10% and 50%, each), the English Modern Letters students recorded all the percentages for the renditions of *could you* and *got to*.

-What are the discrepancies that exist between Level One students' features of connected speech and what obtains in RP?

As pointed out in the findings above, in a few situations, namely in the production two tokens *could you* and *got to*, only 5% (*could you*) and 5% (*got to*) of the respondents (involving English Modern Letters students) observed strict SBE rules of connected speech processes of voicing assimilation and word-boundary elision. On their part, the History and Geography students did not observe the rule for RP connected speech in the renditions of the

tokens, thus, yielding a percentage of 0%. Also important is the fact that both levels of students all recorded 0% in the rendition of the 16 other tokens, following strict SBE connected speech rules. These first figures, thus, give us an insight on the mild difference English Modern Letters students tried to make ahead of their History and Geography counterparts. Moreover, the poor results recorded by both sets of students in the other 16 tokens further confirm that English Modern Letters students are really not above History and Geography students, as they all recorded 0% in the rendition of those 16 tokens. Thus, from these results, none of the two groups of respondents had a considerable advantage over the other in the rendition of the targeted tokens. Irrespective of their specialisation, English Modern Letters students performed as poorly as History and Geography students, in the observation of the phonological process of SBE connected speech processes of assimilation, elision and liaison.

-Are Level One students' features of connected processes predictable?

Another important concern of our investigation was to find out the CamE features of connected speech. The findings revealed a dominant tendency of the respondents' rendition to be tilting towards CamE, as a good majority of the 20 targeted tokens that were tested failed to observe the rules of SBE connected speech. On the contrary, the items were realised in isolation with significant phenomena, that are a characteristic feature of CamE, namely the diphthongisation of monophthongs, the monophthongisation of diphthongs, the mispronunciation of the TH grapheme, the restructuring of some monophthongs, the restructuring of some consonants etc.

The most interesting part of our findings is the actual presence of the phonological process of connected speech in CamE. It should be noted that, CamE observes the process of connected speech, but, as one would expect in a postcolonial context like Cameroon, the rules governing CamE features of connected speech significantly deviate from those that obtain in SBE. As showcased in Table 48 above, examples include the tokens *this year*, *could you*, *newspaper*, *was sent* and *have finished*, which witnessed an unusual assimilation process, as they were rendered /disiɛ/, /kuldju/, /njuspepa/, /wɔs sɛnt/, and /haf finift/, with dominant percentages of 50%, 35%, 80%, 100%, and 100%, respectively. Also important were the

tokens *bind man* and *government*, which observed unusual elision processes, as they were rendered /blain man/ and /gɔvment/, with dominant percentages of 85% and 55%, respectively. Not leaving out unusual liaison rules in two tokens, namely *left alone* and *thank you all*, whose renditions /leftelɔn/ and /tʌŋkju əl/ were also considered dominant, as they recorded percentages of 60% and 85%, respectively. Their percentages and frequencies in the speech of both sets of respondents were significant enough to christen these deviant forms as CamE features of connected speech.

Sociolinguistic and pedagogic implications of the findings

This section of the work takes up the sociolinguistic, and the pedagogic implications of the findings.

From a sociolinguistic standpoint, the implications can be seen from a number of perspectives. Firstly, the study investigates whether Level One students make use of connected speech in their speech. Secondly, the study investigates whether field of study has an influence on the competence in SBE connected speech processes of assimilation, elision and liaison. Thirdly, the study is carried out in a multicultural and postcolonial context.

The respondents for this investigation are drawn from two fields of study in the university, with the goal of finding out the influence of specialisation on the observation of SBE connected speech process. However, the findings reveal that specialisation does not have any significant influence on the use of SBE connected speech. This can be observed from the results obtained, which reveal that English Modern Letters Students, who would normally be expected, as language students that they are, to shine bright in their recorded performances, did not meet the expectation, as they performed as poorly as the History and Geography students. Both respondents' rendition of the 20 targeted tokens were insignificant, thus showing little or no competence in the observation of SBE connected speech on the part of the English Modern Letters students.

Also important is the fact that this investigation is carried out in Cameroon, a multicultural, multilingual, New English and postcolonial context. That is to say that the sociolinguistic and the socio-cultural realities cannot be the same as what obtains in the

Western world. Postcolonial context speakers' renditions of English sounds tend to be affected by the multiplicity of languages in their countries, which hinders their ability to approximate RP. Students find it difficult to stick to the prescribed standard form, because they are not sufficiently exposed to SBE. This is, no doubt, why the respondents rendered a great deal of the tokens administered to them in their ideal forms (in CamE). This lack of exposure to SBE, further, explains why some of the informants rendered the tokens in unusual connected speech patterns that are observable only in CamE. This is not surprising at all, because CamE is the variety of English the respondents, irrespective of their level of education or specialisation, hear and use on a daily basis. It can be understood that CamE speakers probably developed such connected speech patterns in their speech in order to render it more natural and less challenging, as typical RP patterns are considered more formal, challenging and less similar to what obtains in the respondents' actual setting.

The pedagogical implications of this investigation are varied. First, a great deal of the respondents violated the rules of SBE connected speech, which constitute the hallmarks of fluent speakers of English, or which determines how proficient and prolific a speaker is. It is important to highlight here that, not only did the respondents deviate from the rules of RP connected speech, but their renditions of the tokens also tilted towards the characteristic features of CamE pronunciation as they rendered the items in isolation, and using CamE-like connected speech processes. This lack of SBE pronunciation features (such as assimilation, elision and liaison) in the speech of the respondents, therefore, indicates that the struggle by policy makers and teachers to promote RP in Cameroon is not only far-fetched or a pipe dream, but also a fallacy as stated by Ngefac in his 2008 study. Second, the deplorable nature of the linguistic performance of English Modern Letters students, and the fact that they recorded almost the same poor results as their History and Geography counterparts, further shows that in Cameroon, specialisation does determine competence in SBE pronunciation features (in this case, assimilation, elision and liaison), as these blind students were led by blind teachers throughout their secondary and high school.

Thus, if our students must hinge on RP, as recommended by the Cameroon language laboratory, the state should redesign the training programmes of teachers of English, stressing

on pronunciation in general, and aspects of connected speech such as assimilation, elision and liaison, in particular. Students-teachers must be compelled to prove their proficiency with regard to SBE pronunciation features, not just by taking written assessments, as they are used to, but by also combining the latter with spoken tests where lecturers, who should first have worked a lot on their speech so as to approximate RP, will check the attainment of students-teachers in SBE pronunciation features.

Also, in the course of teaching phonology (or speech work, as it is called in the secondary), teachers of English should as well bear in mind that connected speech processes (like assimilation, elision and liaison) exist. This will go a long way to help them cancel students' faulty beliefs that sounds are isolated units of speech.

We can equally suggest that curricula used in Cameroonian schools, and English Language textbooks should not only limit themselves to the teaching of sounds in isolation, but also to aspects of connected speech like assimilation, elision and liaison, for such processes give a native-like quality to the English spoken even by the second language learners/speakers Cameroonians are. Also, given that textbooks are not the only source for the teaching of language skills (like speaking) teachers of English, with the advent of information and communication technology (ICT) tools or gadgets, should equally make use of a wide variety of teaching aids (like audio recordings and discs, and even videos of the targeted sounds and sequences of sounds and sentences) in and out of their classrooms, so as to help the students get the correct pronunciation of the linguistic items under study. This will, undoubtedly, yield more interesting native-like pronunciations even in a postcolonial context like Cameroon.

Suggestions for further research

The present study has investigated the connected speech processes of assimilation, elision and liaison in the utterances of Level One students of the university (English Modern Letters, and History and Geography). Further research could be carried out on the relationship between other sociolinguistic variables (ethnicity, regionalism, age, gender), and knowledge of SBE connected speech processes. Also, another study could expand this work, involving

more students, and investigating at all the other possible features of CamE assimilation, elision and liaison patterns that this study might have left out. Moreover, another study could use a theory other than Error Analysis, for this research is a descriptive and not prescriptive one. Given that this study focused on the description of RP and CamE connected speech processes, another study could match both the use and intelligibility of any of those connected speech processes.

REFERENCES

- Achimbe, E. (2005). *Cameroon English: Authenticity, ecology, and evolution*. Frankfurt Main: Peter Lang.
- Anderson, S.R. (2001). ‘‘On Some Issues of Morphological Exponence’’. *Yearbook of Morphology*, 2001, pp. 1-18
- Atechi, S.N. (2006). *The intelligibility of native and non-native English speech* (PhD Thesis). Gottingen: Cuvillier Verlag.
- Brown, H.D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Brown, H.D. (2007). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (5th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Buuren, L.(1993).*English Phonetics Course for Dutch Speaking Students*. Bloemendaal: Gemini Publications.
- Collins, B. & Mess, I. (2003).*The phonetics of English & Dutch*,(5th ed.).Boston: Brill.
- Cook, V. J. (1999). *Teaching spelling*. Retrieved May 17, 2002 from <http://privatewww.essex.ac.uk/>
- Corder, S.P. (1967). The significance of learners’ errors. *Investigating English discourse. IRAL*, 5, pp. 161-170.
- Corder, S.P. (1971). Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. *IRAL*, 9(2), pp. 147-159. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/iral.1971.9.2.147>
- Corder, S.P. (1974). *Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition*. London: Longman.
- Crystal, D. (1987). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Crystal, D. (2000). *The Cambridge encyclopaedia of language*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics & Phonetics*,(6th ed.).Oxford: Blackwell.
- Dulay, H.K and D. Krashen. (1982). *Language two*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Echu, G. (2003). Coping with multilingualism: trends in the evolution of language policy in Cameroon. In *PhiN*, 25, 31-46. <http://www.fu-berlin.de/Phin/x/dir.cgi?ptest>.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Eyenga-Ngoa, B.E. (2020). The correlation between professional status and assimilation (Unpublished Dissertation). ENS Yaoundé.
- Fonyuy, K.E. (2005). The evolution of pronunciation of some regional varieties of Cameroon English along the educational ladder (Unpublished Master's Dissertation). University of Yaoundé I.
- Görlach, M. (1990). *Studies in the History of the English Language*. Heidelberg: Carl Winter.
- Hocking, J. (1974). *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*. Edingburg University Press.
- Jackson, H. (1982). *Analysing English*. 2nd edn, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2002). A sociolinguistically based, empirically researched pronunciation syllabus for English as an international language. *Applied Linguistics*, 23, pp. 83-103.
- Jibril, M. (1982). Phonological variation in Nigerian English (Unpublished PhD Thesis). Lancaster University.
- Kabilan, M. (2013). Investigating Jordanian EFL students spelling errors at tertiary level, *International Journal of Linguistics*, 5 (3), 164-176.
- Kachru, B. (Ed.). (1985). Institutionalized second language varieties. In Greenbaum, S. *The English Language Today*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 221-226
- Kachru, B. (1986). *The alchemy of English: The spread, function and models of non-native Englishes*. Oxford: Pergamon Press
- Kachru, B. (1992). The liberation linguistics and the Quirk concerns. *English Today*, 257 (1), 3-13.
- Kachru, B. (1996). World English: Agony and ecstasy. *Journal of Aesthetic Education*, 30 (2), 135-155.
- Katamba, F. (1989). *An Introduction to Phonology*. London: Longman.

- Kelly, G. (2000). *How to Teach Pronunciation*. Pearson Education
- Kouega, J.P. (1991). Some speech characteristics of news in English: An explanatory study of radio and television news texts (Unpublished Doctorat de 3e Cycle Thesis). University of Yaoundé.
- Kouega, J.P. (1999). Some major speech traits of Cameroon media news in English. In Blom, J., (Ed.) *English Studies*. Lisse, Netherlands: Swets and Zeitlinger 80 (6), pp. 540-555.
- Kouega, J.P. (2007a). The language situation in Cameroon. *CILP (Current Issues in Language Planning)*, 1-94
- Kouega, J.P. (2013). RP and Cameroon English accent: An Overview. *US-China Foreign Language* 11 (12), 887-900.
- Kouega, J.P. (2017). *Letters and sounds in English: A handbook of English phonology*
- Labov, W. (1966). *The social stratification of English in New York City*. Washington DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures*. Michigan. University of Michigan Press.
- Lennon, P. (1991). Error: Some problems of definition, identification and distinction. *Applied Linguistics*, 12 (2), 180-196.
- Macaulay, R.K. (1976). *Language, social class, and education*. A Glasgow Study. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Modiano, M. (1999). Standard English(es) and educational practices for the world's lingua franca. *English Today*: 15/4: 3-13.
- Masanga, D.W. (1983). The spoken English of educated Moghamo people: A phonological study (Unpublished Doctorat de 3e Cycle Thesis). University of Yaoundé.
- Mbangwana, P. (1987). Some characteristics of sound patterns of Cameroon Standard English. *Multilingual*, 64. pp. 411-424.
- Mbuakato, R. (2009). English word formation process. Implications on second language teaching and learning. Case study: GSS Bokova and Summerset College Molyko (Unpublished Dissertation). ENS Yaoundé.
- Ndisom, V.L. (2013). Hypercorrection in Cameroon English pronunciation: A sociophonological study (Unpublished Dissertation). ENS Yaoundé.

- Newbrook, M. (1982). Sociolinguistic reflexes of dialect interference in West Wirral (Unpublished PhD Thesis). Reading University.
- Ngefac, A. (1997). The influence of some sociolinguistic variables on English pronunciation: A case study of Form One and Upper Sixth students in Anglophone schools in Yaoundé (Unpublished MA Dissertation). University of Yaoundé I.
- Ngefac, A. (2008). *Social differentiation in Cameroon English: Evidence from sociolinguistic fieldwork*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Ngefac, A. (2010). Cameroon English accent: Issues of standardisation, attitudes and pedagogic concerns. *Journal of Language and Culture*. Vol. 1 (1), pp. 17.
- Ngefac, A. (2011). When the blind lead the blind: The fallacy of promoting Standard British English accent in Cameroon. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2 (1), pp. 40-44.
- Ngwa, M.V. (2015). The correlation between the intelligibility of connected speech and two sociolinguistic variables: Level of education and professional status (Unpublished Dissertation). ENS Yaoundé.
- Njika, J.A. (2016). Linguistic practices of postgraduate students at Ecole Normale Supérieure, Yaounde in Schmied, J. & Nkemleke D. (eds.). *Academic writing across disciplines in Africa: From students to experts*, pp 220-232.
- Njoke, A.N. (1996). Diversity in Cameroon English speech: A case study of the pronunciation of most-heard users (Unpublished Master's Dissertation), University of Yaoundé I.
- Norrish, J. (1983). *Language learners and their errors*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nyacha, J.C. (2021). Liaison in the speech of secondary school goers. (Unpublished Dissertation). ENS Yaoundé.
- Nzama, M. (2010). *Error analysis: A study of errors committed by Isizulu-speaking learners of English in selected schools* (Dissertation). University of Zulu Land.
- Ogrady, W. et al. (1981). *Contemporary Linguistics*. New York: St Martin's Press.
- Richards, J. (Ed.). (1974). *Error analysis: perspectives on second language acquisition*. London: Longman.

- Schneider, E.W. (2007). *Postcolonial English: Varieties of English around the world*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press
- Sharma, S.K. (1980). Practical and theoretical consideration involved in error analysis. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*. V1, pp. 74-83.
- Simo Bobda. (1994). *Aspects of Cameroon English phonology*. Peter Lang. Inc: European Academic Publishers, Bern.
- Simo Bobda and P. Mbangwana. (1993). *An introduction to spoken English*. Lagos: Lagos University Press.
- Swan, M. (1996). *Practical English usage*. Oxford: OUP.
- Tench, P. (1981). *Pronunciation skills*. Macmillan. London.
- Trudgill, P. (1974). *Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society*. Harmandsworth: Penguin Books LTD.
- Trudgill, P. (1975). *Accent, dialect and the school* Edward Arnold, London.
- Weinrich, U. (1953). *Languages in Contact: Findings and Problems*. The Hague: Mouton Publishers.
- Yaah, C. (2016). The correlation between liaison and two sociolinguistic variables: Level of education and professional status (Unpublished Dissertation). ENS Yaoundé.
- Yule, G. (1985). *The study of language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Yung, F. (2014). The intelligibility of sounds in company to some Form Five students in some schools in Yaoundé (Unpublished Dissertation). ENS Yaoundé.

APPENDICES

PRODUCTION TEST

Please, kindly read the following mini dialogues aloud.

1. A: When did you get into the university?
B: I got into the university **this year**.
2. A: Give me the book over there!
B: **Could you** be polite, please?
3. A: Where are the pens I kept here?
B: The pens are **on the table**.
4. A: What are the students doing?
B: They are editing some **newspaper** headlines.
5. A: How many glasses did he buy yesterday?
B: He bought **ten glasses**.
6. A: Can I pin this picture on the wall?
B: No, **don't pin** that picture. It is not beautiful.
7. A: I didn't see your sister the other day.
B: Yes. She **was sent** to the market when you came.
8. A: Why are the students out of the hall?
B: They must **have finished** writing.
9. A: Who is at the door?
B: It is a **blind man**.
10. A: Can we have a ride together?
B: Sorry, I've **got to** go now.
11. A: What did John say that got you that mad?
B: "**Bend down** and pick up my pen", he thundered.

12. **A:** Is Cameroon ruled by a monarch?
B: No, by a president. Cameroon has a democratic system of **government**.
13. **A:** Where do you study?
B: I study at the **University** of Yaounde 1.
14. **A:** Where do they have breakfast?
B: They **usually** have breakfast in bed.
15. **A:** What will you do at 4pm tomorrow?
B: I will **go out** with friends.
16. **A:** At what time do lectures stop here?
B: Lectures stop at **four o'clock**.
17. **A:** What did she bring?
B: She brought **the apple** you requested for.
18. **A:** What was his reply?
B: He demanded to be **left alone**.
19. **A:** What role do the police play in a country?
B: They maintain **law and order**.
20. **A:** This is the last sentence, I guess.
B: Thank **you all**.

ADVANCED LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE FOR CAMEROON GCE

TABLE OF CONTENTS

MODULES	LESSONS	DESCRIPTION	PAGES
General introduction			ix
MODULE 1: FAMILY AND SOCIAL LIFE	1	My school, I belong	13
		Reading: Dialogue	14
		Speech work: /b/ and /p/	16
		Essential knowledge: nouns	17
		Writing: narrative essay	23
		Text reconstruction	27
		Summary writing	29
		Prescribed texts	33
	2	Playing responsible roles	34
		Reading	35
		Essential knowledge: Affixation	39
		Essential knowledge: Collective nouns	42
		Speech work: /k/ and /g/	44
		Writing: Text reconstruction	45
		Summary writing	47
		Prescribed texts	49
	3	No one left behind	50
		Reading	51
		Essential knowledge: Gender in Nouns	53
		Essential knowledge: Word Formation Processes	59
		Speech work: /f/ and /dʒ/	65
		Writing: Text reconstruction	65
		Summary writing	66
		Prescribed texts	70
	4	No taboo subjects	71
		Listening	71
		Essential knowledge: verbs	73
		Essential knowledge: Idiomatic Expressions	79
Speech work: /ð/ and /θ/		83	
Summary writing		84	
Text reconstruction		85	
Prescribed texts		88	
MODULE 2: ECONOMIC LIFE	1	Entrepreneurship	95
		Listening	95
		Reading	97
		Speech work: /l/ and /v/	101
		Essential knowledge: Recognising Context Clues	102
	Writing: The Task-Based Summary	104	
	2	Jobs, professions and social roles	106
		Speech work: /s/, /z/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/.	108
		Reading: Dialogue	109

MODULE 2: ECONOMIC LIFE		Essential knowledge: Proper Adjectives		
		Essential knowledge: Expressing Knowledge and Belief	114	
		Writing: Editing an Erroneous Text	117	
		Writing: Descriptive Essay	118	
		Prescribed Texts	123	
	3	Saving and spending wisely Listening		126
			Speech work: /i/ and /w/	128 129
		Reading	131	
		Essential knowledge: Pronouns	131	
		Essential knowledge: Connotative and Denotative Meaning of Words	135	
		Summary writing	141	
		Prescribed Texts	144	
				148
	4	Discovering and exploring self-potentials		149
Listening			150	
Reading			151	
Essential knowledge: Adverbs			156	
Essential knowledge: Transitional Markers			158	
Writing: The general summary			159	
Text Reconstruction			160	
Prescribed Texts			162	
MODULE 3: ENVIRONMENT? HEALTH AND WELLBEING	1	Let's preserve the environment Reading and writing	171 171	
		Essential knowledge: The Present Tense Forms	177	
		Essential knowledge: Commonly confused words	183	
		Writing: Vague Essays	185	
		Text Reconstruction	187	
		Summary Writing	188	
		Speech work: /b/ and /v/	189	
		Prescribed Texts	189	
	2	Global warming, the war we must win! Speaking and reading	190 190	
		Speech work: /ei/ and /ai/	193	
		Essential knowledge: Sentence Types	193	
		Essential knowledge: Spelling	198	
		Writing: Vague Essays	201	
		Text Reconstruction	201	
Summary Writing		202		
Prescribed Texts	203			

	3	Dreaded diseases Speaking, writing and reading	204	
		Essential knowledge: Conjunctions	208	
		Essential knowledge: Antonyms	213	
		Writing: Conclusion Writing Techniques	214	
		Speech work: /u/ and /ʊ:/	215	
		Prescribed Texts	216	
	4	Healthy eating habits Speaking, listening and reading	217	
		Essential knowledge: Collocations	219	
		Speech work: /ɔ:/ and /ɔi:/	224	
		Text Reconstruction 1	224	
		Text Reconstruction 2	225	
		Summary Writing	226	
	MODULE 4: CITIZENSHIP	1	My country, its laws and people Speaking and Reading	233
			Speech work: past tense marker -ed: /t/, /d/, and /ɪd/	238
Essential knowledge: Connotative and Denotative Meaning of Words. (review)			238	
Essential knowledge: Quantifiers			240	
Listening			241	
Text Reconstruction			243	
Prescribed Texts			245	
2		The penal code Speaking and reading	246	
		Speech work: /ʃ/ and /ʒ/	250	
		Essential knowledge: Transitional Words (review)	252	
		Essential knowledge: Clauses	253	
		Text Reconstruction	254	
		Prescribed Texts	256	
3		Patriotism Speaking and Reading	257	
		Speech work: /ei/ and /ai/ (review)	261	
		Essential knowledge: Homophones	262	
		Essential knowledge: Conditional Sentences	263	
		Text Reconstruction	265	
		Summary writing	266	
		Prescribed Texts	268	
4		Youths and gambling Speaking and Reading	269	
		Speech work: /ə/ and /ɜ:/	273	
		Essential knowledge: Synonyms	273	
		Essential knowledge: Question Tags	275	
	Text Reconstruction	277		
	Summary writing	277		
Prescribed Texts	278			

**MODULE 5:
MEDIA,
COMMUNICATION,
SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY**

1	Discovering the media world Speaking and Reading	285
	Essential knowledge: The Present Perfect Tense	289
	Text Reconstruction	292
	Summary Writing	293
	Speech work: /ʊə/	294
	Writing: Expository Essay	294
2	Phenomenon of fake news Speaking and Reading	295
	Speech work: /æ/ and /ɑ:/	300
	Listening	300
	Essential knowledge: Homonyms	302
	Essential knowledge: Direct and reported /indirect speech	302
	Text Reconstruction	307
	Summary Writing	308
	Prescribed Texts	311
3	Research on the field of science and technology Speaking and Reading	312
	Speech work: /n/ and /ŋ/	316
	Essential knowledge: The Past Perfect Tense	317
	Essential knowledge: Intensifying and Emphasizing	318
	Summary Writing	320
4	ICT is a blessing! Speaking, reading and Writing	323
	Speech work: /i/ and /i:/	326
	Essential knowledge: Sentence types	327
	Writing: Review of argumentative essay	328
	Text Reconstruction	328
	Summary Writing	328
	Prescribed Texts	329
		330

COURSES OF THE TARGETED DEPARTMENTS AND LEVELS

LETTRES MODERNES ANGLAISES

Nature des enseignements / Type of courses

N°	CODE UE	FONDAMENTALE	SEMESTRE	CREDIT
1	ENG111	HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE /	SEM1	6
2	ENG112	WRITING SKILLS I /	SEM2	6
3	ENG121	GRAMMAR AND LEXICOLOGY /	SEM1	6
4	ENG122	ENGLISH PHONOLOGY I /	SEM2	6
5	ENG131	INTRODUCTION TO LITERARY STUDIES /	SEM1	6
6	ENG132	AMERICAN LITERATURE: FROM BEGINNING TO 18TH CENTURY /	SEM2	6
7	ENG141	BRITISH LITERATURE: ANGLO-SAXON TO RESTORATION /	SEM1	6
8	ENG142	INTRODUCTION TO COMMONWEALTH LITERATURE /	SEM2	6
N°	CODE UE	OPTIONNELLE	SEMESTRE	CREDIT
1	ASC151	THEATRE AND TELEVISION /	SEM1	6
2	ENG152	FRANÇAIS /	SEM2	6

GEOGRAPHIE

Nature des enseignements / Type of courses

N°	CODE UE	FONDAMENTALE	SEMESTRE	CREDIT
1	GEO111	INITIATION À LA GÉOMORPHOLOGIE ET À LA BIOGÉOGRAPHIE /	SEM1	6
2	GEO112	INITIATION AUX ÉTUDES ENVIRONNEMENTALES /	SEM2	6
3	GEO121	INITIATION À LA CLIMATOLOGIE ET À L'HYDROLOGIE /	SEM1	6
4	GEO122	GÉOGRAPHIE RÉGIONALE I /	SEM2	6
5	GEO131	INITIATION À LA GÉOGRAPHIE RURALE ET URBAINE /	SEM1	6
6	GEO132	TECHNIQUES DE LA GÉOGRAPHIE II /	SEM2	6
7	GEO141	INITIATION À LA GÉOGRAPHIE ÉCONOMIQUE ET DE LA POPULATION /	SEM1	6
8	GEO142	TECHNIQUES DE LA GÉOGRAPHIE I /	SEM2	6
N°	CODE UE	OPTIONNELLE	SEMESTRE	CREDIT
1	GEO152	FORMATION BILINGUE /	SEM2	6
2	HIS151	HISTOIRE DE L'AFRIQUE NOIRE DES ORIGINES À L'ARRIVÉE DES EUROPÉENS /	SEM1	6

HISTOIRE

Nature des enseignements / Type of courses

N°	CODE UE	FONDAMENTALE	SEMESTRE	CREDIT
1	HIS111	INITIATION À L'HISTOIRE ET À LA DISSERTATION HISTORIQUE. /	SEM1	6
2	HIS112	INTRODUCTION À L'EGYPTOLOGIE. /	SEM2	6
3	HIS121	EXPLICATION DES TEXTES HISTORIQUES. /	SEM1	6
4	HIS122	LES EMPIRES DE L'AFRIQUE OCCIDENTALE ET CENTRALE. /	SEM2	6
5	HIS131	HISTOIRE DU PEUPEMENT ET DES INSTITUTIONS DU CAMEROUN ANCIEN. /	SEM1	6
6	HIS132	HISTOIRE DE L'AMÉRIQUE ET DE L'ASIE. /	SEM2	6
7	HIS141	THE ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS OF ANCIENT CAMEROON. /	SEM1	6
8	HIS142	HISTOIRE DE L'EUROPE ANCIENNE. /	SEM2	6
N°	CODE UE	OPTIONNELLE	SEMESTRE	CREDIT
1	GEO151	GÉOGRAPHIE PHYSIQUE 1 /	SEM1	6
2	HIS152	ENGLISH POUR FRANCOPHONES/FRANÇAIS POUR ANGLOPHONES /	SEM2	6