CLASSICAL MODEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR AS A PEDAGOGICAL AID IN TEACHING NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

BY

ALPHONSE NANA OPPONG

10597963

THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF M.PHIL DEGREE IN ENGLISH

JUNE 2019
DECLARATION

I solemnly declare that this thesis entitled “Transformational Generative Grammar as a Pedagogical Aid in Teaching Non-Native Speakers of English”, supervised by Dr. Abraham Okrah and Dr. Rita Yeboah both lecturers of the Department of Teacher Education, University of Ghana, Legon and submitted to the department of Teacher Education, University of Ghana, Legon has not been submitted to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree. I am solely responsible for any shortcomings that this work may contain.

…………………………………..
…………………………….
ALPHONSE NANA OPPONG DATE
STUDENT

…………………………………..
…………………………….
DR. ABRAHAM OKRAH DATE

…………………………………..
…………………………….
DR. RITA YEBOAH DATE
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated first and foremost to the Almighty God for his guidance and protection throughout the study and through whose grace I am alive to present this Thesis. I also dedicate this work to my wife Mavis Boateng and to my lovely children Britta Agyeiwaa Oppong and Alphonse Nana Oppong Jnr. for their relentless support, love, and encouragement.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

God my redeemer and helper in ages past, the sustainer of my life and provider of wisdom and strength is the pivot of the success of this thesis. Therefore, he deserves my praise, glory and honour.

Secondly, I wish to thank my wife for her understanding and support throughout this course. I also wish to express my sincere gratitude to my mum for her prayers, motherly support and encouragement throughout the time. I say thank you to all those who contributed to the success of this work. May God bless you for your valuable time spent on this work.

I would also like to express my thanks to the headmaster in charge of Academics of at the West African Senior High School (WASS) and the headmistresses of Presbyterian Boys Senior High School (PRESEC) and their students for their cooperation and assistance.

Finally, I owe a great debt of gratitude to Dr. Abraham Okrah and Dr. Rita Yeboah my supervisors, for the invaluable criticism and insightful suggestions they gave me which enabled me to complete this work. I express my appreciation for the part they played in shaping this work and I extend God’s blessings to them immeasurably.
ABSTRACT

The Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) has been established as a pedagogical aid in teaching native speakers of English; as these native speakers have an implicit knowledge of grammatical rules. This current study is aimed to examine how the same TGG could be used as a pedagogical aid in teaching non-native speakers of English since English is their second language (L2) and they might not have the implicit knowledge of English grammatical rules. The study adopted mixed methods approach. The sample size of the study was one hundred and fifty (150) students and six teachers from West African Senior High School (WASS) and Presbyterian Boys Senior High School (PRESEC). A mixed method design as well as a scholastic test on English Grammar was used in testing the student participants’ level of knowledge and understanding of grammatical rules. An interview guide was also used in assessing the teacher interviewees’ opinion on their students’ knowledge and understanding of English grammatical rules. The data from students was analysed and presented in charts and figures whilst the responses from the tutors’ qualitative data were thematically analysed. The findings revealed that non-native speakers of English have a very good knowledge and understanding of English grammatical rules. It was also established that the non-native English speaking participants have an implicit knowledge of the underlying rules just as the native speakers of English; therefore, the Transformational Generative Grammar could be used as a pedagogical aid in teaching English grammar. It is, therefore, recommended that in-service training and workshops be organised for teachers on the use and the need to adopt the TGG as a teaching aid in order for them to avoid the persistent grammatical errors student’s frequently make during both oral and writing.
LIST OF TABLES

Table               page
1 Research Design Interrelation.................................44
2 Population Distribution of Students and Teachers in the La-Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly.................................50
3 Table Showing Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.................................57
4 Table Showing Demographics of Interviewees.................................59
**LIST OF FIGURES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Diagram Showing Adaptation of the Conceptual Framework of the Study</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Framework for Data Collection and Analysis</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>An Optical Model of the Strategy Used</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Chart Showing Participants’ Knowledge on Positive Declarative Statements</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Chart Showing Participants’ Knowledge on Negative Declarative Statements</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Chart Showing Affirmative Main Clause and Affirmative Tag</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Chart Showing Students’ Knowledge on Imperative Tags</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chart Showing Participants’ Knowledge on Intonation</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS</td>
<td>Ghana Statistical Service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO-</td>
<td>Right and Obligation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRESEC</td>
<td>Presbyterian Boys Secondary School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHS</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TGG</td>
<td>Transformational Generative Grammar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASS</td>
<td>West African Senior High School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFL</td>
<td>Chinese as a Foreign Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## TABLE OF CONTENT

**Table of Contents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENT</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER ONE</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background to the Study</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Purpose of the Study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitation of the Study</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation of the study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER TWO</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LITERATURE REVIEW</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chomsky’s Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criticisms of Chomsky’s Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic Markedness Theory</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual Framework</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG):</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep Structure (Competence):</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

It is easily perceived that the general idea derived from grammar is the heart of most forms of language study. Viewing grammar from a birds-eye perspective, not only does grammar interest itself with the principles which determine its organisation of words, phrases, and sentences, but with its rules which regulate its rendition (Radford, 2002). And history has it that in the medieval age, English grammar was designed with the intent to give a laid down standardized format for learning Latin, the then esteemed language. This thought yielded no result, paving way for the rise of the prescriptive concept of grammar and its related compatibility issues of standards and forms of the English language. In view of this, some Scholars such as Robert Lowth, William Bullokar and Ellin Davis in their quest to find lasting solutions to the unending problems of organisation of principles of the language into codes, cut down rules and regulations, settled exceptional cases and identified general mistakes for appropriate solution in improving the language (Lamidi, 2002).

In several ways, the term "grammar" has been made plain and comprehensible by language educators and grammarians such as Wilcox (2004), Purpura (2004), Ur (1988) who have affected and been affected by varied techniques to teaching grammar. Brown (2007) considers grammar as the system of rules guiding the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. Based on this, Khan (2016:10) thinks that merely understanding the meanings of the words is inadequate to express the targeted message in communication but application of grammatical rules in a conversation makes conveying of detailed and thoughtful messages possible for speakers. Khan also asserts that grammar also involves several different correlated
expressions with the ordering of items in a sentence. He further thinks that grammar is a linguistic function concerned with word formation.

Wilcox (2004) also suggests that grammar can be considered as a system of rules which permits the users of a particular language to produce meaning by building both intelligible words and larger constructions of sentences. Purpura (2004) defines grammar as a set of structural rules guiding the formation of clauses, phrases, and words in any particular natural language. He further avers that instructors normally think that this will render the generative structure on which learners can build their knowledge and will eventually be in a position to use the language. Grammar can also be considered as the means through which a language stage-manages and commingles words so as to produce longer units of meaning. How units of meaning are constructed in a given language is guided by a set of rules.

Flowing from the above definitions, it suggests that grammar is the core system of any language which holds it together, and that meaning is an essential part of this system. Linguists such as Ferdinand, Chomsky, and Jakobson among others are dynamically assertive and swiftly strike a chord in us to that effect. Both prescriptive and descriptive grammars are loaded with rules but in different ways. The simple dichotomy between descriptive grammar and prescriptive grammar is that as regards the former, the rules that form the basis of our words, phrases, clauses and sentences usage are examined while the latter attempts to implement rules and patterns of what they deem as the correct uses of language. Based on these two schools of thoughts, several types of grammars if not all, such as generative, comparative, mental, performance, reference, theoretical, traditional, transformational and universal grammars among others describe and analyse structures and functions of language dynamically (Khan, 2016).
Comparative Grammar in simple lucid terms deals with examination and differentiation of grammatical structures. However, contemporary grammar pertains to the inherent cognitive language that renders an explanation as to how an individual can acquire a first language. As regards generative grammar, it deals with the set of rules and patterns that set up the formation and explanation of sentences that speakers accept as part of their language. Turning to reference grammar, it is that type of grammar which describes a language by focusing on the rules guiding the construction of words, phrases, clauses and sentences. Examples of contemporary reference grammars in English include; *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, by Randolph Quirk et al. (1985), the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (1999), and *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (2002).

Traditional grammar is that type of grammar which involves grammar teaching with conventional approaches. In view of traditional grammarians, grammar is a language skill that is instructed through the application of conventional approaches. As always stressed by traditional grammarians, grammar comprises eight distinct categories of speech fashioned by nouns, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, participles, adverbs and verbs. So as to learn a language, there is the need for the learners to study the foresaid eight kinds individually as well as build up the rules with regard to their translation (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002). Similarly, Williams (2005) thinks of traditional grammar as mainly aimed at continuing a diachronic model of what evidently comprises proper language. Transformational grammar on the other hand, is a theory of grammar that explains the formation of a language by linguistic transformations and phrase structures. In transformational grammar, the term 'rule' is used not as an established principle by an outside authority but for an instinctive rational which is repeatedly followed in sentence construction and elucidation.
The above are some of the varieties of grammars defined by various authorities of which Transformational Generative Grammar that underpins this research is part. In spite of all these types of grammars, Chomsky’s transformational generative grammar (TGG) theory of teaching native speakers of English language caught my interest without reservation in the using of this same module in teaching pedagogically non-native speakers of English.

Nordquist (2017), a rising linguistics, who began in the year 1957 by publishing Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures, befits the label ‘revolutionary.’ He posits that after 1957, the study of grammar has not fallen short to what is said and how it is interpreted. Factually speaking, the word grammar itself has assumed a new meaning. Nordquist (2017) thinks the new linguistics defined grammar as our instinctive, subliminal knack to create language, an internal system of rules that forms our human language capacity. It is these internal rules that the new linguistics sought to explain. As opposed to the structuralists who aimed to scrutinize the sentences we normally articulate and to illustrate their systemic nature, however, the transformationalists aimed at unlocking the secrets of language thus, to develop a form of our internal rules, a form that would produce all of the grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. Kolln, Funk, Allyn and Bacon (1998) it has been clear right from the onset that Transformational Grammar was the best accessible theory of language structure whilst being deficient of any lucid grasp of typical assertions the theory made about human language (Sampson, 2001).

Transformational Generative Grammar singled out as an important inventive or generative part of the language faculty. This is because prior to the introduction of the TGG theory, there was an all-time Skinnerian behaviourist approach where language was taught as a simple environmental stimuli before Chomsky, the revolutionary, stressed on the internal cognitive capacity of building a language in our heads. In other words, Cardenas (2016) asserts that we humans are not just
mindless automatons but cognitively urbane beings competent of building multifaceted structures in our brains.

Again, the study adopts Chomsky’s TGG because it has been helpful not only grammatically, nor in the area of cognitive science but to native speakers as well. TGG approaches language innovatively. However, native speakers of English require an avenue to use their creativity to explore the language on their own. They need to use and hear the language in order to figure out themselves how the language they are studying works since they have naturally internalized the rule which enables them to transform words with ease. However, native speakers of English require an avenue to use their creativity to explore the language on their own in order to figure out how the language they are studying works since they have naturally internalized the rule which enables them to transform words with ease. The study seeks to find out how this same TGG model could be used pedagogically in teaching non-native speakers of English language and the extent to which the latter can demonstrate explicitly knowledge in various syntactic grammatical categories.

**Statement of the Problem**

The current study is to find out if non-native speakers of English have an implicit underlying understanding of English syntactic structures to warrant the use of transformational generative grammar (TGG) in order to avoid the traditional approach to the teaching of mechanics such as sentence fragments, comma splice, run-ons, subject verb agreement etc. Research shows that native speakers of English consciously or unconsciously, possess an implicit knowledge of syntactic grammatical structure, an underlying knowledge of such syntactic categories and the internalisation of rules. All these categories present cognitively in a native speaker’s mind go a long way to minimise grammatical errors in the native speaker’s syntactical and semantical
expressions. It is this inherent quality that teachers of the language usurp as a tool in teaching pedagogical native speakers of English. On the other hand, however, non-native speakers’ of English make several errors in both oral and written form of the English Language. What could possibly be the cause? Could TGG be used in teaching non-native speakers of English to avoid such grammatical errors? If native speakers of English possess these underlying grammatical syntactic principles then this paper seeks to find out if this same TGG model could be used in teaching non-native speakers of English.

Noguchi (1987), asserts that to aid students to correct sentence mechanics, there is the need to have a systematic way that puts an end to the conformation of grammatical concepts; a method which can enable students to make out the necessary grammatical categories in parallel to other grammatical categories. Lending support to this, Adrian and Heny (1975) maintained that the classical model of transformational generative grammar could act as a remarkable instructive tool. This theoretical account postulates two degrees of representation for sentences, an abstract deep structure of meaning and a concrete surface structure of realized sentences. The latter is obtained from the deep structure by a set of rules, or transformations. Noguchi (1987) in this regard, demonstrates that it is the transformational aspect which is helpful in correcting sentence mechanics. He also indicates that what makes the transformational part chiefly valuable is that transformational rules are sensitive to a range of syntactic categories.

Noguchi (1987), ponders over how native speakers of English can, with ease, transform statements into appropriate question tags unlike their non-native counterparts. He also wonders how native speakers can create the "tags" with each of the original declarative sentences and thus convert the declarative sentences into tag-questions. He further indicates that certainly, native speakers do not memorize corresponding tag-questions for declarative sentences. Noguchi is
however of stern conviction that the native speakers of English have rather internalised a rule, that is, the rule of Tag-Formation which aids them to change declarative sentences into appropriate tag-questions.

Further, Noguchi (1987) asserts that even though Tag-Formation consists of complex rules encompassing quite a few operations, all native speakers of English have an implicit knowledge of the rule. To him, this statement is very crucial, because if native speakers are already knowledgeable about the rule of Tag-Formation, then it is utterly needless for instructors to teach the rules to them. To put it differently, teachers cannot teach students what they know already. Noguchi (1987) also contends that if native speakers of English are knowledgeable about the rule of Tag-Formation, it presupposes that they also possess the syntactic categories imbedded in the rule. Suffice it to mention that native speakers of English, whatever the formal background of native speakers in grammar, they already have a fundamental comprehension of such syntactic categories as sentence, auxiliary verb, tense, negative, and (subject) noun phrase. Against the forgoing, what this study aims to achieve is to ascertain whether or not the non-native speakers of English also have these inherent qualities with regard to the learning of English language as a second language.
The Purpose of the Study

The study set out to analyse Chomsky’s grounded theory of TGG model of native speakers of English language to non-native speakers of English. Again, the research seeks to find out the need for non-native speakers of English to be taught basic grammatical forms should the theory (Chomsky’s TGG) prove inefficacious.

Finally, the research seeks to shed light on the knowledge of English teachers in Ghanaian schools in grammatical theory taking into consideration TGG thereby exposing them to key concepts therein. For this will, to a no inconsiderable degree, appropriately and adequately equip teachers towards effective teaching of foundational grammatical theories in various schools.

Research Questions

To effectively achieve the aim of this study, certain questions have to be asked to serve as a guide to the study:

1. To what extent can students change positive declarative statements into question tags?
2. How well informed are students on transforming negative declarative statements into question tags?
3. What are students’ perceptions on converting affirmative main clauses into affirmative question tags?
4. What is the level of students’ knowledge in turning imperative statements into question tags?
5. How best can students translate statements into rising or falling intonation tags?
Significance of the Study

One seemingly problematic component of teaching the English language that teachers have is grammar. Apparently, most teachers do not have adequate understanding of the grammatical theories which form foundations for good mastery of the rules guiding the social and linguistic use of the language. Suffice it to mention that inadequate comprehension of grammatical theories in the English language is a major instructive dilemma to competent teaching of the language.

It is in this regard that this study will be relevant in several ways. It will not only extend the frontiers of knowledge or contribute immensely to the research area under discussion (Transformational Generative Grammar: A Pedagogical Aide in Teaching Non-native speakers of English), rather it will further enlighten teachers of non-native speakers in understanding and knowing the right teaching methods to employ. Again, the result of this research will provide the general public with some knowledge of Chomsky's transformational generative grammar and how it is perceived or realized with mother tongue English speakers and non-native speakers of English. Finally, the results will be of great benefit to non-native English students as it will clear all doubts of whether non-native speakers of the English language also possess an inherent innate knowledge of grammar rules or vice versa.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was confined to one hundred and fifty participants from the two senior high schools in the Adentan Municipality. These participants were made up of Senior High School year three students from both schools as well as three teachers from each school. Though a lot of subjects are offered in the Senior High Schools, this study was limited to English Language specifically the grammar aspect. The respondents for the study were drawn from the two schools because these schools are closer to the University of Ghana compared to other senior high schools in the
municipality and since this is a self-funded research, it saved the researcher cost with regard to transportation among others. Also, these are among the biggest and the best public senior high schools in the municipality, if not all, in terms of population and academic performance. Regardless of the usefulness of the outcomes of the study to the non-participating schools, it would be unfeasible for the researcher to generalize his findings to the rest of the Senior High Schools in Ghana. Nevertheless, the outcomes of the study might trigger further in-depth research into the topic under study.

**Organisation of the Study**

This study is categorised into five chapters. The first chapter contains the background to the study, problem statement, research purpose, questions, the significance, delimitations and organisation of the study. The second chapter looks at the review of related literature in terms of conceptual or ontological review, theoretical review and empirical review. The third chapter concerns itself with the methodological aspect of the study. It looks at the research designs, the study area, the population, the sample size, the instruments for collecting data and the data analysis itself. The fourth chapter is confined to the results and discussion of the data. The final chapter focuses on the summary, concluding remarks and recommendations informed by the key findings.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter considers a survey of relevant literature of the study. In view of that, it looks at the theoretical, conceptual and the empirical reviews of the study. The theoretical review looks at the theory of transformational generative grammar, native and non-native speakers of English whilst the conceptual review also looks at transformational generative grammar, transformational generative grammar as a pedagogical aid and applying transformational generative grammar in teaching native speakers of English. The empirical review also looks at the studies other researchers have carried out that relates to the topic of the study. Studies reviewed include Odlin (2006), Folse (2006) and Alduais (2013) among others.

Theoretical Framework

The study was foregrounded in two main theories which were the Chomsky’s Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) and the Linguistic Markedness Theory. These theories are further elucidated below:

Chomsky’s Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)

According to Chomsky, all human languages originate from a shared source, an instinctive group of grammatical rules and approaches that are hardwired into the human brain. As naturalistic as this explanation of language acquisition is, it has increasingly found much acceptance from experts in the field and this is the basis of generative grammar (Chomsky, 1986). Generative grammar in this sense, describes the technique which individuals learn to converse by relating
word meaning and sound. In this theory, Chomsky (1986) gave in-depth information on the deep and the surface structure of the language. Whilst the deep structure acts as a foundation of the language and gives the conceptual meaning to the language, the surface structure acts as the spoken word. Unlike the structuralists whose aim is to scrutinize oral speeches and depict their systemic nature to develop a framework of internal rules, this model aimed at producing all of the grammatical and ungrammatical sentences (Kolln & Funk, n.d; Weinreich, 1945). Whilst Chomsky (1986) believed that the deep structure of the language to mean the inaudible voice of the language and that this deep structure could be changed by generative transformational rules of the language into a surface structure, he also stated that this can also be converted in a number of ways. He also posited that deep structure is very few in number and that it is very easy as compared to the surface structure of the language.

In this regard, grammar is said to be generative in all ways since it is not much concerned with any actual facts of the language because if explicit and predictive type of grammar is generative, it will automatically bring about transformation as was argued and proven by Chomsky. He captured this assertion succinctly when he said “It is the idea of innate and natural grammar that really sticks. While there is little dispute at this point that some of the more fundamental functions of the human brain are transmitted as instincts. We do not have to be taught to breathe, after all. The concept of an underlying mental matrix that informs all of human language is a bit of a departure from more traditional views on the origin of verbal communication” (Chomsky, 2000, p.87). By this assertion, he argued that all sentences in the speakers’ mind are an unseen deep structure and that the speaker merely transforms this deep structure as a visible structure of language including written or spoken language by using the transformational rules of Grammar (Chomsky, 2000). In this regard, generative grammar is not concerned with any actual set of
rules on the sentence formation or sentence of the language but with the possible set of sentences.

**Criticisms of Chomsky’s Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)**

Even though the transformational generative grammar theory of Chomsky received a lot of recognition from scholars and academicians, it also received its fair share of rebuttal from a number of scholars alike. According to the behaviourists, championed by B.F Skinner, children learn the language of their immediate social environment through continual trial and error process (stimuli-response) and that with repetition, experience is gained and language is learnt. This also states that children and toddlers learn through the process of imitations to make a finer discernations and discrimination to the rules of the grammar of their language until their utterances synchronize with that of their immediate environment and that there is no innate basic grammatical rules of morphology, phonology and syntax in the human brain which had been argued by the transformationalists led by Chomsky. Chomsky (1995) has stressed that language is not learned like how behaviour is and that language is innate and exclusive to humans. If this argument holds, then the question is; if the basic rule of grammar of the child’s language is innate and the environment is not useful to his grammatical competence, what therefore accounts for the frequent errors in the child’s communication, the mispronunciation of certain words and non-adherence to the exceptions to the rule of the grammar language? According to the behaviourists, the answer is the environment and experiences. The adults in the child’s environment through the stimuli-response synergy assist the child to build on his grammatical knowledge by correcting anomalies in his speech with the constant reinforcement on the parts of the observing adults always assisting him to fully internalize all the rules of the grammar and not just the basic ones (Hawkins, 2001).
More so, Halliday and Matinet (1908-1999) focused on the semantic perspective of Ferdinand de "Sassure’s argument about signs and their functions in the world and how language developed out of it. The rules of grammar of languages have been subjected to modification since the inception of language and that it usually takes more than an instinctive knowledge of the fundamental principles of a language for a native speaker to fit into his immediate environment linguistically (Matthiessen, 2004). The diachronic study of language over time has given rise to a possible multi-faceted meaning that is applicable to a single word or expression depending on the experiences of the hearer and this has been the weakness to Chomsky’s transformational generative grammar theory which ignores environment and experiences in one’s learning of language. According to Hawkins (2001, 151), “Chomsky's submission was done in error. Chomsky's repeated assertions that he is dealing with an ‘ideal’ speaker-listener do not carry conviction in view of his neglect of the importance of a listener’s reaction to the interpretation of what he or she hears”. This point is stressed by Chomskyan grammar’s inability to account for ambiguity in semantic meaning of a sentence.

**Linguistic Markedness Theory**

The Linguistic Markedness Theory maintains that speakers have a sense of markedness with regard to the linguistic codes available to them for any interaction. They then select their codes depending on the other participant(s) and/or their relationship with others which they intend to establish. The theory posits that every language in a multilingual society is linked to explicit social roles which Myers-Scotton (1993) considers rights-and-obligations (RO) sets. By speaking a given language, a partaker prompts his comprehension of the circumstances at hand, and most importantly, his applicable roles within the milieu. If a speaker uses more than one language, the speaker in effect, is initiating a compromise of relevant social roles. The assumption must leastwise share a comprehension of the social connotations of each existing code. She explains
that the existence of such norms form the foundation for comprehending the relevance of particular code choices by interlocutors.

The theory has its basis in the Rational Actor Model proposed by Elster (1989, p93) which postulates that “when encountered with various courses of activities, people often do what exactly they believe is likely to have the best overall outcome”. Applying this to bilingual conversation, Myers-Scotton in the Markedness Theory explains that speakers are reasonable in that, their linguistic choices are normally based on their assessment of cost-benefit analysis. Consequently, in making a choice, speakers will opt for the code which enables them to carry out their immediate goals without diminishing their own beliefs. She explains that in any type of interaction, participants know at the subliminal level that there is a continuum of choices that are considered unmarked or marked, and making the marked or the unmarked choice hinges on factors including the setting, topic, participants as well as the intention of the speaker. The unmarked code is the expected code given the situation of the interaction while the marked code is the unexpected code choice. What is considered marked or unmarked code will depend on the situation. In the case of Ghana, English is the unmarked code for official communication.

In view of that, there is an unmarked rights-and-obligation (RO) which guides the linguistic choice of teachers in the educational system of the country. It must be mentioned that whereas the speaker uses code choice to achieve a communicative goal, for the listener it is an index of identity. The use of English in Ghana for instance is an indexical of higher education while the use of an indigenous language by any person or group of persons will also index another RO set like ethnicity. The theory has consequently assumed a form of a principle and three dictums with the negotiation principle premised on Grice’s (1975) cooperative principle which captures the central claim of the theory.
In this regard, one has to pick the form of conversational contribution so that it indexes the set of rights and obligations which she/he wishes to exist between the speaker and addressee for the current exchange (Myers-Scotton, 1993). What this means is that in conversational situations, participants are obligated to choose a code that will reflect the context in which they are operating. Myers-Scotton asserts that bilingual speakers have an instinctive theory of markedness and indexicality, and language use to negotiate interpersonal relationship and they do this within a normative framework which permits choices but limits interpretation.

The three dictums follow from this principle. These are the unmarked choice dictums which directs, “Make your code choice the unmarked index of the unmarked RO set in talk exchanges when you wish to establish or affirm that RO set”, the marked code choice dictum which posits, “Make a marked code choice…when you wish to establish a new RO set as unmarked for the current exchange” and the investigative choice dictum which states, “When an unmarked choice is not clear, use code switching to make alternate investigative choices as candidates for an unmarked choice and thereby as an index of an RO set which you favour”. Suffice it to mention that the shared meanings of language (code) choice alongside the causes of swinging are defined wholly with regard to the rights and obligations of the participants.

**Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework represents the researcher’s synthesis of the various literatures and the key variables in the study and how they help in explaining the phenomenon of the study. Based on Chomsky’s transformational generative grammar theory reviewed above, the following conceptual framework has been developed. The concepts captured under the study are;

**Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG):** This concept introduced by Chomsky in the 1980s mostly considers word meaning and sound and also provides a mathematical notation
which relates the deep as well as the surface structure of language (Claro, 2013). Both the deep and surface structures of the language are assumed to relate to the competence and the performance of the language respectively.

**Deep Structure (Competence):** It is the language or words in the mind of the speaker which are subsequently transformed by generative transformational rules of language into surface structure (performance). In a speaker’s mind, every single sentence is an undetectable and muffled deep structure and that it is inherent on the speaker to transform this deep structure of language into visible structure of language through transformational rule of grammar where the language can either be written down or uttered (Chomsky, 2000). In this case, the syntax which is the deep structure in the mind of the speaker can effectively be converted to surface structure through transformational rules. Thus, generative grammar is not concerned with any definite set of rules on sentence formation or sentences of the language but with the probable set of sentences, hence this kind of generative grammar is transformational also. And TGG is generative and to say that it explicitly, clearly, methodically, and accurately indicates all other possible sentences of the language. Unlike the sentence structures which preceding TGG, TGG has offered a solid base to build embedding sentences.

**Surface Structure (Performance):** It is either the spoken or written words of a language that have manifested from the interaction between the deep structure and transformational rules of the speaker of a language. Surface structure refers to the superficial expression of a language and it is what hearers observe from the speaker of a language. Whilst language and grammatical rules are intrinsically imbedded in the brain of the speaker in the form of deep structure, the superficial expression of the deep structure is what is known as the surface structure.

**Pedagogical Aid:** The term pedagogical grammar is the description of grammar that is embedded in a book (Greenbaum, 1974:72) and is unequivocally for the benefit of language
learners (Smith, 1977:7). To put it differently, it is a clear-cut description of the rules of grammar written for the express goal of learning and teaching a second language. One of the earliest references to a pedagogical grammar used in this sense was produced by Sweet (1899) who held the opinion both the scope of the grammar and the presentation of facts would be different in a pedagogical grammar as compared to a "reference grammar". Verma (1979) also recognizes this distinction with the assertion that the focus of a pedagogical grammar is only a new way of selecting and presenting facts. Pedagogical aid therefore involves the quest to teach language learners the fundamental rules in any discipline of interest with the aim of making them to appreciate and understand those rules and regulations that guide that particular area of study.

The conceptual framework of the study (transformational generative grammar) below, is made up of two main levels of representation, the deep structure and the surface structure. The surface structure is derived from the deep structure where surface structure depicts the words of a sentence as pronounce or written and the deep structure demonstrates the theory that enables a learner to know the meaning of the sentence. In sum deep structure expresses meaning while surface structure determine its written form. These two structures play a role in pedagogical teaching in that the surface structure is derived from the deep structure through a set of rules or transformations. Native speakers easily transform such rules into different syntactic categories such as question tags, passive voice etc. The ability to transform such rules, leads to the avoidance of ambiguity in sentences. Hence the ability of a learner to produce an acceptable utterance.

Below is a diagrammatic representation showing the conceptual framework of the study.
Figure 1 Diagram showing adaptation of the conceptual framework of the study

Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)

The concept of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) gained prominence in the second half of the 21st century as an accepted grammatical model. Transformational is an adjective derived from the noun transformation. In this regard, Kress (2003) considers transformation as a mechanism of altering the form of one linguistic structure to another (Kress, 2003). For instance, an active sentence can be altered to a passive sentence whereas a simple declarative statement...
can be transformed into a tag question via the use of transformation as shown in the following sentences:

Sentence 1a: *Silas can drive.*

Sentence 1b: *Silas can drive, can’t he?*

Sentence 2a: *The neighbours are evacuating.*

Sentence 2b: *The neighbours are evacuating, aren’t they?*

Again, a transforming process of the syntactic structures according to Chomsky’s TGG can be summarized by addition, deletion, moving, and substitution of words. These changes occur through definite rules which are referred to as Transformational rules (Claro, 2013).

Turning to the word generative, it is an adjective formed from the verb ‘generate’. “Generate” as used in generative grammar, does not imply to produce but to rather describe (Tomori, 1997). When it is mentioned that rules generate a sentence, its implication in TGG, it means that, a specific rule or set of rules depict how a particular linguistic element is formed (Xiao, 2017). In addition, generative grammar is a linguistic theory that perceives grammar as a group of independent but interrelated rules that brings accurately into existence those collections of words that form grammatical sentences in a particular language (ibid).

Grammar as a word emanated from the Greek word “*grammatikē technē*”, meaning “craft of letters”; which is an exact description. In any language, grammar can be seen as the methodical study and depiction of a language or a set of rules and examples dealing with the syntax and word structures of a language (Nordquist, 2018). Again, Harmer (2001:12) explains grammar as the description of how words can change their forms and can be combined into sentences in the language. Finally, Lado (1977:141) considers grammar as the study of rules that are believed to
explain to students the things they should or should not say to enable them speak the language of the erudite social class.

Flowing from the explanations above, transformational generative grammar implies the kind of grammar that offers explanation to the rules guiding structural changes and the formation of statements (Tomorri, 1997). More so, according to the Webster’s new world college dictionary, transformational generative grammar is a system of linguistic analysis comprising a set of rules that generate basic syntactic structures, in the form of simple independent clauses, and a set of transformational rules that operate on those structures so as to create questions, complex sentences among others and to also account for all possible sentences of a language.

Chomsky in his Syntactic Structures (1957) considers transformational grammar as both a partial opposition to the post-Bloomfieldian structuralism and a continuation of it. Post-Bloomfieldian structuralism is the work of the American linguist Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949), specifically relating to American structural linguistics in the 1950s. Chomsky’s strongest reaction was against the post-Bloomfieldian’s finding procedures.

In this regard, Chomsky thinks that linguistics must set itself a more uncomplicated and more practical target of developing criteria for assessing optional descriptions of a language without questioning how these descriptions settled on. Chomsky believes that the stance of the linguists in describing a language should, however, fall within the outline of a far more accurate theory of grammar than what has characterized the post-Bloomfieldian findings. However, Chomsky later contested post-Bloomfieldian concept on several other grounds a few years on. This gave rise to his adoption of what he termed as “mentalistic” theory of language. With this, Chomsky meant that the linguist must concern himself or herself with the creative linguistic competence of the speaker rather than speaker’s performance and the actual utterances made. He further questioned
the post- Bloomfieldian concept which most scholars deemed as the most firm and lasting product of the earlier generation’s work (Aldulai, 2013; Folse, 2006).

Generative as used in language studies, is the ability of the language system to itemize all of the grammatical sentences of a language and none of the ungrammatical ones (Lewis, 1972:3). This generative model which depicts native competence, may account for the conviction that the native speaker can produce and grasp innumerable number of novel utterances (Chomsky, 1967:15). This language system comprises a lexicon and rules. These rules may be basic rules of the S →NP→VP (Sentence →Noun Phrase → Verb Phrase) or they may be transformational rules which operate on these rules, or transitional structures to create a series which is altered in structure (Emmon, 1966). In an attempt to explain the competence of a native speaker, transformational theory differentiates between a native speaker and a speaker who acquires just a range of words or phrases to use (Lewis, 1972:3).

Transformational grammar synthesized the contributions of both traditional and structural descriptions. Improving upon the scientific rigor of the structuralists, it did not stop at giving lists of forms and structures but went on to explain how human languages formed a network of interrelated relations. In doing so it provided rules of great generalizing power which would generate all the grammatical sentences of the language. Roberts (1962) wrote a grammar book to adhere almost exclusively to the transformational generative model. This follows from the view that a pedagogical grammar must rely on the best available scientific grammar. But the relation between a pedagogical grammar and a scientific grammar is much more complex. In order to ascertain how much the former can borrow from the latter, it is necessary to analyse a broader issue, vis-a-vis, the relationship between linguistics and language pedagogy.
However, the technical formulations of T.G. rules may not be directly relevant for use in the classroom. In fact, Chomsky was one of the earliest theoreticians to warn teachers about the doubtful use of transformational generative grammar in language teaching. Nevertheless, it has a lot to offer by way of implications in addition to all the powerful generalizing rules as can be seen in the ensuing sections.

First, transformational generative grammar has provided the language teacher with a number of powerful rules which if modified for classroom purposes, can be very helpful to the learner. For instance, the explanation of the auxiliary gives the learner in one rule a clear idea of the whole system. Earlier this was done by giving long lists of the various conjugations. Related to the description of the auxiliary is the use of "do" in a number of related sentences like the negative, interrogative, emphatic among others (Abu-Arab, 2005).

Secondly, by positing linguistic universals, transformational generative grammar shows how all languages have a common base which can be very useful to the language teacher. Based on this, the relationship between the indigenous language and the target language is deemed as being more positive than what it was considered to be by structural linguists. Instead of being considered a source of interference, the mother tongue is now made the starting point of teaching those structures which it has in common with the target language. It is also concern with the fact that the learner already has the semantic concepts in his mother tongue and now needs to be told how they surface in the target language (Kress, 2003).

Thirdly, transformational generative grammar has also contributed to ideas on language acquisition and language learning processes. It has shown that language acquisition is not mere habit-formation but a creative activity in which the learner has an active role of forming hypotheses on the grammar of the language (Roberts, 1962). This has largely influenced language teaching methodologies. Similarly, errors are now no longer considered to be
undesirable. Contrariwise, it is an indication that the learner is going through a stage of hypothesis formation of the rules of the target language.

More than Chomsky's grammar, generative-semantics seems to be better suited to form the basis of pedagogical grammars. If we posit the deep structure to have semantics rather than syntax as the base component, it will be easier to relate the semantic structure of the learner's mother tongue to the target language he is trying to acquire. Fillmore's Case Grammar which deals with the semantic roles of noun phrases in relation to the verb has been particularly amenable to pedagogic descriptions (Halliday, 1985). Language in generative grammar, is considered as a link between sounds and meanings where sound represents the physical form of spoken language but lacks an inner meaning; the meaning is the mental representation and it is autonomous from its physical form, being the relation between sound and meaning arbitrarily (Abu-Arab, 2005; Kress, 2003).

While the native speaker or hearer is capable of producing and comprehending new utterances, an individual who does not have command over the language system may not be able to do same. Also, uncertainties are readily observable to the native speaker than their counterparts with a retrained language competence (Lewis, 1972). Because of this, the transformationalists maintain that the native speaker has command over the abstract deep structure underlying the sentence and he instinctively grasps that an uncertain sentence has more than one of these deep structures (Lewis, 1972:3).

**Transformational-Generative Grammars as a Pedagogical Aid**

The term pedagogical grammar has been defined and understood differently in the literature. As the term ‘grammar’ is ambiguous, it suggests that it has multiple meanings. This ambiguity is identified by Corder (1978:168) when he says that a pedagogic grammar is a set of statements about the target language expressed in meta-language and recorded in a book or on a tape.
Corder (1978) also considers pedagogical grammar as a way of thinking, thus it is characterized by its approach to the facts; not by the selection of facts it proposes to teach.

Chomsky (1966:9) has broadly distinguished a theoretical description of grammar and a pedagogical grammar as follows: a pedagogical grammar attempts to provide the student with this ability (i.e. ability to use a language); as a linguistic grammar, it aims to determine and display the mechanisms that make this achievement possible. Saporta (1973) and Corder (1974) consider any teaching materials for the learning of an L2 as a pedagogical grammar. Since learning a language involves internalizing the grammar of that language whether it is an L1 or L2, this can be one possible definition of a pedagogical grammar. Noblitt (1972:316) reasons that the applied linguist has a special concern for a theoretical statement which accounts for second language acquisition in a formal or structural learning situation. Flowing from the above, just as Chomsky thinks of grammar as a theory of language, Fink (1977) and Noblitt (1972) also consider pedagogical grammar as a theory of second language acquisition.

Allen (1974:60), while highlighting the differences between a formal scientific grammar and a pedagogical grammar, distinguished three stages in the conversion of a scientific grammar into practical teaching materials by considering all of them as aspects of a pedagogical grammar. The first stage termed as "methodics" by Halliday et al (1985) is where the applied linguist borrows from scientific grammar those features which are useful pedagogically and converts it into a "pedagogically oriented statement of the linguistic facts as a preliminary to the construction of actual teaching materials" (Halliday et al., 1985:9). The second stage has to do with the formation of a syllabus which would be structural in nature and the third stage would be the writing of actual materials (Allen, 1974: 61).
The term pedagogical grammar is the description of grammar that is embedded in a book (Greenbaum, 1974:72) and is explicitly for the benefit of language learners (Smith 1977:7). To put it differently, it is an unambiguous description of the rules of grammar written for the express purpose of learning and teaching a second language. One of the earliest references to a pedagogical grammar used in this sense was produced by Sweet (1899) who was of the opinion that not only the scope of the grammar but also the presentation of facts would be different in a pedagogical grammar as compared to a "reference grammar". Verma (1979:49) also refers to this distinction when he writes that "the focus of a pedagogical grammar is only a new way of selecting and presenting facts".

Akin to traditional and phrase-structure grammars, transformational-generative grammar also gives emphasis to syntax (Zain, 2007:21). Transformational generative grammar deals with syntax in greater details. In this regard, Radford (1981) thinks that phrase-structure grammar moves the thought from individual words to sentences. He also thinks of transformational generative grammarians as concerned with explicating how our mind produces sentences from intent to statement. Radford further maintains that transformational generative grammarians believe that numerous syntactic arrangements are produced through a scheme of standardized rules such as transformational rule (Radford, 1981). These rules are based on the phrase structure however, the tree structure transforms phrase structures into other forms, for instance, active to passive. The processes that convert active voice to passive voice illustrate both the grammatical relationships between the different element that constitute a sentence and explicate how people can construct copious sentences which they have not yet formed or heard before (Zain, 2007).

Chomsky (1965) does not see language as a close system but rather a generative system thus a construct in charge of comprehension and creation of endless number of grammatical sentences.
He further proclaims that grammar must explain a native speaker’s spontaneous comprehension of the language he or she uses. The term ‘surface structure’ and ‘deep structure’ are employed to explicate this instinctive knowledge. Surface structure is the real form of the sentence created whilst deep structure is an underlying form that is linked to the meaning of the sentence (Chomsky, 1965). This is depicted as a hierarchal tree design to demonstrate the nonfigurative grammatical relationship of the words and phrases within a sentence.

Chomsky (1965) developed a scheme of recognized rules known as transformational rules that identify how ‘deep structure’ should be converted into ‘surface structure’. For instance, in the following sentences:

Sentence 1: *The security guard was dismissed by the master.*
Sentence 2: *The master dismissed the security guard.*

As can be observed in the first sentence, it is a transformation from the second sentence. Regardless of the fact that both sentences have dissimilar grammatical structures, their meanings are the same. Chomsky’s transformational grammar provides understanding to the attributes of language which are crucial for language learning and valuable for language lessons (Zain, 2007). Zain further asserts that transformational generative grammar exercises demonstrate how the components of a sentence can be reorganised, joined and replaced so that learners can manoeuvre as well as play with language at the sentence, phrase, and paragraph levels.

Transformational-generative grammar portrays grammar as a linguistic knowledge competent of producing innumerable sentences from a predetermined set of rules that is competent to produce all and only the grammatically accurate sequences of that language (Xiao, 2017). Suffice it to mention that knowing a language means knowing the predetermined set of rules. This tends to make the act of learning and teaching of language much easier and a more direct practice. Reasoning along the pattern, it is suggestive that students can create all the negative sentences by
getting hold of the negative transformation rule, interrogative sentences and passive sentences among others. Suffice it to reason that students can learn a language effortlessly by knowing a limited number of phrase structural rules and transformational rules.

Értekezè (2006) further asserts that given that the deep structure rules characterised the competence of the speaker, it was utterly pointless to teach the rule overtly. In this regard, a context should be provided to create rules to expose the learner to graspable effort that is rated and valuable for the learner (Krashen, 1978). The emphasis placed on how surface structures could be produced from deep structures and how structures could be changed into stylistic variants appeared to demonstrate that the study of this kind of grammar could lead to enhanced language use (Krashen, 1978). The theory is tilted towards linguists and psychologists than the language instructors/teachers; hence the assumption that generative grammar is instructively inadaptable to language instruction (Értekezè, 2006).

Similarly, Xiao (2017) thinks that the deep and surface structures are most likely to help students to comprehend some vague statements. He further provides a sentence that reads the cat ate the mouse with a fork; with this, Xiao posits that the uncertainty of the sentence comes from the two deep structures it is related with. In the first deep structure, the preposition “with a fork” is attached with the verb “ate”, producing the meaning of “the cat ate with a fork”, while in the second-deep structure of the sentence, as can see the PP can also be added to the noun phrase “the mouse”, so it becomes “a mouse with a fork was eaten by the cat”. Against this backdrop, transformational generative grammar aids students in understanding specific sentences and permits teachers to explain unmistakably to their students wherever uncertainties occur (Xiao, 2017).

Furthermore, Warschauer and Kern (2006) vouch for a net-work-based teaching from three standpoints; structural (Bloomfield), cognitive (Chomskyan grammar) and socio-cognitive
Kern and colleague further advanced their point by stating that for pedagogical purposes, application of computers in grammar lessons can help resolve issues that most grammar schools could not address. In furtherance of their argument, Warschauer and Kern (2006:7) made reference to three metaphors from Crook demonstrating the relevance of computers in education: “computer-as-tutor”, “computer-as-pupil” and “computer-as-tool. Norton and Toohey (2006) tend to lend support to the position by asserting grammar education is seriously impacted on by decisive pedagogies. Suffice it to reason that with critical pedagogies, some direct or indirect social and political effects are likely to affect the language learning development processes of the people learning English as a second language.

Instructively, the prime objective of all language instructors is to inculcate in students, skills in the creation and grasping of the marked language parallel to that of the native speaker’s (Lamendella, 1969:255). For any strides to be made in developing satisfactory language pedagogical methods or approaches; there is the need for the instructional book writers and teachers to have access to a theory of human language acquisition and comprehension of the psychological depiction of linguistic knowledge in the mind (Lamendella, 1969:255-256). Anything contrary or less makes the teacher find him or herself in a state of just presenting data to students in a haphazard manner with no principled locus for determining what must be taught, the presentation order, or how to render ample explanations (ibid). A lot of scholars perceive transformational grammar as an attempt to symbolise the structure of linguistic knowledge in the mind and seek to apply transformational depictions of languages directly to the development of second language instructional materials (Xiao, 2017). In furtherance, Xiao indicates that should this be true, transformational grammar is a cognitive theory of language which aimed at making claims as regards the psychological representation of knowledge. This is suggestive that applied linguists whose instructional materials are focused on transformational grammar are most likely
to think that they are right. With this, Xiao asks a thought-provoking question that, if, nevertheless, transformational grammar makes no psychological claims, then what becomes its position and what does it have to say to the language instructor?

Drawing on the account of Wells (1947), Lamendella (1969:263) indicates that the systems of Immediate Constituent Analysis developed in structural linguistics formed part of the effort to explain the constituent structure of sentence. Lamendella further thinks that transformational grammar tried to surmount the difficulties intrinsic in any effort to illustrate language structure by just slicing up sentences. He again argues that IC analysis was ill-equipped to handle issues including discontinuous constituents, some kinds of structural ambiguity, and people’s standpoints with regard to the relationships between sentences. A transformational grammar can render an explanation as how discontinuous elements in a sentence belong to the same constituent and it can also disambiguate identical surface structures; it does unreservedly articulate connections between sentences (Lamendella, 1969:263). Lamendella, however, thinks that the important question is, does the machinery employed in a transformational grammar to attain these descriptive targets bear any correlation to psychological processes which function in human language?

Transformational-generative grammar aims to make out the deep structure rules that regulate connections between components of a sentence on the premise that underneath such aspects, there exits word order of a fundamental structure (Értekezê, 2006; Xiao, 2017). Thus, it is the framework of a sentence with all the information required to perform three functions; to develop a full-fledged sentence to offer it a phonological illustration as well as offer it a semantic explanation (Xiao, 2017). Xiao further mentions that this structure undergoes several modifications to become a surface structure; a linear arrangement of words and phrases to be
formed. The rules guiding the transformation of the deep structure of a sentence into the surface structure are known as transformational rules. These are rules of passive transformation, yes/no transformation, do transformation, negation transformation among others. Xiao adds that these rules were used to add, delete, or permute. This implies change order and at times, the hierarchal relationship among components of the deep structure to convert it into a normal sentence used in everyday activities. Suffice it to position that TGG serves as a pedagogical tool in that it can be used to teach all the rules of grammar.

**Tag Formation**

Tag questions are vital hedging mechanisms in the English language hence their common usage by indigenous speakers of English in everyday conversations (Al-Nabtiti, 2012:70). They are signs of courtesy and they ask the interlocutors to partake in the conversation (ibid). Even though, question tags seem to be effortless to teach and use, they are highly intricate for the non-native speakers of the language in that they have challenges in using them properly (Al-Nabtiti, 2012). Making it much more difficult for foreign speakers of English is the diverse pragmatic functions of tag questions. Lending credence to this, Algeo (1988:187) puts forth that those tag question pragmatic functions “runs from die most to... the least polite ranges of English. This makes it compelling for language teachers to adopt another approach when initiating such structures to second language learners. Such an approach must be concerned with the pragmatic functions of the target language other than the syntactic knowledge of the language.

Al-Nabtiti (2012), however, indicates that though raising awareness of the second language learners is crucial, particularly, among the adult concerning the grammar of the target language, what still matters most is the social context in which utterances are made. Also, on the complicatedness of tag questions to language learners particularly, the non-native speakers, Cameron et al. (1989) posited that question tags are typified with intricate multi-functionality
and multiplicity of understandings. Given that the pragmatic functions of tag questions are mutating, how such expressions are handled in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms must also change. This lends support to Bublitz’s (1979) claim that besides syntax, a pragmatic theory that explicates tag questions in social contexts is required. In a broad sense, to native speakers of language, tagging imperative and suggestive sentences does not follow a single convention or syntactic rule (Al-Nabtiti, 2012). He therefore indicates that it all centers on the shared context within which the statement is made and the social role of the interlocutor.

Similarly, Beardsmore (1970) asserts that the complexity of tag questions makes ESL students avoid its use. He further indicates that the Arabic language has a kind of invariant tag question that tends to make it exigent for Arabic-speakers to master and satisfactorily use canonical tag questions in English. Al-Nabtiti (2012), in his study, indicates that as regards Tag Question Oral Test, it was uneasy for the Arabic-speaking participants to use the syntactic rules of tag questions and at the same time maintain the flow of their speech. The polarity of tag questions, auxiliary, pronommalization, tense, agreement and contraction, as well as falling and rising intonation make them extremely intricate for learners who are Arabic-speakers to use properly (ibid). Corollary, Dennis et al (1982:1254) maintained that question tag construction entails that certain surface structure of syntactic features of the sentence be known and also they must be synchronized concurrently into a reasoned construction.

The Tag-Formation rule is very useful in identifying and correcting run-on sentences and comma splices (Noguchi, 1987:29). Strictly speaking, neither a run-on nor a common splice is a valid sentence because each comprises two or more sentences incorrectly joined as one. With this, Noguchi asserts that the usefulness of Tag-Formation rule is its applicability in the determination of the “sentence hood” of the entire sequence and its parts. More so, Noguchi (1987) states that
the knack to use the Tag-Formation rule as a testing device can, to a very high extent, be priceless in the actual rectification of run-ons and commas’ splices. He further indicates that understandably, the recognition of run-ons and comma splices is essentially prior to correction. The merit of employing the foresaid method is that if students are taught to refrain from joining sentences with just commas or no punctuation at all, they can use the Tag-Formation rule to spot just what parts of suspect sequences are individual sentences and then introduce the correct form of punctuation.

Furthermore, Noguchi asserts that if absence of a semicolon is the mechanical error, an additional boon is that the technique could be employed to illustrate that a semicolon in its prime function, should join sentences, not fragments. Besides, using fundamental syntactic knowledge can be helpful in identifying and correcting blunders in subject-verb agreement. As regards blunders in subject-verb agreement, the principal source of blunder rests in identifying the subject of the sentence, thus, the noun phrase (specially, the noun) constituent with which the verb concurs in number. So as to make matters simple, Noguchi (1987) excluded from the discussion, collective noun phrases; noun phrases following the expletive, there; and compound noun phrases joined by or; all of which require special rules. Noguchi (1987) further posits that to do away with the chain of interlacing categories and writing, instructors in this regard tap into the use of the implicit syntactic knowledge of their students. Once the Tag-Formation rule referred to the notion of subject, the rule is likely to offer an effectual means of identifying subjects of sentences. With this, for an individual to locate the subject of a sentence, he or she has to form the derivative tag-question, spot the pronoun in the tag, and establish which word in the sentence the pronoun refers to (i.e., "stands for").
Al-Nabtiti (2012) indicates that ideally, some native speakers will encounter difficulties in producing appropriate tag questions if they have to think of the syntactic rules to apply in transforming statements into tags. Interestingly, correct tag questions are automatically and unconsciously produced. What this seems to suggest is the deep-rootedness of the syntactic rules of tag question in the unconscious minds of the native speakers to the extent that they were unaware of them. Thus, they would have committed mistakes the moment that they consciously thought of them. The caveat here is that this is applicable to virtually all languages. The rules governing our native languages are profoundly ingrained in our unaware minds. In addition, Al-Nabtiti (2012) proclaims that we speak our indigenous languages as well as use their rules regardless of the complicatedness of such rules, and instinctively, as soon as we think of these rules, we tend to commit blunders.

Intonation in English Tag Questions

Linguists such as McCawley (1988), Huddleston & Pullum, (2002), and Ladd (1988) have investigated intonation in English tag questions. In one accord, these scholars have agreed that intonation plays a crucial function, because it either offers another person the chance to speak or signals someone’s turn in a conversation: “rise and fall are used as a signal as to when to speak and when to speak (Parkes, 1989). In case an individual uses a high pitch, it suggests he wants to continue talking, but a fall signals completion. We must be reminded that English question tags are usually stressed on the verb but in case there is a change of person, the stress must be on the pronoun. Oftentimes, there is a rising tag, particularly, when the tag contains no negation or the intonation pattern may be the typically English fall-rise. In this regard, Collins (2009) asserts that English tag questions are untypically intricate comparable to the other language due to their variations which hinge on four factors, thus, the choice of auxiliary, the negation, the emphasis
and the intonation. Stemming from this, it is most likely for a lot of people to commit blunders when learning English as a second or third language (Knudsen, 2011).

Usually, tag questions are punctuated with question marks but are not intended as questions in certain instances (Knudsen, 2011). In wanting to seek confirmation on something, speakers must use the falling pattern. And in case a speaker does not know something or is unsure of something, he or she tends to use the rising pattern. Ladd (1981) identifies two types of tag questions in English by defining them as nuclear and post-nuclear tags other than “rising” and “falling” to which context and intonation play an exceedingly crucial role. Knudsen (2011) indicates that the falling intonation is used to seek out recognition that the anchor is true, entreating a strong bias for an answer that confirms the anchor. Ladd (1981) links it with nuclear tags, whereas rising intonation in tag questions asks for confirmation of the anchor, at the same time expressing uncertainty. Ladd (1981) links this with post-nuclear tags.

Worthwhile to note is that tag questions communicate various levels of biases based on the direction of the pitch over the tag. For instance, falling intonation over the tag conveys a strong bias toward the proposition expressed by the anchor. Whereas rising intonation usually expresses a degree of ambiguity by the speaker as regards the truth of the anchor which is linked to a weak bias. Naturally, falling intonation tag questions ask for recognition of the anchor from the addressee, while rising intonation tag questions demand for confirmation (Rando, 1980; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). With this, Knudsen (2011) notes emphatically that when tags are used in their most frequent function, thus, seeking authentication or expressing an idea, they also have rising-falling intonation. Knudsen further indicates that the rising-falling pattern is certainly the more repeatedly occurring contour for tag questions in English. Nonetheless, the same tag question may have dissimilar intonation and diverse meaning depending on the context.
Espousing this, Dart (1982) thinks that in English speech, a pause between the statement and the tag question is a normalcy. By implication, tag questions in English can either have rising or falling intonation patterns based on a situation and person’s interest in continuing or ending a conversation.

**Empirical Review**

In 2006, Odlin studied the acquisition of proficiency of L2 learners of English joined in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes in four English Learning Institutes of Persian-speaking students which involved 230 male and female students. Data was collected through interviews and was thematically analyzed. At the end of the study, first language transfer, lack of knowledge and oversimplification were found to be some of the factors affecting the proficiency of L2 among the respondents. It was also discovered that the pedagogical setting also greatly affected the progress in L2 acquisition. Odlin further suggested the need for instructive grammar because prescriptive grammar fails to serve the instructional goals of the original language speakers like how descriptive and generative grammars have also failed to attain the instructional goals for second language learners.

Similarly, Abushibab (2008) tested the likelihood of using transformational generative grammar for educational goals. In total, 300 students were drawn for the study to which transformational generative grammar was introduced together with structural grammar. Abushibab first of all, highlighted some benefits of transformational-generative grammar over structural grammar in the interpretation of sentences of the same patterns. He further asserts that transformational-generative “is not concerned with English teaching methodology… no teaching procedures of transformational grammar that can be converted into teaching procedures, but it gives implicit
assumptions about language teaching...we can deal with...to derive some teaching English methodology”. (p. 168)

In a research article, Hunter (1996) underscores the relevance of an appropriate grammar; an instructive or pedagogical grammar to be precise. He identifies several studies that tend to prove that traditional grammar is “inaccurate” and that structural and transformational grammars are scientific grammars and practical in nature. He further speculates that these grammars are not for pedagogical purposes but rather investigative and theoretical purposes (Hunter, 1996:11). He further asserts that when we mention pedagogical grammar what comes to mind or what we mean is a kind of grammar that is meant for instructive purposes only. Hunter nonetheless, conjectures that it is quite evidential that transformational grammar is more satisfactory than traditional grammar particularly in teaching sophisticated courses of writing like the development of simple, complex and compound sentences.

More so, Strauss, Ahn, Lee and Park (n. d.) in a study in a Korean Community came up with a new approach to grammar though pedagogical in nature but calls it conceptual grammar. Strauss and his colleagues at the beginning of their research, indicate that this approach is “non-traditional”. However, the results of their investigation recommend or indicate the need to deductively and inductively employ both methods in teaching. They also add that grammar should not be taught prescriptively particularly to higher non-native learners and teachers.

Though teachers acknowledge the insufficiency of traditional grammar particularly for teaching, writing and composition, most of them still use it (Rome, 2004). Rome was however, quick to mention that transformational grammar is very effective in addressing this problem. Significantly, transformational grammar is more sufficient when employed in writing, teaching and composition than traditional grammar. He stipulates the need for instructive approach based on academic purposes only. Transformational grammar is still used as an approach of teaching
and writing in many schools where English is studied as a foreign language. Ming (2004) believes that the development in technology and computer programs resulted in the death of traditional grammar and emergence of new schools of grammar. Similarly, Folse (2006) asserts that technological development brought an infrequent use of traditional grammar. He further states that aside teaching our students grammatical rules or the use of these rules, there is the need to also add some theoretical information grammatical rules to them. Differently put, we ought to reconcile between theory and rule, practical and theoretical understanding. He therefore concludes by recommending an instructive approach of grammar that will ensure that learners and instructors are enthusiastically knowledgeable in learning rules and understanding the functions of these rules and at least the fundamental grasp of theories of grammar.

Turning to tag formation, Al-Nabtiti (2012) examines the challenges that adult Arabic-speaking ESL learners encounter when creating and using English canonical tag question. In all, two categories of people were recruited for this study comprising 32 adult Arabic-speaking respondents and 10 adult native English speakers. It was established that non-native speakers’ inability to appropriately use Canonical Tag Questions does not stem from the syntactic involvement of these sort of questions but rather their pragmatic essentials. The findings further indicate the relevance of integrating a pragmatic theory and the social milieus within which discussions take place in ESL curricula.

On the analysis of the intonation of tag questions, the study found the dominant intonation used by Arabic-speaking participants when producing tag questions to be the rising intonation followed by the flat and the falling one being the least used intonation. Turning to English language proficiency and tag questions, no significant difference was found between the scores of the Arabic-speaking participants on the Cloze Test (M = 81.1) and the Oral Proficiency Test
an indication that greater number of Arabic-speaking participants were of an advanced level in English. No significant difference was also established between the level of proficiency and the ability of Arabic-speaking participants in creating syntactically correct tag questions in writing only. Turning to oral question tags, a significant difference was established between the proficiency level of Arabic-speaking participants and their knack in creating syntactically correct oral tag questions. With this, the scores obtained on the Tag Question Oral Test were lower than the scores on the Tag Question Written Test. For instance, the average score of the advanced participant group on the tag question written test was 93.53 compared to 73.82 on the tag question oral test. Al-Nabtiti, however, indicates that the level of proficiency matters not in the case of pragmatic functions of tag questions.

In 2016, Ai-li conducted a study titled “An Analysis of Chinese Tag Questions with a Cross-Linguistic Comparison to English Tags”. Ai-li indicates that English tags are syntax-based, while Chinese tags are more dialogue-oriented and the choice of tag verbs is chiefly informed by the speaker’s dialogue intents such as asking for consent of the host proposition, seeking approval of an invite, making a denial among others. Based on the cross-linguistic comparison, Ai-li asserts that English tags might be harder for Chinese English as foreign language (EFL) learners to acquire than Chinese tags for English Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) learners due to the syntactic complexity of canonical tags and irregularity in formation of non-canonical tags.

Verdugo (2003) assessed the non-native inter-language intonation systems taking into account a computerized corpus of Spanish learners of English. The results indicate the existence of a non-native inter-language intonation system. It was revealed that non-native speakers approach the tone system used by first language speakers when articulating Wh-questions, short yes-no questions, multiple questions, statements, answers, and tags seeking confirmation. Nonetheless, a
more quantitative analysis indicates variations with regard to the intonation systems used. It was also established that first language speakers articulate the distinction in the status of information within a speech function by the choice of tone. While a falling tone explains new information, a low rise symbolizes certain information. Important note is that a contrast is not expressed based on non-native speakers’ choice of tone. In this regard, they tend to stay away from the use of a low-rise tone to communicate an idea but rather overuse a falling tone. As regard tonicity system, second language speakers usually situate the focus in given rather than new information. Besides, the intent of information is apparently expressed in first language speakers’ speech as the tonic pitch range is forever wider with respect to the remaining relevant syllables (Verdugo, 2003).

As regards second language speakers, the acoustic analysis indicates a narrower tonic pitch range with no clear delineation from the other outstanding syllables. This makes the tonic importance and information focus always uneasy for identification. Consequently, non-native speakers shun the use of a pitch range whose wideness is the same as native speakers’. It is possible to find the tonic in the last word of the statement, separately of its status or lexical category. He further asserts that instances were present in statements, answers, and questions and also in tags. This may suggest an instance of overuse of this tonicity pattern. In the event that the speech function matches with a short utterance, the tonality and tonicity pattern approach native speakers’ systems. Nonetheless, Verdugo; indicates that there exist significant variations with regard to these two intonation systems in cases where the expressions are longer. He also asserts, though the general contour is quite alike, that there still exist variations in the falling and rising pitch movements within each intonation unit of first and second language speakers.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This chapter lays out an in-depth description of research design, including the study area, population, sample size, validity and reliability issues among others. It also looks at the specific research design used as well as data collection techniques which entail data source that connects closely with transformational generative grammar as a pedagogical aid in teaching non-native speakers of English. It also touches on the data collection procedures as well as how data generated were analysed.

Study Area

The target population for this study comprised all government senior high schools in the La-Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly. Yin (2009) opines that several researchers opt for a particular geographical location because it is accessible, convenient and geographically approximate. However, many other researchers would select a site which would help to generate adequate and accurate data to satisfactorily respond to the set research questions. The study was carried out in the La Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly in the Greater Accra Region. This was mainly because the Municipality is widely considered the hub of education in the country since it harbors most of the renowned educational establishments both secondary and tertiary in the country. In view of that, settling on the Municipality as the ideal Municipality for the study was a step well taken.

The Municipality was carved from the Ga East Municipality with Legislative Instrument (L.I) 2131 in 2012 and was launched on 28th June 2012. It has Madina as its administrative head and a total land area of 70.887 square kilometres. To the west of the Municipality is the Ga East
Municipal, to the east is the Adentan Municipal, to the south is the Accra Metropolitan Assembly and Akuapim South District to the north (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010).

The population of the Municipality as of 2010 was 1,111,926 representing 2.8% of the total population of the Greater Accra Region. Females form 51.5% whilst males make up 48.5% (Population and Housing Census, 2010). It must also be noted that the population of the Municipality is very youthful (38.7%). The Municipality also has a household population of 108,051 with a total number of 24,269 households (Population and Housing Census, 2010). In addition, 68.9% of the populations of those who are 15 years and above are economically active whilst 31.1% of them are not. Of this economically active population, 43.4% are self-employed with no employees, 8.5% are self-employed with employees, 2.5% are contributing family workers and 3.9% are apprentices. The private informal sector happens to employ the largest number of people (69.7%) whilst the private formal sector employs only 17.6% (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). More so, the Municipality is widely considered the focal point of education in the country and can boast of a successful maiden Base Line Examination with full analysis for all its schools, increases equitable education at all levels in the municipality and envisions to bridge gender gap in access to education among others.

Research Design

The mixed methods approach is a research tool in which the researcher garners and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007:4). It is guided by philosophical assumptions that facilitate the mixing of qualitative and quantitative approaches throughout the research process (Hanson, et al., 2005). It also offers greater possibilities than a single method approach for responding to decision makers’ agenda as well as to the interests of other legitimate
stakeholders (Greene, 2005: 209). It is in view of that the current study adopts mixed methods research because using only a single research method would not help address the research questions adequately. Suffice it to maintain that it is through only mixed research approach that a robust or comprehensive data can be generated to help address the set research objectives and questions. The study adopted the mixed methods design. What informed the decision to adopt this method was the quest to employ varied data collection and analysis procedures to answer the research questions identified. Thus, varied data sources were employed to answer the dissimilar but interrelated research questions.

Mixed methods approach is a research design employed to obtain and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data at a particular level of the research process in a study so as to better comprehend and appreciate a research problem. Shedding light on this, scholars such as Denscombe (2008) and Tavakoli (2012:208) assert that mixed methods research is unintended to substitute qualitative or quantitative approaches to research but it rather aims to employ both approaches in a way that will utilize the strengths of the two methods within a single research. It is extremely beneficial for any researcher to opt for mixed methods research since it enables the researcher to obtain adequate data on the subject matter under investigation, thereby giving a much clearer picture of the problem identified with the topic, “Transformational generative grammar as a pedagogical aid in teaching non-native speakers of English”.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Data Type</th>
<th>Instrument(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To what extent can students change positive declarative statements into question tags?</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>Test Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How well informed are students on transforming negative declarative statements into question tags?</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>Test Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What are students’ perceptions on converting affirmative main clauses into affirmative question tags?</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>Test Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What is the level of students’ knowledge in turning imperative statements into question tags?</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>Test Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. How best can students translate statements into rising or falling intonation tags?</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>Test Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from: Ernest Ampedu 2012 investigation into the teaching and learning of Mathematics in junior secondary schools: the case of Ghana. Fig. 6.1
Table 1 shows that the current study adopts both test item scale questions (quantitative data) and structured interviews (qualitative data) which is also known as the mixed methods. Qualitatively, the study aims to gather basic data in connection with the testing and interviewing of students’ understanding of statements and how they can change them into specific or desired formats (question tags). Again, the quantitative data, as well, aims at the perceptions of teachers as regards the use of TGG as a pedagogical aid in teaching non-native students of English. The data that was gathered from the test items, structured interviews by students and individual teachers’ interviews supportively provided adequate and concrete statistics which aided in understanding whether or not TGG could be used pedagogically in teaching non-native students of English. The Framework for the Collection and Analysis of the Diverse Sources of Data.

**Figure 2: Framework for Data Collection and Analysis**

Adapted from: Ernest Ampedu2012. *Investigation into the teaching and learning of Mathematics in Junior Secondary Schools: the case of Ghana. Fig. 6.1*
Even though mixed methods have been proven to significantly have a more advantageous position in survey analysis, it suffers some restrictions. Bryman (2004, 2007) opines that qualitative and quantitative methods are two diverse paradigms with their own carefully thought of philosophical theory of knowledge and they are inharmonious. Therefore, the desegregation is only at a superficial level within a single model. Craike (2004), however, posits that discrepancy in terminology is the major limitation of mixed methods. She further reiterates that over the past few years, mixed methods approach terms have been offered different descriptions and this mutual exclusiveness if terminology remains its shortfalls.

As far as this study is concerned, these limitations are rather insignificant to avert its use since it is geared towards portraying a complete state of the problem under investigation. The study could employ a quantitative approach through the adoption of a test item to generate enough data to make inferences for generalization purposes; however, with regard to qualitative approach coupled with some selected tools, one could conduct an in-depth analysis of the research problem using a qualitative approach. Nonetheless, the use of only a single approach will not reveal a complete state of the problem under investigation thereby the adoption of the mixed methods as the ideal research design for the study (De vaus, 2001).

**Research Strategy**

There are two main research strategies available for a study. These are the exploratory and the conclusive research strategies. According to Saunders et al. (2009), exploratory research strategy usually finds out the existence of a phenomenon without conducting an in-depth analysis on such existence whilst conclusive research strategy employed to establish the relatedness of the variables in a research and to come out with exact guesses based on the established relationships between the variables. Based on this knowledge, the conclusive research strategy with strong
emphasis on the cross-sectional survey method was employed in this research. The use of the cross-sectional survey method aids the collection of necessary participant data at a point in time which unlike the longitudinal survey calls for the consistent collection of data over a specific period of time.

More so, case study approach was adopted because it allowed for a comprehensive study of the issue under investigation. Since the case study focuses on a single phenomenon or organisation, the researcher was able to probe deeper and come out with all the necessary information as far as the organisation or issue is concerned thereby making it the ideal approach for this study. Presented in Figure 3 is the pictorial model of the research strategy used for the study.

**Figure 3: Optical Model of Strategy**

![Diagram](http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh)

(Adapted from: Ernest Ampedu2012. Investigation into the teaching and learning of Mathematics in Junior Secondary Schools: the case of Ghana. Fig. 3)
The selection of the above strategies would be enlightened primarily by the research questions and purposes at large. To begin, a survey study approach was used to administer test items on students’ ability to transform statements into their appropriate question tag formats. The survey study approach was considered suitable because the researcher was interested in establishing for a fact students’ ability to transform statements into question tags and the best approach in collecting such data was through the use of a test item.

Again, the study aims to assess what teachers think of students’ ability to transform given statements into question tags. To be able to get an accurate assessment of teachers’ views, a simple case study was used to interview teachers of English language as well as a few selected students. A case study can be considered as an investigative approach of a real-life situation where the investigator has little or no manipulative control over the subjects under investigation and which depends on varied data sources (Yin, 2003). As indicated in chapter 1, the selection of the topic was partly influenced by the dearth of research evidence with regard to transformational generative grammar as a pedagogical aid in teaching foreign speakers of English. It is in this regard that case study approach is the most appropriate for researching into phenomena that lack comprehensive researches; better still, with limited research findings (Creswell, 2007). Succinctly, the choice of this approach was informed by the research aim, thus, to unearth further insight into the problem under investigation.

In a surmise, multiple case study approach stands as the most appropriate approach to help come with a holistic view of the issue under investigation hence its selection over single case study. It is instructive that the current study is not aimed at propounding a new theory but to understand and appreciate the phenomenon under investigation from diverse standpoints.
Population

The research target population is the collective set that contains requisite information for the research encompassing the sampling elements, sampling units, and area of study (Saunders et al., 2009). The study population is the assemblage of elements from which a sample is pulled (Biederbeck, 2004). Ary et al (2010) also define population as a whole group of individuals to whom the outcomes of an investigation apply. This applies to any group of people that the researcher intends to make inferences about.

All the year three students in the Government Senior High Schools (SHS) in the La – Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly of Ghana form both the targeted and convenient population were sampled for this survey. La–Nkwantanang is one of the twenty-three Municipalities in the Greater Accra Region. The 2010 population census report on Municipality was 1,111,926 making 2.8% of the total population of the Greater Accra Region. Out of this number, the female population accounts for 51.5% whilst the remaining 48.5% represents the male population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). As regards education, the municipality can boast of universities, secondary schools, vocational schools and basic schools.

In view of this, the population of the study was about 5,424 people from two public Senior High Schools (S.H.S.) in the Municipal Assembly of which 1,782 was made up of SHS one students, 1,675 is made up of SHS two students and 1,753 is made up of SHS three students. In addition, 214 trained teachers made up the entire population for this study. This population was the targeted group of interest for the study.
Table 2: Population Distribution of Students and Teachers in the La-Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trained teachers</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First year students</td>
<td>1,890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second year students</td>
<td>1,874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year students</td>
<td>1,823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,821</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sampling Procedure**

This study employed purposive sampling and random sampling techniques for its data collection. Bernard and Karmel (2002) contended that when a purposive sampling technique is suitably employed, it tends to be more efficient than random sampling in practical field investigations. Also, Raenkel and Wallen (2000:99-100) asserted that subjects under survey should be selected purposively if possible from the population of interest as they possess the information the researcher wants to obtain thus making the purposive sampling technique the ideal sampling for qualitative data collection through interviews.

The sampling procedure for this study is in two phases. Firstly, the two government senior high schools (SHS) in the La-Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly which are PRESEC and WASS were purposefully selected outright. These two SHSs were used to collect the survey data. Simple random sampling technique was employed because it would grant the participants equal opportunity to be randomly selected for the quantitative data. Since English Language is taught to all the students in the school, there would not be any need to exclude some students from the sampling. In that case, the random sampling technique was employed to randomly recruit student
respondents for the quantitative data. The researcher adopted this sampling method for the study because it was devoid of preconception and unfairness as rightly intimated by Sidhu (2002:99). For the qualitative data, since the study solely focuses on English Language teachers, English Language teachers were selected from the population of teachers in the two schools using purposive sampling technique. The English teachers were purposively sampled not only because they make up the area of concentration of the study, but are also direct supervisors of the students.

**Sample size**

Sample is defined as a cautiously chosen division of the units that comprises the population (Amedahe, 2002). With regard to this study, two senior high schools namely; WASS and PRESEC respectively were sampled for a fair representation. The main focus of this study was on SHS three students. This is because per the syllabus, it is expected for students to have completed most grammatical topics if not all that will aid them in writing proficiently and speaking fluent English language. The total sample size was 156 participants. This sample was made up of 90 SHS three students from WASS and 60 students from Presec Boys and 3 trained teachers of English from each school. In view of that, the study had a total of 156 participants comprising 150 students for quantitative data and 6 trained English Language teachers for qualitative data.

**Instrument for Data Collection**

Data was collected through two methods and these include a multiple section test item for the selected student participants for the quantitative data and a developed interview guide for the sampled teachers for the qualitative data. This is largely because the use of multiple data
collection instruments would ensure validity and reliability of data that could be generated. As opined by Ary et al (2010), interviews and test items are the two fundamental means through which holistic data are garnered in a research survey.

**Test Item**

With regard to the test items, the respondents who were final year senior high students from both WASS and PRESEC were tested on question tags. This was because the test purposely sought to assess students’ ability to transform statements into their appropriate question tag formats. For instance, students were assessed on the extent to which they could change declarative statements into question tags and how well informed they were on transforming negative declarative statements into question tags.

**Interview**

Interviews were employed to gather adequate information or data for the study. Creswell (2003) defines an interview survey as a form of data collection technique where the researcher records answers provided by the respondents in a study. Similarly, Ary et al. (2010) considered interview as a data collection tool which is employed to obtain data with regard to the views, convictions, and reactions of individuals about a situation in their own expressions. The researcher intended to conduct a semi-structured interview for the students and teachers in focus groups. Krueger (1998:7), as cited in Creswell (2003:29), posited that focus groups provide interaction among interviewees. This helped in data collection and participation by all individuals in the group. Misconceptions and misunderstandings of respondents were revealed alongside and corrected in the course of the interaction between the researcher and the interviewees. Moreover, interviewing was adopted as a data collection tool because it was believed that it would allow for an in-depth collection of knowledge and ideas. This is because unlike semi-structured questionnaire where there is no room to ask for follow up questions when there is a
misunderstanding or ambiguity, interviews allow for the asking of a follow up questions in order to seek for clarification of issues. This was the rationale behind the usage of interview guide for teachers of English Language with enough teaching experience.

**Data Collection Procedures**

There were two major methods used in collecting data for this study: test item for students and interviews for teachers. The test items were administered to the purposively sampled SHS 3 students of Presec-Legon Boys as well as their counterparts at West African Senior High School all located at the Madina La Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly between January and February 2019.

Leading to the data collection, the researcher wrote to the two schools and satisfied all requirements from the Ethics Committee of the University of Ghana. The researcher also took an introductory letter from the Head of Department (Education Department) to the two schools to obtain permission for the study. The researcher went to the selected schools to officially introduce himself to the Director, assistant heads, some teachers and the SHS 3 students at which point he sought for their confirmation and their readiness to be part of the study. In the course of the visit and familiarization, the objectives of the study as well as those of the test items and instructions for its completion were discussed in brief with the sampled respondents.

Finally, the participants were asked to fill information sheet and a consent form prior to the administering of the test items. The two forms were then discussed with the participants and more importantly, they were asked to seek further clarifications if there is or are any.
Validity of Instrument

According to Beiderbeck (2004), validity is all about the extent to which an instrument gauges what it claims to gauge. Validity is therefore the extent to which the interpretations of the results of a test were established that the instrument produced data that were reliable, truthful, meaningful and true. In the preparation of the multiple section test item, the researcher first sought for expert advice from the supervisor to peruse the content of the test item. Following this was a pre-testing of the developed test items to ensure that every item on the questionnaire was in tandem with the general aim and the specific objectives of the study. According to Beiderbecke (2004), pre-testing entails testing the research instrument in conditions as similar as possible to the research, but not so as to present results but rather to check for glitches in wording of questions, ambiguity of instructions and anything that could hinder the ability of the instrument to gather data in an economical and systematic fashion. In this current study, validity criterion was met via the use of varied data collection and various research approaches. In this study, I employed test items and interviews as different sources of information and by this, minimizing the disadvantages in the use of one particular approach. Again, ten test items were piloted and this was not only to establish students’ understanding and consistency of the test items but to find out if the wordings of the items were clear and that there were no forms of ambiguity and grammatical errors. However, the piloted test afforded the researcher to re-correct some few grammatical errors that developed as a result of typographical errors. But in general, the piloted test was successful which proves the validity of the instrument.
Reliability of Instrument

According to Bryman and Bell (2011), it has been established that the consistency of a measure demonstrates the degree to which it is consistent without prejudice and hence ensures an unfailing measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument. To put differently, it is all about the accuracy of measurements such that the same results would be obtained on re-measurement. Reliability gives an indication as regards the steadiness of the instrument. Babbie (2002) considers reliability as an issue of whether a specific method when applied repetitively to the same item, would produce similar results each time. A test is considered reliable when employed by a number of different researchers under stable conditions with unswerving results. Basically, reliability is all about stability. In this study, the appraisal used for the students’ test items and validity was attained via the following measures. Firstly, an expository approach was used to design the test item to ameliorate its validity by going through students’ exam scripts, exercises and syllabus to have portraiture of desired items that students could be tested upon. Secondly, the test items were piloted and this was not only to establish students’ understanding and consistency of the test items but to find out if the wordings of the items were clear and there were no forms of ambiguity as far as the test item was concerned.

Data Analysis

The mixed methods approach is one of the commonly and effective used approaches in research (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Since the data collected for the study were both quantitative and qualitative in nature, they were also analyzed separately. The quantitative data was obtained with a multiple sectioned test items which were first checked for any errors from the participants. After this was done, the data set were entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 21.0. The data was subsequently cleaned with the software and then commanded to run the necessary tests. Since the study did not seek to establish any relationship between
variables as in correlation nor try to compare variables as in the various t-tests, the inferential statistics approach was used in analyzing the data. After the data test were run by the SPSS Package, an interpretation was conducted which gave meaning to the acquired data. The quantitative data was presented in charts, figures and tables.

Thematic analysis was employed to interpret the qualitative data obtained from the English Language teachers. This was done by recording the interview session of the English Language teachers and then transcribing their responses. After their responses had been transcribed, their various responses transcribed during each of the interview sessions were then grouped together under specific themes which were executed in tandem with the aim and objectives of the study.

**Ethical Consideration**

To seek the consent of the authorities of the educational institution so as to conduct this study, an introductory letter obtained from the institution of the researcher was first sent to the authorities of the two SHS sampled for the study and their approval sought. The aim and objectives of the study were then explained explicitly to them. After that, the participants were given the freedom to partake or withdraw from the study if they are not comfortable with the proceedings. The researcher then guaranteed the participants’ anonymity. Alphabetical numbers were ascribed to them in order to protect their identities and their statements in the research to be used in the research treated with due respect. Their consent for participation was also sought for before the commencement of the quantitative data collection. All these were done in order to protect the participants from harm or victimization for their participation in the study.
CHAPTER FOUR
ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

The chapter focused on the analysis, interpretation and discussions of the data generated through field investigations. This was carried out based on the aim and objectives outlined for the study. The chapter also considered the demographic features of the respondents so as to determine whether the respondents were truly representative of the population for the study. It further looked at the main items which relate to the aim and objectives of the study.

Data Analysis

This section deals with the comprehensive analysis of all the primary data that was collected with the help of the structured questionnaire. In order to enhance comprehension, the analysis has been categorized into various sub-headings based on the aim and objectives of the study.

Demographic Characteristics

This section looks at the demographic backgrounds of the respondents in terms of gender and school.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Male</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Female</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. School

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. PRESEC</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. WASS</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Fieldwork, 2019.

From Table 1 above, it can be seen that 103 (68.7%) of the respondents were male whilst 47 (31.3%) of them were female. With a standard deviation of .47, it can be realised that there was a wide difference between males and females under the study. This was observed because one of the sample population was predominantly an all male single sex institution which is the causative factor of the difference.

Regarding the schools of the participants, it was again observed that 60 (40%) of the participants came from Presbyterian Boys Senior High School (PRESEC) whilst 90 (60%) of them also came from West African Senior High School (WASS) all located at the La-Nkwantanang Municipal Assembly in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. Having a standard deviation of .49, it is an indication of significant difference in the number of participants selected from each of the two schools. WASS had more participants as compared to PRESEC because it is a mixed institution and as such, took care of the gender differences created by the inclusion of PRESEC.
Demographics of Interviewees

This section presents the demographic characteristics of the interviewees selected for the study. It was carried out to ensure that they were representative of the English Tutors sampled for the study. In order to protect their identity as ethically requested, numerical figures will be used in place of their names. These are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 4: Demographics of Interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Interviewee 1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>8yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Interviewee 2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>6yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Interviewee 3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>18yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Interviewee 4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>18yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Interviewee 5</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>5yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Interviewee 6</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>6yrs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Fieldwork, 2019.

From Table 4 above, it can be seen that Interviewee 1 is a male who has been teaching English Language for eight (8) years. This shows how experienced he is as English Tutor making him ideal for the study. Again, Interviewee 2 is a female who has been teaching English for six (6) years also making her an ideal participant for the study. Interviewee three (3) is a male English Tutor who has also taught for eighteen (18) years and as such, makes him a good participant for the study due to his level of experience. Interviewee four (4) is also a male teacher who has
taught English for eighteen (18) years making him ideal for the study. Interviewee five (5) is a female English Tutor who has also taught for five (5) years and this makes her a good candidate for the study. Finally, Interviewee six (6) is a male English Tutor who has taught for six (6) years. From the information given about the background of the Interviewees, it is explicitly clear that they are all individuals who have had an appreciable level of experience with regard to teaching of English language and this makes them ideal participants for the interview session.

**Positive Declarative Statements**

This section sought to test the students’ implicit knowledge of the underlying syntactic structure in positive declarative statements. It was aimed at finding out if non-native speakers of English possess such innate skills as native speakers such that the traditional rigorous way of teaching grammatical rules could be avoided and that TGG could be used in teaching non-native speakers of English. In view of this, the research question was asked;

**Research Question 1: To what extent can students change positive declarative statements into question tags?**

In that regard, an interview was conducted for the selected tutors whilst a test item was also distributed to the selected participants in order to assess their level of knowledge and understanding on positive declarative statements. The analyses of those responses are presented further. In order to assess the student participants’ level of knowledge pertaining to positive declarative statements, they were asked to answer questions containing positive declarative statements and their responses were marked and graded. From the analysis of that information, it was observed that 1.3% of the participants scored between 0-5 marks, 11.3% also scored between 6 and 10 marks, 14% of them scored between 11-15% marks whilst 73.3% of them also scored between 16-20 marks. From this analysis, it can be seen that most of the participants
(73.3%) scored marks higher than 15. This clearly shows that majority of the student population have an appreciable level of knowledge concerning positive declarative statements.

This is rendered in Figure 4.

Source: Researcher’s Fieldwork, 2019.

Fig 4: Participants’ Knowledge on Positive Declarative Statements

The Interviewees (tutors) were also asked about their students’ ability to change positive declarative statements into question tags and the students’ level of proficiency in that regard. When asked the extent to which their students can change positive declarative statements into question tags, all six (6) tutors were of strong conviction that their students are quite knowledgeable about positive declarative statements and can change these statements into their appropriate question tags. For instance;

Interviewee 3 said:
For this, I would say they are well-versed because most of them perform very well when tested both in oral and written form. On the whole, if I am to rate them, I will give them 90%. Yes they can do it!

On the same question, Interviewee 4 said:

They are usually able to change these statements properly. This is evident in their exercises, tests and assignments. And their assessment scores tells it all. I will rate them above average.

On the same question, Interviewee 5 said:

I will say they do well in that topic because most often once students grab the concept, the marks they score is so encouraging showing that they really understand the topic. So I can say yes they do and I will rate them 7 out of 10

This clearly shows that the tutors are of the conviction that their students are quite knowledgeable about positive declarative statements and score above average performance as far as positive declarative statement is concerned.

From the analyses of these responses, it can be observed that almost all the Interviewees hold the view that the students’ performance in positive declarative statements are encouraging and that they are able to adequately convert positive declarative statements into question tags. This was also made evident in the number of participants who scored higher as far as positive declarative statements are concerned. Therefore it is evidential in all these high scores that there is no need in employing the traditional approach in teaching non-native speakers of English.
Negative Declarative Statements

The aim of this section was to find out if non-native speakers of English had the underlying or implicit knowledge of English grammatical rules as native speakers do, in that a more appropriate method such as the TGG could be employed in teaching native speakers of English rather than the traditional rugged method of teaching. This led to the second research question being posed;

Research Question 2: How well informed are students on transforming negative declarative statements into question tags?

In answering this question, students were presented with an ideal test item on negative declarative statements in order to establish students’ level of discernment in negative declarative statements. On the participants’ score as far as negative declarative statements were concerned, 5.3% of them scored between 0-5 marks on those negative declarative statements score. On the same question, 6.7% of them also scored between 6-10 marks, 14% of them scored 11-15% whilst 74% of them also scored between 16-20 marks. The majority of the participants (74%) who scored between 16-20 marks clearly show that most of the student participants have clearer understanding about the concept of negative declarative statements. This is presented in figure 5. A chart showing participant’s knowledge on negative declarative statements
Teachers’ interview session also showed how their students’ could transform negative declarative statement into question tags. The interviewees were asked about their participants’ understanding and knowledge on transforming negative declarative statements into question tags, and they responded favourably. When the question was posed on students’ ability to transform negative declarative statements into question tags, and how teachers would rate their students’ performance, Interviewee 4 said:

*With this, I can say between average and good because some do well in changing these statements into their proper tag forms while others have little challenges here and there. I will rate them 5 out of 10.*
Interviewee 5 said:

*Very well! They can do it very well. I will give them a rating of 8 out of 10.*

Interviewee 6 also said:

*From their daily sentence constructions and performance I can, yes they are able to change such statements into their right forms. My rating will be 8 out of 10*

From the responses given by the interviewees, it can be deduced that most of the students have very good understanding and knowledge about the concept of negative declarative statements and as such, not only can they be said to be very knowledgeable about it in terms of their ratings but that, there is no need employing the traditional way of teaching rigid grammatical rules instead, transformational generative grammar (TGG) can serve as a pedagogical aid.

**Affirmative Main Clause and Affirmative Tag**

This section also tried to test the participants’ understanding and knowledge about affirmative main clause and affirmative question tag. However, this section was aimed at finding out if non-native speakers could exhibit the skill of implicit knowledge of syntactic rules as demonstrated by native speakers of English so that the orthodox way of teaching strictly grammatical rules could be avoided and substituted with transformational generative grammar. In view of this the research question was posed;

**Research Question 3:** *What are students’ perceptions on converting affirmative main clauses into affirmative question tags?*

In response to this question, students were given standardized test items to confirm their cognitive comprehensibility skills on affirmative main clause and affirmative tags.
On that, 58% of them scored between 0-5 marks whilst 42% of them scored between 6-10 marks. From the analysis above, it can be seen that most of the participants (58%) of them scored between 0-5 marks. This suggests that a majority of the respondents do not have a good level of knowledge as far as affirmative main clause and affirmative tag statements are concerned. This is presented in Figure 6.

![Pie Chart](image)

Source: Researcher’s Fieldwork, 2019.

Fig. 6: Affirmative Main Clause and Affirmative Tag

When the tutors were also interviewed in order to assess students’ level of knowledge and understanding of the affirmative main clause and affirmative tag as well as the study is concerned, Interviewee 1 said:

_Below Average!_
On the same question, Interviewee 3 said:

*I will say they have challenges converting affirmative main clauses into question tags. This is seen clearly in their oral and written works as students try to neglect the use of affirmative main clauses and rather employ more of simple declarative statements in their daily speeches.*

Interviewee 5 answering the same question also stated that:

*Some of them are very conversant with the grammatical rules so changing or transforming affirmative statements into question tags is quite easy. It is not so difficult for such students especially those that are average and above average students.*

On the same question, Interviewee 6 said:

*With this one to be specific, I think based on their delivery and conversations; one can tell that they are not really well-versed in this particular area. Yes, ideally, they are not well-versed in it.*

Based on these responses of the Interviewees of the study, it can be seen that even though some of the students are well versed in affirmative main clause and affirmative tag statements, most of them are not very good in them thereby recording the large number of participants (58%) who scored lower marks as far as affirmative main clause and affirmative tag statements are concerned and as stated by interviewee one, three and six in the quantitative data above. It is evident that students were taught grammatical rules as stated earlier on as a reason for choosing SHS three students. However, results from the field both students and teachers prove the ineffectiveness of the rigorous teaching of grammatical rules and in view of this result TGG could be employed by teachers to exploit the innate potentials in students rather than the conventional rigorous approach of delivery of grammatical rules.
Imperative Tags

The objective of this section is to examine participants’ implicit knowledge and comprehension ability of imperative tags as a grammatical constituent to prove if non-native speakers of English could demonstrate mastery over the subject just as native speakers do. This was tested using a well evaluated test item. In view of this the research question was posed;

Research Question 4: *What is the level of students’ knowledge in turning imperative statements into question tags?*

In response to this question students were tested, teachers interviewed and quantitative data was analysed for the students whilst qualitative data was organized for the tutors.

In terms of the students’ tests score pertaining to their knowledge on imperative tags, 47.33% of the students scored between 0-5 marks whilst 52.67% of them also scored between 6-10 marks. The large number of students (52.67%) who scored between 6-10 marks clearly shows that most of the students have a better understanding on the concept of imperative tags. This is a positive development; an indication that a greater portion of students studying English Language have an appreciable level of knowledge concerning imperative tags. This is presented in Figure 7 on the chart showing students’ knowledge on imperative tags.
Source: Researcher’s Fieldwork, 2019.

Fig. 7: Students’ Knowledge on Imperative Tags

On the part of the interviewees, the tutors were also interviewed so as to assess their students’ level of cognitive and comprehension skill on imperative tags as factually demonstrated by native speakers so that the conventional traditional way of teaching the exact grammatical rules could be averted to adopt a less rigorous method as transformational generative grammar. When asked the knowledge of the students in turning imperative statements into question tags, Interviewee 1 said:

Participants’ knowledge on imperative tags is average.

On the same question, Interviewee 3 also said:

Considering imperative tags, I would say they are well versed because students are familiar with all the rules governing this area.
Interviewee 4 said:

*Oh yes! With the imperative tags, sometimes, they struggle with it but in the end they manage to be average or above average students.*

Interviewee 6 also said:

*Imperative statements into question tags? No! Not at all. They usually go for the very simple ones. The very basic ones.*

The responses given above from the qualitative data, indicates that some of the students do struggle with the concept of Imperative Tags, as stated by interviewee six (6), as far as English Language is concerned yet most of the students were able to overcome the challenges they encountered in their Imperative Tags proficiency and as such, scored very good marks in those areas. Looking at the quantitative data given in Fig 4 above, it can be seen that most of the participants (52.67%) had good level of knowledge and comprehension of Imperative Tags. This makes it clear that most students have an appreciable level of knowledge and comprehension of Imperative Tags as a concept in the English Language. Therefore it is obvious that there is no need using complex grammatical forms in teaching students but rather employing TGG to replace such complex grammatical forms.

**Intonations**

This section also sought to find out from participants their understanding about the concept of Intonation in the English Language. Based on that, the participants’ level of knowledge on Intonation was tested with a well evaluated test item and subsequently analyzed quantitatively. In view of this, the research question was posed;

*How best can students translate statements into rising or falling intonation tags?*
In terms of the students’ tests score relating to Intonations, the study found out that 6% of them scored between 0-5 marks, 11.3% of them also scored between 6-10 marks, 31.3% of them also scored between 11-15 marks whilst 51.3% of them also scored between 16-20 marks. The large number of participants (51.3%) who scored between 16-20 marks clearly shows that most of the participants had a better understanding on the concept of Intonation. This is presented in figure 8 showing participants’ knowledge in intonation.

Source: Researcher’s Fieldwork, 2019.

Fig. 8 Participant’s Knowledge on Intonation

The Interviewees were asked about the students’ knowledge and understanding of the concept of Intonation and they gave the following responses. When the Interviewees were asked how best their students can translate statements into rising or falling intonation tags,

Interviewee 1 said:
They don’t have much command over it as it is not prevalent in their daily oral speeches.

Interviewee 2 also said:

Well with that one it must be a below average performance because it’s something we are learning. And they seem to be struggling with it. It is a challenge both with the written and oral deliveries. It is not our” thing”. We are still learning so hopefully they will get better.

On the same question, Interviewee 4 stated that:

Well I will say they are not well-informed on this area. Just a handful of them can do it and do it well to my satisfaction.

On the same question, Interviewee 5 stated that:

That is also one of the challenging tasks for the students. It is not very good and they don’t also have much command over that topic so there is a lot of challenges when it comes to that topic falling intonation and rising intonation in question tags.

From the analyzed responses of the interviewees, even though most teachers were convinced that students had challenges with intonations as rightly pointed out by interviewee one (1), two (2) and five (5) nonetheless, the quantitative data from the field proved otherwise in that most of the participants (51.3%) of the study did have enough knowledge on the concept of Intonation. This proves that teachers need to convincingly equip themselves not only with the theory of TGG to be able to exploit the language abilities in their students, but also a method which gets rid of torturous grammatical categories and instead presents them as an independent and identifiable grammatical concept from other grammatical bodies.
Discussion of Findings

It has been stated that grammar is a system of rules which permits the users of the language in question to produce meaning by forming both meaningful words and larger constructions of sentences and that there are a set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language (Wilcox, 2004; Purpura, 2004). Based on this background, the study tried to examine the extent to which non-native speakers of English demonstrate an explicit knowledge of grammatical rules. It also aimed at finding out how well informed second speakers are with the rules of tag formation in English and finally, how Transformational Generative Grammar Theory can be used as an aid in teaching foreign speakers of English. According to Lamidi (2002), the quest of scholars to find lasting solution to the unending problems encountered in language compelled them to cutting down rules and regulations settle exceptional cases and identify general mistakes for appropriate solution in improving language. In view of this, viewing grammar from a birds-eye perspective, not only does grammar interest itself with the principles which determine its organisation of words, phrases, and sentences, but with its rules which regulate its rendition (Radford, 2002).

On the knowledge and understanding of non-native speakers concerning grammatical rules, the study found out that most of the participants had very good understanding and knowledge about the rules of grammar pertaining to the English Language. This was confirmed by Interviewee 3 who said that:

Okay for this side too, I would say they also well-vexed because they are familiar with all the rules governing this area and If I am to rate them, here too I will give them 90%. Yes.

The scores from their various tests in the study showed that most of the students have a very good comprehension on the rules of grammar. From the perspective of Nordquist (2017),
grammatical rules are viewed as our inherent, subliminal knack to produce language, an internal system of rules that forms our human language capacity. It has also been argued that the teaching of English grammar is basically about rules. For one to speak, write or express himself or herself perfectly in English, grammar rules such as a pronoun antecedent agreement, subject verb agreement, sentence fragment, subordinating and coordinating conjunctions, cannot be separated from one’s learning because all in English depends on grammar. Grammar in recent years has proven to be an essential tool when it comes to communication because without grammar, meaning, which is the importance of communication, is impeded and this is guided by the rules of grammar (Sampson, 2001).

More so, according to Chomsky’s Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG), all human languages originate from a common source, an innate set of grammatical rules and approaches that is hardwired into the human brain (Chomsky, 1986). Based on the premise of this theory, individuals are born with innate understanding of grammatical rules and as such, being a first or second speaker of a language does nothing to affect one’s understanding of the grammatical rules of that language. Értekezè (2006) also asserts that the deep structure rules represented the speaker’s competence and it was pointless to teach the rule overtly. It was possible for a context to be created where the rules could be activated through exposing the learner to comprehensible effort that is graded and helpful for the learner (Értekezè, 2006; Xiao, 2017). Xiao (2017) further posits that the rules with which we transform the deep structure of a sentence into the surface structure are called transformational rules. They are rules of passive transformation, yes/no transformation, do transformation, negation transformation, among others. Xiao adds that these rules were used to add, delete, or permute, that is, change order and sometimes also hierarchic relationship among constituents of the deep structure to transform it into a common sentence we use in everyday life (Xiao, 2017).
The study further sought to find out how well informed are non-native speakers to the rules of tag formation in English. On that, it was also found that most of the students have very good level of knowledge and understanding on the rules of tag formation in English. This was evident from their test score (Fig 4) and also, the views of the interviewees. Interviewee 2 said:

*I would give them a rating of nine out of ten.*

Interviewee 5 also said:

*It is good. I can say on the scale of 1 to 10, I will say 8. They are okay.*

This shows that the participants have clearer understanding and good knowledge on the rules of tag formation in English. It has been argued that in the minds of all speakers, all sentences are an unseen deep structure and that the speaker merely transforms this deep structure as a visible structure of language like written or spoken language by using the transformational rules of Grammar (Chomsky, 2000). More so, a transforming process of the syntactic structures according Chomsky’s TGG can be shortened by adding, removing, moving, and replacing words. And these changes occur through specific rules, which are known as Transformational rules (Claro, 2013). Other researchers have also come out with similar findings on how well informed are non-native speakers to the rules of tag formation in English. In his quest to study the acquisition of proficiency of L2 learners of English joined in EFL classes in four English Learning Institutes of Persian-speaking students, Odlin (2006) found out that first language transfer, lack of knowledge and over generalization were some of the factors affecting the proficiency of L2 of the respondents. It was also discovered that the pedagogical setting also greatly affected the progress in L2 acquisition. He further recommends for an instructive grammar because he thinks that prescriptive grammar is unable to meet the teaching targets of
the first language speakers, like how descriptive and generative grammars have failed to attain the instructional goals for second language learners.

The study went further to assess how Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) theory can be used as an aid in teaching non-native speakers of English. According to Kress (2003), transformational is an adjective derived from the noun, transformation. In this regard, transformation is the process of transforming the form of one linguistic structure to another (Kress, 2003). TGG shows how a specific rule or set of rules explain how a given linguistic element is formed. In addition, generative grammar is a linguistic theory that views grammar as a group of independent but interrelated rules that brings into existence exactly those collections of words that form a grammatical sentence in a given language (Xiao, 2017). Zain (2007) asserts that transformational generative grammar exercises demonstrate how the components of a sentence can be reorganised, combined and substituted and that learners can manoeuvre and play with language at the sentence, phrase, and paragraph level. In that regard, Chomsky’s transformational grammar provides understanding on the features of language which are vital for language learning and valuable for language teaching (Zain, 2007). More so, Transformational-Generative Grammar presents grammar as a linguistic knowledge capable of producing a countless number of sentences from a restricted set of rules competent of producing all and only the grammatically correct sequences of that language which makes language education much easier and more practical. This is because students can create all the negative sentences by learning the negative transformation rule, and interrogative sentences and passive sentences, so on and so forth. Students in this regard can acquire a language effortlessly by mastering a restricted number of phrase structural and transformational rules (Zain, 2007; Xiao, 2017).
Értekezè (2006) also holds the view that transformational-generative grammar presents a structure for describing mind and grammar, transcending beyond surface structures. He further indicates that it also provides a more precise and absolute conception of the system of language, building on both traditional and structural models. One of the most outstanding importance of this type of grammar is that, it provides the basis for examining the nature and extent of learner blunders which are considered as positive signs of the learners hypothesize of how the language works (Értekezè, 2006). Xiao (2017) posits that though Chomsky (1980) conjectures that his theory of grammar had little direct classroom application, it has influenced second language learning tremendously. This view has been affirmed by other researchers. In his quest to test the possibility of using transformational generative grammar for instructive purposes, Abushibab (2008) conducted a study by introducing transformational generative grammar along with structural grammar. He found out that transformational-generative grammar has certain merits on structural grammar “in interpreting sentences of the same patterns”.

Hunter (1996) also underscores the need for an appropriate grammar; that is a grammar that is pedagogical. He identifies studies that tend to prove that traditional grammar is “inaccurate” and that structural and transformational grammars are scientific grammars and technical. He further asserts that pedagogical or instructive grammar is the kind of grammar that is solely intended for instructional purposes. Hunter nonetheless, sees transformational grammar as being more satisfactory than traditional grammar in respect to the teaching of advanced courses of writing such as developing simple, complex and compound sentences. Again, Rome (2004) acknowledged the need for an instructive approach that is aimed for only scholastic reasons. Many schools teaching English Language as a second language still teach transformational grammar. According to Aarts and Aarts (1982) as mentioned in Alduais (2013), pedagogical grammars “serve in a different purpose… enable foreign students to learn the language rather
than to provide insight into questions of a theoretical nature… supply information about the facts without offering detailed explanations of why these facts are as they are” (p. 268)

**Conclusion**

This chapter dealt with the analysis of the collected field data which were both quantitative and qualitative. They were analyzed in line with the research questions. The chapter further looked at the discussions of the findings of the study which was also done with specific focus on the research questions. The next chapter looks at the concluding component of the whole study.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter considers the summary of the findings based on the research questions that were spelt out for the study. It further considers the conclusion that was drawn from the findings as well as the recommendations that were suggested following the findings from the study.

Summary of Findings

The study aimed to examine the degree to which non-native speakers of English demonstrate an explicit knowledge of grammatical rules. The study went on to find out how well informed are non-native speakers on the rules of tag formation in English and also, how Transformational Generative Grammar Theory can be used as an aid in teaching non-native speakers of English. Based on the aim of the study, both quantitative and qualitative data were taken from student participants and English tutors respectively. The quantitative data assessed the students’ level of knowledge and understanding on Transformational Generative Grammar rule whilst the qualitative data sought teachers’ opinion on students’ level of knowledge pertaining to Transformational Generative Grammar rule.

The study found out that second language speakers of English have a very good understanding and knowledge on grammatical rules as far as English Language is concerned and these were taught to them in schools by their English tutors.

It was also found out that the non-native English speaking participants and students in general have good understanding and knowledge on the rules of tag formation in English due to the effort of their English tutors in teaching them those rules and concepts.
The study finally found out that the Transformational Generative Grammar Theory can be used as an aid in teaching non-native speakers of English through the teaching of the various rules of grammar in the classroom.

**Conclusion**

The study examined the extent to which non-native speakers of English demonstrate an explicit knowledge of grammatical rules. It further tried to examine how well informed are non-native speakers to the rules of tag formation in English and also, how Transformational Generative Grammar Theory can be used as an aid in teaching second speakers of English. In view of these aims and objectives of the study, one hundred and fifty (150) students were selected from (WASS) and (PRESEC) all located at the La-Nkwantanang Municipality in the Greater Accra Region. Ninety (90) students were selected from West African Senior High School (WASS) whilst sixty (60) of them were selected from Presbyterian Boys Senior High School (PRESEC).

A scholastic test on English Grammar was used in testing the student participants’ level of knowledge and understanding on grammatical rules and whilst an interview guide was also used in assessing the teacher interviewees’ opinion on their students’ understanding and knowledge on grammatical rules. The results from the students’ quantitative data was analyzed and presented in charts and figures whilst the responses from the tutors’ qualitative data were thematically analyzed. At the end of the study, it was found out that;

Non-native speakers of English have a very good understanding and knowledge on grammatical rules as far as English Language is concerned and these were taught to them in schools by their English tutors. This was evident from the test scores of the student participants that were recruited for the study.
The study also established that the non-native English speaking participants and students in general have good understanding and knowledge on the rules of tag formation in English due to the effort of their English tutors in teaching them those rules and concepts during their lesson hours. Due to their understanding and knowledge on grammatical rules, they are able to form tags in English albeit with little difficulty.

The study finally established that the Transformational Generative Grammar Theory can be used as an aid in teaching non-native speakers of English through the teaching of the various rules of grammar in the classroom. The understanding of the rules of grammar by the student participants helps them to gain comprehensive knowledge and understanding of the rules in the English Language.

**Recommendations**

Following the findings of the study, the following recommendations have been suggested:

1. English Tutors need to abreast themselves with comprehensive knowledge and understanding of Transformational Generative Grammar rules so that they can effectively teach their students since most of the rules in grammar are derived from this.

2. School authorities and the Ghana Education Service (GES) must periodically seek experts in English Language and conduct in-service training for their English Tutors so that they will be imparted with the latest developments in English Grammar rules since language is said to be dynamic and constantly changing.

3. Students should be encouraged to research and study latest developments in English Grammar so that they can effectively participate in classroom discussions with their English Tutors.
4. Grammatical rules should be at the forefront in the teaching of English Language so that students will be conversant with the rules of Transformational Generative Grammar in the language.
REFERENCES


Amedahe, F.K. (2002). *Notes on educational research*, University of Cape Coast: Cape Coast. Unpublished manuscript.


Cheng, W., & Warren, M. (2001). She knows more about Hong Kong than you do isn't if: Tags


University of Ghana http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh


Khansir, A. A. (2016, February 2). *Place of Grammar in English Language.* 140-149.

Knudsen, A. (2011). *Cross-linguistic interference of intonation in regard to tag questions in native second and third use; does Russian have an impact on English and Danish in terms of intonation in the tags?* Master’s Thesis, Lund University.


Quarterly, 40(2), 273-293.


APPENDIX ONE

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Semi-structured interview Guide for TEACHERS’

School Name:...........................................................................................................

Gender: Male □ Female □

Name of Researcher........................................................ Signature............................

Date of Interview: ...........................................................................................

Interview Start Time: ......................................................................................

Interview Duration: .........................................................................................

Background Information

1. a) How long have you been teaching?
   b) How long have you been teaching English?

Research Questions

2. How well are you informed on question tags?

3. Do you have “question tags” as a topic in your lesson forecast?

4. To what extent can your students change positive declarative statements into question tags?

5. How well informed are your students on transforming negative declarative statements into question tags?

6. What would you say are your students’ performances on converting affirmative main clauses into affirmative question tags?
7. What is the level of your students’ knowledge in turning imperative statements into question tags?

8. Percentage-wise?

9. How best can your students translate statements into rising or falling intonation tags?
APPENDIX TWO

QUESTIONNAIRE

TEST ITEMS

This exercise is being conducted for the award of Master of Philosophy in Education. It is entirely for academic purposes hence any information provided would be treated as such. It is hoped that you would be as candid as possible because all the responses would be treated confidential. I would be grateful if you could assist in completing the questionnaire for the study. Thank you.

This test item is in five sections, kindly answer the questions on question tags in the various sections carefully.

Section A: Positive declarative statements

Instruction: Please, think appropriately the correct form of the question tag for the following positive declarative statements.

1. Kwaakye is from Ghana
   □ isn’t he?  □ is he?  □ isn’t it?

2. She could speak Ga
   □ could she?  □ can’t she?  □ couldn’t she?

3. I work as a tour guide
   □ Isn’t it?  □ can I?  □ don’t I?

4. It looks like a grey Peacock
   □ doesn’t it?  □ does it?  □ isn’t it?

5. We read a lot of books
   □ do we?  □ don’t we?  □ isn’t it?

6. You will leave for school tomorrow morning
   □ will you?  □ won’t you?  □ Isn’t it?

7. They love my cat
   □ Isn’t it?  □ don’t they?  □ do they?

8. You climbed the forbidden tree
   □ did you?  □ didn’t you?  □ Isn’t it?
9. They eagerly drank the anointed bottled water
   □ did they?    ■ didn’t they?    ■ Isn’t it?

10. The baby was as hungry as a bear
    □ was it?    ■ isn’t it?    ■ wasn’t it?

11. You loved football matches
    □ did you?    ■ do you?    ■ didn’t you?

12. We ate together as a family for once this Christmas.
    □ did we?    ■ isn’t it?    ■ didn’t we?

13. Yesterday, I slept through my alarm
    □ isn’t it?    ■ didn’t I?    ■ did I?

14. She promised to yell my name until I woke up
    □ didn’t she?    ■ did she?    ■ isn’t it?

15. He was an asset we never had
    □ was he?    ■ isn’t it?    ■ wasn’t he?

16. Lisa will render a solo at the concert tomorrow
    □ will she?    ■ isn’t it?    ■ won’t she?

17. He will fall off the horse if he doses
    □ isn’t it?    ■ wouldn’t he?    ■ won’t he?

18. I will make payment only upon arrival
    □ isn’t it?    ■ will I?    ■ won’t I?

19. The Hyena will endure the pain
    □ isn’t it?    ■ will it?    ■ won’t it?

20. The lady in red was teaching when the siren sounded
    □ wasn’t she?    ■ was she?    ■ isn’t it?

Section B: Negative declarative statements

Instruction: Please, thick appropriately the correct form of the question tag for the following negative declarative statements.

21. They shouldn’t make comments like that
    □ Shan’t they?    ■ shouldn’t they?    ■ should they?
22. You’re not the Math teacher
   □ are you?  □ aren’t you?   □ isn’t it?

23. It did not lick the pores of its cubs today
   □ didn’t it?   □ isn’t it?   □ did it?

24. They were not public investors
   □ were they? □ isn’t it?   □ weren’t they?

25. He wasn’t crying that night
   □ isn’t it? □ was he?   □ wasn’t he?

26. I don’t see birds in the air
   □ do you? □ isn’t it?   □ do I?

27. Stephanie cannot make toasted bread for breakfast
   □ can she? □ isn’t it?   □ can’t she?

28. We could not find the missing earring
   □ isn’t it? □ couldn’t we? □ could we?

29. You weren’t wanted by the police
   □ were you? □ isn’t it?   □ weren’t you?

30. The German shepherd dog was not a black one
   □ wasn’t it? □ was it?   □ isn’t it?

31. The waitress will not serve us the desert
   □ would she? □ will she? □ shouldn’t she?

32. I will not believe it until I receive the parcel
   □ Won’t I? □ will I?   □ isn’t it?

33. We could not support her with a thousand dollars
   □ couldn’t we? □ isn’t it? □ could we?

34. They will not stay off the carpet with those dirty shoes
   □ Isn’t it? □ won’t they? □ will they?

35. He will surely not remember to come along with our snack
   □ will he?   □ won’t he? □ isn’t it?

36. She must not drive after drinking so heavily
   □ mustn’t she? □ must she? □ should she?

37. I will not be serving you dinner tomorrow
   □ won’t I? □ shall I? □ will I?
38. You were not going to preach that day
- were you?
- isn’t it?
- weren’t you?

39. We shall be presenting our chapters next week
- shan’t we?
- should we?
- shall we?

40. I can assure you, she will not be interesting
- should she?
- will she?
- isn’t it?

Section C: Affirmative main clause and Affirmative tag

*We use this type of tag when we do not know if the answer to the question is yes or no.*

**Instruction:** Please, thick appropriately the correct form of the question tag for the following affirmative statements.

41. You’re Kofi’s cousin
   - aren’t you?
   - isn’t it?
   - are you?

42. She received the email
   - did she?
   - didn’t she?
   - isn’t it?

43. They bought her the cake
   - didn’t they?
   - isn’t it?
   - did they?

44. We believe the world is round
   - do we?
   - don’t we?
   - isn’t it?

45. I believe I can fly
   - can’t I?
   - can I?
   - isn’t it?

46. It’s a baby bird
   - is it?
   - isn’t it?
   - could it?

47. He’s surely a black man
   - isn’t it?
   - is he?
   - isn’t he?

48. I would pass my exam with flying colours
   - isn’t it?
   - wouldn’t I?
   - would I?

49. You would be surprised at what you would hear
   - wouldn’t you?
   - would you?
   - isn’t it?

50. She could punish them at her will
   - couldn’t she?
   - isn’t it?
   - could she?
51. It promises to be interesting
   □ won’t it?    □ doesn’t it?    □ does it?

52. They were cakes as we thought
   □ Weren’t they? □ Isn’t it?      □ were they?

53. You were descent in your dressing last Sunday
   □ isn’t it?    □ weren’t you?    □ were you?

54. Nothing came in the post
   □ didn’t it?   □ did it?        □ isn’t it?

55. I am right
   □ am I?       □ aren’t I?       □ are you?

Section D: Imperative Tags

A tag after an imperative clause, softens the imperative. The following tags convey direct orders.

**Instruction:** Please, thick appropriately the correct form of the question tag for the following imperative statements.

56. Turn off the TV!
   □ will you?    □ can you?       □ won’t you?

57. Go home now!
   □ can you?     □ will you?      □ won’t you?

58. Come here immediately!
   □ won’t you?   □ can you?       □ will you?

59. Tell her she must comply!
   □ will you?    □ can you?       □ won’t you?

60. Do it now!
   □ can you?     □ will you?      □ won’t you?

A tag after an imperative clause, softens the imperative. The following tags convey polite requests/invitation.

**Instruction:** Please, thick appropriately the correct form of the question tag for the following imperative statements.
61. Close the door!
   □ could you? □ would you? □ won’t you?
62. Help me out!
   □ will you? □ can you? □ won’t you?
63. Don’t forget!
   □ won’t you? □ would you? □ will you?
64. Take a seat!
   □ won’t you? □ will you? □ can you?
65. Have some tea!
   □ will you? □ can you? □ won’t you?

Section E: Intonations

In a falling intonation the speaker is not actually asking a question. He/she wants confirmation or for the person to agree with what he/she is saying. The question tags to be derived from this section should be of falling tone.

Instruction: Please, thick appropriately the correct form of the following statements.

66. This is your car
   □ is it? □ can it? □ isn’t it?
67. Esi was really boring
   □ wasn’t she? □ was she? □ isn’t it?
68. Question number 5 is difficult
   □ is it? □ isn’t it? □ can it?
69. Sir. I have failed the exam again
   □ have I? □ could I? □ haven’t I?
70. The Exam wasn’t difficult
   □ will it? □ was it? □ wasn’t it?
71. There’s no food in the fridge
   □ Isn’t there? □ is there? □ isn’t it?
72. They can’t do it
   □ could they? □ can they? □ can’t they?
73. This pair of scissors won’t work
74. They’re annoying
[ ] are they? [ ] aren’t they? [ ] isn’t it?

75. He’s done it again
[ ] has he? [ ] hasn’t he? [ ] he has?

In a rising intonation the speaker is clearly not sure or uncertain of his/her statement and he/she is asking the other person to find out. The tags to be derived from this section should be of rising tone. **Instruction:** Please, thick appropriately the correct form of the question tags for the following statements.

76. Let’s have a drink
[ ] should we? [ ] shall we? [ ] shan’t we?

77. You’re coming with us
[ ] are you? [ ] aren’t you? [ ] isn’t it?

78. He didn’t go to school yesterday
[ ] didn’t he? [ ] will he? [ ] did he?

79. She told you I wasn’t going to the party
[ ] did she? [ ] didn’t she? [ ] isn’t it?

80. We don’t know the way to Lapaz
[ ] isn’t it? [ ] do we? [ ] don’t we?

81. Mr. Kudjo has got 3 children
[ ] has he? [ ] isn’t it? [ ] hasn’t he?

82. It will be able to go
[ ] will it? [ ] won’t it? [ ] isn’t it?

83. This wasn’t your seat
[ ] was it? [ ] wasn’t it? [ ] isn’t it?

84. You weren’t too noisy in the library
[ ] weren’t you? [ ] were you? [ ] isn’t it?

85. They could have fixed it
[ ] couldn’t they? [ ] could they? [ ] Isn’t it?
APPENDIX THREE

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA
ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR THE HUMANITIES (ECH)
P. O. Box LG 74, Legon, Accra, Ghana

13th May, 2019

Mr. Alphonse Nana Oppong
Teacher Education Department
University of Ghana
Legon.

Dear Mr. Oppong,

ECH 069/18-19: CLASSICAL MODEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR; AS A PEDAGOGICAL AID IN TEACHING NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH.

This is to advise you that the above reference study has been presented to the Ethics Committee for the Humanities for a full board review and the following actions taken subject to the conditions and explanation provided below:

Expiry Date: 13/05/20
On Agenda For: Initial submission
Date of Submission: 20/12/18
ECH Action: Approved
Reporting: BI-Annually

Please accept my congratulations.

Yours Sincerely,

Prof. C. Charles Mate-Kole
ECH Vice Chair

Co: Dr. Abraham Okrah, Teacher Education Department, University of Ghana.