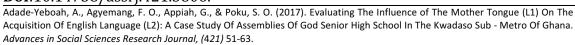
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Evaluating The Influence of The Mother Tongue (L1) On The Acquisition Of English Language (L2): A Case Study Of Assemblies Of God Senior High School In The Kwadaso Sub - Metro Of Ghana.

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ABSTRACT

Studies in contact linguistics have shown that when two languages come in contact, they interfere with each other grammatically and lexically, producing different contact phenomenon. This study sought to test how English and Twi languages manifest such a phenomenon. This was done by looking at how they experience cohesion as well as how they influence each other when they come into contact using the contact phenomenon theories of cohesion and bilingualism as found in Halliday and Hasan's (1976). In all, 84 students who were reading Ghanaian Language (Twi) as one of their major subjects were purposively selected using the Assemblies of God Senior High School, Kumasi, Ghana, as a case study. The study's analysis was purely qualitative and indicated that both languages; Twi (L1) and English (L2) realize cohesion by means of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and by lexical cohesion as observed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). However, the study saw differences in the languages' use of reference and ellipsis. Also, both Twi and English were identified to have influence on each other when they come into contact. Among other recommendations, the study recommended that teachers should come up with teaching methods that are interactive in the English curriculum so as to ensure that students are given an opportunity to interact with each other in English. Also, teachers and translators of Twi and English should be conscious of the differences and similarities in the way the language works to enable them handle teaching and translation with ease and professionalism.

Key Words: Mother tongue, cohesion, bilingualism, contact phenomena, interference

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Language contact is a phenomenon that has been in existence for a long time. According to Thomason (2001), there is no evidence of any language that has developed in isolation. This means that every language has been in contact with another language or languages. An

increasing body of works shows that the co-existence of two languages in an individual is a complex phenomenon (Brutt-Griffer, 2002; Cook 1992; Cook 2002; Grosjean ,1989), Kecskes and Papp (2000). Bilinguals do not use language the way monolinguals do. The bilingual's use of language, as pointed out by Mackey (1962) and Wei (2002) involves such factors as degree (the proficiency level of the language that an individual has), function (for what an individual uses his languages, the roles his languages played in his total pattern of behavior), alternation (the extent to which one alternates between one's languages, how one changes from one language to another, and under what conditions) and interference (how well the bilingual keeps his languages apart, the extent to which he fuses them, how one of his languages influences the use of another).

Studies in contact linguistics have shown that when two languages come in contact, they interfere with each other grammatically and lexically, producing different contacts phenomenon. One of the most researched areas in the field of languages in contact concerns the status of foreign lexical elements that appear in everyday discourse of bilinguals. This linguistic phenomenon is termed borrowing. Borrowing, according to Heath (1994), "involves mixing the systems themselves because an item is borrowed from one language to become part of the other language..." The borrowing of words happens because of the contact between languages and the 'source languages' of these words can be traced by people. Heath (1994), for instance, provides some examples of such borrowed words into English as karaoke, paella, schnapps, sputnik and fait accompli from Japanese, Spanish, German, Russian and French respectively. Pereira (1977) identified three hundred (300) English loan words in Brazilian Portuguese. Socanac (1996) pointed to more than one thousand five hundred (1500) English words in Italian. Paradis and La Charite (1997) also identified about 545 French words in Fula. Poplack and Meechan (1998:127) assert that, borrowing is a common language contact phenomenon and that "major" four-class content words such as: nouns, verbs, and adjectives are the most likely to be borrowed". Some examples of borrowed words into English are as follows: courage, adventure, fruit, count, clergy, jury, state, question and pilgrimage from French; agile, abdomen, anatomy, area, capsule, compensate, insane, habitual and vindicate from Latin and anonymous, pneumonia, climax, skeleton, autograph, tragedy and atmosphere from Greek. These are just a few examples of borrowed words we find in the English language. One way that languages, therefore, increase their vocabulary stock is by means of borrowing. Pidgins and creoles may also result when languages meet. Bynon (1977) writes that "pidgins and creoles could be described as the contact languages par excellence, for it is through contact that they are presumed to have their very existence". Pidgin is a simplified language that develops as a means of communication between two or more groups of speakers that do not have one common language. It is not a native language of any speaker of the speech communities involved. However, it is possible for a pidgin to acquire native speakers. A pidgin that has acquired native speakers is called a Creole language, and the process whereby a pidgin turns into a Creole is called Creolization (Hudson1980). Pidgins become creoles when generations whose parents speak pidgins to each other pass them on to their children as their first languages (L1s). Creoles can then replace the existing mix of languages to become the native language of a community. Examples of Creole languages are Krio in Sierra Leone and Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea. Another outcome of language contact is code switching. According to Hoffmann (1991), code switching is the most creative aspect of bilingual speech. Crystal (1987) submits that code, or language switching occurs when an individual who is bilingual alternates between two languages in his or her speech with another bilingual person. Code switching can take several forms: alteration of sentences, phrases, words and even sometimes morphemes. Code switching is prevalent among bilinguals. Cook (1991) puts the extent of code switching in normal conversation among bilinguals into the following

percentages: code switching comprises 84% single word switches, 10% phrase switches and 6% clause switches. Code switching is one of the most researched fields of study as a language contact phenomenon and for its prevalence. Some authorities use the terms code switching and code mixing interchangeably while others maintain that the two terms refer to two different phenomena. Several scholars have attempted to differentiate between these terms. Among them are Bokamba (1976) and Muysken (2000). Bokamba (1989) asserts that while code switching concerns the alternate use of words, phrases and sentences from two distinct grammatical systems or languages, code mixing is the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes) and words (unbound morphemes) from different languages into the same structure. According to Muysken (2000), code mixing refers to all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence, and code switching refers to only code alternation. Simply put, while code switching refers solely to the alternation between two languages, code mixing combines the grammatical features of two or more languages in the same structure. Thus, code mixing, like codes switching, is also one result of the contact between languages. Interference is also one outcome of the contact between languages. Interference is the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels, namely phonological, grammatical, lexical and orthographical (Berthold, Mangubhai & Batorowicz, 1997). Berthold et al (1997) define phonological interference as items including accent such as stress, rhyme, intonation and speech sounds from the first language (L1) influencing those of the second language (L2). When the first language influences the second in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determiners, tense and mood, we are talking about grammatical interference. Interference at the lexical level provides for the borrowing of words from one language to another and modifying them to sound and function naturally in another language. Orthographic interference is the spelling of one language influencing that of another. While interference transforms elements of one language to behave like those of the other, switching simply involves the use of the elements of one language in another without the host language having any influence on these elements.

In sub- Saharan countries like Ghana, many people use more than one language in their day-today activities. Through education, most Ghanaians have become bilinguals who acquire their second language, English, through study at school. According to Bloomfield (1933:56), "nativelike control of two languages" can be taken as a criterion for bilingualism. Weinreich (1953, 1968) classified three types of bilingualism according to the way bilinguals store language in their brains. The School language policy in Ghana favours bilingualism. Owu-Ewie (2006) throws light on Ghana's language policy over the years. According to him, the Ghanaian languages taught in schools are Akan (Twi and Fante), Nzema, Ga, Ga-Adangbe, Ewe, Gonja, Kasem, Dagbani, and Dagaare out of about seventy. Owu-Ewie (2006) gives an overview of the history of the language policy in Ghana. From 1925 to 1951, the Ghanaian language was used as the medium of instruction from primary one to three. From primary four, English took over as the medium of instruction and the Ghanaian language was taught as a subject. From 1952 to 1966, the medium of instruction from primary one throughout was English. From 1967 to 1969, the Ghanaian language served as the medium of instruction in primary one only, English took over from there. The Ghanaian language was restored to its place in the first three years of primary education from 1970 to September 2002. From October 2002 to date, the English language has served as the lingual franca at all levels of education in the country. The Ghanaian language is then taught as a subject, using the native tongue. Since this study compares English and Twi, it clearly fits into the field of study known as contact linguistics.

The popular view in contact linguistics is that only first languages have the capacity to interfere with second languages of the bilingual (Akande, 2006). This study seeks to contest this popular view by ascertaining whether the otherwise is also possible, (making interference a mutual

phenomenon between the languages of the bilingual). By focusing on the use of cohesion, which is both a grammatical and a lexical phenomenon, the present study seeks to describe how cohesion is realized in Twi and to investigate the extent to which English interferes with Twi and vice versa in the use of cohesive devices among Twi-English coordinate (SHS) bilinguals. The findings of this study will trigger investigation into how other Ghanaian or African languages employ cohesion in comparison with English and one another. This will contribute to already existing work in contact linguistics.

The theories of cohesion and bilingualism as found in Halliday and Hasan's (1976) Cohesion in English as Weinreich's (1953, 1974) Languages in Contact serve as the main theoretical framework of this study.

SITE OF THE STUDY

Since the type of bilingual under consideration in this study is the coordinate bilingual, it is better that the study was conducted among senior high school students. According to Sey (1973) and others, this level of students and other professions best explain coordinate bilinguals in Ghana. Secondly, the study focuses on senior high school students reading Ghanaian Language (Twi) because the researcher seeks students who have proficiency level in Twi. In addition, the study demands a high level of competence in both languages on the part of the respondent as this is one criterion of a coordinate bilingual. Assemblies of God Senior High School in the Kwadaso Sub-Metro of the Ashanti Region was the site for the study. In other senior high schools in the Kwadaso Sub-Metro the research found out that the number of General Arts students reading Ghanaian Language (Twi) as a course of study was very small compared to those in the Assemblies of God Senior High School. The school provides a sizable number of students reading Twi and is therefore the best site for the study.

METHODS

The study used the case study approach to select 84 students using Assemblies of God Senior High School as case. Only students who read Ghanaian language (Twi) as one of their major subjects were purposively used for the study. Data for the current study were based on written texts of students reading Ghanaian Language (Twi) in Assemblies of God Senior High School. Since this study investigates English and Twi, each respondent provided two texts for the study - one in English and the other in Twi. In order to make the essay writing easy for the respondents, the respondents were given various essay topics on which to write. Some of these topics were as follows: Road accidents in Ghana, Unemployment among the youth in Ghana, The role of women in Ghana's development and the importance of University education to Ghana. Of the 84 respondents, 15 wrote on the topic: Road accidents in Ghana, 18 wrote on Unemployment among the youth in Ghana, 7 wrote on the role of women in Ghana's development and 12 wrote on the importance of University education to Ghana. Only 52 respondents wrote on any of the topics the researcher provided. The rest of the 32 respondents wrote on a variety of topics other than the ones given them. They were willing to write on topics they were conversant with. The respondents who were willing to choose their own topics were allowed to do so since the aim of the study in question was not about which topic to write on but the creation of a text. In order to make the collection of data less stressful and well-organized, the researcher collected the teaching time table of the General Arts students reading Ghanaian Language (Twi) in the research site, Assemblies of God Senior High School. Since data for this study was in two corpuses - one in English and the other Twi - the researcher sorted out the English corpus separately from the Twi corpus. Also, in as much as the present study investigated cohesion in English, data was analyzed based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion coding scheme found in their Cohesion in English. In that coding scheme, each

cohesive device is separated and broken down into its various parts for easy identification. Here, every sentence was numbered. This helped the researcher to easily pinpoint a cohesive device, tie, as well as the very word or group of words that spells cohesion. Gall et al. (1996) outlined three approaches to case data analysis – interpretational analysis, where the researcher looks for patterns within data to explain the phenomenon; structural analysis, which discusses patterns as they appear in a text or the like and finally, reflective analysis, where the evaluation of the studied phenomenon is done by a qualified expert. All these three approaches were employed in analyzing data of the present study. The analytical form of this study was also inductive in that it was not reduced to tables or numerical scores, but it discussed phenomena as they happened making the analysis largely qualitative.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The analysis of data looked at how English and Twi interfere with each other in the Twi-English bilingual's use of cohesion. The various cohesive devices namely reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion were then taken one at a time and cohesive ties were looked to match or mismatch them. The researcher followed the models presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Also, the differences and similarities between English and Twi in the use of cohesion were analyzed. Lastly, how English and Twi interfere with each other in the Twi-English bilingual's use of cohesion was analyzed.

Cohesion in Twi

This section discusses how the Twi language realizes cohesion. Cohesion in Twi is described by focusing on a cohesive device one at a time and discussing it exhaustively.

Reference

Analysis of data reveals that one of the ways in which cohesion is realized in Twi is by means of reference. The following examples authenticate this conclusion. As mentioned earlier, one of the ways in which reference is realized is by the use of personal pronouns. There are some peculiarities in Twi personal pronouns when they are used in the realization of reference. Here is an example to aid in the discussion of data.

- 1. a. Eye nokore se emmaa dooso sene mmarima. (It is true that women outnumber men in Ghana)
 - b. Ewom.se wei ye nokore dee nanso wontumi nye adwumaden biara (Though this is true, they cannot do any hard work.)

In these examples, there is a referential link that serves a cohesive purpose. In example (1b) is the Twi third person plural pronoun wan (they) in the clause wan ntumi... (they cannot...). The Eye (it is) and wxn (they) bind the two sentences together and serve the cohesive purpose of reference.

Reference, as a cohesive device, can either be anaphoric or cataphoric. It is anaphoric when the reference points to a preceding item and cataphoric when the reference points to a succeeding item. These are some examples showing both types of references.

- 2. (a) Amanyosem nye nkwadaa agoro (Politics is not a child's play)

 Mpanimfoo ne akokoodurufoo na woye amanyosem. (It is the elderly and the courageous who indulge in politics.)
 - (b) Awofoo bere wo won mma sukuu, adidie ne won apomuden mu(Parents suffer for their children's education, nutrition and health)
 - (c). Saa Asodie yi nyinaa nna fam koraa (Fulfilling these roles is not easy at all)

In example 2a, the sentence *Amanyosem nye nkwadaa agor*o (Politics is not a child's play), clearly points to the succeeding sentence to provide the answer as to who should indulge in politics. The answer comes swiftly in the following sentence.

– *Mpanimfoɔ ne akokoɔdurufoɔ na* εyε *amanyɔsɛm* (It is the elderly and the courageous who indulge in it). The first sentence in example 2 a clearly points to the following one for a meaningful cohesive tie. This type of reference is anaphoric.

A reference can also be cataphoric when a cohesive tie links with a linguistic item or items in a preceding sentence. The preceding items of reference do not need to come immediately before a succeeding sentence to be accepted as cataphoric. As long as a link is made, a cohesive tie is established however near or far off the linguistic items that mark the tie are, the reference is still cataphoric. The examples below illustrate how a cataphoric reference looks like in Twi. The first one reads: *Awofoo bre wo won mma sukuu, adidie ne won apommuden mu* (Parents suffer for their children's education, nutrition and health). The second sentence reads: *Asodie yi nyinaa nna fam* (Fulfilling these roles is not easy at all). The first sentence lists some of the roles parents play – *sukuu* (education), *adidie* (nutrition), and *apommuden* (health). The second sentence restates these roles in the pro-form *yi nyinaa* (these things). In this case, *yi nyinaa* refers back to the different roles parents perform in the lives of their children. This is a cataphoric reference.

- 3. *Adwumayofoo ne sukuufoo som bo yie ma ɔman no.* (Workers and students have an important place in the country)
 - b. *Won adwumaden de ahoto brɛ nnipa wo ɔman no mu* (Their hard work brings comfort tothe people in the country.)
 - In example 3a, *asukuufoɔ* (students) and *Adwumayɔfoɔ* (workers) are replaced by the personal pronoun *wɔn* (they) in 3b. The personal pronoun *wɔn*, therefore, refers back to these two groups of people. Here is another example of the use of persona pronouns in Twi:
- 4. Wowoo me ne me nua no wo Keta (My brother and I were born at Keta.) Eho ara na yenyiniiε εna yesan koo sukuu (That was where we grew up and attended school.) In example 4, the personal pronoun refers back to me (I) and me nua (my brother). It is clear by these examples that just as personal pronouns perform cohesive ties in English, they do the same in Twi. These are some common Twi personal pronouns derived from the data: me (I), wò (you singular), mo (you plural), yen(we), won (they). Besides, demonstratives, comparatives also serve as cohesive ties in Twi just as they do in English. Below are some examples.
- 5. Ghana kokoo paa na woto no abooden wiase yi nyinaa mu (Ghana's cocoa is the most expensive in the world) Nanso, yɛnto Cote D Ivoire (But it is not as much as that of Cote D'Ivoire.)
 - b. Ghana nyaa fawohodie gyaa aman a ɛwɔ Africa nyinaa (Ghana had independence ahead of all African countries)Afrika aman a aka no nyaa fawohodie wɔ 1960 mu. (Other African countries started having their independence in the 1960s.)
 - In example 5a, the sentence *Ghana kokoo paa* ... says that Ghana's cocoa is the most expensive in the world. In the following sentence, the comparative *te sɛ ...sɛ* (like or same) places Ghana's cocoa side by side that of Cote D'Ivoire in terms of quantity. The sentence *Ghana nyaa fawohodie gyaa...*tells Ghana's having independence ahead of other African countries. The following sentence *Afrika aman a aka...* says that other African nations had their independence in the 1960s. The Twi comparative *aka* (others) refers to the African countries that had their independence after Ghana. Moreover, it is a comparative tie between the two sentences. It is impossible and unacceptable to use the comparative *aka* in

Twi so as it is when we use *others* in English without any prior information. The comparative *aka* therefore refers back to the first sentence *Ghana nyaa fawohodie gyaa...*

It is clear that the Twi language realizes cohesion by means of reference just as English does. There are some differences though, and these differences are discussed as we look at the similarities and differences between English and Twi in their use of cohesion. Suffice it now to say that one of the ways Twi also realizes cohesion is by means of reference

Ellipsis

Unlike reference and substitution that form cohesive ties by referring back to preceding information or replacing one linguistic item with another, ellipsis forms a cohesive tie by deleting some information or linguistic items that are recoverable from the context in question.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), this is one of the ways cohesion is realized in English. In reference, a tie can be directed to information that is not overt or present in a text available. That type of reference is exophoric. In ellipsis, however, everything that is deleted is recoverable from the text. Ellipsis is therefore an endophoric phenomenon. Below are some examples from Twi.

- 6. Abarimaa no sae, hurihurii, tuu mmirika kopem se ohwee fam. (The little boy danced, jumped and ran until he fell down.)
 In example 6 the noun phrase *Abarimaa* (the little boy) is deleted before the verb *mmirika* (run) and *hurihurii* (jump). It is clear that it is *Abarimaa* that is the subject of these verbs. One thing that shows that *Abarimaa* is the subject of these verbs is the use of the pronoun *ohwee* in that sentence.
- 7. This pronoun refers back to *Abarimaa* and in that context no other subject is mentioned in the sentence besides *Abarimaa*.

Lexical Cohesion

Cohesion is also realized in Twi lexically. As mentioned earlier, lexical cohesion assumes different forms such as repetition, which further subsumes hyponymy, complex and simple synonymy. Below are examples of lexical cohesion from Twi.

- 8. Mango dua nso aba wo pe bere mu (Mangoes do not bear fruit during dry season) Nnuaba pii so nsuto bere mu (Many fruits appear during rainy season.)
 - b. \mathcal{E} nn ε mmaayewa p ε tv so dwumadie sen ampe (Today's girls have become TV viewers. They do not play ampe anymore.)
 - Yen tete agora nyinaa ayera (Our traditional plays are all gone.)
 - c. Okaa s ε ne ti y ε no ya. Y ε abr ε w σ ne yare ε yi ho. (He said his head ached seriously. We have become tired of illness.)
 - d. Adware ne y ε n anom a y ε hohoro y ε ade ε a y ε y ε no da biara. (Bathing and washing our mouths are things we do every day.)

In example 8a, there is a hyponymous tie between the words *mango* and *Nnuaba* (fruits). The meaning of the former in encompassed in that of the latter. *Mango* is a type of *Aduaba*. This link or relationship forms a cohesive tie that binds the two constructions as well as the ideas they express together. Moreover, Example 8b employs another hyponymous tie. *Ampe* has the same relationship with *agoro* (plays) as *mango* has with *Nnuaba*. *Ampe* is one type of *agoro* enjoyed by girls. Just as *mango* links with *Nnuaba* for a cohesive tie, so do *ampe* and *agoro* in example 8b.

In example 8d, the words *adware* (bathing) and *yɛn anom a yɛhohoro* (cleaning one's teeth) are both included in the meaning of the word *ahonidi* (self- care). The cleaning of one's teeth and bathing are, of course, both self-care measures. An example of the Twi word, *yare* (sickness) can be the expression *tipae* (headache). There is therefore a relationship

between *tipae* (headache) as one type of *yare*. These examples show that Twi also employs hyponymy as a way of realizing cohesion just as English does.

From all the above discussions, we observed that the Twi languages does not realize cohesion by reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions and lexical cohesion almost any differently from English. Indeed, the two languages have many similarities and few differences in the realization of cohesion. The next section focuses on the similarities and differences regarding the realization of cohesion in the two languages.

Similarities and Differences

Broadly speaking, Twi and English realize cohesion in almost the same way. Both languages realize cohesion by reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions and lexical cohesion. With regard to reference, Twi also realizes cohesion by the use of personal pronouns, demonstratives and comparatives.

Both languages realize reference anaphorically and cataphorically.

Just English does, Twi realizes substitution by personal pronouns replacing noun phrases, proforms substituting verb phrases and pro-forms replacing whole clauses. Ellipsis is realized by deleting whole clauses, noun phrases, and verb phrases. Twi also uses conjunctions that are causal, adversative, additive, continuatives or discourse markers. Finally, lexically, Twi also realizes cohesion by repetition, synonymy and hyponymy.

On the surface, there is a conclusion that, both English and Twi are similar as regards cohesion. Each language demonstrates the five cohesive devices identified by Halliday and Hasan (1975). There are, however, some differences in the way these two languages realize cohesion when we consider the individual cohesive devices, especially reference and ellipsis. The next section discusses these differences, looking at reference and ellipsis.

Differences in English and Twi Realization of Reference

We have already seen that both English and Twi realize cohesion by reference. There are, however, some differences in the way the two languages realize cohesion by reference. An area where Twi differs from English in the use of reference is in the use of personal pronouns. Let us look at some examples from Twi to clarify this point.

9. \mathcal{D} kaa s ε \mathcal{D} baa nnora an \mathcal{D} pa (He said he came yesterday in the morning.) b. W \mathcal{D} kae s ε na w \mathcal{D} w \mathcal{D} ho w \mathcal{D} ber ε a dua no bui ε no. (They said they were present before the

In example 9a, we see two personal pronouns – *Okae* and *Wokae*. When this sentence translates into English, we read: *He said he came yesterday morning*. In the English translation, we see that the personal pronoun *he* appears twice, the second referring to the first and the two forming a cohesive tie. In Twi, however, the case is different; the personal pronouns differ, *ye* refer back to *e*. In example 9b, two personal pronouns appear – *Wokae se na wowo ho wo bere a dua...*The personal *wokae* refers back to *wowo* and forms a tie. The English translation of the same sentence reads: *They said they were there when the tree fell.* The foregoing English sentence uses the personal pronoun *they* twice, the latter referring back to the former. As we have seen so far, Twi demonstrates the use of two different personal pronouns but at the same time these different personal pronouns still form the cohesive tie that that English forms by simply repeating the personals involved.

Differences in English and Twi Realization of Ellipsis

A major difference observed between English and Twi concerning the realization of cohesion is by means of ellipsis in the deletion of the verbal element in some contexts. Let us look at some examples to clarify this point. 'Evans swept the guest room and Kwame the compound.' We can tell from the above sentence that the verb *swept* is deleted in its second appearance. This is a common way English realizes cohesion – by the deletion of the verbal element in its second appearance and falling back on that verb for full meaning. This phenomenon is almost impossible in Twi. Throughout, there is no occurrence of ellipsis by this means. The foregoing English sentence could translate thus:

- 10. Evans praa ahahodan ne Kwame dan no mu. (Evans swept the guest room and Kwame's room.)
 - In the sentence above, the verb *praa* (swept) appears more than once, while in the English construction, the verb 'swept' appears only once and the construction is still correct and acceptable. If the Twi sentence drops the verb *praa* in its second appearance, the sentence reads:
- 11. Evans praa ahohodan ne Kwame dan no mu. (Evans swept the guest room and Kwame's room) This is not acceptable in Twi. The verb in question must appear again for the construction to be accepted as correct. The only way ellipsis was employed in the data with regard to the deletion of the verbal element in its second appearance was when a statement served as an answer to a question and presupposed the idea as well as the linguistic elements including the verbs in the question. Here is an example:
- 12. Eye papa se apolisifor gye dorobafor sika wo akwan so? Daabi. (Is it good for the police to be taking money from drivers on roads? No.) Just as no in the English translation of this Twi construction is enough for a meaningful conversation to take place even as the whole clause including the verbal element is deleted, so is daabi in Twi. Ellipsis is realizable in English by means of the deletion of the verbal element in its second latter appearances. In Twi, however, this is not acceptable. This is one major way Twi and English differ from each other in the realization of cohesion by means of ellipsis.

English interference on Twi

This study finally seeks to find out how English and Twi interfere with each other in the use of cohesion. As we have seen from the beginning of the study, a major interest in contact linguistics is to find out how two languages in contact interfere with or influence each other. Since the focus of this study is cohesion, we only discuss how either language influences the other in this regard.

We have seen the similarities and differences in the way English and Twi realize cohesion. Were the two languages entirely similar in the realization of cohesion, there definitely would have been no interferences in this regard. The differences of the two languages in their realization of cohesion are the grounds for these interferences. Differences in the phonological and grammatical systems of languages in contact are the bases for interference. This section discusses those interferences, starting with that of English on Twi and then that of Twi on English.

Many studies have shown the great influence first languages have over second languages of bilinguals. In this study, we looked at some of these studies: Akande (2005), Akande and Akinwale (2006), Cook (1993), Robins (1989) and others. Some scholars like Weinreich (1953) even insisted that it is impossible for a second language to interfere with the first language of a bilingual; it is always the other way round. In the present study, however, findings have revealed that not only can a second language interfere with the first one of a bilingual, but also

that this interference can occur in the use of language by coordinate bilinguals–students who read their first language as a course of study and who served as the respondents of this study.

The researchers argue that the many studies that have shown the L1 interfering with the L2 were geared towards uncovering the influence that the L1 has over the L2 to the neglect of that of the influence the latter has on the former.

The discussions below, taking a cohesive device one at a time, prove that the researcher's argument is true; L2's can also influence L1's.

Reference

One way data revealed the influence of English on Twi was in the use of reference. The influence of English happened particularly in the use of Twi personal pronouns. We have already discussed the differences that exist between English personal pronouns and Twi personal pronouns. Let us look at some examples from the data.

- 13. a. Polisini no se na owo beas a wokumm koromfoo no.(The police said he was at the place where the robber had been killed.)
 - b. Eyi maa Kwame bo fui enti ɔkaa sε ɔrenkɔ afahyε no. (This angered Kwame and he decided not to go to the festival.)
- 14. Wodidii ε na wohw $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ s ε woatoto biribiara yie. (They ate and made sure they did everything well.)
 - b. Yegye tom se yen mmienu nko ara na beko akohyia nkrofoo no. (We agreed that only we would go to meet the people.)

In example 13a, the personal pronoun <code>awa</code> as in <code>Apolisifoo</code> no <code>se</code> na <code>awa</code> <code>beaee...</code> refers back to <code>polisifoo</code> (police). This is acceptable in Twi. When we substitute <code>polisifoo</code> with the personal <code>awa</code>, the sentence will still be acceptable and the personal <code>ye</code> will therefore refer to <code>e</code> in that case. We learnt earlier on that in English the subjective form of personals does not change inasmuch as they refer to the same thing.

The data revealed that some students have ignored the Twi deferential personal pronouns and resorted to using the first deferential ones. The researcher believes that this must be due to interference from English since English has only one type of personals that function as subjects.

The respondents because of the influence from English are therefore simply dropping what English does not have and making Twi look like English in the use of personals.

Ellipsis

We already saw that English and Twi both realize cohesion by ellipsis. We also saw that though this is so, there are some differences and these differences are seen in the way Twi handles the deletion of verbs or verbal elements and the deletion of personals. We focus now on how the English language interferes with Twi in these two ways.

Before we continue, let us take one example of ellipsis from Halliday and Hasan (1976) to illustrate a point: *Joan bought some carnations and, Catherine some sweet peas*. We saw from chapter two of this study that the sentence above warrants only one interpretation – Catherine also bought sweet peas. Although the verb bought is deleted in its second appearance, it is still retrievable from the clause for effective communication to take place. The English part of the data also revealed many sentences of the type above. Below are some examples:

- 15. The president announced his intention to run again and the vice president his decision to step down. b. The accused persons were arraigned before court and those found guilty imprisoned. It is evident from the sentences 48a and 48b that the verbs announced and were are deleted in their second appearance. However, these sentences are meaningful and acceptable in English. It can be concluded earlier on that the construction of these unacceptable sentences by coordinate Twi-English bilinguals used in this study is as a result of interference from English. One thing, the researcher observed, that made respondents produce this English-influenced construction is that the English influence does not affect meaning in these constructions. Those who speak Twi and who are not necessarily scholars of the language can understand them. The researcher tested this conclusion by approaching some speakers of Twi, literate and illiterate, to find out their reactions to these English influenced constructions in order to discuss this interference issue from a broad point of view, especially those of the native speakers of Twi.
- 16. Their reactions are discussed in the final chapter of the present study. In the next section, we focus our attention on Twi interference on English with regard to cohesion.

Twi Interference on English

The previous sections revealed that the interference of English on Twi happens in reference and ellipsis. In the former, this happens specifically in the use of personals; where the interference takes place in the deletion of the verbal element and personals. This section discusses Twi influence on English in the use of cohesion.

In English, verbal elements and personals can be deleted in their second appearance inasmuch as these items are overt and recoverable in the constructions in which they appear. These linguistic items can also be repeated and such construction in which they appear can still be acceptable. Either way is acceptable in English. In Twi, however, the repetition of these items is compulsory. What is being referred to as Twi interference on English is that in the English texts of respondents, there was repetitive use of verbal elements and personals. The other way was very rare. Let us look at some examples from the data.

- 17. a. He told me I should speak to the chairperson.
 - b. They asked the man to tell us that we should come home.
 - c. The authorities punished them and warned them that they should not play there again. In example 17a, the personal pronouns me and I refer to the same person. It is possible to drop the personal I and still have an acceptable English construction. That sentence can reread: He told me to speak to the chairperson. The researcher observed from the data that many constructions follow the pattern of the original example 48a, not the re-written type. His observation was clarified after translating the sentences into Twi. When we translate example 17a into Twi, we have the following:

Dka kyerεε me sε me ne dwamtenani no nkasa. In the above translation, the pronoun -me as in me ne refers to the same person. It is not acceptable to drop any of these personal pronouns in Twi as it is in English. It is logical to point out that, Twi is the influence here. Both ways of handling personals are acceptable in English. Why would the Twi-English bilingual stick to one more than the other as though that one way is the only acceptable way of handling personal pronouns in the other one language? This other language must be responsible for this influence, and in this case, it is Twi. Examples 17b and 17c can be re-written thus: He asked the man to tell us to come home. The teacher punished and warned them never to play there again. When we translate these into Twi, we read:

Oka kyeree obarima no se oma yen mmra fie. Tikyani no twee yen aso na oboo yen koko se yenni agoro wo ho bio.

In the translated version above, the personal m appears twice and refers to the same person. In the second translation, no appears two times referring to the same person. None of these can be dropped for acceptable constructions in Twi as they can in English. All these clearly show that the overuse of this style in English constructions, a style which is the solely used in Twi points to Twi influence on English.

CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to discover how cohesion is realized in Twi, discuss the similarities and differences between English and Twi in their use of cohesion and finally unearth how English interferes with Twi in this regard and vice versa. From the analysis of the data, it can be concluded that Twi realizes cohesion the same way English does by means of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and by lexical cohesion as submitted by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in their work on cohesion in English. The study further concludes that both languages in question realize cohesion almost the same way. This was because Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hoey (1991) and other scholars regarding cohesion never argued as to whether or not other languages realize cohesion or that other languages realize cohesion by means of other cohesive devices other than the ones they identified. Even though English and Twi realize cohesion the same way, broadly speaking, there existed differences in the languages' use of reference and ellipsis. The study recommends that teachers and translators of Twi and English should be conscious of the differences and similarities in the way the language works to enable them handle teaching and translation with ease and professionalism.

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