AN ANALYSIS OF FLIGHT ANNOUNCERS' LANGUAGE AT THE MURTALA MUHAMMED AIRPORT, LAGOS.

BY

UGBOKO BERETON-AYE ESTHER
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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this research was carried out by Bereton-aye Esther UGBOKO of the Department of Languages and General Studies, Covenant University with Matriculation Number 15PBC01093. The research has been read and approved as meeting part of the requirements for the award of Master of Arts Degree in English Language.

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PROF. CHARLES OGBULOGO **Signature** **Date**
(Project Supervisor)

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PROF. INNOCENT CHILUWA **Signature** **Date**
Head, Dept. of Languages & General Studies

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PROF. SAMUEL WARA **Signature** **Date**
Dean, School of Post Graduate Studies

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research work to the Holy Spirit, my private teacher for all HIS help.

To the strongest woman I know; my first teacher, model and mentor, Mrs. Apakiribia Dick (my MUM), for making this dream of mine a reality.

Finally, to my awesome SON, Nathan, who had to stay with Granny while Mummy ‘did her homework’ - I pray that one day you too will achieve your dream of being a pilot.

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ABSTRACT

Flight announcers are pivotal in making sure that no traveller misses or boards the wrong flight when announcements are made in the airport; thus they must exhibit an excellent command of English in order to communicate effectively. Therefore, this research is motivated by the concern of how flight announcers in Nigerian airports pronounce their words during announcements. It is a phonological analysis on the language of flight announcers at the Murtala Muhammed Airport, Lagos. The main objective was to investigate their pronunciation patterns using three linguistic variables (/ə/, /ð/ and /ɵ/) in line with the Labovian theory of linguistic variation. The research instruments employed were a questionnaire (used to elicit respondents' demographics) and reading tests (comprising of word list, phrase list and sentence list). Output of the reading tests were recorded using a Remax RP1.8GB.OLED Digital Voice Recorder. Data was phonetically transcribed with the help of *Phonetizer* (online software that transcribes and pronounces) and the 17th edition of the Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary. It was then analyzed using descriptive statistics involving simple frequency and percentage. The result showed that exposure to native speakers, age of respondents and years of working experience in flight announcing as sociolinguistic factors; affect correct pronunciation while educational qualification and ethnic origin do not. It was also discovered that the retention of the strong forms in words like *is, the, to, a* in contexts where they ought to have been deleted was the recurrent phonological pattern; as almost all respondents made that mistake while reading the sentence list. As regards the announcers' general use of language, the study showed that most respondents approximated the English phonemes with what they have in their mother tongue. At the same time, some respondents inserted and deleted vowels and consonants in words while some others exhibited cases of dialectically influenced personal speech handicap. This means that a person's pronunciation could be attributed to mother tongue interference, variational, environmental and physiological conditions. Thus, flight announcers do not speak the Received Pronunciation (RP) but use a variety of Nigerian English. This is not only unintelligible to non-Nigerians but Nigerians too, especially when the flight announcers try to imitate foreign accents. In the long run, this could cause miscommunication resulting in travellers missing their flights or boarding the wrong flight. Finally, recommendations were made regarding steps that linguists, government agencies and the flight announcers themselves could do to improve their pronunciation pattern.

CHAPTER ONE
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Language is studied and analyzed at different linguistic levels such sounds (Phonology); the internal structure of words and phrases (Morphology); the structure and rules governing sentences (Syntax); the meaning of words (Semantics); or how meaning relates to the context of people and situations (Pragmatics). According to Rice-Johnston (2008) "Language is a process or set of processes used to ensure that there is agreement between the sender and receiver for meanings assigned to symbols and the schema for combining them as used for each communication." This means that communication is ineffective if it leads to misunderstanding. With this in mind, this study seeks to carry out a phonological analysis on the language of flight announcers at the Murtala Muhammed Airport, Lagos; in order to ascertain the level of communication in their announcements.

In the airport, communication takes place at different levels - from the time a traveler arrives to check-in to the time he boards the flight, till he disembarks the aircraft. Howbeit, the international language of aviation is the English language, so it is not surprising that, the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) - Nigeria is a member country - passed a decree that *"all Air Traffic Controllers and Flight Crew members engaged in or in contact with international flights must be proficient in English Language as a general spoken medium…*since January, 2008. This means that proficiency in the proper pronunciation of words and not written English – as was done earlier – is being tested using ICAO approved tests. It is therefore expected that pilots, cabin crew members, all air traffic control officers, as well as flight announcers possess the ability to speak right and clearly for one to understand, while on duty.

In Nigeria, the use of English language for flight announcements is not just limited to international flights but also domestic ones. The job of a flight announcer is to give information about flight schedules, make boarding calls for travelers, inform the public

about an inbound flight, as well as make other overhead announcements. Thus if an unclear announcement is made, especially if words are not properly pronounced, or the wrong intonation, rhythm or accent is used; such an announcement may cause a miscommunication rather than communication. This is one of the reasons why some travelers do complain that they miss their outbound flights while sitting in the waiting lounge.

The experience of Dr. Farooq Kperogi, a Professor of Communication, based in Atlanta; as recounted on his blog *Notes from Atlanta* gives credence to the numerous oral accounts of travelers who claim not to understand most of the announcements made by flight announcers. In the blog he bemoaned the type of accent that the flight announcers used, saying that it was neither British nor American accent, in as much as they tried so hard to imitate trans-Atlantic accents. He ended up naming the accent *inaudible babbles* and claims that it might even pose a security threat in the country (Kperogi, 2016).

Besides road transportation, the other means of transportation in Nigeria that attracts a high level of patronage is air travel and the reason is not far-fetched – though expensive, it is fast. Commercial air travel began in Kano in 1925 and has marked its 90^{th} year of existence in Nigeria, in 2015 (Essien & Chiama, 2015). The first few flights however were for emergency relief purposes at the war front during World War II. Beyond the war, the industry has grown in the country and today we have about 7 major domestic and 14 other domestic airports, one airport that is not manned by the Federal Airport Authority of Nigeria (FAAN, 2016), 13 airstrips, 2 military airports, as well as 5 international airports which includes the Murtala Muhammed Airport, Lagos.

Located in Ikeja, Lagos, the Murtala Muhammed Airport (MMA), formerly known as the Lagos International Airport, is the largest airport in Nigeria. The first part was built during the World War II and in 1970, the name was changed from being Lagos International Airport into being Murtala Muhammed Airport. The new airport was commissioned in 1979 and has undergone series of renovation since then but in 2007, a new terminal known as MMA2 which is privately managed by Bi-Courtney Aviation Services; was commissioned. Thus, in Lagos, there is one airport having three passenger terminals - the International terminal, the MMA1 and MMA2 all connected by an airstrip. Owing to the population of Nigeria, as well as its bilateral Air Services Agreement with

over 78 countries, the airport serves as take off point for over 22 foreign carriers, transporting both persons and goods. Data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) shows that in 2015, the Murtala Muhammed Airport enjoyed both domestic and international patronage better than any airport in the country. It was said to be the busiest airport because in comparison to a lower patronage in other airports; MMA recorded a total of 1,945,592 domestic and 823,951 international passengers who travelled through the airport in the second half of 2015 (Nigerian Bureau of Statistics, 2016).

Owing to the fact that patronage at the Murtala Muhammed Airport is on the high, it then means that the airport can be a reflection of what happens in other airports in Nigeria. It is therefore pertinent to carry out this study as it would be beneficial to the Nigerian government, the Federal Airports Authority of Nigeria (FAAN), travellers as well as linguists. This study therefore seeks to phonologically analyse the English language in use by flight announcers at the Murtala Muhammed Airport, Lagos.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The working vision of the Federal Airports Authority of Nigeria (FAAN) is *to be amongst the best airport groups in the world*. To do this effectively, travellers' all round satisfaction which includes what they hear, infrastructure and personnel management must be looked into and given proper attention. However, this is not the obtainable practice in a country like ours which is driven by the economy. Research shows that much attention is rather given to economic returns instead of the welfare of the passengers from whom this income is actually generated. Thus, recent researches in the aviation sector have been to determine the level of financial contribution the industry has made to the Nigerian economy (Anfofum *et al.*, 2015; Aun, 2013; Mobolaji *et al.*, 2014). Others have examined the operators, operations as well as the infrastructural development of the airport (Mobolaji & Ukpere, 2011; Olukayode *et al.*, 2016; Omisore *et al.*, 2014; Wanke *et al.*, 2016). Only very few researches have been centered on the passengers' welfare (Ademoh & Anosike, 2015) but still had nothing to do with language as used in the Nigerian airport community.

In another vein, studies on language in the aviation sector has been carried out and symposiums have been held outside the country but these were all based on examining

English language as a Language for Specialist Purposes (LSP) without taking into cognizance the general English spoken in the airport, let alone the one used in flight announcements (Ahmad & Rogers, 2007; Alderson, 2009; Orel, 2007). This research therefore aims to fill that gap in knowledge. Interestingly, language use can extend from the phonological to the semantic. For the purpose of this study, we shall focus on the phonological components of the language of flight announcers.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The objective of this study is to:

a. investigate the pronunciation patterns in the language of flight announcers bearing in mind specific linguistic and sociolinguistic variables;
b. identify recurrent phonological patterns in the language of flight announcers;
c. highlight specific phonological problems in the announcers' general use of language.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study aims to investigate the reasons for the incessant complaints from travellers about missing flights or boarding the wrong flight; owing it to the mispronunciation of words when overhead announcements are made in the airport. It will also serve as a searchlight to the federal government and the Federal Airports Authority of Nigeria (FAAN) in evaluating the level of competence of the flight announcers who have been employed around the country. This is because findings will throw more light on how all round customer satisfaction could be guaranteed and achieved, in line with the vision of the airport authority. Linguists will find the study relevant as it will throw more light on how language is spoken in a given speech community – in this case, the airport. Finally, the study will contribute to existing literature in language and communication.

1.5 Scope of the Study

This study is limited to phonologically analysing only three linguistic variables (/ə/, /ð/ and /Ɵ/) at the segmental level, as used by flight announcers who work at the Murtala Muhammed Airport, Ikeja. Although there are about twenty (20) flight announcers, the study shall cover only ten (10) of them using purposive sampling technique. These announcers have varied ages, educational backgrounds, levels of exposure and ethnic origins – thus these shall serve as intervening variables.

1.6 Research Questions

The questions that this study tends to answer stems from the objectives of the study and are as follows:

a. Is there a correlation between flight announcers' pronunciation pattern of /ə/, /ð/ and /Ɵ/ and specific sociolinguistic variables?
b. Are there recurrent phonological patterns in the language of flight announcers?
c. Is there any specific phonological problem in flight announcers' general use of language?

1.7 Organisation of Work

This work consists of five chapters. In Chapter One, an introduction into the study is given. This includes the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the objectives of the study and the scope it covers. Also stated is the questions the study intends to answer and a summary of how the research work will be arranged.

Chapter Two looked at relevant literature that pertains to the study. Thus scholars' arguments and propositions on language, communication, English as an International language up to its domestication in Nigeria and the question of intelligibility was also looked into. Furthermore, the constituent of Nigerian English was viewed including its phonology and an understanding into the world of announcing was also highlighted.

Chapter Three brought to focus the research methodology by first shedding light on the theoretical and conceptual framework. Thereafter, the population/sample size, method of

data collection and analysis; as well as a detailed background on the location of the research were also presented.

In Chapter Four, the data collected were analyzed and explained beginning with the respondents' demographics. Results were presented in tables, pie and bar charts.

Finally, Chapter Five presented a summary of the entire work as well as giving a summary of the findings, implications, conclusion and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature on which the study is based.

2.1 Language and Communication

The concept of language and communication is a continuum in literature. Language has different definitions but is generally seen as a system of vocal sounds through which people communicate (Algeo and Pyles, 2004; Anyanwu, 2002; Brown, 1987; Richard *et al.*, 1985; Wilson, 1986; Yule, 1985). According to Saphir (cited in Yusuf, 2012), language is non-instinctive. It means that, speaking a language is not automatic so it has to be learnt (either formally or informally). On the other hand, animals communicate, though spontaneously; thus language use is only applicable to humans since it has a structured system.

A major characteristic of language is that, it is a means of communication. Communication as defined by McLaughlin (2006:3) is "a rule-based mental system of language codes for expressing and understanding thoughts, feelings and ideas." It could be verbal or non-verbal. Verbal communication (speech) takes place through the use of language. The process of communication usually involves the sender, receiver, message and the medium. For effective communication to occur, the message must be understood by the receiver followed by a corresponding action. Hence, the process of communication is a cycle (McLaughlin, 2006). Therefore, an interlocutor can only communicate properly when he attains both linguistic and communicative competence in expressing his ideas through the appropriate language in context (Okeke and Chukwu, 2012).

In a multilingual society like Nigeria where there are over 400 indigenous languages; English is used in interpersonal, intrapersonal and international communication as the language of commerce, business and international trade, etc. This proves the assertion of McKay (as cited in Clyne and Sharifian, 2008:98) that English as an international language 'is used in a global sense for international communication between countries and in a local sense as a language of wider communication within multilingual societies.' It is therefore not a surprise that English is the communicative language of directives and interaction in Nigerian airports.

2.1.1 Language as Directive

Directives is one of the four major categories of communicative illocutionary acts as stated in Bach (2006:467). He stated that it could be in form of 'admonishing, advising, asking, begging, dismissing, excusing, forbidding, instructing, ordering, permitting, requesting, requiring, suggesting, urging and warning.' Akinkurolere and Ariyo (2015) defines directives as "speech acts that embody an effort on the speaker to get the hearer to do something, 'to direct' him or her towards some goal (of the speaker's mostly)." Book *et al.* (2014) adds that in the directive use of language, attempt is made to control, direct or influence the future actions of people, using words. These directives may however be direct or indirect and can range from a rather polite *request* to a more forceful *command*. It is usually the context that informs when and how we express directives as well as how people respond to them. Hammonds (2001) is of the opinion that speakers need to understand the social power relationship of the addressee, so that the degree to which a directive can be imposed may be established in order to maintain the social relationship. In addition, Dougherty (2013) makes a quick distinction between giving directives and directions. He reports that one who gives directives is a dictator; but sees giving directions as being less forceful, fostering creativity, confidence and high engagement of the persons involved. While Reh (2016) calls directives, orders; he calls directions, instructions. On the contrary, Epperhart (2016) views giving directives as one of the virtues of a good leader. He says that good directives can be given by explaining the reason for the action and clarity in instructing how things should be done.

Giving directions and directives play a major role in the aviation industry and in the airports in particular. In the airport, directions are given to travellers; either while on

ground, within the airport or on board a flight. Without following these directives, travellers may miss their flight or even board a wrong flight. It is the duty of flight announcers to give overhead directions and directives when instructing passengers on which gate to approach and the flight to board. The air traffic control on the other hand, gives pilots directives telling them the tarmac the airplane should taxi on; when to take off, as well as letting them know the meteorological report. All these are done in order to ensure that they have a safe flight and landing too. The consequence of non-compliance by the pilot could result in a plane crash, thereby causing a disruption in the airline's operations and that of the airport by extension.

2.1.2 Language as Interaction

Language is a tool for interaction between people. Gas and Selinker (2001) says that interaction takes place when people need to interrupt a flow of exchange in order to understand what a conversation is about. This simply means that interaction is an attention-drawing device in which learning takes place. In social interaction, people perform actions through talks, non-verbal actions or a combination of both. However, in interpersonal communication, people interact by regulating their speech, vocal patterns and gestures to accommodate others (Turner & West, 2010). Howbeit, a misunderstanding can occur in interaction due to phonological, syntactic, vocabulary, contextual or cultural factors etc.

In a study conducted by Zhang (2009), it was observed that interaction plays an important role in the development of oral fluency in any language. He therefore advocates adequate exposure to the written and spoken forms of the language as well as daily interaction with more knowledgeable ones in the language. This he claims is a means of possessing near native-like proficiency. In agreement, Pasqualetto (2013) advises that when acquiring a second language, learners should always interact (i.e. speak and write) in the target languageof the native speaker and to the native speakers themselves. This she says will bring about fluency in interaction and incidental acquisition.

Globalization also has resulted in the need for different nations to opt for a common language, especially in multilingual ones like Nigeria. This is why the English language

is adopted as the official language of interaction, especially as the country was colonized by the British, who themselves are native speakers of the English language.

2.2 The English Language use in Nigeria

From the fifteenth century when Nigeria had its first contact with the Europeans, till date; the motivations and use of English has never remained static (Okeke and Chukwu, 2012). At first the need was purely economic, as it was the period when the Portuguese traded in slaves along the coasts and needed to communicate with their business partners. This resulted in a 'bastardised *pidgin* English' (Awonusi, 2007:51). However, more people learnt the language when Christianity and education were introduced. Further backed by an Act, English became the official language of administration, education, commerce (Awonusi, 2007; Babajide 2001; Osuafor, 2002, 2005; Ogu 1992); but today, the English language in Nigeria serves a wider range of functions. Awonusi (2007b) is of the opinion that the language serves an integrative and specialist function as it is used in inter-ethnic communication, public life and social interactiosn. Akere (2004) and Omoniyi (2007) view it as lingua franca and a language used in official and interpersonal domains. In addition, Nnamdi-Eruchalu (2012) says it is the language of technological transfer and a window to the world. Owing to the over 500 ethnic groups in Nigeria with different indigenous languages, Ike (2001) sees the English language as a unifying force. In another opinion, Okpako (2012) adds that it is the language of international communication, information technology, entertainment, science, business and diplomacy. She further asserts that by international treaty, English has become the official language for aerial and maritime communications; and that is one of the reasons why it is used in the aviation sector in Nigeria.

2.3 The Nigerian English

Despite its multi-functions, English language is not spoken as a native variety in Nigeria. It has been nativised, domesticated, *Nigeriannised* or given Nigerian citizenship (Adegbija, 2004, Kachru, 1992). Today we have a variety of English known as the Nigerian English (NigE). Adegbija (2004:22) gives reasons for domestication as follows:

a.) *"the day to day contact of English with many indigenous languages which has created the need for new ideas and thoughts that are not available in the indigenous language. E.g. been to;*

b.) *the indomitable, pervasive and omnipresent media influence that introduces new words, establishes and confirms them. E.g. national cake;*

c.) *the standardization of idiosyncrasies and errors which have hitherto been accepted probably because the error was made by an influential person. E.g. trouble –shooter; and the*

d.) *predominant formal character of the English taught in Nigeria which has been said to be bookish and allowed the use of jaw-breaking words as a yard stick for knowledgeability."*

Adegbija (2004) also says that the different levels of domestication of the language are at the lexical, phonological, grammatical, pragmatic, cultural, and semantic levels. Thus, it is domestication that resulted in the development of several varieties of Nigerian English.

Banjo (1986) identifies four varieties of Nigerian English. He said that the first variety is spoken by semi-illiterates Nigerians and those with elementary education; the second, he attributes to negative transfer from the mother tongue, locally acceptable but lacks international intelligibility; Variety 3, he says is spoken by secondary school leavers and is nationally and internationally acceptable while the last variety, he claims is the model for the educated Nigerian, one which is close to the British accent. Also established by Adekunle (1979), there are three varieties: the near-native variety, spoken by educated Nigerians; 'local colour variety' and the third variety is the 'incipient bilingual variety.' Awonusi (1987) on the other hand, observes that Nigerian English should be seen as a continuum ranging from acrolectal Nigerian English (i.e. Standard Nigerian English), mesolectal Nigerian English and basilectal Nigerian English (i.e. sub-standard or non-standard English). Educated Nigerians as put here refer to those who have at least gone beyond secondary education to attain a tertiary education. However in reality, not every university graduate can speak good and correct English as expected. Some can write very well but cannot speak so well; some can speak fluently too but cannot write it down correctly. At the same time, accents can be acceptable or inacceptable depending on many variables.

Bamgbose (2005) argues that Standard Nigerian English is made up of three aspects: Contact English (CE), Victorian English (VE) and School English (SE). He also outlines three major characteristics of Standard Nigerian English: - nativisation, the continued influence of biblical language and the importation of Americanisms. Adegbija (2004) proposed some parameters for identifying a Standard Nigerian English. He says that, stigmatization in usage should be absent; the language should be internationally intelligible and socially determined as well as codified. In line with the parameters given by Adegbija (2004), Nigerian English is now accepted as a variety of English among the world Englishes; and is equally codified - as there is now a Dictionary of Nigerian English published by the Nigerian English Studies Association (NESA) in 2014. Josiah and Essien (2012) notes however that, the search for a 'standard' in Nigerian English has been ongoing (Adetugbo, 1977, 1987; Awonusi, 1985; Bamgbose, 1982; Banjo, 1971; Brann, 1975; Egbe, 1979; Eka, 1985; Ekong, 1978, 1980; Jibril, 1979, 1982; Odumuh, 1987; Tiffen, 1974) and advises that linguists put in a collective effort in order for the standardization process to be successful.

Jowitt (2013) identifies a number of studies that have been undertaken to characterize Nigerian English in various aspects. These aspects include the phonology, syntax and morphology, idioms, literary manifestations, pragmatics and acceptability of usage in an ethnic group. (Gut, 2004; Udofot, 2004) reported that in Nigerian English phonology, most speakers engage in substitution of phonemes as well as consonant cluster reduction. It also showed that the language operates a syllable based rhythm. In terms of syntax, the features of Nigerian English includes the pluralization of non-count nouns, substituting certain prepositions for others and omission of the indefinite article etc. (Adekunle, 1979; Alo and Mesthrine, 2008; Jowitt, 1991; Kujore, 1985; and Okoro, 2004). Adegbija (2003) cited in Adeyanju (2009) gives an inventory of idioms that are commonly used and classifies them based on formal and colloquial usage. On the other hand, Bamiro (2006) points out that Achebe has done more than any other writer in indigenizing the English language in our cultural context. In pragmatics, Ogoanah (2011) describes the contributions of a single lexical item *'as in'* as a pragmatic marker. The paper argues that when it is used in different ways and contexts, it means that the speaker desires to get the hearer to recognize the meaning being communicated with minimal processing effort. Okurinmeta (2011) studied the English of educated Izon English bilinguals and

discovered that the Izon language has some influences on the Nigerian English especially in terms of pluralization of count nouns, the occurrences of the first person before the third person in a compound subject etc. He said that these manifestations are clearly seen in educated Izon bilinguals in spite of their level of exposure.

2.4 International Intelligibility and Nigerian English

Until a Standard Nigerian English emerges, the question of international acceptability and intelligibility will always arise as mutual intelligibility remains a major concern of international communication (Cunningham, 2009; Rooy, 2009). The challenge posed by speech intelligibility is so serious that failure to communicate in certain occasions, has led to the loss of lives, especially in the aviation industry. What then is intelligibility?

Kenworthy (cited in Atechi, 2004:43) defines intelligibility "as being understood by a listener at a given time in a given situation." Smith and Nelson (1985) define it in three dimensions – *intelligibility* as recognizing the word; *comprehensibility* as its meaning and *interpretability* as the meaning intended. This means that intelligibility involves two or more persons, each saddled with the responsibility to be heard, understood and correctly interpreted (Berns, 2008). According to Luchini and Kennedy (2013), intelligibility is the ability to produce and perceive phonological forms in a language. In agreement to the assertion, Verghese (2007) claims that one may have an excellent command of syntax and lexis, yet is still unintelligible because he has a poor command of the language. This means that communication did not take place since communication in itself involves some degree of intelligibility. Thus, 'intelligibility refers to the extent an utterance is actually understood' (Munro and Derwing, 1995:291).

While 'intelligibility is relative' in language, acceptability is a matter of its appropriateness to the norms of the listener to whom the speech is addressed (Bobda 1994:14). As established by Cunningham (2012) and Pickering (2006), intelligibility is not absolute but is factor related in speaker-listener communication. This is the reason why an utterance cannot be said to be intelligible or unintelligible; but can be said to be more or less intelligible to different speakers in different situations. The subject of intelligibility in language use has come a long way and scholars have carried out studies in various aspects (Fatimayan, 2002; Jenkins, 2002; Smith and Rafiqzad, 1979).

Gut (2012) affirms that owing to the rise of several Englishes around the world, the challenge of intelligibility has increased. Furthermore, Jenkins (2000, 2002) states the parameter for which speech can be internationally intelligible – that is, certain sounds should not be elided and some vowel distinctions should also not be neutralized; as it is in most indigenous Nigerian languages.

The need for a variety of Nigerian English which the international community can understand is of utmost importance as it is a criterion in the process of standardization. Scholars have however claimed that Nigerian English is internationally intelligible (Adegbite, 2014; Bamgbose, 1982; Banjo, 1971; Tiffen, 1974). In agreement, Owolabi (2012) argues that since literary writers like Wole Soyinka, use Nigerian English in their works and win awards and laureates, then it must be considered intelligible enough to the international world. On the contrary, Okurinmeta (2014) says that there is only local acceptability of Nigerian English but Selvi and Yazan (2013) claim that there is an increasing international tolerance of non-native varieties among English instructors. Are (2016) views intelligibility as an issue arising from the use of Nigerian English as it relates to international business communication. The findings of his study shows that there are two kinds of problems involved: Nigerians struggled to understand native speakers of English; and their listeners also struggled to understand what the Nigerians had said. It then means that Nigerian English has a problem of international intelligibility. He found this disturbing as he notes that his sample population was made up of "educated" persons, whose English could be termed as Standard Nigerian English (SNE) in line with acrolectal Nigerian English in Banjo (1971) or the Educated Nigerian English (ENE) in line with Eka (2003) and Adekunle (1979). Are (2016) further observed that Nigerians usually change their accents in order to be understood but at the same time, learnt more intelligible English with constant exposure to conversations with non-Nigerians, who are native speakers of English within a short period. This gives credence to the findings of Pasqualetto (2013).

Therefore studies conducted by Tiffen (1974) still remains relevant today, as it is one of the very few detailed reports on the scientific investigations of the intelligibility of Nigerian English. In it, aspects that are responsible for intelligibility features were

identified and grouped into four – rhythmic/stress, segmental, phonotactics and lexical/syntactic errors. These features still occur today.

Finally, in a bid to solve the problem of intelligibility, Cunningham (2012) suggests that the Nigerian speaker adjusts his pronunciation to a less regionally marked one when he is outside the country or better still, the listener can learn more about Nigerian English.

2.5 Aspects of the Phonology of Nigerian English

A major challenge to second language users of English language is the phonological aspect. The phonology of the Nigerian English as observed by scholars is also the most challenging area in the standardization process of the language. This is because there have been numerous discordant views on the constituents of the phonemes of Nigerian English especially with the vowels. That notwithstanding, Orhero (2012) asserts that Nigerian English is non-rhotic in pronunciation and differences in production are noticed based on the part of the country that the speaker is from.

The phonology of the language shall be viewed here as consonants, vowels and suprasegments of Nigerian English.

2.5.1 The Consonants of Nigerian English

A lot of studies have been done in characterizing the consonants of Nigerian English. Some of these studies include Ekong (1980), Jibril (1982), Eka (1985, 2003, 2009), Awonusi (1986, 2004), Jowitt (1991, 2000), Bobda (1995, 2007), Eka and Udofot (1996), Udofot (1996, 1997, 2004, 2007), Adetugbo (2004), Gut (2004, 2007, 2010), Josiah (2009, 2010, 2011), Josiah and Babatunde (2011), etc.

Scholars seem to agree that the Nigerian English consonants do not deviate significantly from the Received Pronunciation (RP) (Adetugbo, 2004; Awonusi, 2004; Eka, 1985; Jibril, 1982; Jowitt, 1991). However they are of the opinion that sounds like /t,d,g,f,v,ϴ,ð,s,z,ʧ,ʒ,ŋ,l,h/ are modified based on mother tongue interference of speaker's ethnic group as well as the speaker's orthographic and phonological environment,

educational level, social background and exposure etc. (Ajani, 2007; Banjo, 1996; Udofot, 2004). Table 2.1 gives an overview of some specific scholars' model description of the consonant sounds of Nigerian English.

Table 2.1: Models of Nigerian English consonants and their variants

	JIM		EM1		OM		JOM		ADM		AWM		UM	
RP	**B**	**V/A**	**B**	**V/A**	**B**	**V/A**	**B**	**V/A**	**B**	**V/A**	**B**	**V/A**	**B**	**V/A**
p	p	f	p	f, p^h	p	p^h	p	f	p^h		p		-	
b	b	v	b	b	b		b	v	b		b		-	
t	t	-	t	t, t^h	t	t^h	t		t^h		t		-	
d	d	-	d	d	d		d		d		d		-	
k	k	-	k	k, k^h	k	k^h	k		k^h		k		-	
g	g	-	g	-	g		g		g		g		-	
f	f	-	f	-	f		f	p	f		f		-	
v	v	f	v	v, f	v		v	f	v	f	v		v	f
ɵ	ɵ	t,d,s	ɵ	ɵ, t	ɵ	t,s	t,d	s	ɵ	t,s	t	ɵ	t	t,s
ð	ð	t,d,z	ð	t, ð	ð	d,z	t,d	z	ð	d,z	ð,t		ð	d,z
s	s	-	s	s, z	s		s		s		s	z	-	
z	z	s	z	z, s	z		z	s	z	s	z	s	z	s
ʃ	ʃ	ʒ	ʃ		ʃ		ʃ	s	ʃ	ʃ,s	ʃ		ʃ	s
ʒ	ʒ	ʤ	ʒ	ʒ,ʃ	ʒ		ʒ	s,d, ʃ,s	ʒ		ni	ʒ	-	
h	h		h		h		h		ni		h		-	
ʧ	ʧ	ʃ	ʧ		ʧ		ʧ	ʃ	ʧ	ʃ	ʧ	ʃ	ʧ	ʃ
ʤ	ʤ	j	ʤ	ʤ,ʧ	ʤ		ʤ	j,z	ʤ		ʤ			j
m	m		m		m		m		m		m			
n	n	n,ŋ	n	ŋ,n	n		n		n		n			
ŋ	ŋ	n	ŋ		ŋ		ŋ	n, ŋ	ŋ		ŋ	ŋg, ŋ, n,nk		
l	l	l	l		l		l		l		l	ʊ		
r	r	r	r		r		r		r		r			
j	j	j	j		j		j		j		j			
w	w	w	w	w	w		w	w	w		w			

Culled up from Josiah & Babatunde (2011:539)

Note:
RP = Standardized Received Pronunciation
JIM = Jibril's (1982) model
EM1 = Eka's (1985) model
OM = Odumuh's (1987) model
JOM = Jowitt's (1991) model
ADM = Adetugbo's (2004) model
AWM = Awonusi's (2004) model
UM = Udofot's (2004) model
NI = not included in this system
B = basic phonemes in NE
V/A = variants or alternant
All phonetic entries represented on the table are understood to be enclosed in square brackets ([ ]) while the phonemes of RP are expected to be enclosed in slanting lines (//).

2.5.2 The Vowel System of Nigerian English

The vowels of Nigerian English constitute the most challenging part of all in the sound system as over the years, there has been differing opinions of scholars (Adegbija, 2004; Adetugbo, 1977; Awonusi, 2004; Banjo, 1971, 1996; Brosnahan, 1958).

Opinions differed firstly with the number of vowel sounds in Nigerian English in comparison to the number of vowel sounds in the RP. While Adetugbo (1977, 2004) says that there are 13 vowels, Eka (1985), Odumuh (1987) and Jibril (1982) claim that they are 19 in number. On the other hand, Eka and Udofot (1996) and Christopherson (cited in Jibril, 1982) agree that there are only eight vowels. Ekong (1978) identified 18 vowels; Awonusi (2004) contends that there are 10 of them. Jowitt (1991) recognizes 11 and Udofot (2004) opines that there are 9 vowels in all. They all established in their findings however, that there are no triphthongs in Nigerian English. This is shown in Table 2.2.

The other difference has to with the constituents of the pure vowels and diphthongs as recognized by each of the scholars. For example Udofot (2004) listed six pure vowels (/ɪ, e, ɔ, ə, a, o/), three diphthongs ([ɪe], [ɪa] and [uɔ]) and left out /u/, which was recognized earlier in Eka and Udofot (1996). Adetugbo (2004) regards /o/ as a pure vowel while Awonusi (2004) considers it as being marginal. Also the central vowels /ʌ, ə, ɜ/ that were considered to be non-existent in Nigerian English by Adetugbo (2004) and Banjo (1996), were viewed by Jibril (1982), Eka (1985) and Odumuh (1987) as phonemes in the acrolectal variety. Table 2.3 shows the model on diphthongs.

Furthermore, there exist differences in the number of monopthongs and diphthongs that make up the total number of vowels as discovered by each scholar. This discrepancy is as shown in the Table 2.4.

Table 2.2: Models on Monophthongs and Their Variants/Alternants in Nigerian English

RP	CM	EKM		JIM		EM1		OM		JOM		EUM	UM	EM2		AWM		ADM	BM
		B	V/A	B	V/A	B	V/A	B	V/A	B	V/A	BI	B	B	V/A	B	V/A	B	B
i:	ɪ	ɪ		i:	i:	i:		i:	i	i		i	i	i	i′	i	i:. ɪ	i	ɪ
ɪ	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ	i		i		i	ɪ	i	ʊ	i	i	i	ɪ	i	ɪ	x	ɪ
e	e	e:		ɛ	e:	e		e	ɛ:, i, ə	e:, e	ɛ, ə, a	e	e	e		ɛ		ɛ	
æ	a	æ		a	æ, e:,ɛ	a		a	æ	a	a:	a	a	a′	æ	a	æ	x	a
a:	a	a		a:	ə	a:	ə	a:	a′	a	a:	a	a	a′	a:	a		a	a
ɒ	ɔ	ɒ		ɔ	ə:,ə	ɒ	ɔ	ɒ	ʌ, o	ɔ, ɒ	o, a	ɔ	x	ɔ	ɒ	ɔ	ɒ	x	ɔ
ɔ:	ɔ	ɔ:		ɔ	ɔ:	ɒ:		ɒ:	ɒ, ɔ:	ɔ	o, o:	ɔ	ɔ	ɔ′	ɔ′	ɒ,ɔ	ɔ, u	ɔ	ɔ
ʊ	u	u	ʊ, ω	u	ω	u		u		u, ʊ	u:, u	u	x	ʌ	ʊ	ʊ, u	ɔ, u	x	u
u:	u	u		u	u:;ω	u:		u:	u ′	u, u	u:	u	u	u′	u:	u:, u		u	u
ʌ	x	ʌ, ɒ		x	ʌ, a, ɔ	ɛ:, ɒ		x	ɒ	a, ɔ	u	ɔ	ɔ ,ə	ɒ	ʌ	ɒ, ɔ	ʌ	ɔ	ɔ
3:	x	ɛ, e:		x	ə:, ə, ɔ	ə	ɛ:	ɛ:, e	ɜ:	a:, ɔ	e, a	ɛ:	x	ɜ′	ɜ:	ɛ		e, ɒ, ɛ	
ə	x	a		x	ə:, ə,	ei	ə	ə	ä, ɒ:	a, e	ɔ, o	a	a, e	ä	ə	ɒ, ɔ	ə	ɒ, e, ɛ, ɔ	a, ɛ, i, ,ɔ u

Culled up from Josiah and Essien (2012:17)

Table 2.3: Models on Diphthongs and their Variants/Alternants in Nigerian English

RP	CM	JIM		EM1		OM		JOM		EUM		BM	EM2		AWM		ADM		UM	EKM	
		b	v/a	b	v/a	b	v/a	b	v/a	b	v/a	b	b	v/a	b	v/a	b	v/a	b	b	v/a
/ei/	x	x	ei, e	ei		ei	e:	e, e´	ai	x		e	x	ei	e	ei	e		e	x	
/ai/	/ai/	ai		ai		ai		ai		ai		ai	ai		ai		ai		ai	ai	
/ɔi/	/ɔi/	ɔi		ɒi		ɒi		ɔi	oi	ɔi		ɔi	ɒi		ɔi		ɔi		ɔi		ɔi
/əʊ/	x	x	eʊ	ou	əʊ	ou, o:	əʊ	o, ɔ	u:, o:	o	ɔ:	o	ou		o	o u, əʊ	o	ɔ	x	x	
/aʊ/	/aʊ/	aʊ		aʊ		aʊ		aʊ		aʊ		aʊ	aʊ		aʊ		ao		aʊ	aʊ	
/iə/	/ia/	iə		iə		iə	e:, iə, ia	ia	ea, ɛa, ɛə	ie		ie, ia	iə			iə	ia		iə, ia	iə	
/ɛə, eə/	/ia/	ɛə	e:	ei	ɛ:, eə	x	ɛə, e:	iə		ɛ:		e:	x		x	ɛə, ɛ	aɛ		x	x	ɛə
/ʊə/	/ua/	ωə		uɒ, ua		uɒ, ua	uə	ʊa, oa	ɔ, o, owa, :ɔ, ʊwa	uɒ, ua	ɔ:	uɔ	ua, uɒ		ɔ	ʊə	ɔ, uɒ, uɔ	ɔ	uɔ	x	ʊə, ωə

Culled up from Josiah and Essien (2012:18)

Note:
RP = standardized Received Pronunciation
CM = Christoperson's (1954) model
EKM= Ekong's (1978) model
JIM = Jibril's (1982) model
EM1 = Eka's (1985) model
OM = Odumuh's (1987) model
JOM = Jowitt's (1991) model
EUM = Eka & Udofot's (1996) model

UM = Udofot's (2004) model
EM2 = Eka's (2000) model
AWM = Awonusi's (2004) model
ADM = Adetugbo's (2004) model
BM = Banjo's (1995) model
x = No equivalent phoneme
B = basic phonemes in NE
V/A = variants or alternant
All phonetic entries represented on the table are understood to be enclosed in square brackets ([ ]) while the phonemes of RP are expected to be enclosed in slanting lines (//).

Table 2.4: Discrepancies on the number of vowel inventories in NE

MODEL	MONOPTHONGS	DIPHTHONGS	TOTAL
EM1	11	8	19
ADM	7	6	13
EKM	12	6	18
OM	11	8	19
AWM	7	3	10
UM	6	3	9
EUM	6	2	8
JOM	8	3	11
JIM	12	7	19
CM	5	3	8

Culled up from Josiah & Babatunde, 2011: 544

Note:
EM1 = Eka's (1985) model
ADM = Adetugbo's (2004) model
EKM = Ekong's (1978) model
OM = Odumuh's (1987) model
AWM = Awonusi's (2004) model
UM = Udofot's (2004) model
EUM = Eka & Udofot's (1996) model
JOM = Jowitt's (1991) model
JIM = Jibril's (1982) model
CM = Christoperson's (1954) model

Having examined the models of the consonants and vowel in the tables above, Josiah and Babatunde (2011) attempted an harmonization of the models and suggests that for purpose of standardization of Nigerian English, the sound system should comprise of the following consonants and vowels as seen in Tables 2.5, 2.6 and 2.7 below. They call it the Educated Spoken Nigerian English (ESNE) model.

Table 2.5: Josiah and Babatunde's Model on the Consonants of NE

RP	**ESNE Models**	
	Basic	*Variants/alternants*
p	p	p^h
b	b	v
t	t	t^h
d	d	
k	k	k^h
g	g	
f	f	p
v	v	f
Θ	t	s, Θ
ð	d	z, ð
s	S	
z	z	s
ʃ	ʃ	s
ʒ	ʒ	s, ʃ
h	h	
tʃ	tʃ	ʃ

Culled up from Josiah and Essien (2012:22)

Table 2.6: Josiah and Babatunde's Model on the Monophthongs of NE

RP	**ESNE Models**
i:	ɪ
ɪ	ɪ
e	e, ɛ, e:
æ	a
a:	a, a:, a´
ɒ	ɒ , ɔ
ɔ:	ɔ, ɒ:, :ɔ
ʊ	u
u:	u, u:
ʌ	a, ɒ , ɔ
3:	ɛ:, ɔ, e, ɛ
ə	a, ə, e, ɔ

Culled from Josiah and Essien (2012:21)

Table 2.7 : Josiah and Babatunde's Model on the Diphthongs of NE

RP	**ESNE Models**
/eɪ/	e, e:
/aɪ/	ai
/ɔ ɪ/	ɔi, ɔɪ
/əʊ/	o, ou
/aʊ/	aʊ, ao
/ɪə/	ɪe, ia,ə
/ɛə, eə/	e:, ɛ:,ɛə
/ʊə/	uɒ, ua, u

Culled up from Josiah and Essien (2012:21)

2.5.3. The Suprasegmental features of Nigerian English

As Second language speakers, it is not surprising that the suprasegmental features of English are different from that of Nigerian English. Literature in this aspect of Nigerian English abounds in the contributions of Eka (1983, 2000), Kujore (cited in Akinjobi, 2002), Jowitt (1991) etc.

Kujore (1985) is of the opinion that in Nigerian English there is a reversal of the primary stress order on some words, just as there is a tendency to forward stress too. E.g col`league, pe`trol and sa`lad (while in the RP it is `colleague, `petrol, `salad)

Since most of our indigenous languages are tonational, there is a tendency that as speakers of Nigerian English, we give a high tone to a relative pronoun when introducing a restrictive clause (Okunrinmeta, 2011). Sunday (2000) adds that in polar questions, the use of a low tone and a high tone sequence for auxiliary and pronoun syntactic sequence is observed.

Nigerian English is also not stress timed like the RP but it is syllable timed, because it is observed that all vowels are given prominence as vowel reduction rule is not applied at all (Ufomata, 1990; Akinjobi, 2002). Eka (1993) views Nigerian English as "inelastic timed" and argues that it is due to the frequency of more prominent syllables than what is found in RP. Ufomata (2000) compares the rhythm of Educated Nigerian English to "the pulsation of an African drum" which hardly varies in tempo. She proposes full vowel timing instead of syllable timing for Nigerian English. To this Akinjobi (2002) says that "full vowels whether stressed or unstressed, will be taken with other reduced vowels following it to determine a rhythm unit.

Akinjobi (2002) is of the opinion that Nigerian English speakers use loudness to show attitude. Okon (2001) cited in Adesina (2010) on the other hand posits that Nigerian English has Strong-Weak-Weak (SWW), Strong-Strong-Weak (SSW) and Strong-Strong (SS) patterns for feet as opposed to Standard British English's regular Strong-Weak (SW) and Strong-Weak-Weak (SWW) patterns. She adds that Nigerian English speakers do not apply "the alternation rule as it does not allow the occurrence of two strong syllables adjacent to each other. Eka (2000) further asserts that Nigerian English intonation pattern is a uni-directional one and not bi-directional.

Okunrinmeta (2011:1) summarizes the phonetic/phonological features of Nigerian English thus:

> *"In terms of phonetic and phonological features...Nigerian English has, because of the influence of the Nigerian languages, been given a local Nigerian touch which results in a reduced vowel system of seven simple vowels and six diphthongs, consonant substitution including the replacement of /θ/ and /ð/ with /t/ and /d/...complete devoicing of /z/ in inter- and post-vocalic positions...voicing of the alveolar stop when it occurs after voiceless sounds...deviant stress...a reduced intonation system with an inclination towards using the unidirectional tones (the falling and the rising tones) and non-differentiation in the length of vowels..."*

2.6 Problems of Nigerian English Phonology

Speaking English language in Nigeria poses a major problem for a lot of people since it is quite different from the indigenous language(s) they know and are fluent in. The cause of this challenge is *transfer*. Lado (1957) describes 'transfer' as the process in which the knowledge of a language influences the learning of another language either positively or negatively. If the knowledge of L1 helps or facilitates the learning of L2, it is said to be a positive transfer or facilitation. If however, the knowledge of L1 inhibits the learning of L2, then there is a negative transfer, which is known as "interference". He further asserts that, individuals tend to transfer forms and meanings, of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives. Other reasons for transfer could be the absence of a word in the L_1 to describe a new concept. In another vein, sometimes a word is present in the L_1 but is cumbersome in expressing it in a similar concept in English language. This creates room for substitution.

Interference refers to the instances of deviation from the norms of either language in a bilingual situation which occurs in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language (Akindele and Adegbite, 2005: 38). It is a linguistic

situation whereby two different languages overlap in such a way that the linguistic systems of one language are transferred into the other language in the process of producing the latter which is the second language or target language. Interference occurs at all the primary levels of language description – the phonological, lexical and grammatical level.

Awonusi (2007b) and Ekpe (2010) have extensively studied the phonological differences that exist in the English spoken in Nigeria and they are of the opinion that many Nigerians usually have challenges with some consonant sounds as well as vowel sounds. This they claim is so because the sound in question may be non-existent in the indigenous language. Thus they substitute sounds with what they have in their mother tongue (L1). For example, some speakers use /t/ in place of /Θ/. At other times, they deliberately omit the sounds since they can't produce them. Some speakers also approximate some phonemes with what they already know simply because they think that it is what they hear.

Aina (2015) gives her opinion on the inconsistency between the spelling of words and its pronunciation. She says that Nigerian English speakers usually encounter problems on how to pronounce and the selection of the right speech sound to convey the meaning intended. For instance, words like tsetse fly, colonel, psychology etc. are mistakenly pronounced based on how they are spelt.

The absence of certain sounds such as the five long monophthongs /i:, u:, a:, ɜ:, ɔ:/, the monophthongs /ʌ, ə/, the consonant sounds /Θ, ʧ, ð, v, ŋ/ and consonant clusters in indigenous languages also pose another problem for Nigerian English speakers (Aina, 2015). This may give rise to pronouncing both long and short sounds as the same without differentiating them.

Mgbemena (2011) discovered that epenthesis occurs in consonant clusters. Epenthesis is the insertion of vowels between consonant clusters. For example, 'hospital' becomes /hɒsɪpɪtul/; 'table' is pronounced as /teɪbul/ and 'clear' as /kilia/. He also noticed that consonant deletion is also a common practice. For instance, /l/ and /n/ sounds are deleted in these words – 'help', 'mental', 'frown', 'brown', etc.

Due to mother tongue interference, it is noticed in most cases that only one letter (not the sound) is being realized in the production of diphthongs; thus making the sound look like a monophthong. For instance words like 'tour', 'vowel', and 'tower' are usually mispronounced.

In English, some syllables are open while some are close. An open syllable is one which ends in a vowel but a closed syllable ends in a consonant sound. Most Nigerian languages have open syllable structure, so the challenge of speaking the English language as an open syllable structure from L1 could arise. Atolagbe (2000) asserts that this makes most speakers insert vowels in places where vowels should not operate. This can be seen mostly in Yoruba bilinguals when a word such as *'miliki'* is substituted for 'milk' and *'buredi'* for 'bread'. In Igbo bilinguals, vowel harmony is a phonological process. This is why most speakers harmonize vowels when they follow each other; so one could hear words like 'follow' being pronounced as *'folo'* and 'carry', as *'carri.'*

Roach (2010) describes stress as that degree of loudness, length, pitch and quality, with which a syllable or word is pronounced. Stress gives rise to intonation. It is intonation that carries the information that is expressed in an utterance. English is a stress timed language (Richards *et al* 1985), while Nigerian English is syllable timed. Kujore (1985) and Udofot (2004:99) states that Nigerian English is characterized by 'delayed primary stress.' Whereas a native speaker would differentiate stress placement according to grammatical categories, Kujore (1985) says that the distinction between nouns and verbs when assigning stress to them is often lost. On the contrary, Jowitt (1991) observes that more verbs, compound words and complex nouns phrases - especially at sentence level - than noun and adjectives experience shifting of stress.

Another problematic area for speakers of Nigerian English is that of tone. Since foot is absent in our L1, what the tone group means in English and in our indigenous languages are different. It is discovered that most Nigerians pause where they should not and do not pause where they should (Eka, 2000). This makes comprehension sometimes impossible.

In conclusion, Atolagbe (2000) is of the opinion that speech problems also exist in some speakers (although it is not common) and this could be dialectically influenced or could

be personal handicaps. Hence, it is not surprising when a person that speaks Hausa says *'froblem'* instead of *'problem.'* A Yoruba person too may substitute /s/ for /ʃ/ as in 'shoe' could be pronounced as *'sue'*.

2.7 Air Travel and the English Language

Douglas (2000) asserts that aviation English is a language for specific purpose. On the other hand, Cabre *et al.* (cited in Sarmento, 2015:2), say that the language of aviation can be best 'classified as a code known as standard phraseology.' It is however noted that the maintenance and operational manuals given by the airlines, is usually written in Simplified English (Shawcross, 1993).

History has it that on the 1st of November, 1944, the United States government met with allied and neutral states and declared the English language, the official standardized language to be used in Aviation around the world (Attan, 2011) although there was no official document to back it up. Thus, three major airports – Charles de Gaulle, Ottawa International and Montreal –Dorval International airports - used French exclusively for communication (Kovalchik, 2014) and this continued until the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) passed its decree.

The ICAO is the body that regulates aviation internationally including licensing of personnel, aircraft operations, meteorology, radio communication, rules of the air, etc. (Ragan, 2007). The organisation records that a total of more than 1000 passengers and crew lost their lives between 1976 and 2000 in accidents where misinterpretation of language played a contributory role (Long, 2009). The deadliest of these crashes occurred on the 27th day of March, 1997, when two aircrafts reportedly collided in Tenerife, Canary Island. Although it is on record that there was a fog; the accident was blamed more on misinterpretation of commands due to language problems. The organization thus decreed that from March, 5th 2008, all aviation personnel must pass an English proficiency test which includes knowing the appropriate aviation terminology, understanding radio instructions, as well as developing a favourable accent that is 'intelligible to the aeronautical community' (Kovalchik, 2014). Although everyone tries to follow the ICAO script to minimize problems, Hoke (2014) observes that occasionally there is still miscommunication.

Nigerian has had its fair share of plane crashes too, almost all of them fatal. Adegoke (2015) takes a historical look at plane crashes in Nigeria. He notes that the very first plane crash in Nigeria took place in April, 1942. The next was recorded after independence in November 1969, involving Nigeria Airways VC10, killing 87 people after crashing into a tree while approaching Runway 19 in Lagos International Airport. After that crash, there has been other plane crashes – some cargo planes, military planes, chartered flights and general passenger planes. Some of the notable ones are the 2005 Sosoliso plane crash at Port Harcourt International Airport, killing over 100people, most of whom were students of Loyola Jesuit, Abuja; the Bellview Flight 210 leaving Lagos for Abuja in October 2005, killing 117 persons on board three minutes after takeoff; and the ADC airline that crashed into a corn field immediately after takeoff from Abuja, which reportedly contacted the air control towers, broke up and caught fire. Adegoke (2015) records that in 2005 alone, Nigeria recorded ten plane crashes. He summed up by saying that the Accident Investigation Bureau (AIB) traced the cause of the plane crashes to many factors including inaccurate information between the pilot and the control tower. Thus importance of aviation communication cannot be under estimated.

In aviation context, Spinner (1998) identifies two types of communication – the one way communication and the two way communication. He said that the one way communication is between the cockpit instruments and the pilot; while the two way communication is between the pilots and individuals on the flight deck, in the cabin or anyone involved in operation which includes the air traffic control. On the contrary, Orlady and Orlady (1999) say that there are 5 types of communication – verbal, non-verbal, written, written and graphic, as well as communication with and between computers in the airplane.

In Nigeria, several studies have been carried out in different areas relating to aviation and the airports. Most of these studies dwelt on the infrastructural development of the Nigerian airports and facilities, especially as it relates to image making and monetary returns (Ladan, 2012; Aun, 2013; Omoleke, 2012; Stephens *et al.*, 2014). Others dwelt on statistical studies on flights and passengers' variability (Afolayan *et al.*, 2012; Olukayode *et al.,* 2016).

However, a few studies have been carried out outside the country relating to language use in the aviation. Aiguo (2008) explores the possibility of establishing Aviation English as English for Special Purposes (ESP) in the Chinese curricula. He posits that this is because the term 'Aviation English' refers to general English in aeronautical/aviation courses in the university.

Breul (2013) carried out a pragmatic study of the language of aviation. She analyzed the reason for the breakdown in communication between pilots and the air traffic control, using the relevance theory. Her findings states that the communicative intention in a situation appears to be more relevant when a human communicator is directly involved but reduces when the communicator is anonymous or separated from the actual situation.

In his study, Alderson (2009) reviews a number of aviation English tests which were constructed in line with ICAO's requirement and discovered that they were inadequate and did not meet up international standards. He noted also that there was no reliable mechanism for overseeing the implementation of the policy and ensuring quality.

The closest study to that of airport announcements is that of Molesworth (2014) in which the effectiveness of pre-flight safety announcements was studied. The study showed that although it was played on video, travellers ignored it but they paid attention and remembered vividly most of what was said when humour was added to the video recording.

The observation of Kperogi (2016a) on the accent employed by flight announcers in the airport is of great concern. He said that in a personal experience the previous year at the Nnamdi Azikiwe International Airport, he found out that 'many Westerners, for whose sakes airport announcers speak through their noses' were asking Nigerian passengers to interpret the announcement made because they could make sense out of it. He said that the Nigerians could not help out either. He goes on to observe that a simple word like 'Kano' was also wrongly pronounced as 'Cairo'. Kperogi (2016a) claims that Nigerians and foreigners have missed their flights while in the waiting lounge because they could not understand what the announcer had said. This assertion was reiterated by Aminu Ibrahim, a contributor to Kperogi's (2016b) blog; who said that he missed his flight and discovered about 40minutes later. Ibrahim said that when he complained at the ticketing

office, he was advised to always seek help from other travellers like him – who may as well be more confused. Kperogi (2016a) identified three accents of Nigerian English – imported/foreign accent, broadcaster's accents, and demotic Nigerian accent. He further advised that if the announcers wanted to be intelligible to foreigners, they should go for further training.

Indeed, the importance of proficiency in Aviation English communication cannot be under estimated. However, studies centered on language in aviation have always looked at communication between the Pilot and Air traffic Control and vice versa. Kperogi has raised a social issue which needs to be closely studied. Surprisingly phonologists - or in collaboration with other linguists - have paid little attention to this area which gives this study relevance. Therefore this is the gap in knowledge that this study seeks to fill.

2.8 Announcers and Announcements

Nwabueze (2008:74) defines broadcasting as 'the transmission or dissemination of information through electromagnetic spectrum, stepped down to the audience by electronic gadgets.' This definition classifies the making of an announcement as a form of broadcast since the message reaches a large, heterogeneous audience at the same time.

Announcement as defined in the *Dictionary of Media and Communication* (Danesi, 2009: 23) is a 'formal or public notice uttered and communicated in some medium (oral, written or recorded).' It further defines an announcer as a 'person who introduces radio or television programs or show…' Amafili (2002) on the other hand, describes the announcer as a modern day town crier. These announcers according to Chester et al (1998) are expected to perform straight announcing.

Stephenson et al (2005) categorize announcers into four – music announcers, news announcers, sports announcers and specialty announcers. It is noted however, that some announcers operate in more than one of the categories aforementioned. The music announcers anchor and function in musical programs; thus they are otherwise known as Disc Jockey (DJ) or Video Jockey (VJ). The news announcers, which are also known as anchors or reporters, read stories and also introduce other reporters in the field. Sports

announcers are of three types – the sportscaster, play-by-play (PBP) announcer and the play analyst; each functioning differently in sports programs. The specialty announcers, also called voice over announcers are involved in specialized announcements such as weather forecast, public announcements, financial reporting etc. The flight announcers in the airport fall into this category.

Announcing is a professional practice thus it is not something that everyone can do but requires a specialized skill that demands a unique talent. Having a degree or prior training in broadcasting is advantageous but usually not compulsory in working as an announcer. Most importantly, announcers need to have a mastery of the language in use – especially in pronunciation, grammar and spellings. Physically, announcers are expected to have a pleasant voice that is void of accent of any region and a deeper voice is appreciable for female announcers. In television broadcast however, the announcer must have an attractive appearance that is devoid of facial defects such as tribal marks. The announcer must also have the stamina to work under pressure especially as they spend a lot of time on air, as well as work on holidays and weekends. An announcer must also demonstrate emotional stability in order to avoid errors during broadcast. In a nut shell, the announcer is expected to wear a perfectionist attitude.

Agbanu and Nwammuo (2009) describe announcing as having an 'intimate' relationship with the listeners because it is an art that does not only involve reading words aloud but fundamentally, communicating. In order words, if the message an announcer is trying to convey is not clearly understood by the listeners, the announcer has failed to do what he or she is meant to do. Thus, announcers 'breathe life' into the message they pass across. In the airport, it is the responsibility of the announcer on duty to apologize for any mishap, delay in flights or even change, etc. The announcer also announces incoming and outgoing flights, as well as makes boarding calls. However, the success of an announcement is also the audience. One cannot communicate if no one is listening. Thus, the job of announcing entails constant practice in the pronunciation of words - uttering the proper sounds and stressing the proper syllables. It also involves knowing the acceptable form and using it correctly on air. Mispronunciation of words or even people's names can bring about a misunderstanding of the message as well as cause an announcer to lose credibility. In other to avoid this, unfamiliar words could be looked up and others already known, double checked.

Announcers can be male or female. However, in time past, the job of announcing was exclusively for males - as only a deep, bass voice was appreciated by listeners (Stephenson et al, 2005). The preference of the male over the female these days, depend on the organisation and its goal. Strach *et al* (2015) claim that, males are preferred to females as voice over announcers in the United States of America. In Nigeria, both genders are represented in radio and television broadcasting, but the same cannot be said of other public places like the airport. A close look at the Murtala Muhammed Airport in Lagos reveals that announcements are made by female announcers only. The preference of the female voice above that of the male voice may be as a result of the fact that, the female voice is associated with compassion, understanding; it is non-threatening as well as sounds more soothing than that of the male voice, which is characterized to be more persuasive, neutral, authoritative and forceful (Adweek Media and Harris Poll, 2010). McAleer *et al* (2014) also adds that female voices are more trustworthy than male voices.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodology employed in this study. It includes the theoretical framework on which the study rests and conceptual framework; a description of the study area, selection of sample, demographics of sample and the nature of the research instrument.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

This study adopts Labov's (1966) theory of Linguistic Variation. The theory claims that, language varies systematically between individuals, and across different socio-geographical distribution, with respect to the social characteristics of the speakers (Gordon, 2014; Bayley, 2013; Jalali, 2013). These social characteristics are variables that have been identified by Labov (1966) as gender, social class, ethnicity and family background etc. Labov argues that differences in pronunciation is not an anomaly but is rather necessary for a language to function well in a speech community. Thus he introduced the concept of *linguistic variables* (Labov, 1963) which dominated most of his work.

A linguistic variable is defined as 'a linguistic item which has identifiable variants' (Wardhaugh, 2013). Examples of linguistic variables are the (ng) with its variants [ŋ] or [n]; (r) with its variants [r] or Ø (zero variant); (h) with its variants [h] or Ø (zero variant) and (t) with its variants [t] or [ʔ]. Other variables that linguist have also studied are (dh) with its variants [ð] or [d]; (th) with its variants [Θ] or [t] (final (t) and (d) in words; as well as the vowels (e), (o), (a) and (u). The introduction of linguistic variables has made the study of variation become systematic. Cedergren (Cited in Tagliamonte, 2006) asserts that theoretically, the use of linguistic variables has also permitted the use

of different types of statistical methods in the study of language variation. In his study Labov, took into account how speakers use language in everyday situation. Thus he advocated empirical and quantitative methods for studying these variations, especially in naturally produced speech. According to him, social variables become apparent only in the light of statistical analysis.

Milroy and Gordon (2003) also identified two methods Labov applies in examining linguistic variation. The first one, they claimed is by examining linguistic forms (i.e. variables) and their distribution; while the other method is by examining speakers of languages and their behaviour with respect to different situations. This study adopted the latter by examining the linguistic variables and their distribution in the language of flight announcers.

3.1.1 *Labovian paradigm in the study on Social Stratification of (r) in New York City*

It is Labov's study in New York City that established the theoretical concept of the linguistic variable (Wolfram 1991). Wardhaugh (2013) also describes it as 'setting the pattern for quantitative studies of linguistic variation.'

Although Labov carried out different studies in New York, one of the most prominent is the 1966 study of the *Social Stratification of (r) in New York City*. In this study, Labov's population were drawn from three departmental stores which were selected based on their social status, as well as the social stratification of their clients - ranking from the highest to the lowest respectively – Saks Fifth Avenue, Macy's and St. Klein. His criterion for ranking the three stores includes their pricing system, the nature of their adverts, as well as the size of the store. In all of this, Sak's had the highest price tag on women's coats; it published advertisements in the New York Times (which was an elitist paper); and the store had the most space too. This was followed closely by Macy and lastly, St. Klein.

Labov's hypothesis states that, "if any two subgroups of New York City speakers are ranked in a scale of social stratification, then they will be ranked in the same order by their differential use of (r)" (Labov 1972:169). Thus, the study was meant to prove the result that: "salespeople in the highest ranked store will have the highest values of (r); those in the middle ranked store will have intermediate values of (r); and those in the lowest ranked store will show the lowest values" (Labov 1966:170). In order to collect

data, Labov approached the shop assistants on different floors and asked for directions to a department he knew was on the fourth floor of the building. When the shop assistant replies '*fourth floor,*' he would pretend not to hear it and it would be repeated, this time emphatically. Labov then made a note of what had been said. His dependent variables in the study were the use of (r) in four different occurrences (twice in both casual and emphatic speech), while his independent variables were the store, the floor within the store, sex, age, occupation, race and foreign or regional accent (Labov, 1972: 49f). Below are statistical displays of the percentage of (r) use in the three New York department stores from the data collected. Table 3.1 shows frequency while Figure 3.1 is a bar chart.

Table 3.1. Percentage of r-use in three New York City department stores

	Saks	*Macy*	*St. Klein*
All [r]	32	31	17
Some [r]	30	20	4
No [r]	38	49	79
Number	68	125	71

Source: *Wardhaugh (2013: 168)*

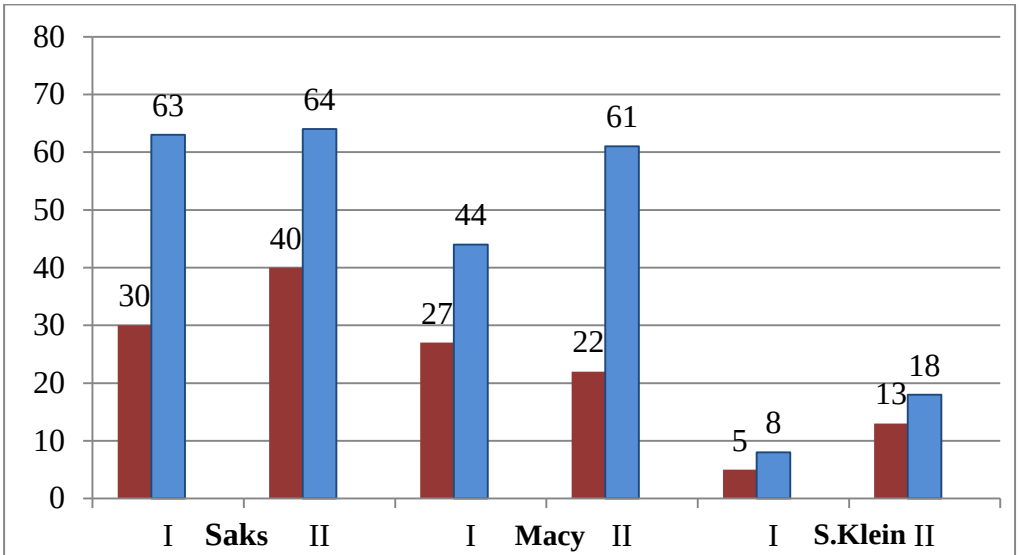

Figure 3.1. ***Percentage of (r); [r] in first (I) and second (II) utterances of 'fourth' (grey) and 'floor' (solid) in three New York City department stores.***

***Source**: Wardhaugh (2013:169)*

The results of the Labov's findings were analyzed and it showed that Labov's hypothesis was proven to be correct, as the *r*-pronunciation was favoured more in Saks than it was in Macy and much less in St. Klein. The result further showed that at Saks, older people did not use *r*-pronunciation as much as they did in Macy (meaning *r*-pronunciation increased with age); while at St. Klein, the result was inconclusive. This is represented in Figure 3.2 below:

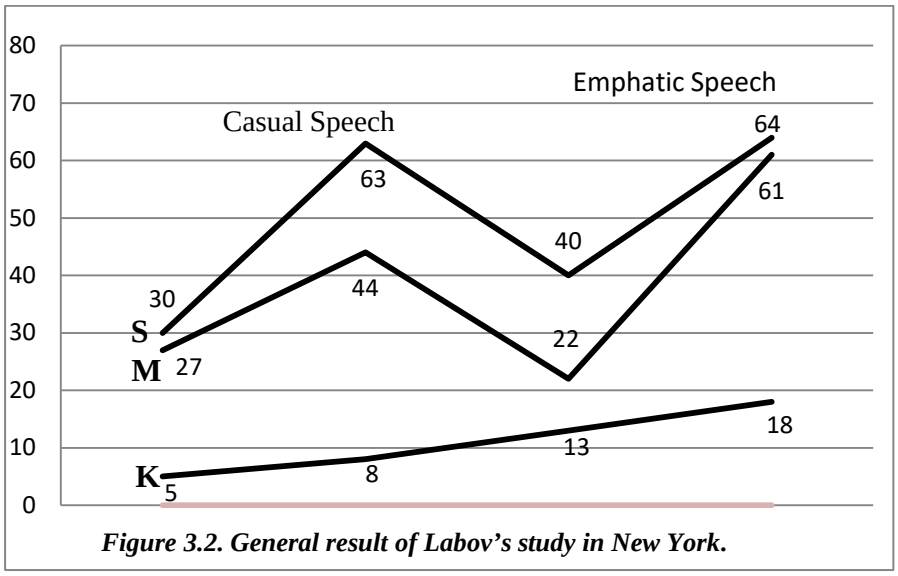

Figure 3.2. General result of Labov's study in New York.

Source: Juchem (2003:6)

Labov also proved his hypothesis on (r)-use when he studied the Lower East Side of New York City. However, before then, he carried out a preliminary exploratory study on 70 individuals using interview and observation methods. The result of his findings gave rise to major phonological variables which were to be studied including the presence or absence of consonantal [r]. Interview which was recorded on a tape was also used. To do this, he recorded their interview on tape as well as their casual speech. He had with people on the streets and in their houses. He reports that sometimes he is just an observer while the sample population engaged in casual speech. He also made his respondents read individual words back to him, in a bid to discover regional variation. This he claims was difficult to describe using the list of American phoneme.

3.1.2 *Identification of linguistic variables in this study*

Aina (2015) identified the monopthong /ə/ and dental fricatives /ɵ/ and /ð/ as problematic sounds to Nigerian speakers of English language. She claims that this is evident because the sounds are not available in most of our indigenous languages. However, since it is expected of flight announcers to possess a mastery of the English pronunciation, this study investigated the use of three linguistic variables – the schwa /ə/ and the consonant /ɵ/ and /ð/ - in comparison to respondents' age, ethnicity, educational background and level of experience. The researcher selected the three sounds since they always occur in most words that form overhead announcements.

The Schwa /ə/ is a mid-central vowel and sounds like 'uh'. According to Okrent (2014), it is the most common vowel sound in English language. It occurs in two ways: in an unstressed syllable of a multi-syllable word; and as a reduced vowel sound in a function word. The schwa can represent all the vowels (A, E, I, O, U) of the alphabet including 'Y'. Examples are: amazing – əmazing; tenacious – tənacious; replicate – repləcate; percolate – percəlate; supply – səpply; syringe – səringe. However, the schwa does not represent only a single letter, e.g. sister (sistə). It also has the tendency to delete a syllable. This happens when the schwa is following a syllable that bears the main stress in the word. This is called schwa syncope (or schwa deletion). Examples of are: chocolate – choc-late; different – dif-rent, etc. In the same vein, there can be schwa epenthesis (i.e. addition). Schwa addition takes place when there are difficult consonant clusters to pronounce. Examples here include realtor – realətor; athlete – athəlete etc. In a group of words or sentences, nouns, adjectives, main verbs and adverbs are usually stressed. Schwa is introduced in auxiliary verbs, pronouns, articles, linkers and preposition in order to reduce stress and keep the pattern regular. In Nigerian English, the schwa has four variants as identified by Josiah and Essien (2012). The variants are /a/, /ə/, /e/ and /ɔ/.

The dental fricatives /ɵ/ and /ð/ are two very common sounds in English language that have a common representative letter of the alphabet 'th' when occurring in words. /ɵ/ is a voiceless sound found in words like '*thing*', while /ð/ is voiced and is found in words like '*the*'. 'Th' consonants can be at the beginning, middle or end of words and there are no strict rules regarding its presence as being voiced or voiceless. However, in most

cases, it is voiceless when found at the beginning of most words – such as threat, think, through etc.; except in function words like pronouns, adverbs and conjunction when it is found to be voiced. Such examples include they, their, thus, though etc. In the middle of a word, most 'th' consonants are voiced – as in either, mother further and weather. The words that carry the voiceless sound are usually loan words such as cathedral, ethics, method, mathematics etc. 'Th' at the end of words occurs in nouns and adjectives as voiceless, while it is usually voiced in verbs. Examples of the voiceless 'th' sound at the end of a word include bath, cloth, tooth, teeth etc. The voiced 'th' sound occurs in *breathe, soothe, writhe* etc. According to Josiah and Babatunde (2011) cited in Josiah and Essien (2012), /ɵ/ has two variants /t/ and /s/ besides /ɵ/; while /ð/ has the variants /d/ and /z/ besides itself.

3.2 Conceptual framework

It is generally held that speech variability may be influenced by speaker's social background – gender, age, educational background and ethnicity (Labov, 1966). The Figure 3.3 below shows the variables observed in this study. Although gender is not an intervening variable in this study (because all the announcers are female), it is represented on the diagram (though with broken lines); since it forms part of the demography elicited from the respondents.

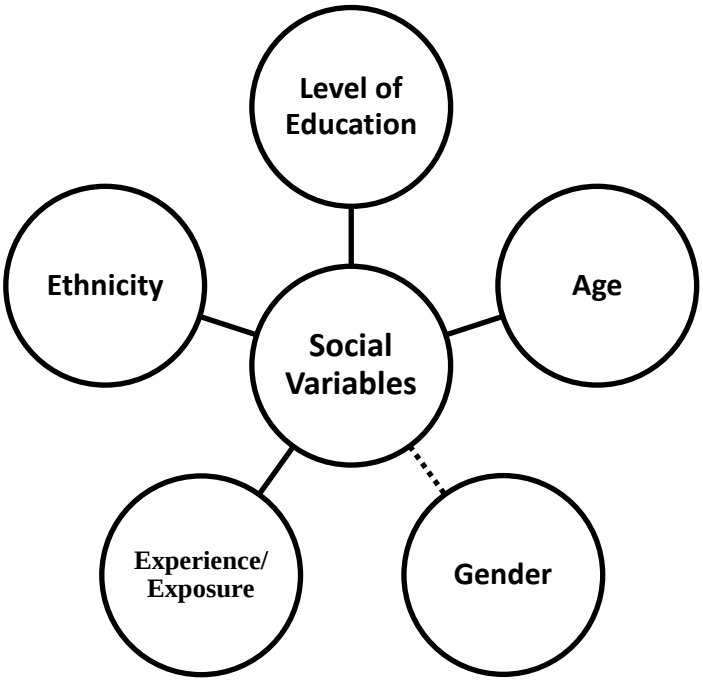

Figure 3.3: Diagram showing the social variables in the study

3.2.1 *Education as Variable*

One's language reflects to a large extent one's social identity and level of education. According to Al-Ali and Arafa (2010), a more educated speaker tends to use features belonging to a standard language than a less educated speaker. This is because, it is believed that education brings with it, exposure.

3.2.2 *Ethnicity as Variable*

A speaker's ethnicity could also have a significant effect on the language they use. To give a phonological example, most Yoruba speakers of English sometimes substitute the voiceless [s] for [ʃ] without knowing. This is also different in the north where most speakers also replace [p] for [f] interchangeably.

3.2.3 *Age as Variable*

Although differences in anatomy and physiology could account for linguistic change in individuals; socially oriented variation also takes place in the course of life. By this, an older person is likely to be firmer with the phonological structure of a language spoken than a much younger person.

3.2.4 *Experience/exposure as Variable*

Experience on the job and exposure to native speaker variety is accounted for as a variable in this study. It is hypothetical that even though a respondent is not very good at pronouncing words correctly, the longer the person spends on the job, the more improved the pronunciation would be. Also hypothetical is the fact that people who are exposed to native speakers especially those who have travelled out to countries where English is a native language, would speak a better variety.

3.2.5 *Gender as Variable*

Holmes (2013) asserts that though the speech of men and women are not distinguishable sometimes, they do not speak exactly the same way as each other. Women have been found to be more expressive, as well as use more standard grammatical forms than men

(Trudgill, 1983). The reason given for this occurrence is that women are more status conscious than men, thus the society expects better from them. Although gender was identified in this study because it is unavoidable; it is not an intervening variable, because all the announcers at the Murtala Muhammed Airport are female. This is also the reason why broken lines are used in the Figure 3.3 above

3.3 Description of Study Area

According to the Economic and Statistical Abstract released by the Nigerian Airports Authority (NAA) now known as Federal Airport Authority of Nigeria (FAAN) in 1985, the Murtala Muhammed International Airport (MMIA), Ikeja, was originally known as the Lagos International Airport (LIA) until its renaming in the mid-1970s when the new international terminal was constructed. The airport was first built before independence, during the World War II.

The report further states that the MMIA, Ikeja, Lagos is known to be the biggest and busiest airport in Nigeria. It is located 15kilometers North of Ikeja town and about 25kilometers from Lagos Island. The MMIA was at first made up of two parts - the domestic wing and the international airport terminal – both connected by the same airstrip and runway. Later on, the airport was further divided into three – the international terminal, the domestic terminal and the general aviation area. This continued until May 2000, when a fire outbreak engulfed the domestic wing of the airport. The incidence gave rise to the construction of the second terminal of Murtala Muhammed Airport (MM2) through a Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT) agreement between the federal government and a privately owned company Bi-Courtney Aviation Services Limited (BASL). Thus the MMIA is now divided into two major terminals - the International and the domestic terminals (the old local terminal and MM2).

Describing it further, the NAA report (1985) also states that the MMIA which was commissioned on the 15th of March, 1979 is modeled after Amsterdam's Airport in Schiphol. It has two runways; the first, 18L/36R is 2742m long and 45m measuring 8997ft. by 12794ft. and another, 18R/36L that measures 3,900metres long and 60metres wide. The runways are designed to accommodate all types of aircraft including Boeing

747 and the Concorde. The international passenger apron has a total of 113,000sq.m for parking and circulation, as well as can take up to 14 jet aircrafts of all capacities. The international terminal building consists of the departure floor and the arrival floor; two fingers with 14 gates and avio bridges; five stories of airline, administrative and technical offices including restaurants, bars, canteens and VIP lounges; the control tower and the basement parking. It is built on about 77,000 square meters and the building is designed to cope with about 2.5million passengers annually. According to World Airport Codes (n.d.), the International Air Transport Association (IATA) code for MMIA is LOS while its International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) code is DNMM. It also records that the airport is on Latitude 6.5773702 and Longitude 3.3211601. Skybrary (n.d.) states that the airport is elevated at 135ft above sea level with co-ordinates 6°34'40.4399"N and 3°19'17.6225"E.

The domestic runway O1R – 19L is 2,743metres long and 45metres wide. This has undergone a lot of rehabilitation and can accommodate the DC 10 aircraft. It also has 65,000 square meters surface area that can take 12 aircraft of range up to Boeing 737 and Boeing 727 parking parallel. The domestic terminal is a one-storey building that includes the departure and arrival halls, VIP lounge, ticketing and administrative offices restaurants, shops, bars and crew room. There are 14 check-in counters equipped with weighing scales; a conveyor belt at the departure area and three others at the arrival area.

The MM2 is built on about 20,000 sq.m land area, with state of the art facilities to meet with international standards. It has the first and largest Multi-Storey Car Park (MSCP) in Nigeria and West Africa, which can take up to 800 cars at a time. Other facilities includes the Common Use Passenger Processing System (CUPPS), the self-service check-in kiosks (which is used by about 12,000 passengers monthly), automated access gates and the Baggage reconciliation System (BRS). There are also 45 check-in-counters and scales which are computerized and PAXTRACK – a device that makes the location of a traveller easy to be ascertained within the airport – is also installed. A sky walk carries you across the access road to an airport hotel that is still under construction. The terminal building also boasts of constant power supply, escalators and lifts, the latest check-in system, restaurants, shops and other services like banks, ATMs, pharmacies, and a supermarket. MMA2 has also been described as one of two cleanest places in the entire Lagos metropolis by a top official of the Lagos State government and former

Commissioner for the Environment. It was also voted the number one Airport Terminal in the country in 2014 and in the first quarter of 2015, in an independent survey carried out by Phillips Consulting and commissioned by the Ministry of Aviation. However, Onagoruwa (2015), describes the MM2 otherwise in *"This Unfriendly MM2 Airport"* published in the Guardian Newspaper on the 19th of April, 2015. In his opinion, some of the infrastructure put in place at the MM2 does not work. Mentioned in his report are the cooling system, the escalators and some of the scanners among others.

3.4 Selection of Sample

Flight announcing is an exclusive job, thus the voice-over announcers are few in number. This is because unlike other businesses, airports are not sited everywhere neither is one located in every city. Here in Lagos State, there is only one airport – which has three passenger terminals. To this end, the population for this study is made up of 21 flight announcers who were all considered for filling out the questionnaire. Although the Labovian paradigm suggests the use of random sampling technique to select population; the researcher used purposive sampling technique to select 10 announcers out of the total population by reason of their availability, readiness and willingness to grant an interview. The 10 respondents were chosen irrespective of ethnicity, age, experience or educational background. Since there are no male flight announcers working in Lagos airport; age, ethnic origin, experience and educational background are intervening variables in the study while gender was not.

3.5 The Demographics of Sample

The demographic information supplied by respondents in the questionnaire is grouped into four main headings – Respondents' age, Respondents' Ethnicity, Level of Education/training and Level of Experience/Exposure. These headings represent the intervening variables in this study. Information is displayed in tables and further explanation is given.

a. Age

Table 3.2. Respondent's Age		
Age	**No of respondents**	**Percentage %**
20 – 30	6	60
31-50	4	40
50 and above	-	-

The Table 3.2 above shows that 60% of the respondents are between the ages of 20 and 30years while 40% are 31 to 50years old. There are no persons that are above 50years of age. This implies that there are younger persons than there are older persons working on the job.

b. Ethnicity

Table 3.3 ***Respondents' Ethnic Origin according to geo-political zones***			
State of Origin	**Geo-political Zone**	**No. of Respondents**	**%**
Delta	South – South	1	10
Edo	South – South	1	10
Enugu	South – East	1	10
Imo	South – East	1	10
Kaduna	North – West	1	10
Kogi	North – Central	1	10
Lagos	South – West	1	10
Ogun	South – West	1	10
Osun	South –West	1	10
Rivers	South –South	1	10

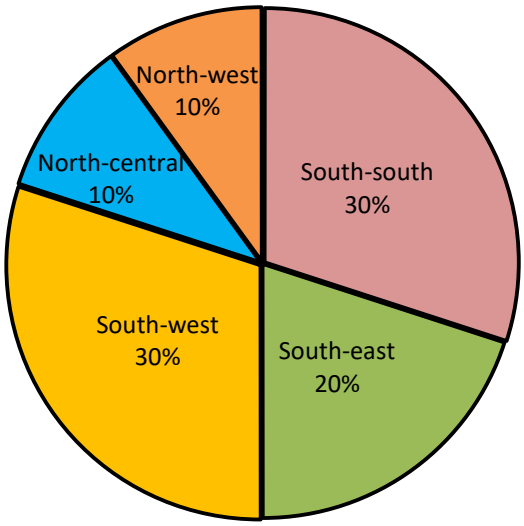

Fig. 3.4. Pie chart showing the geo-political distribution of respondents.

Table 3.3 above shows that each respondent come from a different state in Nigeria - Delta, Edo, Enugu, Imo, Kaduna, Kogi, Lagos, Ogun, Osun and Rivers State. Therefore they have an equal distribution of 10% each. However, the pie chart above shows the distribution of respondents according to the geo-political zones. Out of the six zones, five of them are represented with the south-south and south-west having the highest distribution of 30% each; south-east has 20%, while north-central and north-west have an equal proportion of 10% each.

Table 3.3.1 Mother Tongue/Ethnic group		
Mother tongue/Ethnic group	**No of respondents**	**%**
Esan	1	10
Gbagyi	1	10
Igala	1	10
Igbo	2	20
Ogoni	1	10
Urhobo	1	10
Yoruba	3	30

Respondents represent seven ethnic groups – Esan, Gbagyi. Igala, Igbo, Ogoni, Urhobo and Yoruba. Yoruba has 30%, Igbo has 20%, while the rest have 10% each in the distribution. Coincidentally, the ethnic group the respondents belong to is the same as the language they speak. Respondents all claim to speak their native languages as the mother tongue (L1). This is shown in Table 3.3.1.

Table 3.3.2 Number of languages spoken		
No. of languages spoken	**No of respondents**	**%**
One	-	-
Two	8	80
Three	2	20

80% of the respondents in Table 3.3.2 speak only two languages while 20% speak up to three languages.

Table 3.3.3. Types of languages spoken		
Types of languages spoken	**No of respondents**	**%**
English	10	100
Indigenous	10	100
Pidgin	1	10
Hausa	1	10

Table 3.3.3 shows that 100% of the respondents speak English and their indigenous language. However, only 20% claim to speak an additional language – 10% speak Pidgin and 10% also speak Hausa.

c. Level of Education/training

Table 3.4. Respondents' Qualification		
Highest educational qualification	**No of respondents**	**%**
SSCE	-	
B.Sc./B.A/B.Ed.	7	70
MSc./M.A	2	20
MPhil./Ph.D.	-	-
Others	1	10

Table 3.4 shows that 70% of the respondents are holders of a first degree while 20% have a Masters' degree. The remaining 10% has a certificate other than the ones listed.

Table 3.4.1. Respondents' Course of Study		
Course of study	**No of respondents**	**%**
Business Administration	2	20
English	2	20
History/International Relations	1	10
Linguistics	1	10
Mass Communication	1	10
Political Science	1	10
Public Administration	1	10
Sociology	1	10

In Table 3.4.1, 20% of the respondents studied business administration and another 20% studied English language. 10% each graduated in History/International Relations, Linguistics, Mass Communication, Political Science, Public Administration and Sociology.

Table 3.4.2. Respondents' training		
No of in-service trainings attended	**No of respondents**	**%**
1 – 2	3	30
3 – 4	3	30
5 or more	2	20
None	2	20

In Table 3.4.2, 30% of the respondents had been trained on the job either once or twice. Another 30% says they have been trained three or four times while 20% of the respondents say that they have been given more than five trainings. Yet another 20% say they have not been sent on any form of training since they began announcing.

d. Level of Experience/Exposure

Table 3.5. Work Experience		
No of years in flight announcing	**No of respondents**	**%**
Less than 1 year	1	10
1 – 5 years	5	50
6 – 10years	4	40
More than 10years	-	-

Table 3.5 shows that 10% have been on the job for less than a year. 50% of the respondents have been announcing flights for more than a year and up to five years. Those who have worked as announcers for six to ten years, make up 40% of the population.

Table 3.5.1. Exposure to native speakers		
Travelling experience	***No of respondents***	***%***
Travelled out	3	30
Not travelled out	7	70

Table 3.5.2. Exposure to native speakers (2)			
Reason for travelling	***No of respondents***	***%***	***Length of stay***
Schooling	1		3 – 6yrs
Leisure	2		1 – 3yrs
Business	-		-
Training	-		-
Others	-		-

In Table 3.5.1, only 30% of the respondents have travelled out of the country to native speaker's country, 70% have not. Out of the 30% that have travelled out, 10% have spent at least 3years but not more than 6years in native speakers' country, schooling. The other 20% have spent about one to three years in those countries leisurely.

Table 3.5.3. Why announcing?		
Reasons for being an announcer	***No of respondents***	***%***
By choice	2	20
Owing to circumstance	2	20
Owing to training	2	20
A dream job	4	40

According to Table 3.5.3, 20% of the population chose to be flight announcers, irrespective of what they had studied in school while 20% also did so, owing to circumstances such as the absence of good jobs in their field of study. Another 20% became announcers because they had received training to do so right from their first degree and 40% see it as their dream job; meaning, they had always wanted to be flight announcers.

3.6 The nature of the research instrument

This work adopts one of the alternative ways in which linguistic variations can be studied as suggested by Labov. This method is through 'examining the speaker's linguistic forms

as well as their distribution' (Labov, 1966:209). To do this, Labov investigated speech in New York City by using reading lists of words (both as individual words and in close pairs) as well as making his respondents read a prose passage and participating in a formal interview. According to him, the method describes the language system better though it does not yield optimal information.

To this end, the study employed the use of a questionnaire and wordlist for data collection. The questionnaire was structured and close ended in order to elicit a fixed response from the respondents and was administered face to face by the researcher. It is designed to elicit the demographic data of respondents which illustrate the variables that are being investigated such as respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, educational qualification and experience. The questionnaire consisted of two parts – A and B. Part A is basically structured to elicit information on the respondents' bio-data and ethnicity while Part B examines their level of education, exposure and experience on the job as flight announcers. The sample of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix II.

A wordlist (WL), a list of phrases (PL) and a list of sentences (SL) was also introduced. The WL, PL and SL tested for respondents' use of the linguistic variables /ə/, /ɵ/ and /ð/ and compare them with their socio-economic variables. This is in line with the five styles of speech elicitation that Labov proposed – casually, carefully, passage reading, word list reading and interview. WL is made up of 30 discrete words which contain the three variables under survey. Respondents are familiar with most of these words since they appear in the announcements they make. Thus, the list was read aloud once and as naturally as possible, spontaneous, and opportunity was not given for revision of the words before respondents read. This was the researcher's way of reducing *observer's paradox.* Since the pronunciation of discrete words alone may not reveal the characteristics of the variables being sought, a phrase list (PL) consisting of 4 phrases and a sentence list (SL) - comprising of 6 sentences was also read; all of which is geared towards identifying recurrent patterns in rapid speech at the segmental and levels. The readings were done within 3 and 5 minutes, depending on the respondents' speed. This was recorded using a Remax R.P1.8GB OLED Digital Voice Recorder. In order to obtain maximum clarity during recording and reduce the noise which is prevalent in the airport

environment, recording was done in a much quieter office. The recordings will be burnt into a CD and attached to this project.

Respondents were also asked to use pseudo names in order to ensure anonymity. This is the same name they wrote on the questionnaire and also mentioned before they began to read. It was necessary so that, the researcher could easily link the recordings to the sociolinguistic variables collected. However, during analysis, respondents are labeled Announcer (A) 1 – 10 in order to make identification easier. The lists used as reading materials are stated in Appendix III.

3.7 Validity of Instrument

Although, issues with validity of instrument hardly arises in sociolinguistic studies – i.e. whether or not what is claimed to be measured is accurately done (Wardhaugh, 2013), – the instrument in this study is made to meet Lepper's (2000:173) criterion in 'that what is being described is accurately "named;" since the research process accurately represents the phenomenon and it is recognizable to the scientific community being addressed.' However, the researcher's supervisor had a look at the instrument, made corrections where necessary before approving it for data collection.

3.8 Method of data analysis

Data collected in this study was analyzed using descriptive statistics involving simple frequency and percentage. In order to do this, first the researcher transcribed all the words in WL, PL and SL administered, using the 17th edition of the Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary and Phonetizer (2017) as guide. Then, the tape recorded productions, collected from the respondents was played back on a laptop, to facilitate continuous and easy playback while ensuring clarity of sound. The output was then transcribed phonetically on paper against each respondent. To ascertain correct pronunciation, the researcher listened to a British model pronunciation of all the lists online using the Phonetizer, a software designed for transcribing and listening to British and American pronunciation of words. The Phonetizer served as the control in grading how respondents produce the variables at the segmental level in their speech. Although other errors may be noticed in respondent's transcribed speech, only the three linguistic

variables under study is of primary interest to the researcher. The researcher carefully noted the distribution of the linguistic variables as it appears in words, sentences or phrases in the RP model and compared it with the frequency with which it is pronounced correctly by the respondents. The frequency is represented in simple percentages and in some cases; a bar chart or pie chart is used to represent the occurrence graphically. Furthermore, a mean is drawn from the three tests which represented respondents' total test score in order to ascertain if they generally passed or failed the test. Each table is explained in details and recurrent patterns are examined further in order to draw conclusions.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is the presentation, interpretation and analysis of the findings from the data collected in this study and it is divided into three sections – one, two and three. In Section one (1), a summary of distributions shall be given. This shall include the distribution of respondents' sociolinguistic variables, as well as the distribution of the linguistic variables in the word list, phrase list and sentence list. In the next section, respondents' tests scores shall be presented numerically using simple percentages and mean where necessary. The statistics will further be displayed using tables, bar charts and pie charts where necessary to give a clearer picture of the data being represented. The Section 3 of this chapter is a presentation of the correlation of the test scores to the sociolinguistic variables under study.

4.1 Summary of respondent's demographic report

This study was targeted for 21 potential participants that work as flight announcers in Lagos Airport. However, only 10 participants were willing to be interviewed within the defined time frame; thus the same number filled out the questionnaire. The summary of their demographic profile is given in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Summary of Respondents' Demographics

	Age (yrs)	**Ethnic group**	**Educational qualification**	**Experience (on the job)**	**No of Speech training given**	**Level of exposure with *NS**
*A1	20 -30	Igbo	M.A. English	1 - 5yrs	None	None
A2	31- 50	Esan	B.A. English	6 - 10yrs	3 – 4 times	None
A3	31-50	Igbo	B.Sc. Business Admin.	6 – 10yrs	5 or more	3 – 6yrs (schooling)
A4	31 -50	Yoruba	M.Sc. Political Science	6 – 10yrs	3 - 4	1 – 3yrs (leisure)
A5	20 -30	Gbagyi	B.Sc. Business Admin.	1 – 5yrs	1 - 2	None
A6	31–50	Ogoni	B.A. Linguistics	6 – 10yrs	5 or more	None
A7	20 -30	Urhobo	B.A. Sociology	1 – 5yrs	1 – 2	0 – 1yr (leisure)
A8	20–30	Yoruba	B.Sc. HIR (In view)	1 – 5yrs	3 – 4	None
A9	20 -30	Igala	B.Sc. Public Admin.	1 – 5yrs	1 – 2	None
A10	20- 30	Yoruba	B.Sc. Mass Comm.	0 – 1yr	None	None

***NS – N**ative **S**peaker

***A - A**nnouncer

As seen in Table 4.1 above, the researcher has labeled the ten (10) respondents as A1 – A10 for easy analysis. The table summarizes the information filled out by each respondent. All respondents are female, thus gender is not represented in the table.

A1 is Igbo, about 20 to 30years in age, a Master's degree holder of English language who has been working as an announcer for between one (1) to five (5) years but has never travelled out for any reason and has not been sent on any in-service training. A2 is between 31 and 50years old, from Esan and has a Bachelor's degree in English language. She has worked on the job for between 6 to 10years, has attended about 3 to 4 trainings in spoken English but has never travelled out of the country. A3 is Igbo, aged between 31 and 50years old. She has a Bachelor's degree in Business Administration, has worked as an announcer for between 6 to 10years; has had 5 or more trainings on the job and has schooled in a native speaker country for about 3 to 6years. A4 is 31 to 50years old; from Yoruba and has a Master's degree in Political Science. She has had 3 to 4 in-service trainings since she has worked for about 6 to 10years on the job. She has also had the opportunity to travel out for leisure for about 1 to 3years. A5 is from Gbagyi, and about 20 to 30years. She read Business Administration and bagged a first degree. She has been working as a flight announcer for about 1 to 5years and has attended 1 or 2 training sessions but has never travelled out of the country. A6 is from Ogoni, and is about 31 to 50years old. She has been on the job for about 6 to 10years and has had over 5 sessions of training. She has a Bachelor's degree in Linguistics and has never travelled out of the country. A7 is a 20 to 30year old Urhobo lady that has Bachelor's degree in Sociology. She has been working as an announcer for between 1 to 5years and has undergone 1 or 2 forms of training. She has also travelled out for a period that is less than a year for leisure. A8 is still a student of History and International Relations, working towards obtaining a Bachelor's degree. She is between 20 and 30years old and has surprisingly spent between 1 to 5years on the job as a flight announcer. She has undertaken about 3 to 4 trainings while at it and has never been exposed to native speakers. She is also Yoruba. A9 has a Bachelor's degree in Public Administration and is also between 20 to 30years of age; is from Igala; and has worked for about 1 -5years. She has been opportune to attend 1 or 2 trainings but has never travelled out. A10 is a Bachelor's degree holder in Mass Communication and is 20 to 30years old. She has only worked as a flight announcer for less than a year; she has never travelled out and has never been given any formal training concerning the job.

From the summary of each respondent's demographics, one can deduce that to work as a flight announcer in Nigeria, one needs to have at least a Bachelor's degree irrespective of the course of study. Ordinarily, one would think that such a sensitive job - in which the knowledge and practice of pronunciation is key – should be the exclusive preserve of graduates of Linguistics, Mass Communication and its other related fields. The case is however not the same, as the Table 4.1 has shown that there are persons who read courses like Business Administration, Sociology, Public Administration, Political Science and History and International Relations. Secondly, although it seems that a first degree is the entry point for flight announcers, one of the respondents is yet to obtain a Bachelor's degree. The researcher would have concluded that the respondent was a student on Industrial Training (IT) attachment if not that it is stated that the respondent has been working as a flight announcer for about 1 to 5years and has also been sent on about 3 – 4 in-service trainings. Another observation made by the researcher is that two respondents claim not to have attended any form of in-service training. They claim that they were only given an oral briefing. This makes the researcher wonder often such trainings are being done.

4.2 Analysis of Linguistic Variables in Respondents' reading tests

The researcher presented three reading tests - a Word List (WL), a Phrase List (PL) and a Sentence List (SL) - to the respondents to read which was recorded. The recording was played back and transcribed phonetically. The correct application of three linguistic variables /ə/, /ð/ and /Θ/ were sought for as they read aloud. The phonetic transcription was subjected to frequency counts of the variables. In order words, the researcher counted the number of occurrences of the three variables in each word, phrase and sentence. This was quantified and presented in percentages. Tables 4.2, Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 show the distribution of the three linguistic variables in each reading test.

Table 4.2.: ***Distribution of the Linguistic variables in the Word List***

	Word	**Transcription**	**No. of /ə/**	**No. of /ð/**	**No. of /Θ/**
WL1	Thermometer	*/Θə'mɔmɪtə/*	2	-	1
WL 2	Air Peace	*/eə piːs/*	1	-	-
WL 3	Therein	*/ðeəˈɪn/*	1	1	-
WL 4	Announcement	*/əˈnaʊnsmənt/*	2	-	-
WL 5	Arrival	*/əˈraɪvəl/*	2	-	-
WL 6	The	*/ðə/*	1	1	-
WL 7	Sympathy	*/'sɪmpəΘɪ/*	1	-	1
WL 8	Bathroom	*/'baːΘrʊm/*	-	-	1
WL 9	Counter	*/'kaʊntə/*	1	-	-
WL 10	Departure	*/dɪ'paːtʃə/*	1	-	-
WL 11	Emirates	*/emɪrəts/*	1	-	-
WL 12	Rather	*/'raːðə/*	1	1	-
WL 13	Northern	*/'nɔːðən/*	1	1	-
WL 14	Formalities	*/fɔː'mælətiz/*	1	-	-
WL 15	Further	*/'fɜːðə/*	1	1	-
WL 16	Thursday	*/'Θɜːzdɪ/*	-	-	1
WL 17	Thence	*/ðens/*	-	1	-
WL 18	Thyself	*/ðaɪ'self/*	-	1	-
WL 19	Maintenance	*/'meɪntənəns/*	2	-	-
WL 20	Operational	*/ɔpə'reɪʃənl/*	2	-	-
WL 21	Passengers	*/'pæsɪnʤərz/*	1	-	-
WL 22	Personal	*/'pɜːsənəl/*	2	-	-
WL 23	Thereabout	*/ðeərəbaʊt/*	2	1	-
WL 24	Proceed	*/prə'sːd/*	1	-	-
WL 25	Theft	*/Θeft/*	-	-	1
WL 26	South African	*/saʊΘ 'æfrɪkən/*	1	-	1
WL 27	Suspicious	*/səs'pɪʃəs/*	2	-	-
WL 28	Thank you	*/Θæŋk jʊ/*	-	-	1
WL 29	Thirty three	*/Θɜːtɪ Θrɪ/*	-	-	2
WL 30	Unattended	*/'ʌnə'tendɪd/*	1	-	-
	Total		**31**	**8**	**9**

Table 4.2 shows the distribution as well as the total number of linguistic variables /ə/, /ð/ and /Ɵ/ embedded in each word on the word list after phonetic transcription. The word list is made up of 30 orthographic words. After transcription was done, 31 representations of the mid central vowel /ə/ was found; while the voiced and voiceless dental fricatives /ð/ and /Ɵ/ had 8 and 9 representations respectively; accounting for a total of 48 representations of the linguistic variables in the word list.

Table 4.3: ***Distribution of the Linguistic variables in the Phrase List***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /Ɵ/**	**TOTAL**
PL 1	3	1	1	5
PL 2	4	-	1	5
PL 3	2	1	2	5
PL 4	3	-	1	4
TOTAL	**12**	**2**	**5**	**19**

The reading test comprised of only four (4) phrases in the list labeled PL 1 - 4. In Table 4.3 above, the distribution of the three linguistic variables in the Phrase List is represented. After the phrase list was transcribed, the researcher identified 12 /ə/ sounds, 2 /ð/ and 5 /Ɵ/ sounds in the four phrases given. This gives a total of 19 linguistic variables embedded in the phrase list. There are 3 schwas, 1 voiced dental fricative and 1 voiceless dental fricative in PL1 while PL2 has 4 schwas and 1 voiceless dental fricative. In PL3 it is discovered that there are two (2) /ə/, 1 /ð/ and two (2) /Ɵ/ and PL4 has a total of 4 sounds comprising of 3 schwas and 1 /Ɵ/.

Table 4.4: ***Distribution of the Linguistic variables in the Sentence List***

	No. of /ə/	**No. of /ð/**	**No. of /ɵ/**	**Total**
SL 1	5	1	-	6
SL 2	13	5	1	19
SL 3	11	2	3	16
SL 4	7	2	2	11
SL 5	14	4	1	19
SL 6	7	3	2	12
TOTAL	**57**	**17**	**9**	**83**

Six sentences were administered and read aloud and represented in Table 4.4. They were labeled SL 1 – SL6. In each of the sentences, the three linguistic variables were represented except in SL1 where /ɵ/ was not found in any of the words when transcribed. In SL1, there were 5 /ə/ and 1/ð/ sound, making a total of 6 sounds. In SL 2, we noticed that there are 13 schwa, 5 voiced dental fricative and 1 voiceless dental fricative; which all added up to 19 linguistic variables represented in that sentence. SL 3 had a total of 16 linguistic variables - 11 belonging to the mid central vowel; 2 being voiced dental fricative and 3 belonging to the voiceless dental fricative. In SL 4, it is observed that there are 7 /ə/, 2 /ð/ and 2 /ɵ/ sounds represented. SL5 has the largest number of the occurrence of the mid central vowel – 14 in all; it also has 4 dental fricatives (voiced) but only one (1) dental fricative (voiceless). The total representation of linguistic variables for SL6 is 12 - /ə/ is 7, /ð/ is 3 and /ɵ/ is 2. On the whole, there are 57 schwa sounds, 17 voiced dental fricatives and 9 voiceless dental fricatives in the six sentences under study.

4.3. Respondents' Performance scores in Word List

Respondent's performance in word list test is analyzed according to the three linguistic variables. This means that a table will be drawn up to address the pronunciation of each variable sought, since the word list is made up of individual words. A bar chart was also drawn up to give a better picture of the occurrence when placed side by side.

4.3.1 Respondents' Pronunciation of /ə/ in individual words

Table 4.5: ***Percentage representation of the correct use of /ə/ by respondents***

Respondents	**Total distribution of /ə/**	**Number of correct pronunciations**	**%**
A1	31	4	12.9
A2	31	20	64.5
A3	31	24	77.4
A4	31	10	32.3
A5	31	12	38.7
A6	31	19	61.3
A7	31	20	64.5
A8	31	7	22.6
A9	31	5	16.1
A10	31	3	9.7

In Table 4.2 above, we saw that the total number of schwa sounds in the entire word list is 31. Out of this number, Table 4.5 gives a representation of the number of correct pronunciations of /ə/ made by each respondent. The table shows that only four respondents could correctly pronounce 50% of the words listed. A3 had the highest score of 77.4%, A2 and A7 both had 64.5%, while A6 could pronounce 61.3%. More than half of the respondents encountered difficulty in the accurate pronunciation of the sound in the words. The lowest in the distribution is A10 who could pronounce only three (3) words correctly out of the 31words which were listed. Also A1, A8 and A9 had very poor representation of 12.9%, 22.6% and 16.1% respectively. Thus the percentage difference between the highest and lowest distribution is very wide. The researcher then wonders how the respondents communicate their message correctly to the listening public when they themselves have a poor command of the pronunciation of this vowel sound.

4.3.2 Respondents pronunciation of /ð/ in individual words

Table 4.6: ***Percentage representation of the correct use of /ð/ by respondents***

Respondents	**Total distribution of /ð/**	**Number of correct pronunciations**	**%**
A1	8	3	37.5
A2	8	4	50
A3	8	7	87.5
A4	8	0	0
A5	8	5	62.5
A6	8	4	50
A7	8	6	75
A8	8	5	62.5
A9	8	2	25
A10	8	0	0

In Table 4.6 above, the distribution of respondents who could pronounce the voiced dental fricative correctly are shown. In all, there are eight (8) items having this sound in the list and from the distribution, most respondents could pronounce more than 50% of the words. However, the distribution also shows extremely low results recorded against A4 and A10, who both scored 0%. This means that the two respondents found the sound extremely difficult to pronounce. Others with low scores are A1 and A9, with 37.5% and 25% respectively. The respondent with the highest score is A3, who was able to pronounce seven (7) out of the eight (8) words correctly and scoring 87.5%.

4.3.3 Respondents pronunciation of /ɵ/ in individual words

Table 4.7: ***Percentage representation of the correct use of /ɵ/ by respondents***

Respondents	**Total distribution of /ɵ/**	**Number of correct pronunciations**	**%**
A1	9	2	22.2
A2	9	3	33.3
A3	9	7	77.8
A4	9	1	11.1
A5	9	7	77.8
A6	9	6	66.7
A7	9	7	77.8
A8	9	2	22.2
A9	9	3	33.3
A10	9	2	22.2

Nine (9) distributions of the voiceless dental fricative /ɵ/ were represented in Table 4.7 above. It is observed that these are extreme distributions. In order words, respondents who could correctly produce the sound, had a high frequency of production and those who found it difficult had very low entries; there are no median entries. Thus, the highest distributions are 77.8% which is the same for three respondents – A3, A5 and A7. On the other hand, the lowest scores in the distribution are 11.1%, 22.2% and 33.3%.

4.4 Respondents Linguistic Performance of items in Wordlist at a glance

Having viewed the performances of each respondent in the three different sounds under study individually, the researcher deems it fit to give a pictorial view of the same occurrence as pertains to each individual at a glance. This is represented in Figure 1 below.

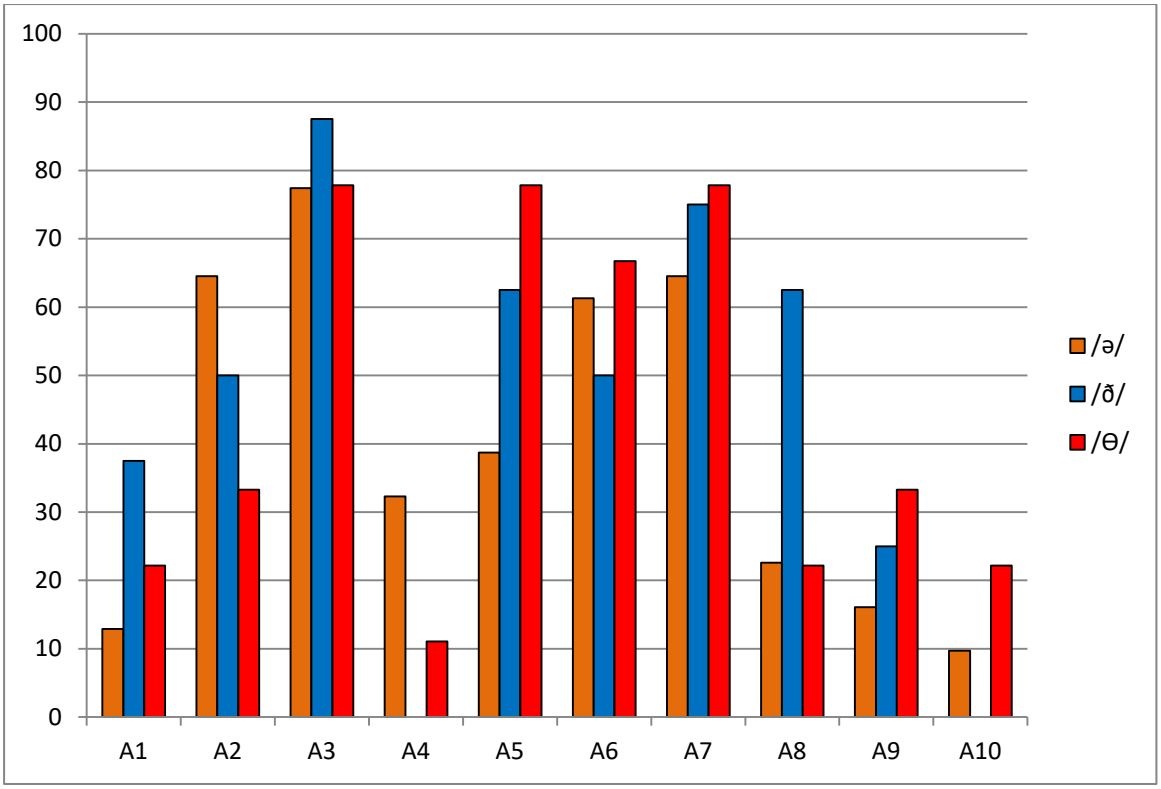

Figure 4.1: ***Bar chart showing respondents pronunciation of the three linguistic variables in the study***

Figure 4.1 shows the relationship amongst the linguistic variables as used by each respondent at a glance. From the figure, the variables in that each respondent had the least difficulty is as follows: A1 - /ð/; A2 - /ə/; A3 - /ð/; A4 - /ə/; A5 - /Ɵ/; A6 - /Ɵ/; A7 – /Ɵ/; A8 - /ð/; A9 - /Ɵ/ and A10 - /Ɵ/. In the same vein, the linguistic variable that the respondents found the most difficult to pronounce are as follows: A1 - /ə/; A2 - /ð/; A3 - /ə/; A4 - /ð/; A5 - /ə/; A6 - /ð/; A7 – /ə/; A8 - /Ɵ/; A9 - /ə/ and A10 - /ð/.

From the above statistics, the variable with the least difficulty is /Ɵ/ while the one with the most difficulty is /ə/. A4 and A10 have only two bars representing the three variables because one of the values is 0%.

4.5 Respondents' Performance scores in Phrase List

Unlike the word list that was analyzed according to each linguistic variable under study, the phrase list is analyzed according to the number of phrases. Since there are only four phrases in the reading list, four tables are drawn up to accommodate them. However, correct pronunciation of the three linguistic variables is noted and represented using percentages.

Table 4.8: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in PL1***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	1	0	0	1	20
A2	1	0	1	2	40
A3	3	1	1	5	100
A4	1	0	0	1	20
A5	1	0	0	1	20
A6	1	1	1	3	60
A7	2	1	0	3	60
A8	0	0	1	1	20
A9	1	0	0	1	20
A10	1	0	0	1	20

As seen in Table 4.3, PL 1 has only 5 linguistic variables – 3 schwas, and one dental fricative each for the voiced and voiceless sound. According to Table 4.8, six respondents had 20% each because they could only realize one sound out of the five represented. There exist median scores on the table as two respondents have three (3) sounds correctly pronounced, thus earning 60% each. The best score on the table is 100%. This means that this respondent is proficient in English language and found the phrases very easy to read.

Table 4.9: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in PL2***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	1	-	0	1	20
A2	2	-	0	2	50
A3	3	-	1	4	80
A4	1	-	0	1	20
A5	1	-	0	1	20
A6	2	-	0	2	40
A7	2	-	0	2	40
A8	1	-	0	1	20
A9	1	-	0	1	20
A10	1	-	0	1	20

The linguistic variable distribution under study still remains at five (5) in PL2. From observation in Table 4.9 above, 80% of the respondents pronounced the items wrongly and thus scored below acceptable average. Also, it is noticed that only one respondent was able to realize the /ɵ/ in the phrase correctly.

Table 4.10: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in PL3***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	0	0	0	0	0
A2	1	0	0	1	20
A3	3	1	1	5	100
A4	1	0	0	1	20
A5	0	0	2	2	40
A6	2	1	1	4	80
A7	2	1	1	4	80
A8	1	0	1	2	40
A9	0	1	0	1	20
A10	2	0	0	2	40

In Table 4.10 above, an improved attempt is made to pronounce the sounds correctly. This is evident as the number of those who mispronounced in PL2 dropped and the percentage of two other respondents came up to 80%, while some who scored 20% in previous PL, now have up to 40%. However, one respondent scored 0% in the exercise which is medially far from the highest score.

Table 4.11: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in PL4***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	0	-	0	0	0
A2	1	-	0	1	25
A3	3	-	1	4	100
A4	0	-	0	0	0
A5	1	-	1	2	50
A6	1	-	1	2	50
A7	1	-	1	2	50
A8	0	-	0	0	0
A9	0	-	0	0	0
A10	0	-	0	0	0

In Table 4.11 above, four (4) items were tested. Out of ten (10) respondents, four (4) passed – three (3) scoring 50% each and one (1) scoring 100%. The rest failed to pronounce the items correctly and five (5) of the respondents scored 0%, while one (1) scored 25%.

4.6 Respondents Performance scores in Sentence List

In this section, the researcher is concerned with the analysis of respondent's test performances in rapid speech. This is because the pronunciation of words and phrases can be carefully done and mistakes can be reduced but some words do change when they are found in the environment of other words. For instance, words like 'is' (/ɪz) and '*was'* (/wɒz/) change their strong forms to weak forms (/əz/) and (/wəz/), when they operate in rapid speech.

Table 4.12: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in SL1***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	2	0	-	2	33.3
A2	1	0	-	1	16.7
A3	4	1	-	5	83.3
A4	2	0	-	2	33.3
A5	4	0	-	4	66.7
A6	2	0	-	2	33.3
A7	3	0	-	3	33.3
A8	1	0	-	1	16.7
A9	0	0	-	0	0
A10	1	0	-	1	16.7

With reference to Table 4.4, the total number of variables in SL1 is 6. From Table 4.12 above, it is observable that the total number of variables correctly realized ranges from 0 to 5 – the lowest being 0% while the highest is 83.3%. The table shows that more respondents were unable to read the sentence correctly using the right pronunciation of the variables, especially in rapid speech. Thus only one respondent pronounced '*to'* correctly using its weak form. Every other person still applied the strong form of it, forgetting that they were engaging in rapid speech.

Table 4.13: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in SL2***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	1	0	0	1	5.3
A2	0	0	0	0	0
A3	4	2	1	7	36.8
A4	0	0	0	0	0
A5	2	2	1	5	26.3
A6	2	2	0	4	21.1
A7	3	2	0	5	26.3
A8	1	1	1	3	15.8
A9	0	1	0	1	5.3
A10	0	0	0	0	0

The total number of linguistic variables in SL2 is 19 according to Table 4.4 above. Observations made from Table 4.13 is that none of the respondents were able to get a pass mark for correctly pronouncing the variables in question as the scores are way below average – the highest being 36.8%. This could be the most difficult sentence in the list for respondents to read. However, being that the words that form the sentences are familiar word to them in their profession; such a rate of failure is unexpected.

Table 4.14: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in SL3***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	1	0	1	2	12.5
A2	3	0	1	4	25
A3	11	2	3	16	100
A4	2	0	0	2	12.5
A5	2	0	0	2	12.5
A6	2	0	1	3	18.8
A7	5	0	1	6	37.5
A8	1	0	2	3	18.8
A9	2	0	1	3	18.8
A10	2	0	0	2	12.5

There are 16 linguistic variables embedded in Table 414 above. Out of this number, only one respondent got all pronunciation correctly, scoring 100% while every other person failed and had averages that were less than 50%. The scores are as follows: four (4) respondents had 12.5%, three (3) had 18.8%, one (1) had 37.5% while the other had 25%.

Table 4.15: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in SL4***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	0	0	0	0	0
A2	0	0	0	0	0
A3	7	2	2	11	100
A4	0	0	0	0	0
A5	2	0	2	4	36.4
A6	1	0	1	2	18.2
A7	2	1	0	3	27.3
A8	0	1	0	1	9.1
A9	0	0	0	0	0
A10	2	0	0	2	18.2

Tables 4.15 shows that four (4) respondents had 0%, two (2) had 18.2% and the rest had 36.4%, 27.3% and 9.1%; which accounts for the scores of nine (9) out of ten (10) respondents. Only one respondent scored 100% showing a mastery of the sentence read.

Table 4.16: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in SL5***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	5	0	0	5	26.3
A2	5	0	0	5	26.3
A3	13	4	1	18	94.7
A4	3	0	0	3	15.8
A5	2	2	0	4	21.1
A6	5	0	0	5	26.3
A7	6	0	0	6	31.6
A8	4	0	0	4	21.1
A9	3	0	0	3	15.8
A10	4	0	0	4	21.1

In Table 4.16, shows the distribution of the percentage scores are as follows: three (3) respondents had 26.3%, three (3) more had 21.1%, two (2) has 15.8%, one (1) respondent had 31.6% while the highest score was 94.7%.

Table 4.17: ***Percentage representation of respondent's correct pronunciation of linguistic variables in SL6***

	No of /ə/	**No of /ð/**	**No of /ɵ/**	**Total no realized**	**%**
A1	1	0	0	1	8.3
A2	0	0	1	1	8.3
A3	6	3	1	10	83.3
A4	1	0	0	1	8.3
A5	1	2	1	4	33.3
A6	2	0	1	3	25
A7	2	0	2	4	33.3
A8	1	2	1	4	33.3
A9	0	0	0	0	0
A10	0	0	0	0	0

In Table 4.17, SL6 had a total of 12 linguistic variables under study. Three (3) respondents had 8.3% and 33.3% each, two (2) had 0% and one (1) had 25%; all representing the distribution of those who could not pronounce the variables correctly. One person had 83.3% being the only one who could realize the variables correctly.

4.7 Mean distribution of Respondents' Percentage scores

All the mean scores of respondents were collated under the headings in which they appear – Word List, Phrase List and Sentence List. A new percentage mean was sought in order to give the researcher a better picture of each respondent's performance at each level. Furthermore, the three new mean percentages were brought together and another new mean was derived to represent each respondent's knowledge of the correct pronunciation of the three linguistic variables under study.

Table 4.18: ***Mean distribution score in Word List***

	Total % of /ə/	**Total % of /ð/**	**Total % of /ɵ/**	**Total**	**New % Mean**
A1	12.9	37.5	22.2	72.6	24.2
A2	64.5	50	33.3	147.8	49.3
A3	77.4	87.5	77.8	242.7	80.9
A4	32.3	0	11.1	43.4	14.5
A5	38.7	62.5	77.8	179	59.7
A6	61.3	50	66.7	178	59.3
A7	64.5	75	77.8	217.3	72.4
A8	22.6	62.5	22.2	107.3	35.8
A9	16.1	25	33.3	74.4	24.8
A10	9.7	0	22.2	31.9	10.6

In Table 4.18, the researcher attempted to draw up the mean score of all the respondents' pronunciation test scores in producing the linguistic variables under study. The following was discovered: only two (2) respondents had a good grasp of the right pronunciations of most of the words presented, having a percentage of 80.9% and 72.4% each. Two (2) others have a fairly acceptable knowledge of pronunciations when words are used discretely; having 59.7% and 59.3%. The remaining six (6) respondent's scores showed a poor pronunciation skill since their scores were 49.3%, 35.8%, 24.8%, 24.2%, 14.5%, and 10.6%; which is below average.

Table 4.19: ***Mean distribution score in Phrase List***

	% score in PL1	**% score in PL2**	**% score in PL3**	**% score in PL4**	**New % Mean**
A1	20	20	0	0	10
A2	40	50	20	25	33.8
A3	100	80	100	100	95
A4	20	20	20	0	15
A5	20	20	40	50	32.5
A6	60	40	80	50	57.5
A7	60	40	80	50	57.5
A8	20	20	40	0	20
A9	20	20	20	0	15
A10	20	20	40	0	20

Table 4.19 shows the mean scores of the pronunciation performance as obtained in all the phrase lists read. A1 had the lowest mean of 10% and was followed closely by A9 with a mean score of 15%. Others who performed below the pass mark includes A8 and A10, both scoring 20% each; A2 scoring 33.8% and A5 scoring 32.5%. A3 showed a good grasp of pronunciation of the words in the phrase list by scoring 95%. Two (2) respondents A6, and A7 showed a fair understanding of the correct pronunciation of the words.

Table 4.20: ***Mean distribution score in Sentence List***

	% score in SL1	**% score in SL2**	**% score in SL3**	**% score in SL4**	**% score in SL5**	**% score in SL6**	**New % Mean**
A1	33.3	5.3	12.5	0	26.3	8.3	14.3
A2	16.7	0	25	0	26.3	8.3	12.7
A3	83.3	36.8	100	100	94.7	83.3	83.1
A4	33.3	0	12.5	0	15.8	8.3	11.7
A5	66.7	26.3	12.5	36.4	21.1	33.3	32.7
A6	33.3	21.1	18.8	18.2	26.3	25	23.8
A7	33.3	26.3	37.5	27.3	31.6	33.3	31.7
A8	16.7	15.8	18.8	9.1	21.1	33.3	19.1
A9	0	5.3	18.8	0	15.8	0	6.65
A10	16.7	0	12.5	18.2	21.1	0	11.4

The result stated in Table 4.20, showing the mean scores of respondents' performance in reading of sentences reflects a very poor command of English pronunciation by the respondents. The scores displayed are as follows: A1 scored 14.3%, A2 scored 12.7%, A3 scored 83.1%, A4 scored 11.7, A5 scored 32.7, A6 scored 23.8, A7 scored 31.7, A8 scored 19.1%, A9 scored 6.65% while A10 scored 11.4%. The highest mean score in the distribution is 83.1% while the lowest mean score is 6.65%.

Table 4.21: New Mean scores of all the three tests

	WL %	PL%	SL%	TOTAL	MEAN%
A1	24.2	10	14.3	48.5	16.2
A2	49.3	33.8	12.7	95.8	31.9
A3	80.9	95	83.1	259	86
A4	14.5	15	11.65	41.15	13.7
A5	59.7	32.5	32.7	124.9	41.6
A6	59.3	57.5	23.8	140.6	46.9
A7	72.4	57.5	31.55	161.5	53.8
A8	35.8	20	19.1	74.9	25
A9	24.8	15	6.65	46.5	15.5
A10	10.6	20	11.4	42	14

Table 4.21 shows the total performance score for each respondent. From the result above, it is discovered that if this were to be an interview score for all the respondents for the job of flight announcing, only two (2) respondents would have made the pass mark, scoring 86% and 53.8%. However, while A3 stands a great chance of being employed expressly, A7 would be considered but would need further training on pronunciation. From the distribution of the scores, one wonders how A1, A4, A9 and A10 communicate when announcing, scoring 16.2%, 13.7%, 15.5% and 14% respectively. Others like A2 scoring 31.9%, A5 scoring 41.6%, A6 scoring 46.9% and A8 scoring 25% are no better off too.

Pictorial view of respondent's performance

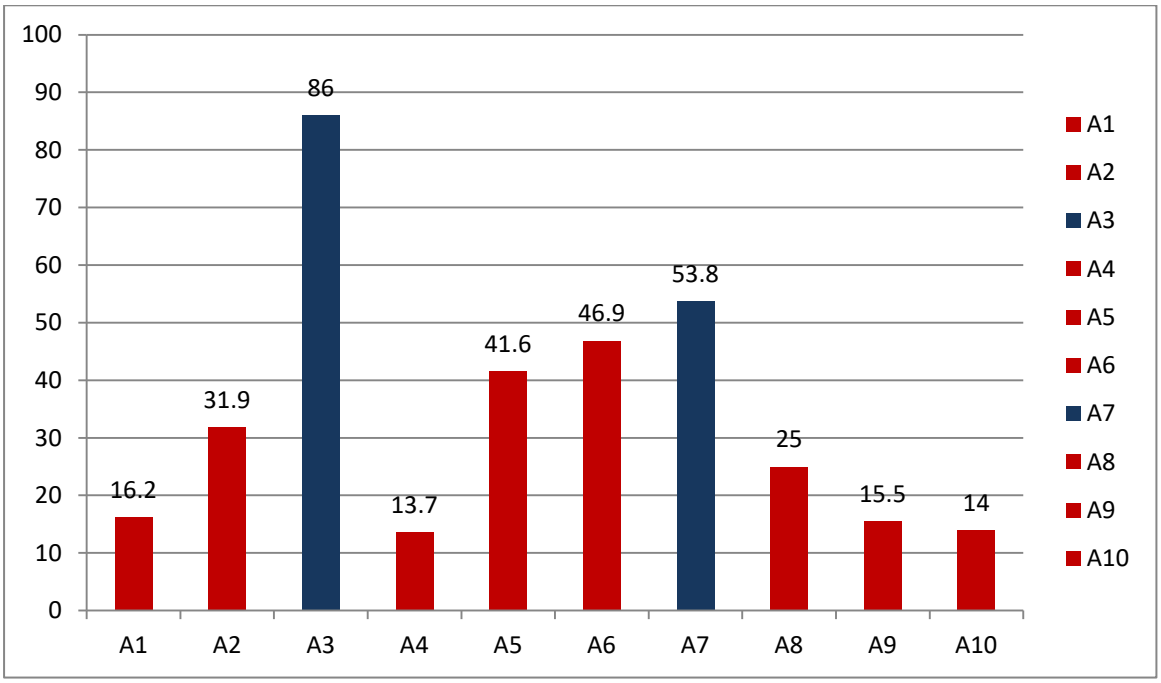

Figure 4.2: ***Bar chart showing respondents proficiency in pronunciation.***

The bar chart in Figure 4.2 above gives a pictorial view of respondents' proficiency in English pronunciation. Marked in blue, it shows that A3 is the most proficient in speech and is followed closely by A7. Others in red, have a speech proficiency that is below average and thus unacceptable in exclusive jobs like flight announcing.

4.8 Correlation between respondents' performance and sociolinguistic variables

Table 4.22: Correlation between respondent's performance and their sociolinguistic variables (age, ethnic origin, educational qualification, experience and exposure)

Respon-dents	Qualification	Age (years)	Experience (years)	Ethnic Origin	Exposure (years)	Perfor-mance (%)
A1	M.A. English	20-30	1-5	Igbo	None	16.2
A2	B.A. English	31-50	6-10	Esan	None	31.9
A3	B.Sc. B/Admin.	31-50	6-10	Igbo	3-6	86
A4	M.Sc. Pol. Sc.	31-50	6-10	Yoruba	1-3	13.7
A5	B.Sc. B/Admin	20-30	1-5	Gbagiyi	None	41.6
A6	B.A. Linguistics	31-50	6-10	Ogoni	None	46.9
A7	B.A. Sociology	20-30	1-5	Urhobo	0-1	53.8
A8	B.Sc. HIR	20-30	1-5	Yoruba	None	25
A9	B.Sc. Public Admin	20-30	1-5	Igala	None	15.5
A10	B.Sc. Mass Comm.	20-30	0-1	Yoruba	None	14

Table 4.22 above shows the details of respondents' performance in the pronunciation exercise in relation to sociolinguistic variables. The table shows that the highest performance (86%) in the test came from a first degree graduate of Business Administration and not a language or communication related discipline. The same is noticeable for the next highest performance with 53.8% who happens to be a sociologist. Ironically, the second lowest performance is from a graduate of Mass Communication, scoring 14%. Thus, educational qualification and discipline does not seem to count as there are Master's degree holders (even in English language) that performed very poorly; each scoring 16.2% and 13.7% respectively.

However, A3 has been working as an announcer for between 6 to 10years and so has A2, A4 and A6 – who all performed poorly. The only difference between them and A3 is that, she has schooled in a native speaker country for about 3 to 6years. It may however be a little hasty to draw up conclusions that exposure to native speakers is the cause of A3's superb performance because according to the Table 4.22, A4 has been travelling abroad for between 1 and 3years (though for leisure) but still performed poorly (scoring 13.7%, which was the lowest). A7 scored the second highest and claims to have travelled out for less than a year (for leisure) and still passed the test (scoring 53.8%).

The Tables 4.23 - 4.27 and Figures 4.3-4.9 presents a clearer picture about the relationship between the respondents' scores and sociolinguistic variables.

Table 4.23: Summary of the correlation between respondents' performance and qualification.

Qualification	**No. of respondents**	**Performance in %**	**Mean %**
B.A./B.Sc.	8	31.9, 86, 41.6, 46.9, 53.8, 25, 15.5, 14	39.3
M.A./M.Sc.	2	16.2,13.7	15

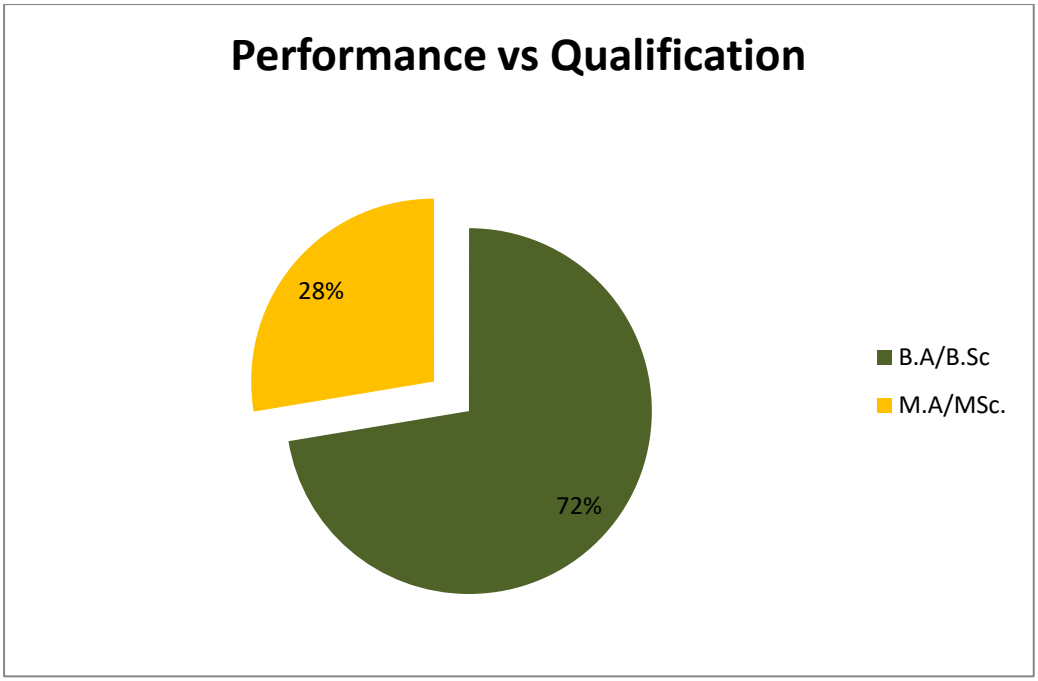

Figure 4.3: ***Pie chart showing the relationship between performance and qualification***

From Table 4.23 above, respondents who have B.A/B.Sc. had a mean performance of 39.3% while those with M.A/M.Sc. had 15%. It can thus be inferred that those with B.A/B.Sc. performed better than those with M.A/M.Sc., although each group had very low scores. It is however surprising that out of the two respondents with M.A/M.Sc., one studied English Language and thus was expected to be very proficient in pronunciation yet performed so poorly during the exercise. This reiterates Ubahakwe's (cited in Okoro, 2007) claim that Nigerians speak 'bookish' English. On the other hand, the respondents with the highest scores had only a Bachelor's degree – one in Business Administration and the other in Sociology. They performed far better than those who read communication and language related courses. Thus educational qualification in this case does not have a relationship with how announcers pronounce the three linguistic variables. This confirms Jubril's claim that 'the level of education is not commensurate with the level of proficiency in English (Jubril, 1982:123).

The Figure 4.3 is a pie chart showing the relationship between the two groups and those with Masters formed 28% of the pie chart, shaded red while those with a Bachelor's degree made 72%, shaded blue.

Table 4.24: Summary of the correlation between respondents' performance and age.

Age	No. of respondents	Performance in %	Mean %
20 – 30	6	16.2, 41.6, 53.8, 25, 15.5, 14	27.7
31 - 50	4	31.9, 86, 13.7, 46.9	44.6

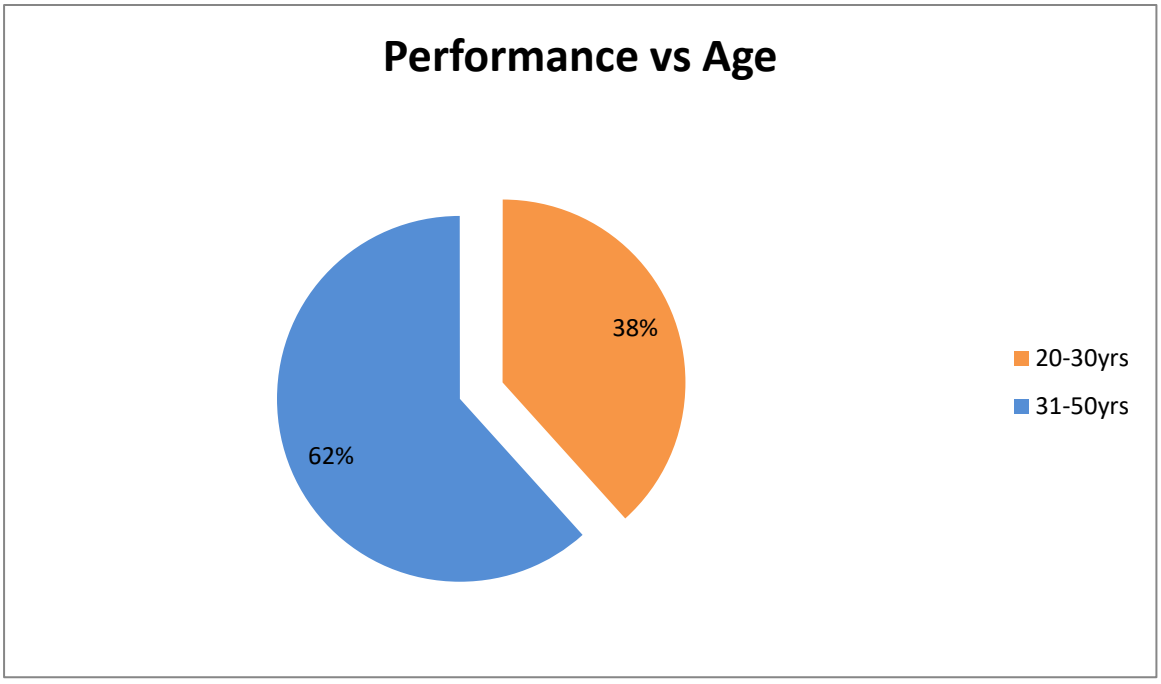

Figure 4.4: Pie chart showing the relationship between performance and age

The Figure 4.4 above shows a graphical representation of the correlation between the ages of respondents and their performance in the pronunciation test. It shows that those within the age bracket 20-30years had 38% of the performance while 31-50yrs had 62%. This is a summary of Table 24 in which the mean score of those within the age bracket 20-30years was 27.7% while those in 31-50years had a mean score of 44.6%. It is notable that the mean score of age 31-50 bracket would have been smaller if not for the performance of A3, who had a total of 86%. Taking a new mean score without the input of A3's performance, the figure reduced to 30.8% which is not much different from the performance of those within 20 – 30years.

Table 4.25: Summary of the correlation between Respondents' Performance and Experience.

Years of experience	No. of respondents	Performance in %	Mean %
0 – 1year	1	14	14
1 – 5years	5	16.2, 41.6, 53.8, 25, 15.5	30.4
6 – 10years	4	31.9, 86, 13.7, 46.9	44.6

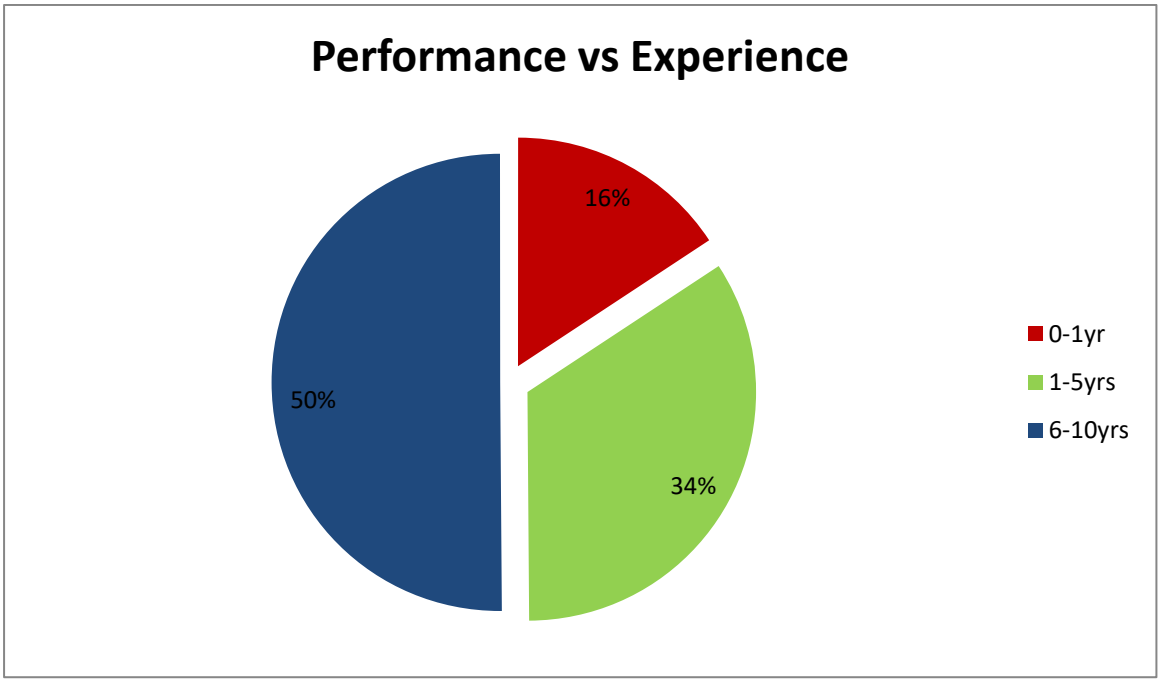

Figure 4.5: Pie chart showing the relationship between performance and experience

The Table 4.25 and Figure 4.5 display the correlation between the respondents' years of experience as flight announcers and their performance in pronunciation. From the table, it is observed that there is a steady rise in performance from 0-1year's experience (with a mean score of 14%) to 1-5years (with a mean score of 30.4%) and it continues to 6-19years (with a mean of 44.6%). The Figure 4.5 reiterates the point too, given that about 50% of the population belongs to those who have worked the longest as flight announcers

and 16% for the least experienced on the job. This shows that the more years a respondent spends on the job, the better improved their pronunciation is meant to be.

Table 4.26: Summary of the correlation between Respondents' Performance and Exposure.

Level of exposure	No. of respondents	Performance in %	Mean %
Unexposed to native speakers	7	16.2, 31.9, 41.6, 46.9, 25, 15.5, 14	27.3
Exposed to native speakers	3	86, 53.8, 13.7	51.2

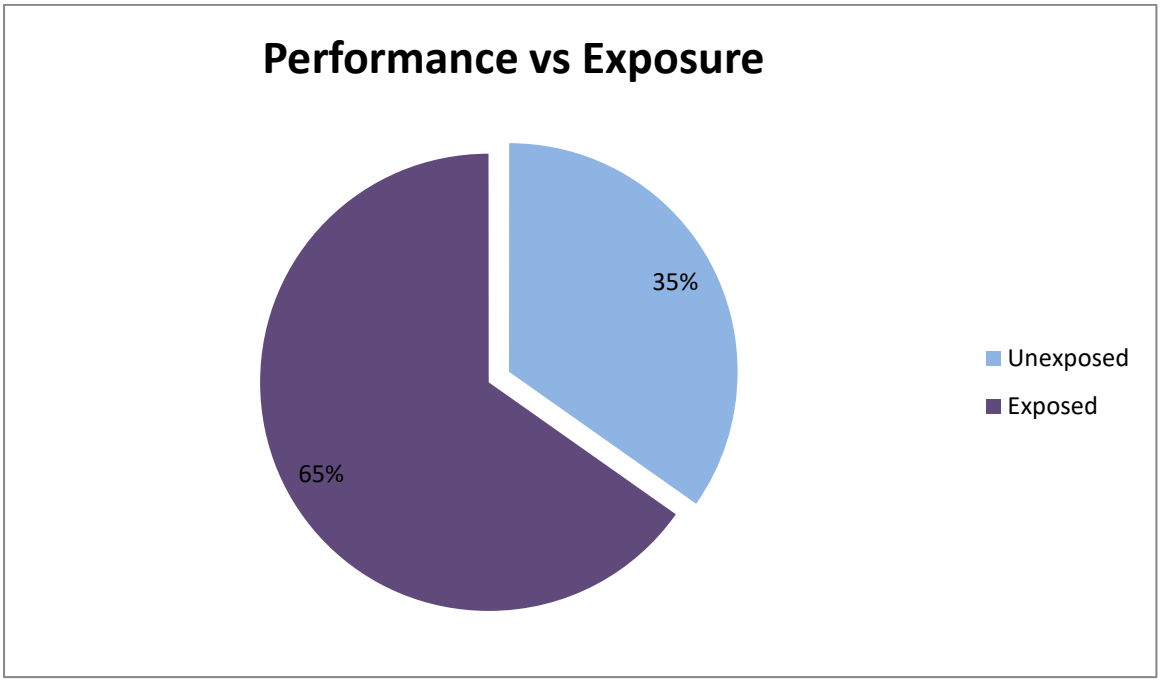

Figure 4.6: Pie chart showing the relationship between performance and exposure

Table 4.26 gives a summary account of the relationship between respondents' performance in the test and their level of exposure to native speakers. It shows that seven (7) out of all the respondents have never had the opportunity to travel to an English as a native language speaking country; not even for leisure, thus bringing the mean to 27.3%. Out of the three who claim to have travelled out, two (2) went for leisure while one (1)

spent about 3 to 6years there, schooling. The cumulative mean for those who have been exposed to native speakers is 51.2%.

In Figure 4.6 above, 35% represents the mean of those who have had no exposure while 65% represents those who have travelled out for one reason or the other. The score of the highest performance A3 (with 86%), shows that although having studied a non-language related discipline; mixing up and living amongst native speakers go a long way in improving one's pronunciation. This is because, A4 who has been in and out of native speakers' country for between 1-3years did not show any form of improvement or sign of having ever listened to native speakers talk with a mean score of 13.7%.

Table 4.27: Summary of the correlation between respondents' performance and exposure.

Geopolitical zone	**Ethnic origin**	**No. of respondents**	**Performance %**	**Mean %**
South –South	Urhobo	1	53.8	44.2
	Esan	1	31.9	
	Ogoni	1	46.9	
South- East	Igbo	2	16.2, 86	51.1
South -West	Yoruba	3	13.7, 25, 14	17.6
North-West	Kaduna	1	41.6	41.6
North-Central	Igala	1	15.5	15.5

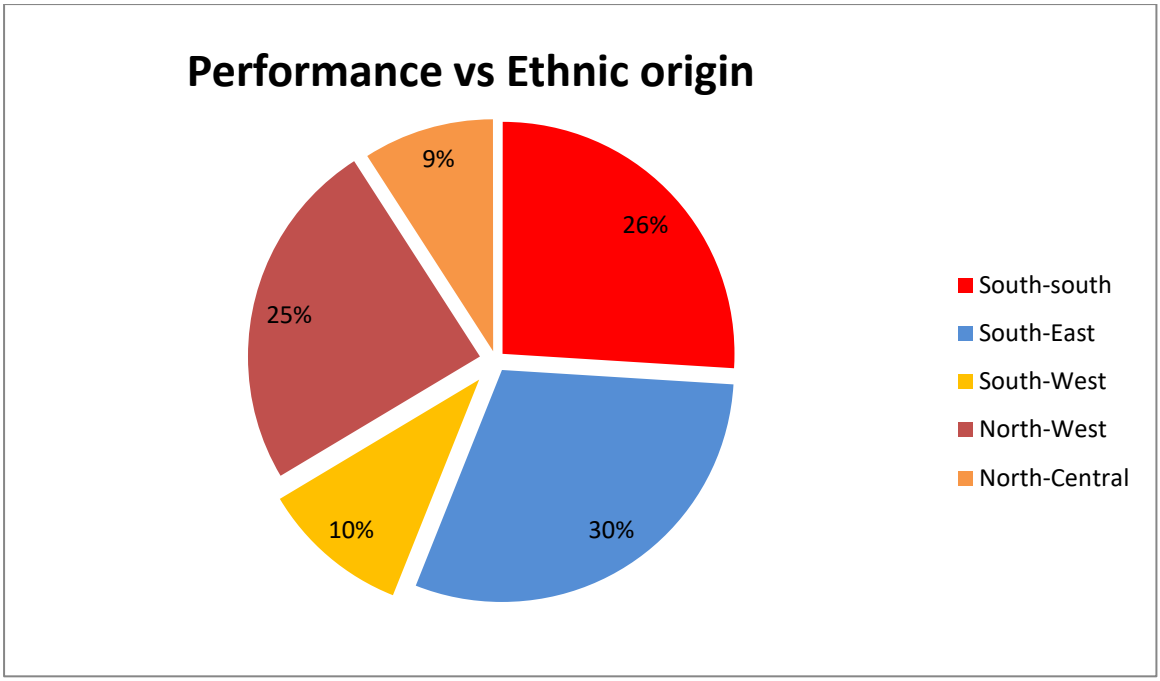

Figure 4.7: ***Pie chart showing the relationship between performance and exposure***

In Table 4.27, respondents from the South-south had a mean score of 44.2%; South-East scored 51.1%; South-west scored 17.6% while North-central and North-west scored 15.5% and 41.6% respectively. Those from South-east has the highest mean but the margin between their score and the next highest mean here, is not too significant because if highest performer's score (which is 86%) is removed from South-east, the mean would be very low. To a large extent, all the respondents - except the one who has been exposed to some native variety- speak a form of Nigerian English and not RP. This assertion is further proven by the outlook of the pie chart in Figure 4.7, where three geopolitical zones – South-east, South-south and North-west - are closely following one another.

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This study examined the language of flight announcers in Murtala Muhammed Airport along three linguistic variables - /ə/, /ð/ and /Ɵ/ - with a view of analysing it in order to establish a correlation between their performance and the sociolinguistic variables of qualification, age, experience, exposure and ethnic origin. Thus, this chapter attempts to make a general summary of this study, state findings and draw conclusions, as well as make recommendations for further study.

5.1 General Summary

The duty of flight announcers in informing the travelling public about departure and arrival of flights places them in a pivotal position in the chain of communication in the airport. However owing the miscommunication in language between what is announced and what is heard by travellers, the researcher set out to examine the language of the flight announcers at the Murtala Muhammed Airport, Lagos. The main objective of the study was to determine flight announcers' realization of three linguistic variables /ə/, /ð/ and /Ɵ/ in their speech using Labov's theory of Linguistic Variation as the theoretical framework. The theory claims that differences in social characteristics makes people use language differently. Thus sociolinguistic variables such as age, qualification, experience, ethnic origin and exposure were applied as intervening variables. Focus was however limited to the segmental features of their language. Purposive sampling technique was applied and ten (10) respondents were selected from the population to carry out reading exercises (made up of words they used regularly during announcements) which contained the linguistic variables under study. The respondents were mostly graduates aged between 20 to 50years who had worked as flight announcers for about less than a year to 10years and which represented five (5) out of the six (6) geopolitical zones in Nigeria. Descriptive statistics was further employed using simple percentage, pie and

bar charts to analyze and show the relationship between respondents' performance in the reading tests and their sociolinguistic variables.

5.2 Findings

The first objective of this study was t*o investigate the pronunciation patterns of /ə/, /ð/ and /Ɵ/ in the language of flight announcers bearing in mind specific sociolinguistic variables.*

An attempt was made to analyze the correlation between performance and sociolinguistic factors – age, educational qualification, years of experience, exposure to native speakers and ethnic origin. Pie charts were also drawn to explore the correlation. In Figure 4.3, educational qualification in no way affected respondent's performance because those with B.A./B.Sc. (having 72%) seemed to perform better than those with M.A./M.Sc. (with a score of 28%). It was also revealed that the best performers did not study English language or its related course as their first course of study. It may then be concluded that there may be other factors that need to be considered in addition to one's educational qualification to result in pronunciation success.

Looking at age as a sociolinguistic factor, it may be concluded that with age comes better pronunciation. This is because respondents between age brackets 20 to 30years scored an average of 38%, while those between 31 to 50years scored 62%; thus performing better. However, this performance may also be attributed to the number of years of experience on the job, since the respondents that had the most percentage have each spent between 6 to 10years working as flight announcers. Therefore age has a relationship with performance in pronunciation.

At the level of experience, it was discovered that years of experience on the job had a relationship with the way respondents' pronounced. This is because those who had the longest years of working experience (6 to 10years) did better than those who had worked for 1 to 5years; and they in turn did better than the respondent who had worked for less than a year.

Concerning being exposed to native speakers, an interesting discovery was made in Figure 4.6. Those who had never had any form of exposure to native speakers of English language formed a larger part of the population but constituted only 35% of the chart while three (3) respondents who had been exposed in one way or the other, occupied 65% of it. Respondents who studied English language and Mass Communication were among those who had not been exposed to native speakers and it is surprising too that they did not so well. This is because; it is assumed that such persons studied courses relating to pronunciation while in school. Thus exposure to native speaker model counts.

On the other hand, the difference between the mean scores of the respondents within the geopolitical locations was small; except in the region where the respondent with the highest score comes from. Thus ethnic origin had no relationship with respondents' performance in pronunciation.

The next objective was *to identify recurrent phonological patterns in the language of flight announcers*. In the course of the study, the researcher observed that deletion of weak forms was the recurrent phonological pattern applied by almost all respondents. Words like *is* (/ɪz/), *to* (/tu:/), *the* (/ðɪ:) and *a* (/eɪ/) still retained their strong forms even when found in environments where they should have been changed to weak forms. This agrees with Akinjobi (cited in Oladimeji, 2014: 239) that Educated Nigerians are very weak when it had to do with central vowel articulation. Some respondents also realized statements and discrete words as indirect questions. Therefore, in areas where the respondents tone was meant to fall, a rise was heard. This indicates doubt and a call for affirmation as to whether what was being pronounced was right or wrong.

Furthermore, it was required of the researcher to *highlight specific phonological problems in the announcers' general use of language.* The realization of the three linguistic variables under study proved that mother tongue interference is and still remains the greatest challenge in the way flight announcers as second language users pronounce most sounds that they find difficult. Therefore approximation of phoneme is noticed in their pronunciation such that they use what is already known, especially phonemes of their mother tongue. Words that had /Ɵ/ like ***th****ermometer, sympa****th****y, ba****th****room, **Th**ursday, **Th**eft, **th**ank you and **th**irty-**th**ree* were realized, replacing /Ɵ/ for /t/ in most cases. Affected by the same trend are also words containing the sound /ð/ which was replaced

using /d/. The worst hit variable in the exercise was the schwa /ə/. The respondents had more than one variant approximation to replace this sound, depending on the environment in which it is found. Schwa was /a:/ in sympathy; /e/ and /ɪ/ in formalities, /a/ in maintenance, /ɪ/ in personal and /ɒ/ in suspicious.

Deletion and insertion of vowels and consonants was also noticeable as a problem in the study. Syncope occurred when /ə/ was deleted in *personal* (pɒ:snl) and *operational* (/ɒpəraʃnal/, making the words appear as clusters. Apocope occurred when two respondents pronounced *theft* and *discovered* without their final consonant sounds in rapid speech. In the same vein, anaptyxis could be seen in *operational*, as a respondent realized it as /ɒpureitʃnal/, thereby inserting 'u' where there is none. This simply means that the respondent found the clustering of *'pr'* difficult to realize. Another respondent, inserted consonant /l/ into *further*, pronouncing it as /fɒlda/. The researcher also discovered that /Ɵ/ in *bathroom* was realized as /s/, making it appear as /ba:srʊm/. This case could be seen as a dialectically influenced personal speech handicap. In an isolated case however, a respondent continually pronounced *space* in two out of three places where the word *peace* was used.

5.3 Implications

The outcome of the general performance of the respondents who took the test implies that, most of the flight announcers use a variety of Nigerian English when making announcements. Going by Awonusi's (1987) submission and comparing it to the performances of the announcers, most of the English spoken is basilectal and mesolectal as only one respondent proved to speak an acrolectal version of the language. This is attributed to the fact that the linguistic variables were realized using variants in Nigerian English as harmonized by Josiah and Babatunde (2011). Thus, the variety may appear to be less intelligible to most non-Nigerians; especially those who are only visiting or passing through. However, not only foreigners will be affected but Nigerians too, especially since most of the announcers make use of a non-Nigerian accent, yet apply it to the Nigerian variants of the RP equivalent. It is therefore, not surprising that travellers encounter challenges in understanding what is being announced in the airport most of the time and this trend may continue if not checked.

5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, having applied Labov's (1966) theory of linguistic variation, individual sociolinguistic characteristics have been identified to correlate with flight announcers' correct pronunciation of English words. These sociolinguistic variables include exposure to native speakers as well as age and years of working experience in flight announcing. Thus educational qualification had no effect in pronunciation.

Also revealed is the fact that a person's pronunciation can be attributed to variational, mother tongue interference, environmental, as well as physiological conditions. This therefore means that, if the same level of training and exposure to native speakers is being given, there is a tendency that respondents would have performed better.

5.5 Recommendations

This researcher therefore recommends that:

1. In order to drastically reduce the occurences of missing flights in Nigeria and elsewhere in the world, the ICAO should spread the tentacles of its decree to include flight announcers since they also work in the airport;
2. owing to the limited scope of this study in exploring the segmentals of flight announcers' language, further study should be carried out in examining other phonemes as well as the prosodic features in flight announcers' language. Such studies could also be analyzed using laboratory or experimental testing;
3. a study with the aim of examining flight announcers' accent should be carried out;
4. since a phonological analysis was carried out on flight announcers language, a pragmatic, morphological or semantic analysis could also be done;
5. government bodies in charge of recruiting and in-service trainings should expose the flight announcers to the tutelage of native speakers from time to time;
6. flight announcers should also make personal effort in improving their pronunciation by listening to recorded voices of first language users or radio broadcasts on BBC, CNN, Sky News etc.;
7. the study should be repeated in other airports in Nigeria in order to ascertain if the results are nationwide or peculiar to only one airport.

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APPENDIX I: Questionnaire

An Analysis of the language of flight announcers in Lagos airports

This research project is being conducted as a part of a Master of Arts program in the Faculty of Languages at the Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State. The purpose of the research is to explore the language of flight announcers with a view to analyzing them.

Please fill it out as accurately as possible since answers given shall not be used to indict any anyonet but shall be used for analysis only. To this end, your completed questionnaires will be treated with absolute confidentiality and you will not be identified. I'm grateful for your support.

Bereton-aye Esther Ugboko

PART A - BIODATA

1. Name:_____
   *(Please fill in **any** name you like. It is only necessary for easy analysis.*

2. Sex: *Male:* ☐ *Female*: ☐

3. Age: *20 – 30yrs* ☐ *31 – 50yrs* ☐ *50yrs and above* ☐

4. Nationality:_____

5. State of Origin: _____

6. Ethnic group: _____ Region: _____

7. Mother tongue: _____

8. No. of languages spoken:_____

   b.) Please also specify the types:_____

PART B – LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE

9. Educational Qualification: _____

10. Please check your highest educational level. ☐ Secondary School
☐ BSc./B.A./B.Ed. ☐ MSc. /M.A
MPhil/PhD ☐ Others ☐

b.) What was your last course of study? _____

c.) Were you originally trained to be? _____

11. Were you given any form of training in English pronunciation because of your job description? ☐ Yes ☐ No\

b.) If yes, state the type of training given: _____

12. How many in-service trainings on flight announcing have you attended?
☐ 1 – 2 3 - 4 ☐ 5 or more ☐ none ☐

13. Have you been to the UK, USA or any other country where English is native language? Yes ☐ No ☐

b.) How long did you spend there? ☐ Less than 1yr ☐ 1yr to 3yrs
☐ 3 to 6yrs ☐ more than 6yrs

c.) Why did you travel there? ☐ schooling ☐ leisure
☐ business ☐ training ☐ Others

14. How long have you been working as a flight announcer? ☐ Less than 1yr
☐ 1yr to 5yrs ☐ 6 to 10yrs ☐ more than 10yrs

15. I'm a flight announcer : ☐ By choice ☐ owing to circumstance
☐ Because I was trained to be one ☐ it has been my dream job

APPENDIX II: Test Materials

Test 1 – Word list

1. Thermometer
2. Air Peace
3. Therein
4. Announcement
5. Arrival
6. The
7. Sympathy
8. Bathroom
9. Counter
10. Departure
11. Emirates
12. Rather
13. Northern
14. Formalities
15. Further
16. Thursday
17. Thence
18. Thyself
19. Maintenance
20. Operational
21. Passengers
22. Personal
23. Thereabout
24. Proceed
25. Theft
26. South African
27. Suspicious
28. Thank you
29. Thirty-three
30. Unattended

PHRASE LIST (PL)

1. The South African Airways
2. Arrival of Air Peace on Thursday
3. Thirty-three Northern departures
4. Theft of personal effects left unattended

SENTENCE LIST (SL)

1. Passengers proceed to the Emirates counter.
2. Upon arrival, the northern bound passengers went to the bathroom further down the maintenance hall.
3. The announcement made at counter thirty-three for departure on board South African Airline was further delayed due to operational issues.
4. We witnessed on Thursday or thereabout, the theft of a passenger's luggage.
5. Rather than fly Air Peace thyself, the operational manager out of sympathy, can ask Emirates to proceed in a suspicious manner.
6. It was discovered thence that the thermometer was left unattended. Thank you.

APPENDIX III : Transcribed Speech Samples

Received Pronunciation (RP)

a. Word List

1.	*/Θə'mɔmɪtə/*	11.	/emɪrəts/	21.	/'pæsɪnʤərz/'
2.	/eə pi:s/	12.	/'ra:ðə/	22.	/pɜ:sənəl/
3.	/ðeər'ɪn/	13.	/nɔ:ðən/	23.	/ðeərəbaʊt/
4.	/ə'naʊnsmənt/	14.	/fɔ:'mælətiz/	24.	/prə's:d/
5.	/ə'raɪvəl/	15.	/'fɜ:ðə/	25.	/Θeft/
6.	/ðə/	16.	/'Θɜ:zdɪ/	26.	/saʊΘ 'æfrɪkən/
7.	/sɪmpəΘɪ/	17.	/ðens/	27.	/səs'pɪʃəs/
8.	/'ba:Θrʊm/	18.	/ðaɪ'self/'	28.	/Θæŋk jʊ/
9.	/'kaʊntə/	19.	/meɪntənəns/	29.	/Θɜ:tɪ Θrɪ/
10.	/dɪ'pa:tʃə/	20.	/ɔpə'reɪʃənl/	30.	/'ʌnə'tendɪd/

b. Phrase List

1. /ðə saʊΘ æfrɪkən eəweɪz/
2. /əraɪvəl əv eə pi:s ɒn Θɜ:zdɪ/
3. /Θɜ:tɪ Θri nɒ:ðən dɪpa:tʃəz/
4. /Θeft əv pɜ:snəl ɪfekts left ʌnətendɪd/

c. Sentence List

1. /pæsɪnʤəz prəsi:d tə ði: emɪrəts kaʊntə/
2. /əpɒn əraɪvəl ðə nɒ:ðən baʊnd pæsɪnʤəz went tə ðə ba:Θrʊm fɜ:ðə daʊn ðə məɪntənəns hɒ:l/
3. /ði: ənaʊnsmənt meɪd ət kaʊntə Θɜ:tɪ Θri: fə dɪpa:tʃə ɒn bɒ:d saʊΘ æfrɪkən eəlaɪn wez fɜ:ðə dɪleɪd dju: tʊ ɒpəreɪʃənl ɪʃu:z/
4. /wɪ wɪtnɪst ɒn Θɜ:zdɪ ə ðeərəbaʊt ðə Θeft əv ə pæsɪnʤəz lʌgɪʤ/
5. /ra:ðə ðæn flaɪ eə pi:s ðaɪself ði: ɒpəreɪʃənl mænɪʤə aʊt əv sɪmpəΘɪ kæn a:sk emɪrəts tə prəsi:d ɪn ə səspɪʃəs mænə/
6. /ɪt wəz dɪskʌvəd ðens ðæt ðə Θəmɒmɪtə wɒz left ʌnətendɪd/Θæŋk jʊ/

Respondents' speech samples for Word list

A1

1.	/təmɒmɪta/	11.	/emɪrates/	21.	/pasendʒas/
2.	/eəpi:s/	12.	/ra:ða:/	22.	/pasonal/
3.	/ðɜ:rɪn/	13.	/nɒ:ta:n/	23.	/di:rabaʊt/
4.	/anaʊsment/	14.	/fɒ:maletɪs/	24.	/prəsi:d/
5.	/araɪval/	15.	/fɒ:rda/	25.	/teft/
6.	/ðe/	16.	/tɒ:sde/	26.	/sauΘ afrɪkan/
7.	/sɪmpa:ti:/	17.	/den/	27.	/sɒspɪʃɒs/
8.	/ba:srʊm/	18.	/daɪself/	28.	/Θæŋk ju/
9.	/kaʊnta/	19.	/meɪntənans/	29.	/tɜ:tɪ trɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃɒ/	20.	/ɒpraʃonal/	30.	/ɒnatended/

A2

1.	/Θəmɒmɪta/	11.	/emɪrəts/	21.	/pæsɪndʒəz/
2.	/eəpi:s/	12.	/ra:ðə/	22.	/pɜ:snl/
3.	/ðerɪn/	13.	/nɒ:ðən/	23.	/deərəbaʊt/
4.	/anaunsmənt/	14.	/fɒmæletɪz/	24.	/prəsi:d/
5.	/əraɪvəl/	15.	/fʌðə/	25.	/teft/
6.	/de/	16.	/tɜ:zde/	26.	/saʊt æfrɪkan/
7.	/sɪmpəΘɪ/	17.	/----/	27.	/sɒspɪʃəs/
8.	/batrʊm/	18.	/daɪself/	28.	/Θæŋk jʊ/
9.	/kaʊntə/	19.	/meɪntənans/	29.	/tɜ:tɪ tri:/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃə/	20.	/ɒpəraʃnal/	30.	/ʌnətendɪd/

A3

1.	/Θəmɒmɪtə/	11.	/emɪrəts/	21.	/pæsɪndʒez/
2.	/eəpi:s/	12.	/ra:ðə/	22.	/pɜ:snl/
3.	/ðeərɪn/	13.	/nɒ:ðən/	23.	/ðeərəbaʊt/
4.	/ənaʊnsmənt/	14.	/fɒ:mæletɪz/	24.	/prəsi:d/
5.	/əraɪvəl/	15.	/fʌrda/	25.	/Θeft/
6.	/ði:/	16.	/Θɜ:zdɪ/	26.	/saʊΘæfrɪkən/
7.	/sɪmpətɪ/	17.	/ðens/	27.	/sɒspɪʃəs/
8.	/beɪΘrʊm/	18.	/ðaɪself/	28.	/Θæŋk ju/
9.	/kaʊntə/	19.	/meɪntənəns/	29.	/Θɜ:tɪ Θrɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃə/	20.	/ɒpəreɪʃənl/	30.	/ʌnətended/

A4

1.	/təmɒmɪta/	11.	/emɛrəts/	21.	/pæsendʒaz/
2.	/eəpɪs/	12.	/ra:da/	22.	/pɜ:sɪnal/
3.	/dearɪn/	13.	/nɒ:tan/	23.	/deərabaʊt/
4.	/anaʊnsmənt/	14.	/fɒ:mæletɪs/	24.	/prəusi:d/
5.	/araɪval	15.	/fɒ:də/	25.	/tef/
6.	/da:/	16.	/tɒ:sdɪ/	26.	/saʊθ æfrɪkan/
7.	/sɪmpətɪ/	17.	/tens/	27.	/sɒspɪsɒs/
8.	/ba:trʊm/	18.	/daɪself/	28.	/tenk ju/
9.	/kaʊntə/	19.	/mentanance/	29.	/tɜ:tɪ trɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃɒ/	20.	/ɒpreɪʃənl/	30.	/ɒnatended/

A5

1.	/θəmɒmɪta/	11.	/emɪrətes/	21.	/pæsendʒaz/
2.	/eəpi:s/	12.	/ra:ða/	22.	/pɒ:snl/
3.	/ðearɪn/	13.	/nɒ:θən/	23.	/ðeərabaʊt/
4.	/anaʊnsment/	14.	fɒ:mæletɪs/	24.	/prɒ:si:d/
5.	/araɪvəl/	15.	/fɒ:də/	25.	/θeft/
6.	/ða:/	16.	/θɒ:zdɪ/	26.	/saʊt æfrɪkan/
7.	/sɪmpətɪ/	17.	/tens/	27.	/sɒspɪʃɒs/
8.	/ba:θrʊm/	18.	/ðaɪself/	28.	/θæŋk ju/
9.	/kaʊntə/	19.	/meɪntənans/	29.	/θɜ:tɪ θrɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃɒ/	20.	/ɒpəreɪʃənl/	30.	/ɒnatended/

A6

1.	/tsəmɒmɪtə/	11.	/emɪrəts/	21.	/pæsɪndʒez/
2.	/eəpɪs/	12.	/ra:ðə/	22.	/pɜ:snal/
3.	/derɪn/	13.	/nɒ:ðən/	23.	/ðerəbaʊt/
4.	/ənaʊnsmənt/	14.	/fɒ:mæletɪz/	24.	/prəsi:d/
5.	/əraɪvəl/	15.	/fɒ:də/	25.	/θeft/
6.	/ða/	16.	/θɒ:zde/	26.	/sauθ æfrɪkən/
7.	/sɪmpa:tɪ/	17.	/dens/	27.	/sɒspɪʃəs/
8.	/batrʊm/	18.	/daɪself/	28.	/θæŋk ju/
9.	/kaʊntə/	19.	/meɪntənans/	29.	/θɜ:tɪ θrɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃə/	20.	/ɒpreɪʃnal/	30.	/ʌnətended/

A7

1.	/Θəmɒmɪtə/	11.	/emɪrəts/	21.	/pæsendʒaz/
2.	/eəpi:s?/	12.	/ra:ðə/	22.	/pɜ:snl/
3.	/derɪn?/	13.	/nɒ:ðən?/	23.	/ðeərəbaʊt?/
4.	/ənaʊnsmənt/	14.	/fɒ:mæletɪz?/	24.	/prəsɪd?/
5.	/araɪval/	15.	/fɜ:ðə?/	25.	/Θeft/
6.	/di:/	16.	/tɒ:sde?/	26.	/sauΘ afrɪkan/
7.	/sɪmpəΘɪ/	17.	/ðens/	27.	/səspɪʃəs/
8.	/ba:Θrʊm/	18.	/ðaɪself?/	28.	/Θæŋk ju/
9.	/kaʊntə/	19.	/meɪntənans/	29.	/Θɜ:tɪ trɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃə/	20.	/ɒpɪreɪʃənl/	30.	/ʌnətended/

A8

1.	/Θɜ:mɒmɪta/	11.	/emɪrəts/	21.	/pæsendʒas/
2.	/eəpi:s/	12.	/raða/	22.	/pɜ:sɪnal/
3.	/ðerɪn/	13.	/nɒ:ðɪn/	23.	/ðerabaʊt/
4.	/anaʊsmənt/	14.	/fɒ:mæletɪs/	24.	/prəusi:d/
5.	/araɪval/	15.	/fɒlda:/	25.	/teft/
6.	/de/	16.	/tɜ:zde/	26.	/sauΘ afrɪkan/
7.	/sɪmpa:tɪ/	17.	/ðents/	27.	/sɒspɪʃɒs/
8.	/batrʊm/	18.	/daɪself/	28.	/tæŋk ju/
9.	/kaʊnta/	19.	/meɪntənans/	29.	/tɜ:tɪ trɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃə/	20.	/ɒpreɪʃənl/	30.	/ɒnatənded/

A9

1.	/tɜ:mɒmɪta/	11.	/emɪrəts/	21.	/pæsendʒas/
2.	/eəspeɪs/	12.	/rada: /	22.	/pɜ:sɪnal/
3.	/ðerɪn/	13.	/nɒ:ðən/	23.	/derabaʊt/
4.	/anaʊnsmənt/	14.	/fɒ:mæletɪz/	24.	/prɒsi:d/
5.	/araɪval/	15.	/fɒ:da/	25.	/teft/
6.	/dɪ/	16.	/Θɒ:zde/	26.	/saʊΘ æfrɪkan/
7.	/sɪmpa:tɪ/	17.	/tens/	27.	/sɒspɪʃɒs/
8.	/baΘrʊm/	18.	/dai---/	28.	/teŋk ju/
9.	/kaʊnta/	19.	/menteɪnans/	29.	/tɜ:tɪ trɪ/
10.	/dɪpa:tʃɒ/	20.	/ɒpreɪʃənal/	30.	/ɒnatended/

A10

1. /tɜ:mɒmɪta/
2. /eəpɪs/
3. /dearɪn/
4. /anaʊsment/
5. /araɪval/
6. /deɪ/
7. /sɪmpa:tɪ/
8. /baΘrʊm/
9. /kaʊnta/
10. /dɪpa:tʃə/
11. /emeret/
12. /rada/
13. /nɒten/
14. /fɒ:maletɪ/
15. /fɒ:da/
16. /Θɒ:zdeɪ/
17. /tens/
18. /daɪself/
19. /meɪnteinans/
20. /ɒpreɪʃenal/
21. /pasendʒas/
22. /pɜ:snal/
23. /dereabaʊt/
24. /prəʊsɪd/
25. /teft/
26. /saʊt æfrɪkan/
27. /sɒspɪʃɒs/
28. /tæŋk ju/
29. /tɜ:tɪ trɪ?/
30. /ɒnatended

Respondents' speech samples for Phrases

A1

1. /dɪ saʊt afrɪkan eəweɪz/
2. /araɪval ɒf eə piːs ɒn tɒːrsdeɪ/
3. /tɜːtɪ trɪ nɒrtan dɪpaːtʃɒs/
4. /teft ɒf pɜːsɪnal ɪfekts left ɒnatended/

A2

1. /de saʊϴ æfrɪkan eəweɪz/
2. /əraɪval ɒf eə piːs ɒn tɜːzde/
3. /tɜːtɪ trɪ nɒtaːn dɪpaːtʃəz/
4. /teft ɒf pɜːsnəl ɪfekts left ʌnatended/

A3

1. /ðə saʊϴ æfrɪkən eəweɪz/
2. /əraɪvəl ɒf eə piːs ɒn ϴɜːzdɪ/
3. /ϴɜːtɪ ϴrɪ nɒːðən dɪpaːtʃəz/
4. /ϴeft əv pɜːsənəl ɪfekts left ʌnətended/

A4

1. /dɪ saʊt afrɪkan eəweɪz/
2. /æraɪval ɒf eə piːs ɒn tɒːrsde/
3. /tɜːtɪ trɪ nɒːtan dɪpaːtʃə/

4. /tef ɒf pɜ:sınal ıfekts left ɒnatended/

A5
1. /dı saʊt afrıkan eəweız?/
2. /araıval ɒf eə pi:s ɒn tɒrsdı?/
3. /Ɵɜ:tı Ɵrı nɒ:rtan dıpa:tʃɒz/
4. /Ɵeft ɒf pɜ:snəl ıfekts left ɒnatended/

A6
1. /ðı saʊƟ æfrıkan eəweız/
2. /əraıval ɒf eə pi:s ɒn tɒ:sdeı/
3. /Ɵɜ:tı trı nɒ:ðən dıpa:tʃəs/
4. /Ɵeft ɒf pɜ:snl ıfekts left ɒnatənded/

A7
1. /ði: saʊt afrıkən eəweız/
2. /əraıval ɒf eə pi:s ɒn tɒ:sdeı?/
3. /Ɵɜ:tı trı nɒðən dıpa:tʃəs/
4. /Ɵeft ɒf pɜ:sonal ıfekts left ɒnatənded/

A8
1. /di: saʊƟ afrıkan eıweız/
2. /araıval ɒf eə pi:s ɒn tɒ:zde/
3. /Ɵɜ:tı trı nɒ:tan dıpa:tʃəz/
4. /teft ɒf pɜ:sınal ıfekts left ɒnatended/

A9
1. /dı saʊt æfrıkan eəweız/
2. /araıval ɒf eə speıs ɒn tɒ:zde/
3. /tɜtı trı nɒ:ðan dıpa:tʃɒz/
4. /teft ɒf pɜ:sınal ıfekts left ɒnatended/

A10
1. /de saʊt æfrıkan eəweız/
2. /araıval ɒf eə pıs ɒn Ɵɒ:rsde/
3. /tɜ:tı trı nɒ:tən dıpa:tʃəs?/
4. /teft ɒf pɜ:sınal ıfekts left ɒnatended/

Respondents' speech samples for Sentences

A1

1. /pasandʒas prəsi:d tu di emɪrats kaʊnta:/
2. /ɒpɒn araɪval dɪ nɒrtan baʊnd pasandʒas went tʊ dɪ ba:trʊm fɒ:rda daʊn dɪ meɪntənans hɒl/
3. /dɪ anaʊsment meɪd æ kaʊnta tɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ: dɪpa:tʃɒ ɒn bɒ:d saʊϴ afrɪkan eəlaɪn wɒz fɒrda dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpraʃɒnal ɪʃu:s/
4. /wɪ wɪtnesd ɒn tɒ:rsde ɒr derabaʊt dɪ teft ɒf a pasendʒas lɒ:geɪdʒ/
5. /ra:da dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpraʃənal maneɪdʒa aʊt ɒf sɪmpətɪ kan ask emɪrəts tʊ prəsi:d ɪn a sɒspɪʃɒs mæna/
6. /ɪt wɒz dɪskʌvad tens dat dɪ tempɒmɪtə wɒz left ɒnətended/teŋk jʊ/

A2

1. /pa:sɪndʒez prɒsi:d tu dɪ emɪrəts kaʊnta/
2. /ʌpɒn araɪval dɪ nɒ:tan baʊnd pa:sɪndʒez went tʊ dɪ bætrʊm fʊrda daʊn dɪ meɪntaɪnans hɒl/
3. /dɪ anausment meɪd æt kaʊnta tɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ dɪpa:tʃə ɒn bɒ:rd saʊϴ æfrɪkan eəlaɪn wɒz fɒ:da dɪlaɪd dju: tu ɒpəraʃnal ɪʃu:z/
4. /wɪ wɪtnesd ɒn tɜ:zdaɪ ɒr de:abaʊt dɪ teft ɒf a pa:sɪndʒaz lɒgeɪdʒ/
5. /rada dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpəraʃənal manadʒə aʊt ɒf sɪmpa:tɪ kan æsk emɪrəts tʊ prəsi:d ɪn a sɒspɪʃɒs mæna/
6. /ɪt wɒz dɪskʌva hens dat dɪ tempɒmɪta wɒz left ɒnətended/ϴæŋk jʊ/

A3

1. /pæsɪndʒez prəsi:d tə ði: emɪrəts kaʊntə/
2. /ɒpɒn əraɪval dɪ nɒ:dən baʊnd pæsɪndʒez went tʊ dɪ beɪϴrʊm fɜ:ða daʊn ðɪ meɪntenans hɒ:l/
3. /ði: ənaunsment meɪd ət kaʊnta ϴɜ:tɪ ϴrɪ fə dɪpa:tʃə ɒn bɒ:d saʊϴ æfrɪkən eəlaɪn wəz fɜ:ðə dɪleɪd dju: tʊ ɒpəreɪʃənl ɪʃu:z/
4. /wɪ wɪtnɪst ɒn ϴɜ:zdɪ ə ðeərəbaʊt ðə ϴeft əv ə pæsɪndʒaz lʌgɪdʒ/ ra:ðə dæn flaɪ eə pi:s ðaɪself ðɪ ɒpəreɪʃənl mænɪdʒə aʊt əv sɪmpəϴɪ kæn a:sk emɪrəts tə prəsi:d ɪn a səspɪʃəs mæna/
5. /ɪt wɒz dɪskʌvəd ðens ðæt ðə ϴəmpɒmɪtə wəz left ʌnətended/------/

A4

1. /pasendʒas prəsi:d tu dɪ emarates kaʊntə/
2. /ɒpɒn ærɪvæl dɪ nɒ:tan baʊnd pasendʒas went tʊ dɪ ba:trʊm fɒ:da daʊn dɪ meɪntenans hɒl/
3. /dɪ anaʊnsment meɪd æt kaʊntə tɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ dɪpa:tʃɒ ɒn bɒ:rd saʊt afrɪkan eəlaɪn wɒz fɒ:rda dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpretʃnal ɪʃu:z/
4. /wɪ wɪknesd ɒn tɒrsde ɒr derabaʊt dɪ tef ɒf a pasendʒas lɒ:gadʒ?/

5. /rada dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpreɪʧnal manaʤa aʊt ɒf sɪmpartɪ kan aesk emerats tʊ prəsi:d ən a sɒspɪʃɒs mana/
6. /ɪt wɒz dɪskɒ:vad tens dat dɪ təmɒmɪta wɒz left ɒnatended/tæŋk jʊ/

A5

1. /pæsɪnʤəz prəusi:d tu dɪ emɪrəts kaʊntə/
2. /ɒpɒn ærɪval ðɪ nɒ:ðən baʊnd pæsɪnʤas went tʊ dɪ ba:Θrʊm fɒ:dər daʊn dɪ meɪntenans hɒl/
3. /da anaʊsment meɪd æt kaʊntə tɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ dɪpa:tʃɒ ɒn bɒ:d saʊt æfrɪkan eəlaɪn wɒz fɒ:da dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpreʃnal ɪʃu:z/
4. /wɪ wɪtnest ɒn Θɒ:sde ɒr derəbaʊt dɪ Θeft ɒf ə pasenʤas lɒ:gɪʤ/
5. /raða dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself ðɪ ɒpraʃnal manædʒa aʊt ɒf sɪmpa:tɪ kan ask emɪrets tʊ prɒ:si:d ən a sɒspɪʃɒs mana/
6. /ət wɒz dɪskɒ:va:d ðens dat ðe Θəmɒmɪta wɒz left ɒnatended/teŋk jʊ/

A6

1. /pæsɪnʤez prɒ:si:d tu dɪ emɪrəts kaʊntə?/
2. /ɒpɒn arɪval ðɪ nɒ:ðən baʊnd pæsenʤas went tʊ dɪ batrʊm fɒ:da daʊn de meɪntenans hɒl/
3. /dɪ anaʊsment meɪd æt dɪ kaʊntə tɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ: dɪpa:tʃ ɒn bɒ:d saʊΘ æfrɪkan eəlaɪn wɒz fɒ:da dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpreɪtʃnal ɪʃu:s/
4. /wɪt wɪtnest ɒn tɒ:rsdeɪ ɒr dɜ:əbaʊt dɪ Θeft ɒf a pæsenʤas lɒ:gɪʤ/
5. /ra:da dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpreɪtʃnal manædʒa aʊt a sɪmpətɪ æskd emɪrəts tʊ prɒ:si:d ən ə sɒspɪʃɒs mana/
6. ɪ wɒz dɪskɒvəd dens dat dɪ tɜ:mɒmɪta wɒz left ɒnatended/Θæŋk jʊ/

A7

1. /pæsɪnʤəz prəusɪd tu dɪ emerates kaʊntə/
2. ɒpɒn ərɪval ðɪ nɒ:ðən baʊnd pæsenʤa:s went tʊ dɪ batrʊm fɜ:dər daʊn dɪ meɪntnans hɒl/
3. /dɪ anaʊsmənt meɪd æt kaʊntə Θɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ dɪpa:tʃə ɒn bɒ:d saʊΘ afrɪkan eəlaɪn wɒz fɒ:rda dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpreɪʃənal ɪʃu:s/
4. /wɪ wɪtnɪst ɒn tɒ:sdeɪ ɒr ðɜ:æbaʊt dɪ teft əv ə pæsenʤas lɒ:gɪʤ/
5. /rada dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpureɪʃnal manedʒa aʊt ɒf sɪmpətɪ kan ask emɪrəts tʊ prəʊsi:d ən ə sɒspɪʃɒs mana:/
6. /ɪ wɒs dɪskɒvəd dens dat dɪ Θɜ:mɒmɪtə wɒz left ɒnatendɪd/Θæŋk ju

A8

1. /pæsenʤas prəʊsi:d tu dɪ emɪretes kaʊnta/
2. /ɒpɒn areɪval dɪ nɒ:ðən baʊnd pæsɪnʤas went tʊ dɪ baΘrʊm fɒ:rda daʊn dɪ meɪnteɪnans hɒl/

3. /dɪ anaʊsment meɪd æt kaʊnta Θɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ dɪpa:tʃə ɒn bɒ:d saʊΘ afrɪkan eɪweiz wɒz fɒ:rda dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpreʃnal ɪʃu:s/
4. /wɪ wɪtnɪsd ɒn tɒ:zde ɒr derabaʊt dɪ teft ɒf a pæsendʒas lɒ:geɪdʒ/
5. /rada dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpreʃnal manædʒa aʊt ɒf sɪmpa:tɪ kana ask emɪrets tʊ prəʊsi:d ən ə sɒspɪʃɒs mæna/
6. /ɪt wɒz dɪskɒ:vad ðens ðat dɪ Θɜ:mɒmɪtə wɒz left ɒnatended/--------/

A9

1. /pæsendʒas prɒsi:d tʊ dɪ emerate kaʊnta/
2. /ɒpɒn araɪval dɪ nɒ:ðan baʊnd pæsendʒas went tʊ dɪ badtrʊm fɒ:da daʊn dɪ menteɪnans hɒl/
3. /dɪ anaʊsmen meɪd æt kaʊnta tɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ dɪpartʃɒ ɒn bɒ:rd saʊΘ æfrɪkan eəlaɪn wɒz fɒ:da dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpreɪʃənal ɪʃu:s/
4. /wɪ wɪtnesd ɒn tɒ:rsde ɒr dɪerabaʊt dɪ teft ɒf ɒ pasendʒas lɒ:gedʒ/
5. /rada dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpreɪʃnal manædʒa aʊt ɒf sɪmpa:tɪ ka:n ask emɪrəts tʊ prəʊsi:d ɪn a sɒspɪʃɒs mana/
6. /ɪt wɒz dɪskɒva:d tens dat dɪ tɜ:mɒmɪta wɒz left ɒnatended/tæŋk ju/

A10

1. /pæsendʒas prəʊsi:d tʊ dɪ emerates kaʊnta/
2. /ɒpɒn araɪval dɪ nɒ:tan baʊnd pasendʒas went tʊ dɪ batrʊm fɒ:da daʊn dɪ meɪntenans hɒl/
3. /dɪ anaʊsment meɪd æt kaʊnta tɜ:tɪ trɪ fɒ dɪpa:tʃɒ ɒn bɒ:d saʊt æfrɪkən eəlaɪn wɒs fɒ:da dɪlaɪd dju: tʊ ɒpreɪʃnal ɪʃu:z/
4. /wɪ wɪknesd ɒn tɒ:rsdeɪ ɒr derəbaʊt dɪ teft ɒf ə pasendʒas lɒ:gedʒ/
5. /rada dan flaɪ eə pi:s daɪself dɪ ɒpreʃnal manadʒa aʊt ɒf sɪmpa:tɪ kæn ask emerates tʊ prəʊsi:d ən ə sɒspɪʃɒs mæna/
6. /ɪt wɒz dɪskɒvad tens dat dɪ tɜ:mɒmɪta wɒz left ɒnatended/tæŋk ju:/