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"INFLUENCE OF LUTSOTSO CONSONANTS ON PRONUNCIATION OF SELECTED ENGLISH CONSONANTS AMONG FORM ONE STUDENTS IN LURAMBI SUB-COUNTY"

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of Lutsotso consonant sounds on pronunciation of selected English consonant sounds among Form One students, learning English as a Second Language (ESL), in Lurambi Sub-County, Kakamega County. The selected English language consonant sounds are: plosives /p, b, k, g, t, d/, fricatives /f, v, θ, ð/, and affricates /tʃ, dʒ/. The objective of the study was to examine the influence of the Lutsotso consonants on pronunciation of selected English. The study was anchored on Transfer theory which states that: the learner's first language will positively or negatively affect a Second Language Acquisition (SLA). A correlation research design was adopted to establish and describe the nature of the relationship that exists between Lutsotso consonants and selected English consonants. The study purposively sampled out nine mixed gender, public day secondary schools out of the thirteen schools in the Sub-County. The target population was seven hundred and twenty respondents, with a sample size of seventy two respondents' selected using simple random sampling. For gender equality, an equal number of boys and girls were selected using simple random sampling. Eight respondents of four girls and four boys were selected from each school using proportionate stratified sampling. The study collected data using dictation, an oral task and a questionnaire for the respondents. Qualitative data was analyzed using descriptive analysis whereas quantitative data was analyzed using inferential statistics where Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used. The findings were that Lutsotso consonant sounds affect the pronunciation of the selected English language consonant sounds. The sounds that exist in Lutsotso were simpler to articulate whereas those that were not were quite difficult. .

Key Words: Lutsotso, Transfer and Consonants

1. Introduction

English language is a core subject in the Kenyan school curriculum for its utilitarian, personal, economic and cultural importance. The Kenya Education Syllabus: Volume One (KIE, 2000:3) states that: 'This syllabus retains the variety of English acceptable in the Commonwealth which is derived from the British Standard English' (Muthwii and Kioko, 2000). It is therefore imperative that all students do well in it in order to have a better career in future (Republic of Kenya, 1999). Proficiency in English as a second language in spoken form is important for second language learners. This is because the spoken mode has a role to play in oral communication (Njoroge, Mucha and Bukenya, 2014). A good command of

English language will help one express effectively in ordinary life situations. It is the main medium of communication and an official language in all spheres of life (Crystal, 2012).

Next, the impression that one makes on people depends on how one speaks. This means that when one speaks, people form an opinion. Learners with difficulties in pronunciation may avoid speaking in English, and are likely to experience social isolation, employment difficulties and limited opportunities for further study (Jenkins, 2000). Above all, English connects learners of English as a Second Language (ESL) to a vast community of billions of world's people who also use it as a medium of communication (Crystal, 2012).

Teaching pronunciation for achieving perfection is not important. What is significant is to teach pronunciation for developing better communicative skills. One is expected to communicate appropriately by producing comprehensible and intelligible pronunciation sounds (Howlader, 2011). Knowledge in speaking English has a great demand in the competitive job market. It ensures good relationship among people and it is the actual work that people in some professional such as teaching, preaching, acting and broadcasting do most of the time, (Njoroge, Mucha and Bukenya, 2014).

However, among the four English language skills, which are: speaking, listening, writing, and reading. Speaking skills is the most neglected area in Kenya (Njoroge, 2008). This is because ESL in the Kenyan syllabus in the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) tests English language oral skills in writing instead of speaking. As a result the ESL ability to speak English is compromised.

First languages (L1) sounds differ from English language (L2) sounds. These sounds in actual writing may often be spelt differently (Ochieng, 2013). For example, the Lutsotso word /poi/ for boy, which is a mispronunciation, is different from the English word /bɔI/ boy. Mother tongue interference affects pronunciation of English as a second language (Odlin 1989; Njoroge 2000). This is because in English language, sounds blend between words in a way which is quite distinctive from that of other languages (Jenkins, 2000). But in some African languages, the final consonants are rare or are not fully pronounced. Therefore, second language learners from Central part of Kenya may find it very difficult to pronounce word final consonants (Jenkins, 2000). Therefore, they find a problem when linking words the same way English language does. For instance: the lateral approximant /l/ and /r/ are perceived as distinct and help us to distinguish and understand the difference between 'lice

/lais/ and rice /rais/.' However, /l/ and /r/ are not distinct in other languages especially Kikuyu language. That is why speakers of the language often have trouble distinguishing the two sounds when speaking English (Itumo, 2006).

The central concern of this study was to investigate the influence of Lutsotso consonant sounds on pronunciation of selected English consonant sounds. It is hoped that this study would contribute to knowledge in the field of Phonetics and Phonology especially in teaching pronunciation. The study will help ESL learners improve their academic performance because English skills are applicable to other areas of study such as Humanities and Sciences. This means that language skills are indispensable and therefore the study was very important.

Therefore, it is from this perspective that the study investigated the influence of the Lutsotso consonants on pronunciation of selected English consonant sounds among Form One students in Lurambi Sub-County.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

According to Ndung'u (2013), learning of pronunciation of English as a second language is troublesome for a non native speakers of English. This is because phonology has several areas that make the English language. These include: stress on words, vowels and consonant sounds, combined sounds, physical attributes of an individual and translation between languages (Njeru, 2013). The second language teacher has to compare and contrast the learner's L1 against L2 at all levels of linguistic analysis. Similarities and differences between the two languages should be identified. Similarities will facilitate learning while differences will hinder the learning of L2 (Wang, 2009). Students of English seem to have problems in the way they pronounce words because of L1 interference. This may result to mispronunciations of sounds. Among the groups that have difficulties in mispronunciations are the Bantus of Western Kenya- Lutsotso speakers.

In addition to that, studies have been done on the influence of L1 on L2 acquisition, such as (Luik 2011, Binturki 2008, and Masinde 2005). However, these studies have not looked at the influence of Lutsotso consonant sounds on pronunciation of selected English language consonant sounds. This makes this study crucial and timely. Therefore, it is in consideration of the uniqueness of the current study that an investigation was carried out to examine the influence of Lutsotso consonant sounds on pronunciation selected English language consonant sounds among Form One students in Lurambi Sub-County.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The objective of the study was to examine the influence of the Lutsotso consonants on pronunciation of selected English consonants.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

The hypothesis was that there is no correlation between articulation of English language sounds and their existence or lack of it in Lutsotso.

2. Literature Review

2.1 English Consonant Sounds

The Received Pronunciation (RP) is the standard accent for both native speakers and non native speakers of English. It is the variety that is used as standard in English language pronunciation and in dictionaries (Roach, 2000). Received Pronunciation phonemes are identified by means of minimal pairs. The English language consonant sounds are as presented in the Table 2.1 and the selected English language consonant in Table 2.2.

Place	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar	Velar	glottal
Manner							
Plosives	p b			t d		k g	
Nasals	m			n		ŋ	
Fricatives		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
Affricates					tʃ dʒ		
Laterals				L			
Approximant					r		

Table 2.1 English Consonant Sounds

Source: Hughes and Trudgill (1996, pp. 38-42)

	Bilabial	**Labiodentals**	**Dental**	**Palato Alveolar**	**Velar**
Plosives	p b			t d	k g
Fricative		f v	θ ð		
Affricates				ʧ ʤ	

Table 2.2: Selected English Consonant Sounds

Source: Hughes and Trudgill (1996)

In Table 2.1 and 2.2, where symbols appear in pairs, the one on the right represents a voiced consonant sound while the sound on the left represents voiceless sounds. In the phonology of English, the three voiceless plosives /p, t, k/ are usually aspirated if they are followed by a vowel. If they appear in word terminally, they are usually unreleased (Hughes and Trudgill 1996).

2.2 Lutsotso Consonant Sounds

Lutsotso is one of the sixteen dialects of Luhya, a Bantu language spoken by people in Western Kenya (Osore, 2009). Murasi (2000) analyzed Lutsotso consonants and came up with the following Lutsotso sounds as presented in the Table 2.3.

Manner	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Alveolar Palatal	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops							
Voiceless	p		t			k	
Fricatives							
Voiceless		F	s	ʃ		x	h
Voiced	β						
Affricates							
Voiceless			ts	ʧ		ŋ	
Nasals	m		n				
Liquids			l	r			
Glides					J	w	

Table 2.3: Lutsotso Consonant Sounds

Source: Adapted from a Conference paper, Murasi 2000

Table 2.3: Lutsotso Consonant Sounds clearly shows that, Lutsotso speakers use the voiceless consonant sounds mostly.

2.3 Comparison of English and Lutsotso Consonant Sounds

The English and Lutsotso consonant sounds are comparable (Murasi, 2000). They have differences and similarities as indicated in the Table 2.4.

Sounds	**Interdentals**		**Plosives**		**Fricatives**		**Affricates**	
	Voiceless	Voiced	Voiceless	Voiced	voiceless	Voiced	voiceless	Voiced
English	θ	ð	p t k	b d g	f s ʃ	v z ž	tʃ	-j-
Lutsotso	-	-	p t k	-	f s ʃ x	-	tʃ tŝ	-

Table 2.4: Comparison of English and Lutsotso Consonant Sounds

Source: Adapted from Murasi, (2000). A conference paper presented in Kisumu

From the comparison between the English and Lutsotso consonant sounds in terms of sounds, English has sixteen consonant sounds while Lutsotso has nine consonant sounds. Some of the English consonant sounds do not exist in Lutsotso. For instance, in Lutsotso there is /tŝ/ which is a voiceless alveolar affricate and /β/ voiced bilabial fricative, these sounds do not exist in English while there is the voiceless and voiced dental fricative sound /θ/ as in /Ɵin/ and /ð/ as in /ðI/.

2.4 L1 Phonological Transfer to L2

Jarvis and Pavlenko (2007) define phonological transfer as the way in which a person's knowledge of the sound system of one language can affect that person's perception and production of speech sounds in another language. A study by Luik (2011) researched on L1 German phonological transfer to L2 Finnish on immigrants to investigate proper pronunciation and fluency for survival in the new society. The respondents were seven adult German speaking missionaries who were to acquire L2 Finnish. They read a book loudly in Finnish and in turns for five minutes each. They had teaching sessions lasting ten minutes and recorded for four weeks using recording schedules.

The study used Contrastive Analysis theory to predict difficulties in the pronunciation focusing on errors stemming from L1 to L2. Transfer was observed in reading and speaking. Data was analyzed by listening to the recordings severally and an excel spreadsheet was created to mark the pronunciation errors, in terms of phonological transfer. The findings were

that: there were no observed pronunciation differences between the reading and speaking tasks, except in producing the short and long sounds. The common error was the diphthong /ei/ as in /meil/ which was switched to be /ie/ as in /miel/ which is meaningless. Aspirated stops in Finnish were problematic to all respondents.

This study was closely related to the current study because they are both dealing with phonological transfer from L1 to L2. The current study was not a replica of Luik's (2011) study since the respondents under the study are different in age, race and time. Whereas the respondents used in this study were Finnish immigrants, the current study used Form One students speaking Lutsotso. The study was restricted to all sounds whereas the current study restricted itself to plosives /p, b, t, d, k, g/, fricatives /f, v, θ, ð/ and affricates /t͡ʃ, d͡ʒ/ only. They read a book loudly in Finnish and recorded using recording schedules. The current study on the other hand used dictation, an oral task and a questionnaire for the respondents to collect data. The study used Contrastive Analysis theory to predict difficulties in the pronunciation focusing on errors stemming from L1 to L2. The current study used Transfer theory to determine the sounds that are transferred from L1 to L2. Data was analyzed by listening to the recordings severally and an excel spreadsheet was created to mark the pronunciation errors, in terms of phonological transfer. The current study analyzed its data using descriptive statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Data was presented in tables and graphs showing frequency of occurrence, means, standard deviation and the level of statistical significance.

Binturki (2008) analyzed the pronunciation errors experienced by five Saudi learners of English as a second language. He investigated the difficulties in producing the voiceless bilabial stop /p/, the voiced labiodental fricative /v/, and the alveolar approximant /ɹ/, focusing on word environments. The findings were that the respondents had the greatest difficulty with consonant /v/. The difficulty depended on the word positions, the easier being the word initial and the most difficult being the final position.

Binturki's (2008) study was closely related to the current study within phonological transfer of L1 to L2 (English) and the effect of L1 on pronunciation of English language sounds. It investigated pronunciation errors and the current study also investigated pronunciation interference of L1 (Lutsotso) on L2 (English). He analyzed the pronunciation errors experienced by five Saudi learners of English as a second language; he investigated the

difficulties in producing the voiceless bilabial stop /p/, the voiced labiodental fricative /v/, and the alveolar approximant focusing on word environments. On the other hand, the current study investigated the sounds of English language plosives /p, b, k, g, t, d/, fricatives /f, v, θ, ð/ and affricates /tʃ, ʤ/.

Masinde (2005) researched on First Language Transfer and its implication on the learning of English. The study used Inter Language theory and Error Analysis theory, to establish the extent to which the L1 is transferred onto English and its implication on learning among the Kalenjin speakers. A case study was used to describe the errors the Kalenjin speaking English as a second language make with a focus on the degree of L1 related errors and their implication. Purposive sampling was used to sample out the respondents. Data was collected using interview schedule for the teachers, a writing task and a questionnaire for the respondents. Qualitative research design was adopted. Inter Language and Error Analysis theories were used in the study. The findings were that the likely causes of L1 transfer is the learning environment dominated by L1 speakers, the semblance of L1 grammar with L2 grammar, lack of English speaking role model and inability of the learners to communicate.

Masinde (2005) study was closely related to the current study since both were focusing on the first language interference. Both studies used purposive sampling. On the other hand, he focused on Kalenjin speakers of ESL whereas the current study's main focus was Bantu, Lutsotso speakers of ESL. Data was collected using interview schedule for the teachers, a writing task and a questionnaire for the respondents. The current study on the other hand used dictation, an oral task and a questionnaire for the respondents to collect data. Inter Language and Error Analysis theories were used in the study while the current study used Transfer theory. This is why the study sought to investigate the influence of Lutsotso consonant sounds on pronunciation of English language consonant sounds among Form One students in Lurambi Sub-County, since it is unique and crucial.

2.5 Transfer Theory

This study used Lado's (1957) Transfer theory advanced by Wang (2009). The role of native language in L2 acquisition is known as language transfer. It is assumed that learners of a second language rely extensively on their native language when learning a second language. According to transfer theory, learners of L2 tend to transfer forms and meanings of their native language and culture to forms and meanings of their L2. This transfer is productive if

the learner attempts to speak the language and receptive when the learner attempts to grasp the language and culture as practised by native speakers. Lado's (1957) Transfer theory advanced by Wang (2009) states that: those elements that are similar to the learner's native language would be simpler when learning a foreign language and those that are different would be difficult.

Therefore, the L1 native language transfer in acquiring a second language is inevitable because of the difference in the sounds between the learners' L1 and the target language (Njeru, 2013). Wang (2009) on language transfer argues that, the learner's L1 will negatively or positively affect the learner's second language acquisition. When there are similarities between L1 and L2, transfer functions positively, and when there are differences, it functions negatively. (Njeru, 2013) put it that, the personal ethnic and language of the community plays a significant role in determining the degree and access to language used by the dominant group, therefore creating a barrier to acquiring L2. In light of that, language transfer is considered a major communicative strategy utilized by L2 learners in order to achieve communicative task. Therefore, Transfer theory used was relevant to study the influence of Lutsotso consonants on the pronunciation of the selected English language consonants.

3. Research Design And Methodology

The study used a correlation research design. It aims to examine and describe the associations and relationships between two variables. Its main purpose is to establish that a relationship that exists between variables and describes the nature of the relationship (Gutherie, 2010). This was the most suitable for predicting the presence or absence of the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable. The coefficient of correlation was measured using Pearson's Product Moment. This is because the variables could be ranked from the lowest to the highest (Kelinger, 1973).

The target population refers to that population, which the researcher wants to generalize the result of the study. The total numbers of respondents were seven hundred and twenty respondents (720) as per the latest enrolment in Teacher Service Commission Return Form A (2013). The Form One respondents from nine mixed gender, public day secondary schools were purposively selected from the thirteen public secondary schools in Lurambi Sub-County. These respondents are from rural areas and spoke Lutsotso as their first language.

According to Gatavi (2013), in Kenya, most people from rural areas speak their first language. These respondents come in contact with English language while at school and at home, they lack adequate exposure and mostly use Lutsotso when communicating. The Form One students are the targeted population because according to the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) (2000), the respondents had just been introduced to linguistic structures on the use of the language and therefore had not perfected English language structures. That shows that the respondents are likely to have problems in learning the second language as compared to those in higher levels. According to Ogechi (2009), most of the Kenyan children in rural areas start school without any English competence. During the first three years of school, learning is taught in the indigenous language of the region in rural areas because a child cannot learn if it is entirely taught in a language that he/she does not understand (English language). These respondents had their primary education in Butsotso where Lutsotso was a medium of instruction as from class one to three as per the language policy in Kenya, (Kenya Constitution, 2010).

According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000) a sample size of 10% of the target population was large enough as long as it allowed for reliable data analysis and provided desired level of accuracy. Out of the total population of seven hundred and twenty, the sample size was 10% of 720 which was 72. For gender equality, an equal number of boys and girls were selected, thirty four (36) girls and thirty six (36) boys.

Simple random sampling was used to obtain a sample size of seventy two respondents from a target population of seven hundred and twenty respondents. For gender equality, an equal number of boys and girls were selected using simple random sampling and systematically identified eight respondents from each school, four girls and four boys using proportionate stratified sampling. According to the study, proportionate stratified sampling was used to ensure the sample included people from different strata in a population. Each school was treated as strata with a sample fraction of ten percent.

The tools for data collection were dictation, an oral task and a questionnaire for the respondents. The selection of the tools had been guided by the nature of the data to be collected and the objectives of the study. The study was mainly concerned with specific consonant sounds in English language and sounds could best be collected through the use of a spoken task, (Ladefoged and John, 2010). The data collected in the study was analyzed using

both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Textual data was sorted and then coded accurately using numerical data to reflect the requirements of the measurement scales. The study used Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary in determining a correct description of the specific sounds of English. The total marks for each sound were determined by counting frequency occurrences of the specific sound. This was followed by the calculations of the mean and standard deviations for each sound using a computer package, statistical package of social science (SPSS). It was important to analyze the sounds statistically to establish whether there was any correlation between the variations observed in the dictation and oral task. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to confirm whether the observed differences between the two sample means were significant or not.

A Likert scale was derived by the researcher to come up with continuous data. When applying ANOVA, the study was out to establish variability in the independent selected English sounds. If the statistical significant was at $p<0$, then it would be concluded that the means were different. Data was analyzed using descriptive analysis, inferential statistics and ANOVA. Data was made up of individual score and compared the differences between the means of the dictation and an oral task. The results were then presented in tables to show frequency of occurrences, means, standard deviations and levels of statistical significance.

4. Presentation of Data

Data was presented according to dictation, oral task and home environment. It was analyzed according to the objective of the study which was to: investigate the influence of Lutsotso consonant sounds on pronunciation of selected English sounds. It entailed descriptive analysis and empirical data that investigated the influence of the Lutsotso consonant sounds on pronunciation of selected English consonant sounds. The hypothesis was that there is no correlation between articulation of English language sounds and their existence or lack of it in Lutsotso.

4.1 Presentation of Dictation Data

Table 4.2 shows the raw scores from the dictation exercise

Score (x/20)	Total Scores Both Male + Female	% Respondents
20	12	16.67
19	13	18.06
18	7	9.72
17	4	5.56
16	2	2.78
15	3	4.17
14	2	2.78
13	2	2.78
12	2	2.78
11	3	4.17
10	2	2.78
9	2	2.78
8	1	1.39
7	1	1.39
6	2	2.78
5	1	1.39
4	1	1.39
3	3	4.17
2	4	5.56
1	0	0
0	5	6.94
	72	

Table 4.2: Results from Dictation

The above Table 4.2 shows that, out of 72 respondents:

Twelve (12) respondents scored 20 out of 20.

Thirteen (13) respondents which are 18.06% scored 19 out of 20.

Seven (7) respondents which are 9.72% scored 18 out of 20.

Four (4) respondents which are 5.56% scored 17 and 02 out of 20.

Two (2) respondents which are 2.18% scored 16, 14, 13, 12, 10, 09 and 06 out of 20 respectively.

Three (3) respondents which are 4.17% scored 15, 11, and 03 out 20 respectively.

One (1) respondent scored which are 1.39% scored 08, 07, 05 and 04 out of 20 respectively.

No respondent scored 01 out of 20.

The dictation scores were measured on a Likert scale because data needed to be continuous for it to be analyzed. The scores from 0-3 was very poor, 4-7 poor, 8-12 fairly good, 13- 17 good and 18-20 very good. The scores were as shown in Table 4.3.

Scores	Remarks	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-3	Very poor	12	16.7	16.7
4-7	Poor	5	6.9	23.6
8-12	Fairly Good	10	13.9	37.5
13-16	Good	9	12.5	50.0
17-20	Very Good	36	50.0	100.0
Total		72	100.0	

Table 4.3: Likert Scale for Dictation score

The dictation exercise was well done by most respondents.

50% of the respondents scored very good with scores ranging between 17 – 20.

20.12.5% of the respondents scored good with scores ranging from 13 - 16 out of 20.

13.9% of the respondents scored fairly good with scores ranging from 8 - 12 out of 20.

6.9% of the respondents scored poor with scores ranging from 4 – 7 out of 20.

16.7% of the respondents scored very poor with scores ranging from 0 - 3 out of 20

The dictation exercise was well done as half of the respondents scored 50%. In general, 76.4% of the respondents scored between 8-20 marks

The percentage scores were presented in the pie chart as shown in Figure 4.2. It indicates the percentage (%) scores in dictation.

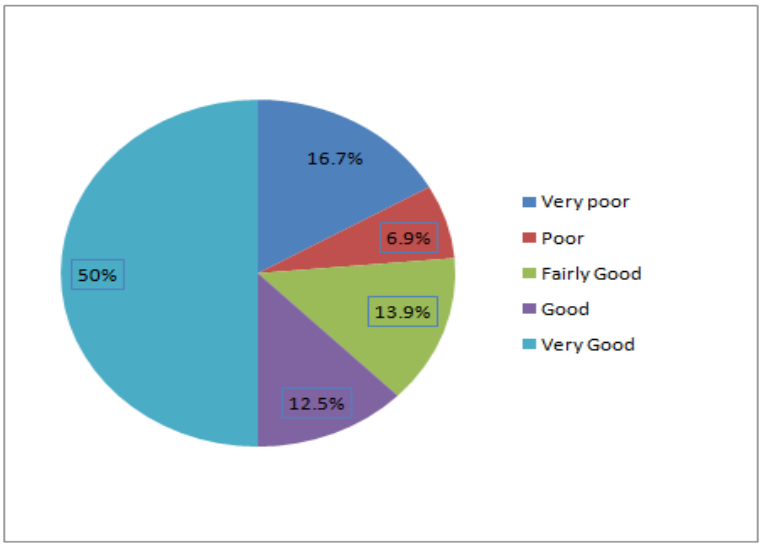

Figure 4.2: Dictation Scores in Percentages

From Figure 4.2, dictation scores in percentages were as shown below.

Very good had 50%

Good had 12.5%

Fairly Good had 13.9%

Poor had 6.9%

Very Poor had 16.7%

Those who scored from fairly good to very good were a total of 76.40%. The rest 23.6% had poor and very poor.

4.2 Presentation of Oral Task Data

The study also used an oral task to collect data and the results are presented in Table 4.4 as shown below.

% score	**0**	**10**	**20**	**30**	**40**	**50**	**60**	**70**	**80**	**90**	**100**	
Score	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Male	5	0	2	2	1	1	0	2	6	7	10	36
Female	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	4	6	20	36
Total	5	0	4	3	1	1	2	3	10	13	30	72

Table 4.4 has percentage score up to one hundred percent. It also has scores from 0-10 and the scores for male and female. It shows that 30 respondents scored 10 out of 10. At the same time, 13 respondents scored 9, 10 respondents scored 8 out of 10, 3 respondents scored 7 and 2 respondents scored 6 out of 10. On the other hand, 5 respondents scored 0 out of 10, 4 respondents scored 2, 3 respondents scored 3 and 1 respondent scored 4 and 5 respectively.

This means that 30 respondents which was equivalent to 42% scored 10 out of 10.
Thirteen respondents which was equivalent to 18% of the respondents scored 9 out of 10.
10 respondents which was equivalent to 14% of the respondents scored 8 out of 10.
3 respondents which was equivalent to 4% of the respondents scored 7 out of 10.
2 respondents which was equivalent to 3% of the respondents scored 6 out of 10.
1 respondent an equivalent to 1% of the respondents scored 4 and 5 out of 10 respectively.
3 respondents which was equivalent to 4% of the respondents scored 3 out of 10.
4 respondents which was equivalent to 6% of the respondents scored 2 out of 10.
No student scored 1 out of 10 and finally 5 respondents which was equivalent to 7% of the respondents.

The Oral Task results in Table 4.4 were presented as shown in the Figure 4.3.

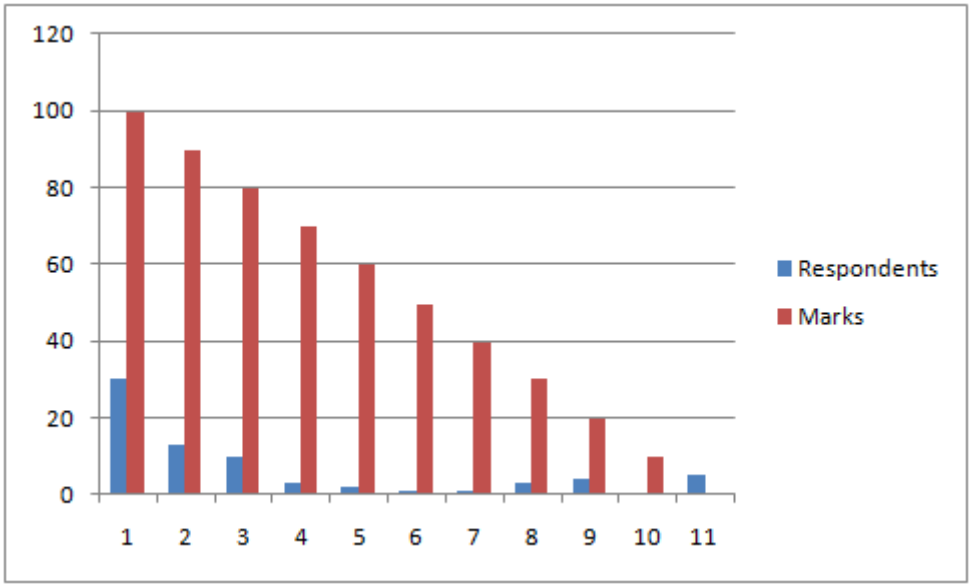

Figure 4.3: Oral Task Percentage Score

The Figure 4.3 above shows that 30 respondents scored 100%, 13 respondents scored 90%, 10 respondents scored 80%, 3 respondents scored 70%, 2 respondents scored 60% 1 respondent scored 50% and 40% respectively. 3 respondents scored 30%, 4 respondents scored 20%, no respondent scored 10% and finally 5 respondents scored 0%.

The results from the oral task were also measured on a Likert scale because data needed to be continuous for it to be analyzed. For the oral task, the likert scale 0-1 was very poor, 2-3 poor, 4-5 fair, 6-7 good, 8-10 very good. The scores were presented as shown in Table 4.5.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-1 Very Poor	5	6.9	6.9	6.9
2-3 Poor	7	9.7	9.7	16.7
4-5 Fairly Good	2	2.8	2.8	19.4
6-7 Good	5	6.9	6.9	26.4
8-10 Very Good	53	73.6	73.6	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.5 indicates that 6.9% had very poor, 9.7% had poor, 2.8% had fairly good, 6.9% had good and 73.6% had very good scores. This shows that the oral task was well done. The percentages were presented in the Figure 4.4.

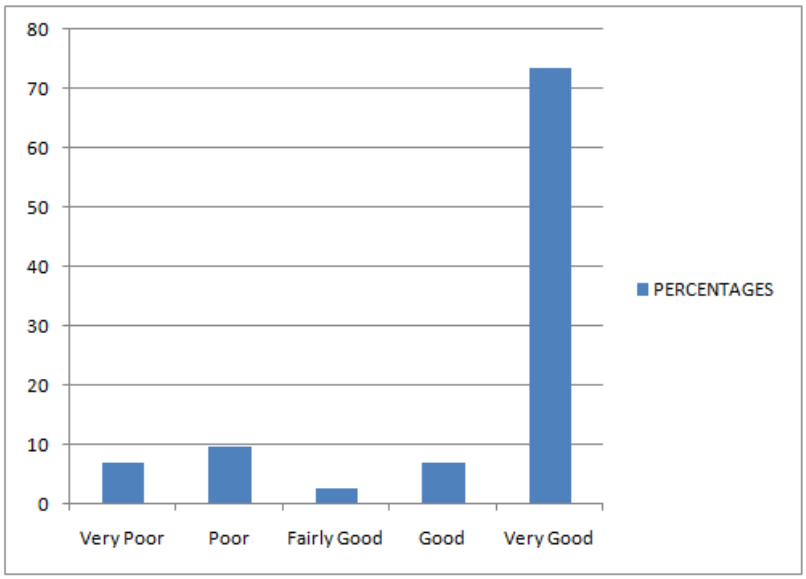

Figure 4.4: Oral Task Percentage

The Figure 4.4: Oral Task percentage indicates that 6.9% had very poor, 9.7% had poor, 2.8% had fairly good, 6.9% had good and 73.6% had very good scores. This can be concluded that the oral task was well done by the respondents since 73.6% scored very good scores.

4.3 Presentation Of Questionnaire On Home Environment

Data from the questionnaire marked whether the respondents read story books while at home, whether they read Daily Newspapers while at home and whether they watched television and listened to the radio while at home. Data was presented as shown in Table 4.6.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	56	77.8	77.8	77.8
No	16	22.2	22.2	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.6: Learners who Read Story Books at Home

On reading story books while at home, out of seventy two (72) respondents, fifty six (56) respondents agreed that they read story books while at home and sixteen (16) respondents confirmed that they do not read. This is 77.8% for Yes and 22.2% for No. Those who read

story books were reading those recommended to them by the teachers especially the school set texts for Form three and four syllabus. These are: The River and the Source by Margret Ogolla, The Caucasian Chalk Circle by Bertolt Brecht, Betrayal in the City by Francis Imbuga and Short Stories- When the Sun Goes Down and other stories. This showed that the respondents did not access any supplementary story books such as Death Trap by Bill Rutto, Taming Isoyo by Leonard Kibera.

The next frequency Table 4.7 show the learners who read newspapers while at home.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	48	66.7	66.7	66.7
No	24	33.3	33.3	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.7: Learners who Read Newspapers

Table 4.7 shows that 66.7% of the respondents read daily newspapers while at home. These newspapers were: The Standard, Daily Nation and Taifa Leo. On confirming what they actually read in the newspapers, most respondents pointed out the sports column especially the males and the female pointed out the fashion design and leisure column. A few of them said that they read emerging issues and children's corner. This means that what they read is relevant to pronunciation because it has sounds that were being investigated.

The next frequency Table 4.8 below shows those who watched television while at home.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	52	72.2	72.2	72.2
No	20	27.8	27.8	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.8: Learners who Watched Television

Table 4.8 indicates respondents who watched television while at home. 72.2% said yes while 27.8% said no. Those who said Yes watched football, comedies and soap opera films. This implies that those who watched television had an opportunity to listen to good speakers of English language. For example, football commentators speak intelligible English and even characters in most soap operas use the recommended British English.

The next frequency Table 4.9 shows those who listened to the radio while at home

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	44	61.1	61.1	61.1
No	28	38.9	38.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.9: Learners who Listened to Radio

Table 4.9 indicates respondents who listened to the radio while at home. 61.1% said Yes while 38.9% said No. Those who listened to the radio indicated that they listened to news, music and other programmes aired in other Kenyan languages. Radio stations that air in other languages include: Mulembe FM which is broadcasts in Luhya languages and Radio Jambo that airs in Kiswahili.

Home Environment was compared between male and female. Data was presented as in Table 4.10.

Gender Comparison on Home Environment		
Home Environment	**Gender**	**Percentages**
Reading story books	Male	**36.10**
	Female	**41.70**
	Sub sample of overall sample	**77.80**
Reading newspapers	Male	**38.90**
	Female	**27.80**
	Sub sample of overall sample	**66.70**
Watched television	Male	**41.70**
	Female	**30.60**
	Sub sample of overall sample	**72.20**
Listened to radio	Male	**36.10**
	Female	**25.00**
	Sub sample of overall sample	**61.10**

Table 4.10: Gender Comparison on Home Environment

The results in Table 4.10 indicate that the respondents who read story books were: male 36.10% and female 41.70%. The total percentage for both genders was 77.80%. Respondents

who read newspapers while at home were: male 38.90% and female 27.80%. The total percentage of the respondents who read newspapers was 66.70%. Those who watched television while at home were: male 41.70%, female 30.60% and the total percentage was 72.20%. Those respondents who listened to the radio were male 36.10%, female 25.00% totaling to 61.10%.

Most respondents read story books by 77.80%, followed by watching television by 72.20%, then reading newspapers by 66.70% and lastly listening to radio by 61.10%. The comparison on home environment was done as shown in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5: Gender Comparison on Home Environment

4.3 Data Analysis

4.3.1 Lutsotso Consonants and Pronunciation of Selected English Consonants

To determine the influence of Lutsotso consonants on pronunciation of selected English sounds, the respondents' scores in dictation and oral task were closely examined to identify

the sounds of selected English consonant sounds that were difficult in pronunciation for the respondents.

The percentages for the respondents in sounds that were selected in the dictation are as represented in Table 4.11 below.

Sounds	/d/	/g/	/v/	/θ/	/ ʤ /	/b/	/ð/	/tʃ/	/k/	/f/	/p/	/t/
Respondents	57	51	49	39	33	26	22	33	0	0	0	0
% problem	79.2	70.8	68	54.1	45.8	36.1	30.5	45.8	0	0	0	0

This result suggests that the voiced alveolar plosive sound /d/ was the most problematic with 79.2% of the respondents interchanging it with the voiceless alveolar plosive sound /t/. It was followed by the voiced velar plosive sound /g/ with 70.8%, the voiced labiodentals fricative sound /v/ with 68% and the voiceless dental fricative sound /θ/ with 54.1%. These sounds were interchanged with voiceless velar fricative sound /k/, voiceless labiodentals fricative sound /f/ and voiced dental fricative sound /ð/ respectively. The sounds that were not problematic were: voiceless velar fricative sound /k/, voiceless labiodentals fricative sound /f/ and voiceless alveolar plosive sound /t/. All these sounds are voiceless.

In the dictation exercise, the voiced sounds, voiced bilabial plosive sounds /b/, voiced alveolar plosive sound /d/, voiced velar plosive sound /g/, voiced labiodentals fricative sound /v/ and voiced palate-alveolar affricate sound /ʤ/ were interchanged with the voiceless sounds.

The following examples were drawn from the respondents' data and they show how the sounds were interchanged. The transcriptions were based on how the respondent wrote the word to show how he or she would have articulated it when spoken as illustrated below

1 (i) The book is well *bound* **/bɑund/**.
Became:The book is well *pount* **/pɑunt/.**
(ii) The child *pound* **/pɑund/** the door hard.
Became:The child *bount* **/bɑunt/** the door hard.
(iii) He wanted to *bet* **/bet/**.
Became:He wanted to **pet**.
(iv) See my *pet* **/pet/**.
Became: See my *bet* **/bet/.**

Where voiced bilabial plosive /b/ was expected, voiceless bilabial plosive /p/ was used as shown. This distorted the meaning of the word in context and interfered with good pronunciation of sounds that are minimally different in one unit. The final consonant, voiced alveolar plosive /d/ was interchanged with voiceless alveolar plosive /t/.

Secondly, interchanging of sounds was also noted in voiced labiodental fricative /d/ and voiceless labiodental fricative /t/.

2 *i) Tie* **/taI/** the rope well.
Became:*Die* **/daI/** the rope well.
ii) She lost her *dolls* **/dəʊls/**.
Became: She lost her *tolls* **/təʊls/**.

Another change in the sound was detected in the use of voiceless alveolar fricative /tʃ/ and voiced alveolar fricative /ʤ/ as seen in the following examples.

3 i) The *judge* **/ʤɜ:ʤ/** is my father.
Became: The *church* **/tʃɜ:tʃ/** is my father.
ii) The *jar* **/ʤa:(r)/** had milk.
Became: The *char* **/tʃa:(r)/** had milk.

The final voiced consonant /ʤ/ was replaced with **/tʃ/** a voiceless consonant as illustrated above.

Similarly, other sounds that were interchanged were the voiceless velar plosive /k/ and voiced velar plosive /g/ as illustrated in the examples.

4 i) *Cut* **/kʌt/** the cloth into pieces.
Became :*Gut* **/gʌt/** the cloth into pieces.
ii) The *goat* **/gəʊt/** ate grass.
Became:The *coat* **/kəʊt/** ate grass.

A voiceless sound was replaced with a voiced sound as seen in the given examples above.

Lastly, voiceless dental fricative /θ/ as in thigh was interchanged with voiced dental fricative /ð/.

5 i) Honour *thy* **/ϴaI/** parents.
Became:Honour *dye/die* **/daI/** parents.
ii) I hurt my *thigh* **/ðaI/.**
Became:I hurt my *die* **/daI/**.

This shows that second language learners make predictable pronunciation errors while learning a second language. This is the context voicing and the word final devoicing. The respondents interchanged the voiced bilabial plosive /b/ as in bound with the voiceless bilabial plosive /p/ as in pound. Voiced labiodentals fricative /d/ as in doll was interchanged with voiceless labiodental fricative /t/ as in toll. Voiceless palate-alveolar affricate sound /tʃ/ as in church was interchanged with voiced palate-alveolar affricate sound /ʤ/ as in judge. Voiceless velar plosive /k/ as in cut was interchanged with voiced velar plosive /g/ as in gut. Lastly, voiceless dental fricative/ θ / as in thigh was interchanged with voiced dental fricative /ð/ as in thy.

The first objective was also tested using an oral task where minimal pairs were used to test the oral skills. According to Hornby (2006), minimal pairs are pairs of two English language words that differ in only one sound and when these sounds are interchanged, it leads to difference in their meanings. In the Oral task the respondents were to identify minimal pairs according to the correct pronunciation of the initial sound contrast in terms of voicing. The pairs were: (*Pail, jeer, file, fail, ghee, toll, Vail, choke, bail, key, cost, pill, vile, cheer, joke, killed, ghost, guild, bill and doll).* Data from the Oral task was also analyzed descriptively. The scores and percentages in oral task were as shown in the Table 4.12.

Sounds	**72 Respondents**	**Scores 0ut of 10**	**% of Respondents**
/p, b, f, v, k, g/	30	10	41.66
	13	9	18.05
	10	8	13.88
/f, v, k, g, tʃ, ʤ /	3	7	4.16
	2	6	2.77
	1	5	1.38
/p, b, tʃ, ʤ, f, v, k, g, t, d/	1	4	1.38
	3	3	4.16
	3	2	4.16
	1	1	1.38
All sounds problematic	5	0	6.94

Table 4.12 Sounds in Oral Task

Table 4.12 shows that 30 out of 72 respondents scored 10 out of 10 which were 41.66%.

i) Thirteen respondents scored 9 out of 10 which were 18.05%.

ii) Ten respondents scored 8 out of 10 which were 13.88%.

iii) Three respondents scored 7 out of 10 which were 4.16%.

iv) Two respondents scored 6 out of 10 which were 2.77%.

v) One respondent scored 4 and 5 out of 10 respectively, which were 1.38%.

vi) Three respondents scored 2 and 3 out of 10 respectively, which were 4.16%.

vii) One respondent scored 1 out of 10 which was 1.38%.

viii) Five respondents scored 0 out of 10 which were 6.94%.

ix) Those who scored marks from 8-10 had problems with sounds /p, b, f, v, k, g/.

x) Those who scored marks from 5-7 had problems with sounds /f, v, k, g, tʃ, ʤ /

xi) Those who scored marks from 0-4 had problems with sounds /p, b, tʃ, ʤ, f, v, k, g, t, d/. Those who scored no marks had problems with all sounds.

The respondents were pairing pail with fail instead of bail

Jeer with ghee instead of cheer

File with vail instead of vile

Ghee with guild instead of key

The non target English sounds that vary show instances of pronunciation deviations when compared with those of Roach (2000). This can be concluded that there is little communicative intelligibility due to the socio cultural contexts. From the mis pairings that have been indicated, it was concluded that Lutsotso consonant sounds influences the pronunciation of selected English consonant sounds. However, it was necessary to establish if there was a difference between the mean scores and the standard deviation of the dictation and the oral task. Table 4.13 analyzed the mean and the standard deviation for Dictation and Oral Task.

Descriptive Statistics

	N Statistic	Range Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic
Dictation	72	20	0	20	13.33	6.834	-.770
Oral task	72	10	0	10	7.72	3.145	-1.429
Valid N	72						

Table 4.13: Mean and Standard Deviation for Dictation and Oral Task

The result in Table 4.13 indicates that, the mean mark for the dictation for all the respondents was 13.33 whereas the mean mark for the oral task was 7.72. This means that the respondents did well in dictation as compared to oral task.

It is clear that the first hypothesis that stated there is no correlation between articulation of English consonant sounds and their existence or lack of them in Lutsotso was rejected. This is because Lutsotso consonants affect the pronunciation of selected English consonant sounds. The influence was seen as illustrated in the examples above

5. Conclusion And Recommendations For Further Research

5.1 Findings

The findings of the study show that there is a correlation between articulation of English language sounds and their existence or lack of them in Lutsotso. This justifies the first objective that was to examine the influence of the Lutsotso consonants on pronunciation of selected English consonants.

5.2 Conclusion

The study concluded that Lutsotso consonants influence the pronunciation of the selected English consonant sounds. This is because there is the voicing and devoicing of significant English consonant sounds. Most sounds were interchanged especially the voiced with the voiceless ones. This pronunciation difficulty is related to features of their first language (Mwangi, 2012).

The theory that the study was anchored on, Lado's (1957) Transfer theory advanced by Wang (2009) which states that: the learner's first language will positively or negatively affect a Second Language Acquisition (SLA). This theory guided the study in understanding the sounds that are difficult to pronounce. It is in relation to this theory that the L1 native language transfer in acquiring a second language is inevitable because of the difference in the sounds between the learners' L1 and the target language.

5.3 Recommendations

The study made the following recommendations that:

i) There is need to carry out awareness to sensitize all stake holders on the importance of comprehensible pronunciation of English sounds.

ii) There is need for the learners in day public secondary schools to be taught their native language in schools as similarities enhance L2 learning. Pronunciation used is essential in learning English as a second language.

iii) There is need for the teachers of English to know that Lutsotso speakers interchange the voiceless stops /p, t, k/ with the voiced /b, d, g/ in phonology of English.

5.4 Further Research

It is important for further research to be conducted in public owned schools and private owned schools to investigate whether Lutsotso speakers in these schools have difficulties in pronunciation of the selected English sounds.

The current study was done in among Form One students whose first language is Lutsotso in Kakamega County, in Kenya. A similar study could be conducted in an urban setting using a different native language.

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