

**SYNCHRONIC FEATURES OF *EKEGUSII* DIALECTS IN *KISII* COUNTY: A
CASE OF LINGUISTIC VARIATION IN LANGUAGE CONTACT SITUATION**

ANGWENYI MOKUA VINCENT

C50/CE/28011/2019

**A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF LAW, ARTS
AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
ARTS IN ENGLISH AND LINGUISTICS, KENYATTA UNIVERSITY.**

NOVEMBER, 2024

DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for the purpose of obtaining a degree or any other award in any other university or institution of higher learning.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Angwenyi MokuVincent

C50/CE/28011/2019

SUPERVISOR

This research project has been submitted with my approval as University supervisor.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Dr Kenneth Ngure

Department of Literature, Linguistics and Foreign Languages.

Kenyatta University

DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to my life partner; Dinah and my children; Purity and Duke whose love, hope, continuous moral support and inspiration during my studies and production of this work I will always cherish.

This work is also dedicated to my parents whose encouraging words inspired me through my academic journey. Their great affection and strength to move on made me to achieve this lifelong dream.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank the Almighty God for He has kept me in good health and for his generous provisions during times of need. He has taken care of my family both in my presence and absence. His grace has been adequate to me and my family at large.

I wish to express my profound appreciation to my supervisor, Dr Kenneth Ngure for his intellectual guidance and commitments that shaped this work to its present form. I am also grateful to all lecturers who took me through the coursework for their support and encouragement. I am particularly indebted to Dr Hilda Kebeya with whose knowledge of Regional Dialectology, guidance and help I developed the concept paper of this study. Special gratitude to Dr Norah Atambo whose knowledge of *Ekegusii* dialects and the area of study were invaluable in this study.

I appreciate Mrs Maina too, my former principal at Rugongo Secondary School, for her understanding and granting me permission when I needed to travel to the university to seek guidance and clarifications from my supervisor. I also appreciate Mr Mageto, a workmate at the same institution, for his moral support during typing of this work. I am also grateful to Mr Luttah of Kimuri High School for his input during drafting stage of this work. I am appreciative to my colleague at the University, Mr Nandiemo, for his positive inputs and criticism that motivated me to move forward in the process.

I am grateful to my field work respondents with whose immense contribution I gathered the information used in this study. This work could not have reached this end without their participation. I thank them for their patience, endurance and cooperation which made the entire exercise shorter and valuable.

Finally, I am indebted to my parents for they played a very important role in setting the academic foundation in my life and being inspirational figures to me throughout my academic journey. Gratitude and affection go to my immediate family whose love, encouragement and moral support contributed to the success of this work.

Thank you all and may God shower you with His abundant blessings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....	xi
OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS	xii
ABSTRACT.....	xiii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background to the Study	1
1.3 Statement of the Problem	3
1.4 Objectives of the Study	4
1.5 Research Questions	4
1.6 Justification and Significance of the Study	4
1.7 Scope and Limitations of the Study	6
1.8 Summary	6

CHAPTER TWO	7
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	7
2.1 Introduction	7
2.2 Literature Review	7
2.3 Theoretical Framework	10
2.4 Summary	12
CHAPTER THREE	13
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	13
3.1 Introduction	13
3.2 Research Design	13
3.3 Site of the Study	14
3.4 Target Population	15
3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure.....	16
3.6 Data Collection Instruments.....	17
3.7 Data Presentation and Analysis.....	19
3.8 Ethical Considerations.....	21
3.9 Summary	22
CHAPTER FOUR.....	23
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS.....	23
4.1 Introduction	23
4.2 Synchronic Features that distinguish the two Dialects.....	23
4.2.1 Phonological Analysis of the Dialects	24
4.2.1.1 Consonantal Inventory of Ekegusii.....	25

4.2.1.2 Vocalic Inventory of Ekegusii	27
4.2.2 Lexicosemantic Analysis of the Dialects.....	31
4.2.3 Morphosyntactic Analysis of the Dialects.....	34
4.3 Functional Load of the Dialects	39
4.3.1 Education Domain	39
4.3.2 Religion Domain.....	40
4.3.3 Mass Media Domain.....	41
4.3.4 Governance Domain	42
4.3.5 Business Domain	43
4.4 Perception of Speakers towards their Dialects and that of others	45
4.4.1 Dialectal Modification.....	46
4.4.2 Dialectal Discrimination.....	48
4.5 Summary	51
CHAPTER FIVE	52
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ...	52
5.1 Introduction	52
5.2 Summary of Findings	52
5.3 Conclusions	54
5.4 Recommendations	55
5.5 Summary	56
REFERENCES.....	57

APPENDICES	60
APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TYPICAL DIALECT SPEAKERS	60
APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SPEAKERS FROM DIALECT CONTINUA	61
APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SPEAKERS FROM DIALECT CONTINUA	62
APPENDIX IV: COMPREHENSIVE WORDLIST	63
APPENDIX V: MAP OF KISII REGION SHOWING BORDER COMMUNITIES ...	66
APPENDIX VI: MAP OF KISII COUNTY – SITE OF THE STUDY	67
APPENDIX VII: RESEARCH APPROVAL	68
APPENDIX VIII: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION	69
APPENDIX IX: RESEARCH PERMIT	70

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: <i>Ekegusii</i> Consonantal Inventory with its Orthographic and IPA Symbols....	26
Table 4.2: <i>Ekegusii</i> Vocalic Inventory with its Orthographic and IPA Symbols.	27
Table 4.3: Frequency of Occurrence of Lexicosemantic Terms in each Domain.	32
Table 4.4: Alliterative Occurrence of Noun Class Affixes in each Domain.	37
Table 4.5: Usage of Dialects in each selected Domain.....	44
Table 4.6: Perception towards the Dialects based on Attitude	47
Table 4.7: Perception towards the Dialects based on Fame.....	49

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1: Phonemic Percentage of Phonological Comparison of the Dialects	28
Figure 4.2: Percentage of Lexicosemantic Comparison of the Dialects.	33
Figure 4.3: Percentage of Morphosyntactic Comparison of the Dialects.	38
Figure 4.4: Percentage of Dialects Usage in each Selected Domain	45
Figure 4.5: Percentage of Perception towards Dialects based on Attitude	48
Figure 4.6: Percentage of Perception towards Dialects based on Fame	50
Map of <i>Kisii</i> County: The Physical Area of Study	67

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

FM	:	Frequency Modulation
IPA	:	International Phonetic Alphabet
NACOSTI	:	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
PAG	:	Pentecostal Assemblies of God
SDA	:	Seventh Day Adventist
TV	:	Television

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Border Point	A geographical boundary that separates one dialect from another.
Contact Dialects	Dialects that geographically border one another.
Dialect Continuum	A range of dialects that vary linguistically depending on the geographical distance between them (Plural: Dialect Continua).
Dialect Levelling	A process that results in movement towards greater uniformity and less variation between the given dialects.
Dialect:	Variety that is distinguished from other varieties of the same language by features of phonology, grammar, and vocabulary and by its use by a group of speakers.
Isogloss:	A line drawn on a map separating areas according to particular linguistic features as items of vocabulary, sounds or grammar.
Language Contact	A co-occurrence of two or more languages in society.
Language Domains	Social constructs, each unique in itself and assumed to have a suitable language form that uniquely fits them.
Language	A systematic means of communication in form of conventional signs, sounds, gestures or marks that have understood the meaning.
Maate	An <i>Ekegusii</i> dialect spoken in South <i>Mugirango</i> and at its border points.
Rogoro	an <i>Ekegusii</i> dialect spoken in <i>Kisii</i> sub-counties except South <i>Mugirango</i>
Speech Community	A group of people who share a common language or dialect.
Standard Dialect	A variety that enjoys institutional support and therefore assigned formal functions in various domains

ABSTRACT

This study provides a description of the synchronic features of *Ekegusii dialects*; *Rogoro* and *Maate*, a case of linguistic variation at contact situation using a comparative approach. The main objectives of the study was to identify synchronic features that distinguish the dialects, determine their functional load in various domains and examine the perception of the speakers towards their dialects and that of the others. The study was bound to provide useful insights to the language planners and policy makers with respect to the standardization of the language varieties. The focus was on areas perceived to be affected by dialect variation, that is, *Bonchari-South Mugirango* and *Bomachoge-South Mugirango* border points and their dialect chains. This study was based on Wave theory by Lyons (2002) which demonstrates that linguistic changes tend to spread from a centre, normally from economic, political or cultural influence to the area with no or little influence in those aspects. This study employed purposive sampling because the study involved respondents with desired characteristics. As well, stratified sampling was factored in since data was obtained from distinct sections within the area of study. Questionnaires, wordlists, interviews and participant observation, at some point, were the major tools used to collect data in this study. Data sources were restricted to the domains of education, religion, mass media, governance and business. The data collected was analysed and presented using coding system, frequency distribution tables and charts. The findings of this study revealed that the two *Ekegusii* dialects are distinct in their linguistic levels, thus achieving the first objective of this study, that *Rogoro* dialect is famous and enjoys institutional support thus assigned a higher functional load across various domains, hence fulfilling the second objective and that there is disparity in the perception of the dialects by speakers with *Rogoro* dialect speakers favourably treated as opposed to *Maate* dialect speakers who feel that they are linguistically discriminated; consequently, obtaining the third objective of this study.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction and a brief background to the study. The other subsections of this chapter outline include the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, justification and significance of the study as well as the scope and limitations of the study.

1.2 Background to the Study

Spoken forms of a language are not uniform entities, but vary according to the area people come from or social group they belong to. Dialectology focuses on new speech forms that arise from contact between speakers of different regions (Mesthrie, 2000). The way in which a language varies systematically is one of the central concerns of sociolinguistics. Key here is the regional dialectology, that is, the systematic study of how language varies from one area to another.

Ekegusii is a Great Lakes Bantu language of South-Western Kenya. It is classified as an East Nyanza Bantu language, labelled E.42 (Guthrie, 1971, Whiteley, 1974 & Cammenga, 2002). The language is dominantly spoken in the entire *Kisii* region which is bordered by the *Luo* toward the south, the *Abakuria* to the south-east, the *Maasai* to the south-westwards and the *Kipsigis* towards the north. Refer to the map in appendix V.

Ekegusii has two notable regional dialects; *Maate* and *Rogoro*. These dialects are spoken in a territory of about 2230 square kilometres. The territory is mountainous and with valleys and rivers that make it difficult for people from different extremes to meet often. This state of affairs greatly contributes to the birth of regional dialects. This is compounded by the fact that some linguistic features lead to the emergence of dialects over time.

Ekegusii dialects are region specific: *Rogoro* dialect is purely spoken in the entire of *Nyamira* County and all sub-counties in *Kisii* County except South *Mugirango* where *Maate* dialect is dominantly spoken. The variation between the two dialects is reflected in their linguistic features. Languages varieties that border each other merge along a continuum. In this case, the study area has non-clarity in distinguishing the features of the two dialects. At such points of contact, there is a linguistic overlap since the speakers occupy dialect continuum (Trudgill, 1986, Wardhaugh, 2006).

This study deliberately focused on the geographical area perceived to be affected by the linguistic variation in a language contact situation, that is, at the border points of *Bonchari-South Mugirango* and *Bomachoge-South Mugirango*. *Bonchari*, *Bomachoge*. Refer to the map provided in appendix VI.

This study describes *Ekegusii* dialects; *Maate* and *Rogoro* from a ‘synchronic’ approach with a view to establishing instances of the comparative relationship between the two dialects. This was possible since the dialects investigated are comparable, hence a comparative approach employed (Igonga, 1991 & Guthrie, 1967)

If one were to travel from one end of the region of study, say *Bonchari*, to the other end of the dialect continuum, South *Mugirango*, he would be exposed to another dialect by the time he gets there. However, he would not be able to establish the linguistic boundary of the dialects. The changeover is so smooth and hardly noticeable, though one could distinctly point out the difference between the dialects. Refer to the map in appendix VI.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

In view of early sociolinguistic studies conducted on *Ekegusii*, it is unanimously observed that the language dialects are region specific. This is in line with geographical boundaries in the area of study which place the dialects speakers in particular sub counties as seen from the map in appendix VI. Also, as seen from the comprehensive wordlist in appendix IV, there is an overlap of terms across borders of the dialects which creates dialect continuum. However, there is hardly any documentation from the early researches that specifically focused on the concept of dialect continuum which is a key feature in Regional Dialectology (Petyt, 1980). Additionally, Igonga (1991) made a linguistic description of *Ekegusii* at various linguistic levels, there is no documentary on consonantal sounds nor grouping of the data into orthographic and IPA symbols. This study, therefore, sought to address such knowledge gaps.

Given that the study focused on linguistic variation in a language contact situation, it is assumed that residents at linguistic border points are more conversant with both dialects than those far from the linguistic borders (Chambers & Trudgill, 1980). At the border points of the two dialects, it is quite unclear to establish to which of the two they

belong. The integration and prolonged contact between the speakers of the two dialects is assumed to result in dialect levelling, where the two varieties tend to become similar due to their influence on each other. Therefore, this study sought to systematically investigate the synchronic features of the two dialects and hence address these assumptions.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of this study were:

1. To identify the synchronic features which distinguish the two dialects of *Ekegusii*.
2. To determine the functional load of the two dialects across various domains.
3. To examine the perception of dialect speakers towards their dialects and that of others.

1.5 Research Questions

Questions that this study sought to address were:

1. Which linguistic features differentiate the two dialects of *Ekegusii*?
2. What are the distinct functions assigned to the dialects in various domains?
3. How do dialect speakers perceive their dialects and that of others?

1.6 Justification and Significance of the Study

This study has a scientific and practical relevance; it is an important contribution to language planners and policy makers specifically regarding the language standardization and formal functions assigned to the dialects in various domains.

Decisions regarding standardization inevitably affect the status of not only that dialect but also other dialects of the language in focus. A standard dialect, for example, ends up being assigned more functions than the other dialect across the domains.

However, it is worth noting that over time, some dialects that may have been perceived and treated as non-standard may encroach the territories of one perceived to be the standard one. When this happens, it is important for the users of the language to review their decisions on which of the dialects should be reckoned as the standard one.

Given that this research falls under sociolinguistics, it could provide insights on the communicative competence of the dialects investigated. The information obtained here could provide useful frameworks and contrastive information about the dialects. Such insights might be useful in the development of an encompassing theory of human language (Kebeya, 2013).

This study was also bound to add to the linguistic body of knowledge since the linguistic description is an important part of general linguistics as an area of study and the relationship among the languages in general. Since the study endeavoured to describe *Ekegusii* dialects by use of a comparative approach, it is therefore an important addition to the information on Comparative linguistics. It is also an important contribution to the information about *Ekegusii* dialects that, if positively perceived, linguistically unifies the speech community (Giles et al, & Fishman, 1977)

The study was important as it came at the opportune time when the government of Kenya was in the process of changing its educational curriculum. In the proposed

curriculum, indigenous Kenyan languages were given more emphasis than in the previous curricula.

1.7 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study focused on the *Ekegusii* spoken at the geographical border points of *Bonchari*, *Bomachoge* and *South Mugirango*. This is the area perceived to be affected by the linguistic variation of the two dialects. The purpose was to determine the features that distinguish the two dialects.

The study was also limited to naturally occurring conversations in a variety of settings. The resultant image identified two implications of the dialects coming into contact: dialectal modification and discrimination. From these realizations, the perception of speakers towards their dialects and that of the others was examined.

The study was also focused on the five selected domains, that is; education, religion, mass media, governance/administration and business/trade. That was in bid to determine the functional load of the two dialects across these domains.

Wave theory (Lyons, 2002) was used to conduct this study. Data was collected using questionnaires, wordlists, interviews and participant observation at some point.

1.8 Summary

This chapter has focused on the introduction to the research, background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, justification and significance of the study and finally scope and limitations of the study. The next chapter focuses on literature review and theoretical framework that guided this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

The focal point of this chapter is literature review of some studies allied to the current study. It also highlights the theoretical framework that guided this study.

2.2 Literature Review

There are earlier sociolinguistic researchers whose studies are related to the current investigation. Some of their researches are descriptive and others comparative. Their work is acknowledged and the relevant areas are utilized in this study.

In her study on *Comparative study of Ekegusii and Lulogooli*, Igonga (1991) gave some insights that were invaluable in the current study. The author made a linguistic description of *Ekegusii's* phonological, morphosyntactic and lexical structures in a comparative approach with Lulogooli, aiming at unearthing distinction between the two languages. The present study adapted this approach in identifying synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects of *Ekegusii* in terms of phonology, lexicon, semantics, morphology and syntax among other linguistic levels. Though her work was dealing with two distinct languages not dialects, the comparative method was relevant in the current study. However, in her phonological analysis of the target languages, the author neither presented some consonantal sounds found in *Ekegusii* consonantal inventory nor did she group this data into Orthographic and IPA symbols. This study, therefore sought to address that knowledge gap.

Guthrie (1967) is another scholar whose work was allied to this study. He dealt with the Bantu Languages as a group. His concept of *Classification of the Bantu languages* into zones was remarkable. He used comparative method to compare the groups of languages. His key objective was to establish the relationship between the languages. The current study applied the same approach to examine the relationship between the two dialects in terms of their synchronic features. However, Guthrie's work did not offer sufficient details on individual languages. He did not indicate how languages in each group were related, but just grouped them based on origin. He, for instance, grouped *Ekegusii* and *Lulogooli* under the *Ragooli-Kuria* group. The current study addressed that research gap in attesting the similarities and differences between the two dialects. His use of lexical correspondence approach was also useful in this study. According to the author, there is a particular kind of grammatical agreement in Bantu languages which makes them suitable for the application of comparative method. The same approach was employed in this study in the morphological analysis of the dialects.

Besides, in her study on *Accommodation of Code-switching of bilingual speakers*, a border point case study, Kebeya (2013), explored language accommodation and variationist theories, both of which had an informed bearing on this study. The aim of her study was to determine the nature of language accommodation at two linguistic borders and establish the stylistic functions of accommodation at the two contact points. Her approach was applied in this study in determining the functional load of the two dialects across a number of selected domains. This study also benefitted from the author's variation theory at some point when identifying synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects. Despite her exhaustive investigation of the linguistic

behaviour of bilingual speakers in intergroup contexts, the concept of continuum of the languages did not feature in her work. That was the knowledge gap that this study sought to fill.

Further, Myers-Scotton (2002) study on *Contact Linguistics Bilingual Encounter and Grammatical outcomes* contributes to this study about the concept of contact-influenced languages in contact situation. Her study aimed at determining the language variety that occupied a more dominant role than the other (Myers, 1993:66-69). This study benefitted from the researcher's work by applying the same approach in determining the functional load assigned to the two dialects across selected domains. Despite her thorough investigation, her work did not address continuum of the language variety pairs. The current study therefore sought to address that knowledge gap.

In addition, *Lexical Semantic Assessment of Luhya Dialects* (Lubanga, 2018), provided useful information on semantic comparison in the current study. His main objective was to examine the impact of *Luhya* dialects coming into contact at geographical border points. The current study adapted the researcher's approach in examining the perception of the speakers towards their dialects and that of the others. The same knowledge was found useful in discussing dialectal modification and discrimination in this study. His analysis of standard variety gave a bearing in determining the functional load assigned to the dialects in this study. Additionally, his descriptive tool for research gave an insight into how to determine a theoretical model that adequately accounts for variation of the dialects in this study. Despite his thorough investigation, the researcher analysed

his data lexically and semantically only, missing out other linguistic levels like phonology, morphology and syntax. This study sought to fill that knowledge gap.

Moreover, Brown's *Comparative study of Bukusu and Gishu* (Brown, 1968) was pertinent in this study. His study established that the two languages differed from each other in their linguistic features. The researcher's aim was to establish features that differentiated the two languages. The current study applied the same approach in identifying synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects. The author's comparative analysis was relevant in this study, considering that the same approach was applied at some point in analysing comparison of the two dialect pairs. However, the researcher did not narrow down to the linguistic levels of the two languages. That was the research gap that this study endeavoured to address.

The cited works were therefore relevant to the current study, considering that they formed a good background for the study. Ideas and knowledge obtained from the related studies provided guidelines and information that were of great use in the comparative study of the two dialects; thus achieving the main objectives of this study.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by Wave theory (Lyons, 2002) and further expounded on by Malcolm et al (2002-2007). This theoretical model grounded the research in its specific field of knowledge, making it meaningful and acceptable to the theoretical constructs.

The Wave theory posits that changes in linguistic innovations originate from a central point, usually with economic, political or cultural influence spreading to the

surrounding areas with no or little influence on those aspects. In this case, when two language varieties are in contact, the resultant changes will be initiated from the language variety with more influence, spreading in wave-like fashion to the language variety of no or little influence. The same applies to the scenario with several centres; each instance of linguistic change or innovation arises somewhere within the network from which it diffuses to adjacent speaker groups in the speech community. This change can be compared to wave which expands away from its central point as the new feature is adopted across a wider territory (Aleixandre, 2014).

As Bloomfield (1933: 317) says that different linguistic developments may spread like waves over a speech area and each change may be carried out over a part of the area that does not coincide with the part covered by an earlier change. Equally, an innovation targeting a small cluster of dialects can be followed by another innovation later targeting a larger group. Similarly, linguistic innovations spread outward from an influential centre of prestige to the adjacent areas of its speech community.

This theory was useful in this study because it tackled the centre of influence between the language varieties in contact. The tenets of this theory were in line with the influence of Rogoro dialect on Maate dialect as far as the linguistic levels are concerned. This ascertained that Rogoro as the economically, politically and socially powerful dialect has spread its influence to the less powerful, Maate dialect.

2.4 Summary

In this chapter, the centre of attention has been on literature review related to the comparative study of languages and dialects in contact settings. The theoretical framework that guided this study has also been discussed. The next chapter discusses the research methodology adopted in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides information on the research design employed, site of study, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection instruments, data presentation and analysis. It winds up with ethical considerations that guided this study.

3.2 Research Design

Any research project requires a design to serve as a guide for the investigator. Linguistic studies commonly employ both qualitative and quantitative (also known as descriptive design). However, some researchers combine elements from different research designs.

This study employed descriptive research design for the reason that it provides both qualitative and quantitative data which made the research problem to be understood systemically (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The primary data collected was basically qualitative as derived from research instruments. This was then converted into quantitative for the purpose of analysis. It was subjected into coding for analysis by use of descriptive statistics; frequency tabulations and charts.

The descriptive research design was found appropriate to collect data from respondents on the speakers' perception towards their dialects and that of others which is one of the objectives of this study. Besides, the design was fit for this study since it described the

resemblance and variation of the dialects which is also one of the objectives of this study. Therefore, this design meets the objectives of this study.

Kombo and Tromp (2006) state that descriptive research design is used to describe the current state of affairs as it exists with the aim of formulating crucial principles of knowledge to address certain problems. Similarly, qualitative data analysis was employed in this study to analyse data and understand respondents' views or perceptions through interview schedules while quantitative data analysis was used to represent the statistics in frequency distribution tables and charts.

3.3 Site of the Study

The site of study was *Kisii* County, Kenya. The study was carried out specifically in South *Mugirango*, *Bonchari* and *Bomachoge* sub-counties with an extension to their geographical borders points. For the location of this area, refer to the map provided in appendix VII. These are the areas perceived to be affected by dialects variation. The residents here were native speakers of the two dialects which overlap. For that reason, residents at the contact settings of these areas were proficient in the two dialects.

The research area was accessible and familiar to the researcher having been born and brought up in the community. Therefore, it was easy to create immediate rapport and maintain it with the respondents hence there was no language barrier experienced. In support, Best & Kahn (1993) as cited by Barasa (2014) note that research requires careful thought about a number of factors including accessibility and cost.

3.4 Target Population

The target respondents for this study was drawn from people who were perceived to be indigenous residents and who were competent speakers of both dialects along the border points and within dialect continua where the two dialects are spoken. These were those residents who were above 50 years of age and those who had been residents in the area for at least 50 years, those who confessed that they had not left the area for more than ten years. Such residents were purposely selected for they were believed to have acquired proficiency in the dialects which would in turn enable the researcher to assess any linguistic variances (Muriithi, 2016). They also comprised those who lived close to border points and within the dialect continua for reliability of information required.

Chambers and Trudgill (1980) had also pointed out that the selection of informants should consist of non-mobile, older and rural residents who are believed to be native to the region, not to have been affected by virtue of contact for staying in any other region by dialect or language speakers of such places. This study employed the same procedure.

This study relied on education, religion, mass media, governance and business domains to gather relevant data that uniquely fitted each of these domains. From education domain, thirty local primary school teachers who handled lower classes were relied on in providing data about the dialect used in literacy materials and as medium of instruction for indigenous language in Competence Based Curriculum syllabus. From religion domain, twenty five local church leaders were useful in providing data about the dialect used during worship services and Bible study sessions. From mass media

domain, visits to local radio and television stations were useful in obtaining information from twenty respondents about the dialect used in local news transmissions. From governance domain, eighteen respondents in the local administration consisting of village elders, assistant chiefs and chiefs played an important role in providing information about the dialect used in local public meetings and rallies. From business domain, participant observation was made on twenty two people at trading centres as they exchanged informal interactions in their business activities in their natural settings (Myers-Scotton, 2000 & Whiteley, 1974).

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

A total of 115 respondents, 27 phonemes were collected for phonological analysis of dialects, 60 lexical terms and 60 noun classes were collected for lexicosemantic and morphosyntactic analysis of dialects respectively. That sample size was considered ideal since it represented the characteristics of target population and it fulfilled the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility during the study (Sebba, 1974 & Labov, 1966).

Purposive sampling was used to select respondents based on their age and length of stay in the area of study. Residents who were over 50 years of age, born and brought up in the locality were relied on as they were believed to be competent speakers of the dialects. Thirty native speakers were selected, five from both sides of contact dialects and comparing their data against ten from either side of the dialect continua areas.

Stratified sampling was used to select areas from which to collect data. These were areas perceived to be having the two dialects in close contact. These were the border

points of *Bomachoge*, *Bonchari* and South *Mugirango* sub-counties. Key here was where the two dialects get in touch, specifically where South *Mugirango* borders both *Bomachoge* and *Bonchari*. The two borders were important as they serve speakers of both dialects.

This study, therefore, considered a combination of purposive sampling and stratified sampling. Purposive sampling was factored in because the study specifically included respondents with the desired characteristics, not just anyone at random. Stratified sampling featured in because data was obtained from distinct sections within the region perceived to be the home of the speakers of the two dialects in focus.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Having been approved and authorized by Kenyatta University's Graduate School to proceed with data collection (Refer to Appendices VII and VIII), research licence was sought from NACOSTI (Refer to Appendix IX and then relevant authorities in *Kisii* County were informed before commencement of the proposed research in the specified area of study. This permission is in line with Kombo and Tromp (2006) that data collection procedure involves the researcher seeking research permit before embarking on the study.

Questionnaire Sheets were preferred in data collection in this study because they could reach a large sample within limited time; ensure confidentiality and gathering more candid and objective responses. (Wambiri & Muthee, 2010). These tools were structured in a way that they included both open and closed ended questions. The instruments collected data from the literate respondents, both typical dialect speakers

and those from dialect continua. Refer to Appendices I and II. This method aimed at examining how speakers perceived their dialects and that of the others, as well as assessing functional load assigned to each dialect in selected domains.

Word lists (also called Swedish lists) were formulated then analysed based on each linguistic level of the dialects (Bosire & Machogu, 2013). The list was used to determine the words used for specific things or aspects, both at the border points and within the dialect continua. The wordlists used in this study consisted of basic terms from the selected domains. Refer to Appendix IV. These instruments were specifically employed since modern approaches to dialects focus on speech forms arising from contact between speakers of varying or different dialect backgrounds (Trudgill, 1980). The tools were administered to the literate respondents considering that they involved questions and responses. This method aimed at assessing the functional load of the dialects in the selected domains and identifying synchronic features that distinguish them.

Interview schedules were orally administered to respondents drawn from the sampled areas within the dialect continua. Refer to Appendix III. These instruments were employed since they made it possible to get comprehensive, vivid and in-depth information from the respondents. Only respondents who met the research criteria were subjected to interview schedules. The interviews were conducted at the convenience of respondents and in places free from distractions. These tools targeted the illiterate and semi-literate residents. Both structured and unstructured interview guides were suitable in that case. The instruments were used to establish how speakers identify themselves

based on the terms and words used for specific things and aspects. This method aimed at identifying the linguistic features that distinguish the two dialects and examining the impact of the two coming into contact thereof, hence the perception of speakers towards their dialects and that of the others was examined.

Participant observation formed part of data collection instruments in this study. People's exchanges in naturally occurring contexts were observed and recorded. This tool collected honest data and gave credibility to interpretation of the observation. In order to examine the dialects contrastively, the recording of conversations was systematically subdivided into formal and informal style (Kebeya, 2013). This instrument aimed at determining the functional load of the dialects and examining the perception of the speakers towards their dialects and that of the others in their natural settings.

3.7 Data Presentation and Analysis

Data analysis is a way of examining of what has been collected from the field with a view of making deductions and inferences (Kombo, 2006). Data obtained from the field in raw form is difficult to interpret until it is coded and analysed (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Likewise, collected data in this study was sorted into clusters and reduced into interpretable forms using statistics to achieve objectives of the study and obtain answers to the research questions. Therefore, data was analysed as per the objectives and research questions of this study.

Data collected using questionnaires was presented using coding system. The codes were grouped and labelled as per the dialect; M-code for *Maate* dialect, R-code for *Rogoro* dialect and M/R-code for shared dialect. Each code was tallied on tally sheets from

which quantifiable data was analysed and presented using frequency distribution tables and charts showing each code and its frequency by each respondent. The procedure was applied repeatedly until each targeted respondent was examined and frequencies for their codes tallied. This method was appropriate for this study since it involved describing, analysing and interpreting the prevailing dialect in contact situation. The data was then analysed into how it impacted communication in the selected domains. This aimed at assessing the functional load of the two dialects across the selected domains.

Data obtained using wordlists was presented in tables and word lists in English and their translations given in the two dialects. Refer to Appendix IV. This data was classified based on lexical variants. A comparison was done on the terms/words both in English and the pairs of respective dialects. This was based on the proximity of geographical border points. The wordlists showed an overlap in use of some lexical terms used on either side of the border points and within the dialect continua. This was then comparatively presented using tables and charts. This established the impact of the dialects coming into contact at such situation through various interactions over time. This aimed at identifying linguistic features that distinguish the two dialects.

Data collected using interview schedules was sub-divided systematically into recordings of formal and informal style. The quantifiable data was then categorized into tables and presented in charts for the purposes of dialects comparison and analysis of their relationship. A contrastive analysis of the dialects was done, the focus being on the

speakers' behaviour. This aimed at examining the perception of dialect speakers towards their dialects and that of the others.

Data obtained using participant observation was recorded without any verbal engagement with the human subjects in any way. This was conducted when the observed people were in social gatherings and while interacting with each other in their natural settings. That way, honest and intimate data was collected. This tool obtained a general view of the norms of the speech community in their naturally occurring contexts (Myers-Scotton, 1993). The aim was to determine the functional load assigned to the dialects as well examine the perception of speakers towards their dialects and that of others. This qualitative data was quantified in terms of statistics by using charts and their percentages for the purpose of comparing and contrasting the two dialects before drawing conclusions.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about researchers' behaviour and their relationship with target population, the aim being that no one suffers adverse consequences or embarrassment from research activities. All these ethics are in bid to protect the participants' human rights.

Ethical issues related to researching human subjects were put in place. Having been approved, authorized and permitted by relevant authorities to proceed with data collection, the researcher did self-introduction to the respondents and gave them an assurance of their confidentiality of the information being shared. The respondents were

then informed about the intentions and nature of the research as well as the importance of its results and they gave their consent before data collection began.

3.9 Summary

This chapter discussed research methodology adopted in this study. The discussions have focused on research design, site of the study, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection techniques, data presentation and analysis, and lastly ethical considerations. The next chapter seeks to present and analyse data collected during field work to meet the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of research findings. The findings are discussed in tandem with the objectives of this study. The chapter consists of three sections. The first one deals with the first objective of the study which is identification of synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects of *Ekegusii*. The second section deals with objective two which is an analysis of the functional load of the two dialects across a number of selected domains. The third section deals with the third objective which is a discussion on the perception of speakers towards their dialects and that of others.

4.2 Synchronic Features that distinguish the two Dialects

This section focuses on various features of *Ekegusii* dialects. The section makes an in depth focus on the resemblance and differences of these dialects in a paired approach based on their geographical proximity. In this sense, *Bonchari-South Mugirango* and *Bomachoge-South Mugirango* border points are the case studies. These areas were therefore of concern as means of drawing the similarities and differences between the two dialects.

The two dialects have their speakers as *Abanchari* and *Abamachoge* who speak *Rogoro* dialect and *Abagirango* who speak *Maate* dialect. Geographically, the *Abanchari* and *Abamachoge* occupy *Bonchari* and *Bomachoge* constituencies while *Abagirango* occupy *South Mugirango* constituency.

Most important here is where the two dialects get in contact, serving speakers of both dialects at their geographical borders and within the dialect continua. However, this study could not establish the linguistic boundary of the two dialects since the changeover was so smooth and hardly noticeable.

The study focused on the contact situations which revolved around such domains as market places, religion, education, mass media and governance.

Within the scope of this study, major linguistic levels were analysed and reflected in the identification of the synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects. The dialects exhibit a characteristic affinity in their phonological, lexical, semantic, morphological and syntactic structures. This study endeavoured to establish how close the two dialects are in these linguistic levels. Each of these was examined and details presented in the subsections below.

4.2.1 Phonological Analysis of the Dialects

To establish the phonological similarities and differences of the two dialects, respondents were subjected to oral interviews and communication drill from which the following phonemic inventory consisting of consonantal and vocalic sounds of *Ekegusii* was collected. The collected data for consonants was grouped into orthographic and IPA symbols while that of vowels was further categorised into short and long vowels as presented in sub-sections below.

4.2.1.1 Consonantal Inventory of Ekegusii

The following consonantal sounds and phonemic combinations were collected and grouped into Orthographic and IPA Symbols with their examples as presented the table below:

Table 4.1: Ekegusii Consonantal Inventory with its Orthographic and IPA Symbols

Orthographic Symbols	IPA Symbols	Examples
1. b	/β/	<u>B</u> otuko (night), e <u>b</u> uku (Bible)
2. g	/ɣ/	R <u>g</u> a (cook), <u>g</u> aki (please)
3. k	/k/	Min <u>y</u> o <u>k</u> a (run), <u>k</u> ira (be quiet)
4. m	/m/	O <u>m</u> onto (person), <u>m</u> ame (maternal uncle)
5. n	/n/	Om <u>w</u> a <u>n</u> a (child), <u>n</u> aende (again)
6. r	/r/	<u>R</u> ika (write), emio <u>r</u> o (nose)
7. s	/s/	<u>S</u> eka (laugh), ro <u>s</u> ia (make tired)
8. t	/t/	<u>T</u> ega (trap), e <u>t</u> a (pass)
9. w	/w/	Om <u>w</u> orokia (teacher), igat <u>w</u> a (average)
10. y	/j/	Omoyio (knife), <u>y</u> aya (no)
11. ch	/tʃ/	Am <u>ch</u> e (water), <u>ch</u> isemi (education)
12. mb	/mb/	Em <u>mb</u> ori (goat), omog <u>mb</u> ibi (chief)
13. nd	/nd/	<u>Nd</u> ore (see me), omor <u>nd</u> ia (preacher)
14. ng	/ŋg/	<u>Ng</u> ochande (I'm coming), eb <u>ng</u> o (taxation)
15. ng'	/ŋ/	<u>Ng</u> 'a (give me), e <u>ng</u> 'ondi (sheep)
16. nk	/ŋk/	<u>Nk</u> a (home), e <u>nk</u> uru (tortoise)
17. ns	/ns/	E <u>ns</u> e (world), i <u>ns</u> e (down)
18. nt	/nt/	<u>Nt</u> ogie (praise me), omos <u>nt</u> e (darkness)
19. ny	/ɲ /	Eke <u>ny</u> oro (village), omomen <u>ny</u> i (resident)
20. nch	/nʃ /	<u>Nch</u> wo (come), engen <u>ch</u> o (method)

4.2.1.2 Vocalic Inventory of Ekegusii

Words with vocalic sounds were collected and analysed and grouped into short and long vowel sounds. They were further presented using Orthographic and IPA Symbols.

Words bearing the sounds were also presented as displayed in the table below:

Table 4.2: Ekegusii Vocalic Inventory with its Orthographic and IPA Symbols.

Short vowel sounds			Long vowel sounds		
<u>Orthographic Symbol</u>	<u>IPA Symbol</u>	<u>Example</u>	<u>Orthographic Symbol</u>	<u>IPA Symbol</u>	<u>Example</u>
1. a	/a/	aria (there)	aa	/a:/	aaaria (over there)
2. e	/e/	te <u>m</u> a (drive cow)	ee	/e:/	te <u>e</u> ma (try)
3. e	/ɛ/	e <u>n</u> goko (hen)	ee	/ɛ:/	e <u>e</u> ma (tent)
4. i	/i/	och <u>i</u> re (he's come)	ii	/i:/	och <u>i</u> iire (he's gone)
5. o	/o/	ig <u>o</u> ro (up)	oo	/o:/	oro <u>o</u> che (river)
6. o	/ɔ/	ig <u>o</u> ro (yesterday)	oo	/ɔ:/	iko <u>o</u> ra (beat)
7. u	/u/	ku <u>r</u> a (scratch)	uu	/u:/	ku <u>u</u> ra (scream)

From Table 4.1 above, there are 20 *Ekegusii* consonantal sounds and from Table 4.2, there are 7 *Ekegusii* vocalic sounds, making a total of 27 phonemes of *Ekegusii*. Thus, the phonological analysis of the two dialects was executed as follows:

Of all 27 phonemes, 25 were found to correspond in both dialects and only 2 differed, that is, /t/ and /d/ which have different realizations as [t] for *Rogoro* dialect and [d] for *Maate* dialect. This information was computed as follows:

$25/27 * 100 = 93\%$ correspondence/ resemblance

$2/27 * 100 = 7\%$ non-correspondence/difference

This information is graphically presented as follows:

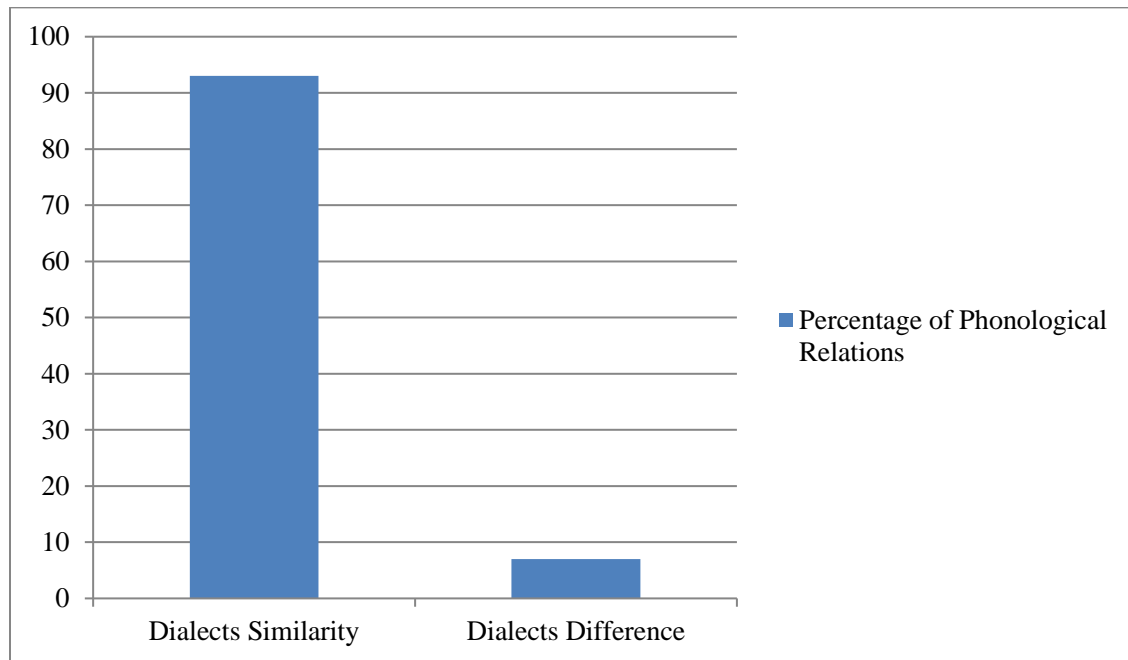


Figure 4.1: Phonemic Percentage of Phonological Comparison of the Dialects

From Figure 4.1 above, it is observed that phonologically, the two dialects are more similar than different. The percentage of the dialects phonological relations stands at 93% resemblance against 7% difference.

The following sample wordlist in the selected domain shows the two consonantal phonemic differences as highlighted in bold-face:

(i) **Education Domain:**

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>		<i>Maate Dialect</i>	
	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>
Accent	Ogwatoka	[oywatoka]	Ogwadoka	[oywadoka]
Average	Igatwa	[iyatwa]	Igadwa	[iyatwa]
Book	Egetabu	[ɛyetaβu]	Egedabu	[ɛyedaβu]
Examination	Amatemwa	[amatemwa]	Amademwa	[amademwa]

(ii) **Religion Domain:**

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>		<i>Maate Dialect</i>	
	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>
Adultery	Obotomani	[oβotomani]	Obodomani	[oβodomani]
Baptism	Ebatiso	[ɛβatiso]	Ebadiso	[ɛβadiso]
Choir	Abateri	[aβateri]	Abaderi	[aβaderi]
Temptation	Ogotemwa	[oyotemwa]	Ogodemwa	[oyodemwa]

(iii) **Mass Media Domain:**

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>		<i>Maate Dialect</i>	
	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>
Channel	Esiteseni	[esiteseni]	Esideseni	[esideseni]
	Obotebia	[oβoteβia]	Obodebia	[oβodeβia]
Communication	Omotegereri	[omoteyereri]	Omodegereri	[omodeyereri]
	Eretio	[eretio]	Eredio	[eredio]
Listener				
Radio				

(iv) **Governance Domain:**

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>		<i>Maate Dialect</i>	
	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>
Administration	Oboteneneri	[oβoteneneri]	Obodeneneri	[oβodeneneri]
Arbitrator	Omobwatania	[omobwatania]	Omobw a дания	[omobw a dania]
Empire	Oboruoti	[oβoruoti]	Oboru o di	[oβoru o di]
Village Elder	Omotureti	[omotureti]	Omo d uredi	[omod u redi]

(v) **Business Domain:**

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>		<i>Maate Dialect</i>	
	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>	<u>Orthographic Rep.</u>	<u>IPA Rep.</u>
Auction	Omonata	[omonata]	Omon a da	[omon a da]
Disagreement	ogotaigwana	[oyotaiywana]	ogod a igwana	[oyod a iywana]
Dividends	Ebitoki	[ɛβitoki]	Ebid o ki	[ɛβid o ki]
Shop	Etuka	[ɛtuka]	E d uka	[ɛ d uka]

From the wordlist above, it is evident that while all other sounds of *Ekegusii* correspond in both dialects, two of them differ phonemically, that is, the voiceless alveolar plosive, /t/, and the voiced alveolar plosive, /d/, uttered by *Rogoro* and *Maate* dialect speakers respectively. In other words, < t > has different realizations as [t] for *Rogoro* dialect speakers and [d] for *Maate* dialect speakers. However, the two sounds have the same orthographic symbols in both dialects.

4.2.2 Lexicosemantic Analysis of the Dialects

To ascertain the lexicosemantic relationship between the dialects, the informants were asked to say which terms they used to name specific things and entities in various domains from which a wordlist was created.

Sixty lexicosemantic terms were collected from respondents from typical dialect speakers of *Bonchari*, *Bomachoge* and South *Mugirango*, and those from border points of *Bonchari-South Mugirango* and *Bomachoge-South Mugirango*. The study relied on respondents of over 50 years of age, who in their own confession, had indicated that they had not left the area for long, say, not more than ten years.

Questionnaires were issued to literate respondents across the selected domains and they were asked to indicate terms/words used for naming specific things. Interview schedules were also orally administered to illiterate and semi-illiterate respondents from whom similar data was sought. A comprehensive wordlist was then generated which was used to do a lexicosemantic assessment of the dialects. For this wordlist, refer to Appendix IV.

Data obtained from the said instruments was presented using codes labelled R-code, M-code and R/M- code. R-code represents tokens of the data associated with *Rogoro* while M-code represents tokens of the data associated with *Maate* and R/M-code represents tokens of the data shared by speakers of both *Rogoro* and *Maate* dialects. Each code was tallied and frequency distribution tables were drawn. The table below shows the frequency of occurrence of the lexical terms in the selected domains:

Table 4.3: Frequency of Occurrence of Lexicosemantic Terms in each Domain.

Selected Domain/ Data source	Number of Lexical Terms	R-Coded	M-Coded	R/M-Coded	Percentage of Similarity	Percentage of Difference
Education	12	3	3	9	15	5
Religion	12	3	3	9	15	5
Mass Media	12	3	3	9	15	5
Governance	12	3	3	9	15	5
Business	12	3	3	9	15	5
TOTAL	60	15	15	45	75	25

For the actual list of lexical terms that were used to generate the above table, refer to Appendix IV. However, a sample wordlist showing a lexicosemantic comparison of the dialects in the selected domains is displayed below after the graphical presentation of this information.

Looking at Table 4.3 above, it is apparent that out of the 60 words, 45 were found to be shared in both dialects and 15 were found to differ. This is an indication that the similarity index of the dialects is higher than that of dissimilarity. This information was computed as follows:

$$45/60*100 = 75\% \text{ resemblance/similarity}$$

$$15/60*100 = 25\% \text{ difference/dissimilarity}$$

The graphical presentation of this information is shown below:

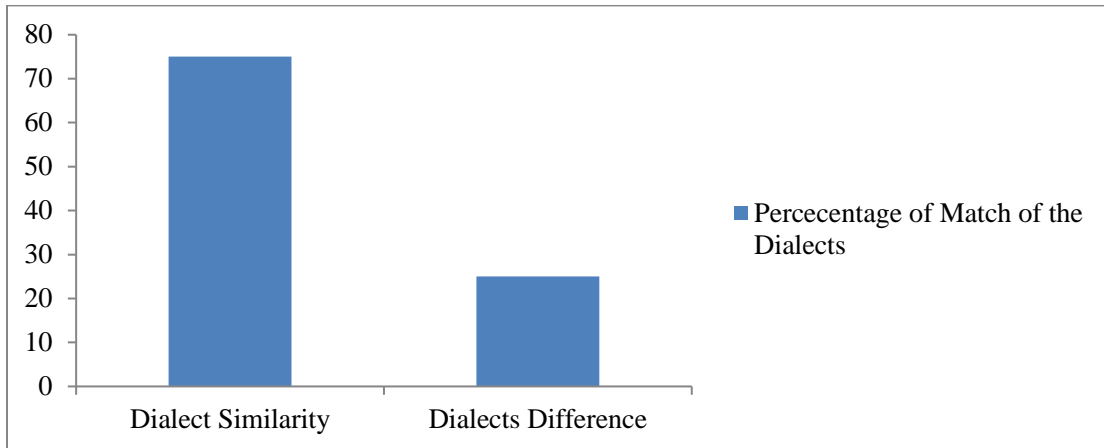


Figure 4.2: Percentage of Lexicosemantic Comparison of the Dialects.

The following sample wordlist displays a lexicosemantic comparison of the dialects in the selected domains. The words put in italics are not shared by speakers of both dialects. For the entire wordlist, refer to Appendix IV.

(i) Education Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Dictionary	Endabaro	<i>Endabasia</i>
Education	Chisemi	Chisemi
School	Esukuru	Esukuru
Teacher	Omworokia	Omworokia

(ii) Religion Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Bible	Ebuku	Ebuku
Choir	Abateri	Abateri
Church	Egeasimero	<i>Ekerisia</i>
Pastor	Omokundekane	Omokundekane

(iii) Mass Media Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Broadcasting	Oboraria	Oboraria
Communication	Obotebia	Obotebia
Listener	Omotegereri	Omotegereri
Loudspeaker	Rikondo	<i>Ritogonyero</i>

(iv) Governance Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Administration	Oboteneneri	Oboteneneri
Chief	Omogambi	Omogambi
Meeting	Omosangererekano	Omosangererekano
Village	Ekenyoro	<i>Etureti</i>

(v) Business Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Business	Oboonchoreria	Oboonchoreria
Dividends	Ebitoki	Ebitoki
Market	Echiiro	Echiiro
Taxation	Ebango	<i>Echogi</i>

4.2.3 Morphosyntactic Analysis of the Dialects

To execute a morphosyntactic assessment of the dialects, the wordlist already generated was subjected to a morphosyntactic analysis using morphemes. There was an interaction with respondents perceived to be indigenous residents of the study area and competent speakers of both dialects. The respondents were based in *Bonchari*, *Bomachoge* and

South *Mugirango* where each dialect was dominant and at border points of *Bonchari-South Mugirango* and *Bomachoge-South Mugirango* where the dialects get into contact.

Questionnaires were issued to literate respondents and interview schedules administered to both semi-illiterate and illiterate respondents. In each of these instruments, respondents were asked to give the plurals of names of animate and inanimate things/objects from the wordlist already generated. This formed noun classes with their alliterative occurrence of affixes herein referred as morphemes as highlighted in the sample wordlist displayed below. Participant observation was used in informal settings like public meetings and market places where informal interactions were prevalent.

Data obtained from questionnaires was presented using coding system with the codes labelled as R-code, M-code and R/M-code for *Rogoro*, *Maate* and *Rogoro/Maate* shared dialect terms respectively. Data collected using interview schedules was recorded indicating the dialect terms. Data obtained from participant observation was recorded in a similar coding system without engaging verbally the subjects in their naturally occurring contexts.

The sample wordlist below displays noun classes presented in a singular-plural paired manner to achieve the desired objective. The noun class affixes (morphemes) are in bold face.

(i) **Education Domain:**

English	Rogoro Dialect	Maate Dialect
Certificate – Certificates	Egesero – Ebisero	Egesero – Ebisero
Pupil – Pupils Abaorokigwa	Omworokigwa- Abaorokigwa	Omworokigwa-
School – Schools	Esukuru – Chisukuru	Esukuru – Chisukuru
Teacher – Teachers	Omworokia – Abaorokia	Omworokia – Abaorokia

(ii) **Religion Domain:**

English	Rogoro Dialect	Maate Dialect
Bible – Bibles	Ebuku – Chibuku	Ebuku – Chibuku
Church – Churches	Egesasimero – Ebisasimero	Ekerisia – Ebirisia
Pastor – Pastors Abakundekane	Omokundekane- Abakundekane	Omokundekane-
Preacher – Preachers	Omorandia – Abarandia	Omorandia – Abarandia

(iii) **Mass Media Domain:**

English Dialect	Rogoro Dialect	Maate
Advertisement – Advertisements	Oboraria – Amarario	Oboraria – Amarario
Broadcaster – Broadcasters	Omoraria – Abararia	Omoraria – Abararia
Debater - Debaters Abaengereri	Omoengereri- Abaengereri	Omoengereri-
Listener – Listeners Abategereri	Omotegereri – Abategereri	Omotegereri-

(iv) **Governance Domain:**

English	Rogoro Dialect	Maate Dialect
Administrator – Administrators Abateneneri	Omoteneneri- Abateneneri	Omoteneneri-
Chief – Chiefs	Omogambi - Abagambi	Omogambi – Abagambi
Criminal – Criminals	Omomochi – Abamochi	Omobegu – Ababegu
Resident – Residents	Omomenyi – Abamenyi	Omomenyi – Abamenyi

(v) **Business Domain:**

English	Rogoro Dialect	Maate Dialect
Buyer – Buyers	Omogori – Abagori	Omogori – Abagori
Debt – Debts	Esiira – Chisiira	Esiira – Chisiira
Market – Markets	Echiiro – Chichiiro	Echiiro – Chichiiro
Seller – Sellers	Omoonia- Abaonia	Omoonia- Abaonia

The table below, created from the comprehensive wordlist in Appendix IV, shows the alliterative occurrence of the noun class affixes in each domain:

Table 4.4: Alliterative Occurrence of Noun Class Affixes in each Domain.

Selected Domain/ Data source	Number of Noun Classes	R-Coded	M-Coded	R/M-Coded	Percentage of Similarity	Percentage of Difference
Education	12	3	3	9	15	5
Religion	12	3	3	9	15	5
Mass Media	12	3	3	9	15	5
Governance	12	3	3	9	15	5
Business	12	3	3	9	15	5
TOTAL	60	15	15	45	75	25

From Table 4.4 above, it is noteworthy that out of 60 noun classes considered across the domains, 45 noun class affixes were found to be common in both dialects. This indicates that the similarity index of the dialects is higher than that of dissimilarity. The cognate percentage was calculated as follows:

Total number of Noun Classes = 60 and Number of morphemes = 45

Thus, Cognate Percentage = $45/60 \times 100 = 75\%$ - Morphosyntactic Similarity.

This information is graphically presented in the chart below:

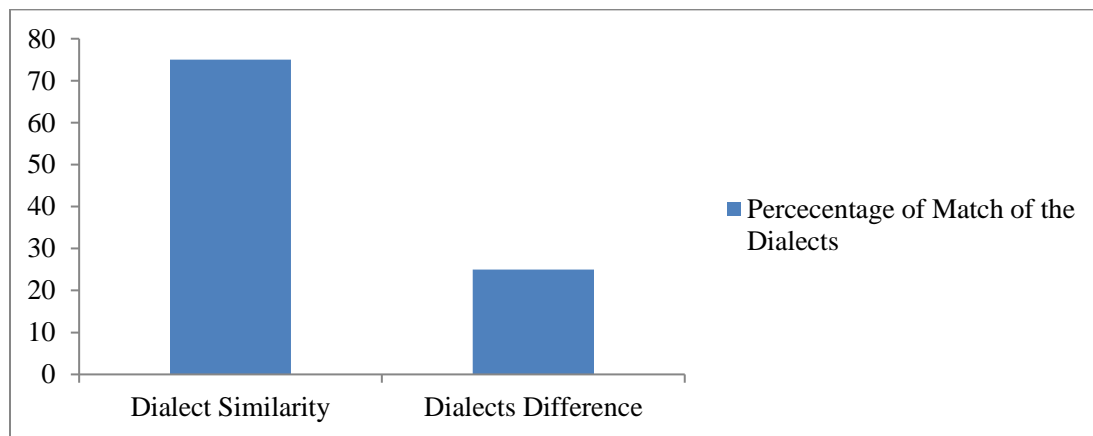


Figure 4.3: Percentage of Morphosyntactic Comparison of the Dialects.

From the foregoing presentation of data which focused on synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects of *Ekegusii*, it is apparent that the two dialects are distinct with phonological minor difference of about **7%** followed by their lexicosemantic and morphosyntactic differences of about **25%** for both linguistic levels. The next section analyses the functional load of the two dialects across the five domains.

4.3 Functional Load of the Dialects

This section provides highlights of the second objective of this study which is the analysis of the functional load of the two dialects of *Ekegusii* across the five selected domains. To accomplish this, the dialects were comparatively studied in areas where each is dominant and at contact settings where the two varieties overlap in their usage.

Respondents were drawn from areas where each dialect was perceived to be dominant, that is, *Bonchari* and *Bomachoge* where *Rogoro* dialect was dominant and South *Mugirango* where *Maate* dialect was dominant. Some respondents were also taken from border points of *Bonchari*-South *Mugirango* and *Bomachoge*-South *Mugirango*. Data elicited from across the five selected domains is discussed in the sub-sections below:

4.3.1 Education Domain

To investigate the dialect used in education domain for writing of literary materials used in the instruction of indigenous languages in lower primary grades, respondents were asked to indicate the dialect used in language textbooks for the said classes.

Thirty lower primary school teachers were the main respondents in this domain. This number cut across both areas where the dialects in focus were concentrated. Twenty of these were issued with questionnaires and asked to indicate which dialect was used in literacy materials in their schools. The other ten were subjected to oral interviews in which similar data was sought.

The result was that on average, 97% of the respondents indicated that literacy materials were written in *Rogoro* dialect, including textbooks for indigenous languages in lower grades.

Data obtained from questionnaires and interviews was sorted and recorded in codes labelled as R-code and M-code for *Rogoro* and *Maate* dialects respectively. Out of 30 respondents, 29 were for R-code and 1 for M-code. This translated to **97%** for R-code and **3%** for M-code occurrences. This statistics is captured in Table 4 comprising findings from the other domains at the end of this section.

4.3.2 Religion Domain

In order to find out the dialect used in the religion domain, respondents were asked to indicate the dialect used by religious leaders in conducting worship services and religious rites.

Twenty-five respondents were sampled from this domain. They comprised local church leaders and worshippers from different denominations prevalent in the study area from typical dialects areas and dialect continua regions. The most common denominations in the site of study included SDA, Catholic and PAG.

Eighteen of them were issued with questionnaires and requested to indicate the dialect used in worship services and Bible study sessions. The other seven were subjected to interviews and focused group discussions. The result was that 96% of the responded indicated that *Rogoro* dialect was used in such forums and ascertained that *Ekegusii* Bible was found to be written in *Rogoro* dialect.

Data collected from these research instruments was recorded in codes labelled R and M for *Rogoro* and *Maate* dialects respectively. Out of the total 25 respondents interacted with, 24 of them indicated *Rogoro* as the dialect used in worship services and Bible study sessions. This translated to **96%** for R-code and **4%** for M-code occurrences.

These details are captured in Table 4 at the end of this section which also provides findings from other domains.

4.3.3 Mass Media Domain

To delve into which dialect is used in mass media domain in broadcasting local news and current affairs, respondents were required to indicate the dialect used in such functions.

Visitations to the local *Egesa* FM radio station and *Mwanyagetinge* TV station, and engaging broadcasters, journalists and reporters formed part of data collection in this domain. Collectively, a total of twenty of these respondents were engaged. Fifteen of them from the radio and television stations were issued with questionnaires and asked to indicate which dialect they used in broadcasting local news and other advertisements.

Interviews were used to collect data from other five respondents, comprising of journalists and reporters. They were asked to indicate the dialect they used to write in local printed press and reporting current events. Jointly, the result indicated that out of the 20 respondents, 19 reported that *Rogoro* dialect was used in this domain.

Data obtained from these tools was recorded in codes labelled R-code for *Rogoro* and M-code for *Maate* dialects. This translated to **95%** for R-code and **5%** for M-code occurrences. This information is recorded in Table 4 at the end of this section which also displays similar findings from other domains.

4.3.4 Governance Domain

To establish the dialect used in the provision of government/administrative services, a total of eighteen respondents were engaged including the local administration; the chiefs and their assistants and village elders among other members of the public. The respondents were grouped into two; dialect speakers from areas dominant with one dialect and speakers from border points and dialect continua regions.

Questionnaires were issued to literate respondents and they were asked to indicate which dialect was used in local public offices, local leaders meetings and political rallies. The illiterate and semi-illiterate respondents were subjected to oral interviews and focused group discussions which sought to obtain data about the dialect used when the locals interact with their leaders in their natural settings. Data obtained from these tools was sorted and labelled as per dialect.

Results indicated that in areas considered to be dominated by one dialect speakers, the government officials and residents used that particular dialect to transact official matters. This brought out the two dialects at equal measure at 50% each. Regarding politicians like the governor, senator, and women representative who have a wider coverage, they used the dialect informed by their linguistic background. However, some could deliberately choose to speak in a dialect prevalent in the areas of the addressees.

Nevertheless, respondents based at border points and within the dialect continua indicated that *Rogoro* dialect was commonly used in government and administrative services and other official transactions. Out of the 18 respondents interacted with, 17 were in favour of *Rogoro* dialect. This translated to 94%, a proportion probably

attributed to a high number of *Rogoro* dialect speakers at such contact settings. Collectively, this domain attracted an average of **72%** for R-code and **18%** for M-code occurrences. This data is captured in Table 4 at the end of this section which also exhibits other findings from the other domains.

4.3.5 Business Domain

This domain, also referred to as trade domain covered economic transactions at market centres from which data about the dialect used therein was obtained. Respondents were grouped into those at border point market centres and those at market centres considered to be dominated by a particular dialect.

Questionnaires were distributed to literate respondents and they were asked to indicate which dialect was used at market places and which days were considered to be market days. Similar data was sought through oral interviews subjected to illiterate and semi-illiterate respondents. Participant observation was also used in this domain. Buyers and sellers were observed as they engaged in formal and informal transactions in their naturally occurring contexts.

Data obtained from questionnaires and interviews was sorted and recorded in codes labelled R-code and M-code for *Rogoro* and *Maate* dialects respectively. Data collected using participant observation was recorded without conversing or interacting with the observed subjects in any way. The results were as follows.

At Suneka market in *Bonchari*, *Rogoro* dialect was dominant and the market days were found to be on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Sundays. Similar data was obtained from *Ogembo* market in *Bomachoge*. *Rogoro* dialect was dominant in these market areas.

In South *Mugirango*, major markets include *Etago*, *Tabaka*, *Riosiri* and *Nyamarambe*. Their market days could hardly overlap except for one day; *Etago* and *Riosiri* had their market days on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Sundays while *Tabaka* and *Nyamarambe* held their market days on Wednesdays, Fridays and Sundays. *Maate* dialect was dominant at these market centres.

At border point markets, where *Bonchari* and *Bomachoge* border South *Mugirango*, were two market centres; *Nyarenche* and *Ikooba* at *Bonchari-South Mugirango* and *Bomachoge-South Mugirango* borders respectively. Here, both dialects could be used though most speakers tended to incline towards *Rogoro* dialect. Out of 22 respondents interacted with, 14 favoured usage of *Rogoro* dialect while 8 were for *Maate* dialect, translating to **64%** and **36%** respectively. This data was recorded and is tabulated below.

The table below shows usage of the two dialects across the five selected domains discussed in the foregoing sub-sections:

Table 4.5: Usage of Dialects in each selected Domain

Selected Domain/ Data source	Number of Respondents	R-Code	M-Code	Percentage of R-Code Occurrence	Percentage of M-Code Occurrence
Education	30	29	1	97	3
Religion	25	24	1	96	4
Mass Media	20	19	1	95	5
Governance	18	13	5	72	28
Business	22	14	8	64	36

The data above is graphically presented as shown below:

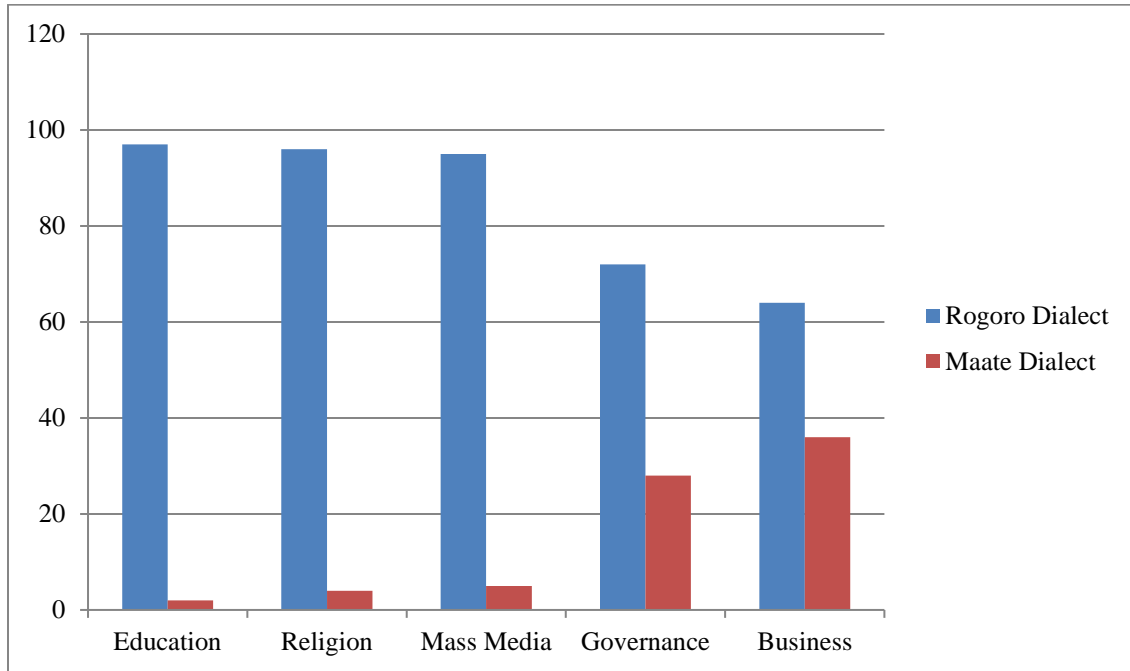


Figure 4.4: Percentage of Dialects Usage in each Selected Domain

From the foregoing presentation of data which focused on the functional load of the dialects across the five selected domains, it is apparent that *Rogoro* dialect is assigned a higher functional load across the selected domains. The next section discusses the perception of the speakers towards their dialects and that of others.

4.4 Perception of Speakers towards their Dialects and that of others

In pursuit of the third objective of this study, the researcher endeavoured to examine the perception of speakers towards their dialects and that of the others. In this respect, the researcher sought respondents' judgement pertaining to the dialect they considered important in the context of various domains in which the dialects are used. The

respondents' responses were treated as observations which could be biased accounts. The data obtained was contrasted in order to portray comparison in the dialects choice.

This section focused on how speakers of one dialect were treated by listeners of another dialect. This accounted for the perception of speakers towards their dialect and that of the others. The resultant image of this brought about two realizations, that is, dialectal modification and dialectal discrimination which gave rise to positive and negative impacts of the two dialects coming into contact respectively. The two ideologies are discussed in the sub-sections below.

4.4.1 Dialectal Modification

To establish dialect modification, respondents were asked to rate the dialects in terms of attitudes from which perceptions of speakers towards their dialects and that of the others could be obtained. The responses elicited different treatments accorded to speakers of different dialects.

Twenty respondents were engaged across the selected domains. Fifteen of them were issued with Questionnaires and they were asked to indicate their views on how speakers of a given dialect treated those of a different dialect. The other five respondents were subjected to oral interviews in which they were also asked to indicate on how each dialect was perceived in terms of attitudes.

In both instruments, the respondents were asked to indicate the attitudes towards a given dialect by choosing from the two options: positive or negative. The focus was on comparison of the two dialects in terms of attitudes which formed the perceptions of speakers towards their dialect and that of the others across the selected domains.

The responses obtained were presented (in per cent) as displayed in the table below:

Table 4.6: Perception towards the Dialects based on Attitude

Dialect	Attitude	Education	Religion	Mass Media	Governance	Trade/ Business
<i>Rogoro</i>	Positive	98	97	96	92	90
	Negative	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Maate</i>	Positive	2	3	4	8	10
	Negative	0	0	0	0	0
Total		100	100	100	100	100

From Table 4.6 above, it is apparent that respondents unanimously rated *Rogoro* dialect more positively than *Maate* dialect in all the five domains. We can see that *Rogoro* dialect has over 90% of the respondents rating it positively. This was found to be attributed to the institutional support it enjoyed and its high degree of social interactions in various domains and settings. We do not see any domain in which *Maate* dialect has such a rating.

The statistics in Table 4.6 above is graphically presented in Figure 4.5 below.

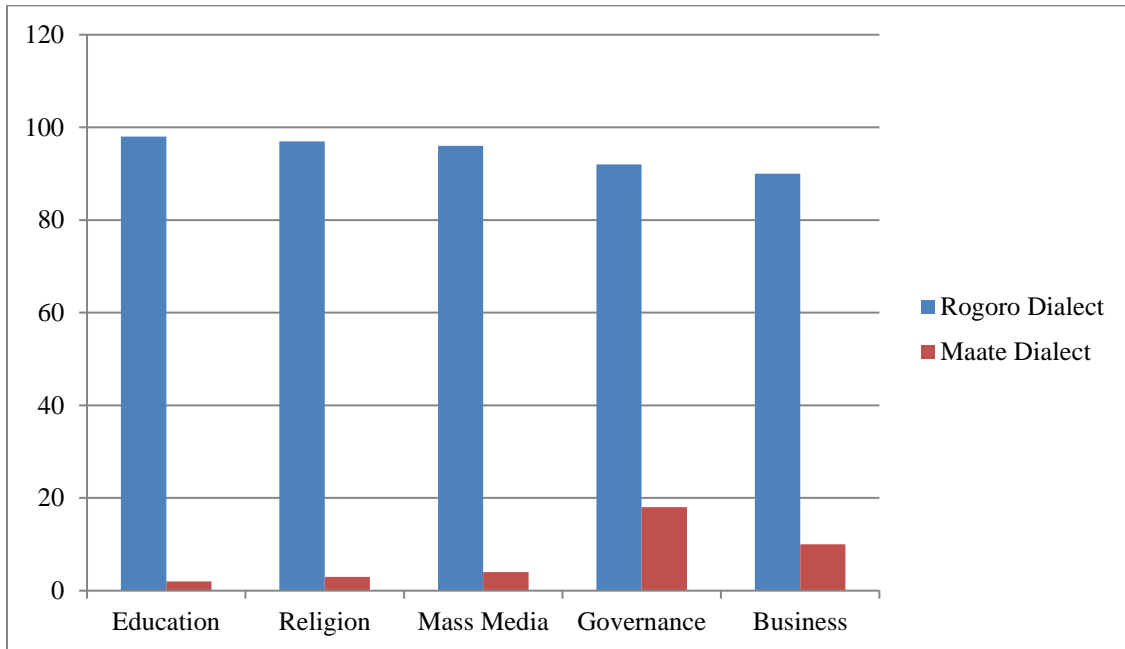


Figure 4.5: Percentage of Perception towards Dialects based on Attitude

Engaging the respondents further indicated that when *Maate* dialect speakers were in the midst of *Rogoro* dialect speakers, they could modify their dialect to sound similar to the *Rogoro* dialect speakers. The modification was realized to be advantageous to *Maate* dialect speakers since they could identify with *Rogoro* dialect for various transactions. Consequently, they could be treated without prejudice. That was found to be a positive approach to different evaluations and treatments of different dialects at contact situation.

4.4.2 Dialectal Discrimination

In order to examine dialectal discrimination, the respondents were asked to indicate their own judgement pertaining to perceptions speakers have towards their own dialects and that of the others. The responses given elicited different treatments for each dialect speakers.

Twenty respondents were engaged across the selected domains. Fifteen of them were issued with questionnaires and were asked to indicate negative impacts of the two dialects coming into contact and how that could be addressed in a progressive society. The other five respondents were subjected to oral interviews and were asked to indicate which dialect they considered famous in the selected domains. They were issued with two options from which they could rate each dialect accordingly by choosing one option. The options were: famous or not famous.

The responses obtained were presented (in per cent) as displayed in the table below:

Table 4.7: Perception towards the Dialects based on Fame

Dialect	Fame	Education	Religion	Mass Media	Governance	Trade/ Business
<i>Rogoro</i>	Famous	98	97	96	82	77
	Not Famous	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Maate</i>	Fame	2	3	4	18	23
	Not Famous	0	0	0	0	0
Total		100	100	100	100	100

From Table 4.7 above, there is a noticeable disparity in the perception and treatment of the two dialects based on fame. *Rogoro* dialect was perceived to be more famous than *Maate* dialect across the five domains. We can see *Rogoro* dialect has over 96% rating in education, religion and mass media. This was found to be attributed to the documentary evidence of literacy materials used in these domains. The other two domains seemed to accommodate informal transactions in their naturally occurring contexts, especially trade/ business domain and for that matter, these two domains

attracted a lesser percentage compared to other three domains as indicated by the statistics in Table 4.6 above.

The data in Table 4.7 above is graphically presented in Figure 4.6 below:

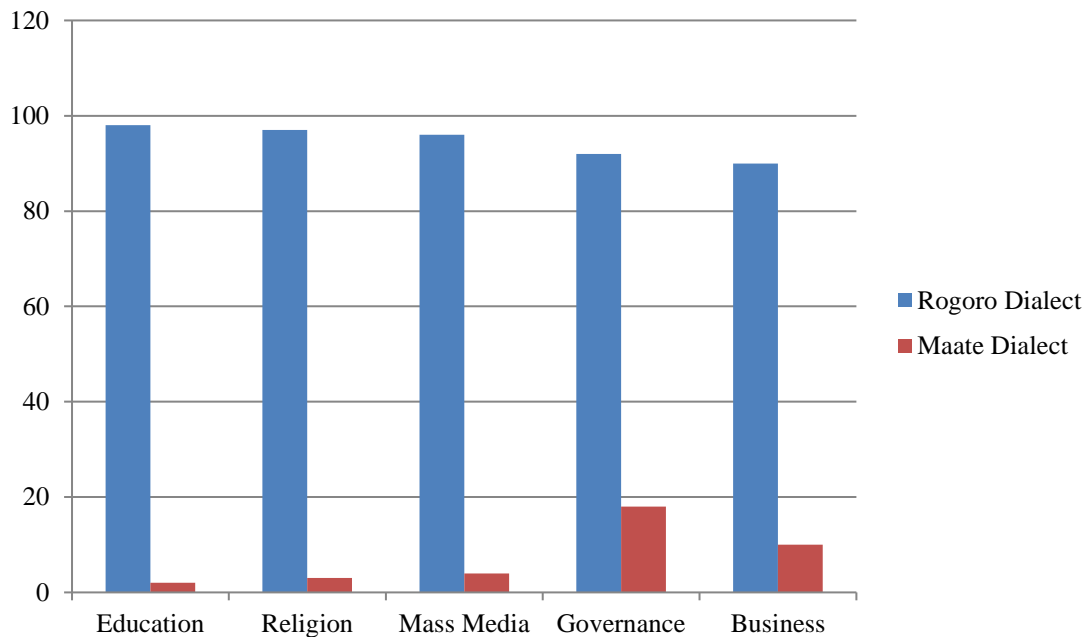


Figure 4.6: Percentage of Perception towards Dialects based on Fame

Further engagements with the respondents indicated that the difference in speakers' speech behaviour led to different treatment by speakers of the other dialect. Subsequently, their dialects were perceived differently in terms of fame. Speakers of *Maate* dialect claimed that they were discriminated by virtue of how they spoke.

This dialectal discrimination was reported to have extended to government services where speakers of a dialect perceived to be dominant were said to be favoured in government job allocations just because of their accent. A real life experience was reported where individuals made telephone inquiries about the job vacancies; certain

kinds of speakers, with *Maate* dialect accent were told that the vacancies were already filled whereas those with *Rogoro* dialect accent were invited for the same job interviews. That was found to be a negative face that should not be nurtured in progressive societies.

4.5 Summary

This chapter shows the data which was collected to justify the objectives of this study has been presented and analysed. In that light, the chapter has presented and analysed the synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects of *Ekegusii* by narrowing down their linguistic levels, the functional load of the two dialects across the five selected domains and the perception speakers towards their dialects and that of others; a discussion which brought forth two realizations: dialectal modification and discrimination at dialects contact situation and the impacts thereof. The next chapter draws attention to a review of the research findings presented from which conclusions and recommendations for further research are given.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study. The findings were derived from the three objectives of the study. The conclusions and recommendations for further research were based on the findings presented.

5.2 Summary of Findings

From the first objective of this study which was to identify synchronic features that distinguish the two dialects of study, it was found out that the two *Ekegusii* dialects are distinct. However, their phonological difference is minor based on their phonemic percentage. The two dialects are phonologically more similar than different because their phonemes have a higher correspondence percentage of about 93% and 7% difference. The two dialects share all phonemic features except for the two consonantal sounds; the voiceless alveolar plosive /t/ and the voiced alveolar plosive /d/ uttered by *Rogoro* and *Maate* dialect speakers respectively. However, the two consonants have the same orthography in both dialects.

From the lexicosemantic analysis, the two dialects were found to be sharing more terms, hence have more similarities than differences. The study found out that about 75% of the words/terms are shared by the two dialects. The lexical terms were found to intersect across the dialects. That translated to a 75% dialects resemblance and 25%

difference. These statistics are somewhat different from that of their phonological analysis.

Morphosyntactically, the two dialects were found to have a higher cognate percentage, that is, a higher degree of correspondence of about 75% in their morphosyntactic structures. However, there is a small margin in difference brought about by their morphosyntactic variations. This is reflected in the noun classes indicated by the alliterative occurrence of affixes.

The second objective of this study which was to determine the functional load of the two dialects across a number of selected domains the study established that *Rogoro* dialect enjoyed institutional support due to its usage in a vast geographical area, having majority of speakers. Thus, it was regarded as famous variety. Consequently, it was assigned higher functional load across the selected domains with education, religion and mass media leading at 97%, 96% and 95% respectively. This leading trend was attributed to the documentary evidence of literacy materials used in these domains as opposed to government services and business domains which were found to accommodate informal transactions to a certain degree. As a result, these two domains were assigned a low functional load compared to the other three domains.

From the third objective, which was to examine the perception of the speakers towards their dialects and that of the others, the findings pointed out a noticeable disparity in the treatment and perception of the dialects, that is, *Rogoro* dialect speakers treated *Maate* dialect speakers with a preferential bias which made the latter feel linguistically discriminated. This was found to have extended to government services, biased job

allocations cited as an example in which a *Rogoro* dialect accented speaker was favoured in a government job hiring exercise at the expense of the *Maate* dialect speaker. This situation prompted the *Maate* dialect speakers to modify their dialect in order to be accommodated in the midst of the *Rogoro* dialect speakers. Collectively, *Rogoro* dialect was found to have a strong network of speakers in a vast area as opposed to *Maate* dialect which was only prevalent in South *Mugirango* Sub County which is just a small portion of the entire *Kisii* County.

5.3 Conclusions

Ekegusii dialects exist and are distinct. This serves as a powerful symbol of the speakers' identity and distinctiveness. If one were to travel from one end, say from *Bonchari* to South *Mugirango*, he would be exposed to another dialect by the time he gets there. However, he is not able to establish the linguistic boundary of the dialects because the changeover is so smooth and hardly noticeable. Nevertheless, one can distinctly point out the difference between the dialects.

The two *Ekegusii* dialects are not accorded equal treatment. *Rogoro* dialect is considered important, more powerful and famous than *Maate* dialect across various domains. This favourable treatment is attributed to the immense institutional support that *Rogoro* dialect enjoys; hence it has a strong network of speakers. Consequently, it is reckoned as a standard dialect and therefore assigned a higher functional load in formal functions across various domains. This is reflected in the abundance of documentary evidence in form of literacy materials used in these domains. These are seen as social institutions that bring together speakers of both dialects. In a way, such

institutions linguistically unify the community. Education, for instance, brings together learners from the two dialects through available teaching and learning materials written in one dialect.

There is disparity in the treatment of speakers of a different dialect. Speakers of *Rogoro* dialect treat *Maate* dialect speakers with a negative prejudice to an extent that the latter feel that they are linguistically discriminated. This has gone as far as government services where *Rogoro* dialect speakers are said to be favoured in job allocations to the detriment of *Maate* dialect speakers. Nevertheless, the notion of one dialect being superior to the other is a fallacious assumption based on cultural bias, historical dominance and economic power, or else the dialects' worth should be treated as equal.

5.4 Recommendations

Firstly, this study investigated the two dialects at various linguistic levels; phonologically, lexically, semantically, morphologically and syntactically but did not take care of pragmatics concerns which is also worth studying. This study, therefore recommends that further research should be extended to pragmatics linguistic aspect.

Secondly, the scope of this study was limited to the *Ekegusii* varieties spoken at the geographical border points and within the dialect continua and how the varieties influence each other at contact situation in *Kisii* County. The study did not include varieties spoken at the border points with other communities. It is acknowledged that this may be a good study engagement. Therefore, this study recommends that further studies should be done on language varieties spoken at such border points, say where *Abagusii* share a border with the *Abakuria*, the *Luo*, the *Maasai* or the *Kipsigis*. The

language varieties spoken at such borders are bound to exhibit significant influence on each other.

5.5 Summary

This chapter has handled the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations or suggestions on possible areas for further research.

REFERENCES

- Alexandre, F. (2014). *Trees, Waves and Linkages: Models of Language Diversification*. New York: The Routledge Handbook of Historical Linguistics, Routledge.
- Barasa, W. (2014). *Inter-Dialect Maintenance and Shift in the Contact of Lubukusu and Lutachoni*. Unpublished M.A Thesis, Kenyatta University.
- Best, J & Kahn, J. (1993). *Research in Education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Languages*. New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.
- Bosire, K.M & Machogu, G.K. (2013). *Authoritative Ekegusii Dictionary: Ekegusii-English Dictionary & English-Ekegusii Index*. Nairobi: Ekegusii Encyclopaedia Project.
- Brown, G. (1968). *Comparative Study of Bukusu and Gishu Languages*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cammenga, J. (2002). *Phonology and Morphology of Ekegusii: A Bantu Language of Kenya* (East African Languages and Dialects 12). Cologne, Germany: Rudiger Koppe.
- Chambers, J. & Trudgill, P. (1980). *Dialectology*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Fishman, J. (1977). *Language in Social Cultural Change: Essays by Joshua Fishman*. California: Stanford University Press.
- Giles, H. (1977). *Language Ethnicity and Intergroup Relations*. New York: Academia Press.
- Giles, H. et al. (1977). *Towards a Theory of Language in Ethnic Group Relations*. New York: Academia Press.
- Guthrie, M. (1967). *Classification of Bantu Languages*. London: Dawn's Pall Mall.
- Guthrie, M. (1971). *Comparative Bantu Languages* (Vols 1-4). Farnborough: Gregg International Publishers.
- Igonga, R. (1991). *Comparative Study of Ekegusii and Lulooli languages: Phonological, Lexical and Morpho-Syntactic structures*. AFRO-PUB: University of Virginia.
- Kebeya, H. (2013). *Contact Language at Border communities: Luo/Luhya and Luo/Gusii Bilinguals*. PhD Thesis, Kenyatta University.

- Kombo, D.K & Tromp, L.A (2006). *Proposal and Thesis Writing: An Introduction*. Nairobi: Pauline Publications Africa.
- Labov, W. (1966). *The Social Stratification of English in New York City*. Washington: Centre for Applied Linguistics.
- Lubanga, L. (2018). *A Lexical Semantic Assessment of Luhya Dialects*. M.A Project: University of Nairobi.
- Lyons, J. (2002), *Language and Linguistics: An Introduction*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Malcolm, A. (2007). *Understanding Language Change*, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mesthrie, R. (2000). *Introduction to Socio-linguistics*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Mugenda, O. M., & Mugenda, A. G. (2003). *Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Nairobi: Acts Press.
- Muriithi, G. N. (2016). *The Phonological and Lexical Variation within Kisumu-South Nyanza Dialect of Dholuo*. (Unpublished M.A Research Project). Nairobi: Nairobi Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C.M. (1933). *Duelling Languages*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C.M. (2002). *Contact Linguistics: Bilingual Encounter and Grammatical Outcomes*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University press.
- Myers-Scotton, C.M. (Ed). (2000). *Languages in Kenya*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Petyt, M. (1980). *Study of Dialects: Introduction to Dialectology*. London: Deutsch
- Sebba, D. (1974). *The Adequacy of Corpora in Lexicostatistics Dating*. New York: IJAL. 21, 121-137
- Trudgill, P. (1974). *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society*. Harmonds worth: Penguin Books Ltd.
- Trudgill, P. (1986). *Dialects in Contact*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd
- Trudgill, P. (1991). *Dialects of English: Studies in Grammatical Variation*. London: Longman Publishing Group.
- Wambiri, G. & Muthee, D. (2010). *Research Monitoring and Evaluation in ECDE Programmes*. Nairobi: Sasa Sema Publications.

Wardhaugh, R. (2006). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*- 5th ed.UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Whiteley, W.H(Ed, 1974). *Languages in Kenya*. Nairobi: Oxford University Press.

**APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SPEAKERS FROM DIALECT
CONTINUA**

Introduction:

This interview intends to collect information on the topic: **SYNCHRONIC FEATURES OF *EKEGUSII* DIALECTS IN *KISII* COUNTY: A CASE OF LINGUISTIC VARIATION IN A LANGUAGE CONTACT SITUATION**

Please respond to the following interview. Your contributions to this study given will be used for the purpose of this linguistic study and your identity will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Part I: Respondent's Particular:

1. How old are you?
2. How long have been a resident in your area?

Part II: Interview Questions:

1. (a) How would you identify yourself in terms of your dialect?
(b) What makes you settle for the response in (a) above?
2. Presented with a speaker from the furthest point of this dialect continuum, say (pick a place, somewhere off to the *Bonchari*, *Bomachoge* or South *Mugirango* border side), would your utterances be similar or different? Why?
3. (a) Do you notice any difference from the way speakers of one dialect treat those of another dialect?

(b) From your own judgement, is the attitude of one dialect speakers towards the others perceived as positive or negative? Please, explain your answer.
4. (a) Which dialect do you think is famous across various speech domains in the community?

(b) State any five (5) reasons that contribute to the status in 4 (a) above.
5. What are the positive and negative impacts of the two dialects coming into contact?

Thank You for Your Cooperation.

APPENDIX IV: COMPREHENSIVE WORDLIST

List of Sampled Lexicosemantic Terms in each selected Domain

1. Education Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Blackboard	Ebureki	Ebureki
Certificate	Egesero	Egesero
Clever	Omwoge	<i>Enchome</i>
Dictionary	Endabaro	<i>Endabasia</i>
Education	Chisemi	Chisemi
English	Ekeruri	Ekeruri
Hardworking	Omonyamokia	Omonyamokia
Language	Omonwa	Omonwa
Learner/Pupil	Omworokigwa	Omorokigwa
Objective	Ekerenga	<i>Eganga</i>
School	Esukuru	Esukuru
Teacher	Omworokia	Omworokia

2. Religion Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Believer	Omwegeni	Omwegeni
Bible	Ebuku	Ebuku
Chapter	Egesieri	Egesieri
Choir	Abateri	Abateri
Church	Egeasimero	<i>Ekerisia</i>
Follower	Omwegia	<i>Omorobe</i>
Genesis	Omochakano	<i>Enkorekero</i>
Pastor	Omokundekane	Omokundekane
Redemption	Oboboria	Oboboria
Sacred	Enchenu	Enchenu
Stewardship	Obokungi	Obokungi
Worship	Ogosasima	Ogosasima.

3. Mass Media Domain:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Advertisement	Amarario	Amarario
Broadcaster	Omoraria	Omoraria
Broadcasting	Oboraria	Oboraria
Communication	Obotebia	Obotebia
Debate	Amaererania	Amaererania
Entertainment	Egetebererio	Egetebererio
Information	Oboboreria	<i>Obosemia</i>
Investigator	Omotuki	<i>Omoringoria</i>
Listener	Omotegereri	Omotegereri
Loudspeaker	Rikondo	<i>Ritogonyero</i>
Technique	Eng'encho	Eng'encho
Technology	Obobundi	Obobundi

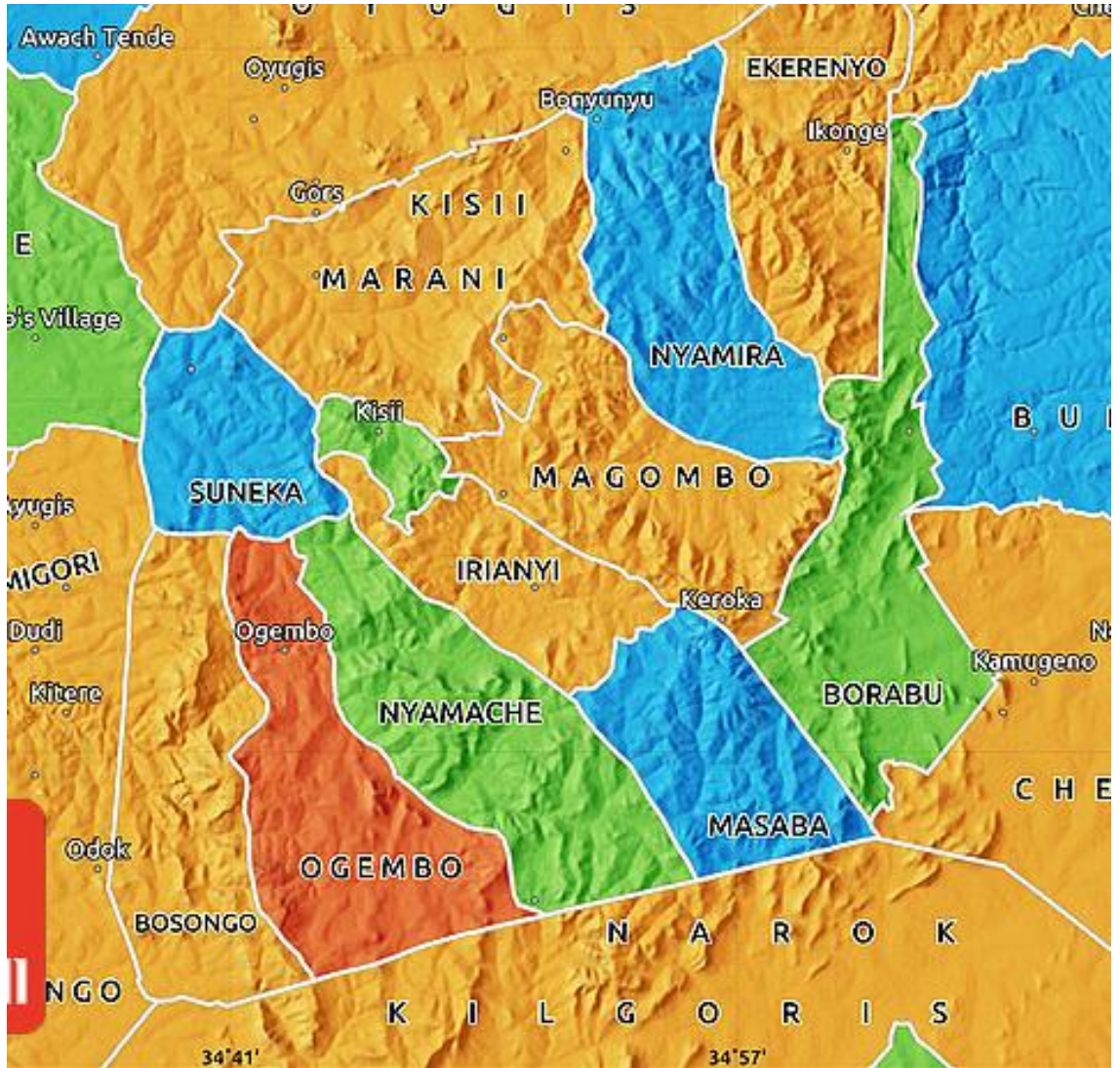
4. Governance/Administration:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Administration	Oboteneneri	Oboteneneri
Chief	Omogambi	Omogambi
Court	Ekegambero	<i>Ritongo</i>
Criminal	Omomochi	<i>Omobegu</i>
Democracy	Obosibore	Obosibore
Decree	Ogochika	Ogochika
Electorate	Abachori	Abachori
Ethnicity	Egesaku	Egesaku
Honourable	Omosikwa	Omosikwa
Law	Richiko	Richiko
Meeting	Omosangererekano	Omosangererekano
Village	Ekenyoro	<i>Etureti</i>

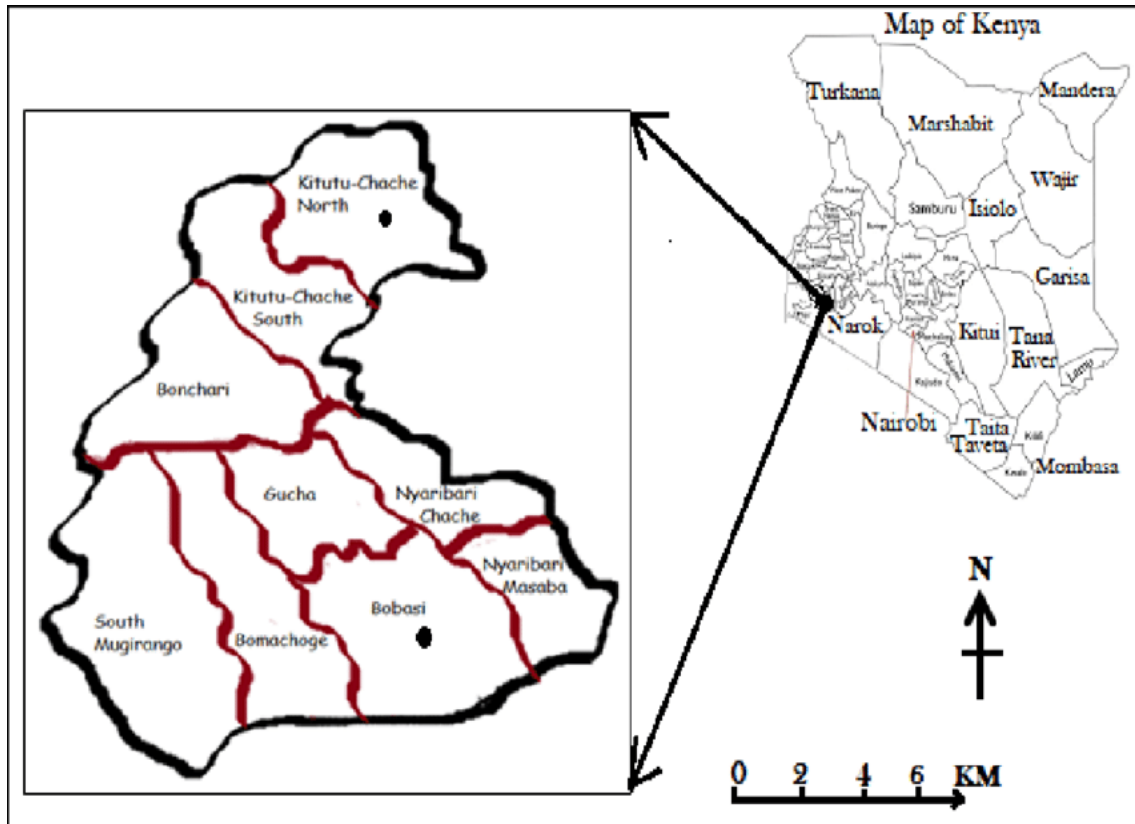
5. Business/Trade:

English	<i>Rogoro Dialect</i>	<i>Maate Dialect</i>
Affordable	Okonyara	Okonyara
Attraction	Omong'uso	Omong'uso
Basket	Egekabu	<i>Ekiondo</i>
Business	Oboonchoreria	Oboonchoreria
Buyer	Omogori	Omogori
Debt	Esira	Esira
Dividends	Ebitoki	Ebitoki
Exploitation	Obogegenia	Obogegenia
Machete	Omoro	<i>Ebeti</i>
Market	Echiro	Echiro
Taxation	Ebango	<i>Echogi</i>
Seller	Omoonia	Omoonia

APPENDIX V: MAP OF KISII REGION SHOWING BORDER COMMUNITIES



APPENDIX VI: MAP OF KISII COUNTY – SITE OF THE STUDY



Map of *Kisii* County: The Physical Area of Study

Source: Omweno, J. et al (2021). *East African Scholars Journal of Agriculture and Life Sciences*.

APPENDIX VII: RESEARCH APPROVAL



KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL

E-mail: dean-graduate@ku.ac.ke

Website: www.ku.ac.ke

P.O. Box 43844, 00100
NAIROBI, KENYA
Tel. 810901 Ext. 4150

Internal Memo

FROM: Executive Dean, Graduate School

DATE: 26th July, 2023

TO: Angwenyi M. Vincent
C/o Literature, Linguistics & Foreign
Languages Department

REF: C50/CE/28011/2019

SUBJECT: APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROJECT PROPOSAL

This is to inform you that Graduate School Board at its meeting of 12th July, 2023 approved your Research Project Proposal for the M.A Degree Entitled, "Linguistic Description of Ekegusii Dialects at Contact Situation in Kisii County, Kenya: A Comparative Approach."

You may now proceed with your Data Collection, Subject to Clearance with Director General, National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation.

As you embark on your data collection, please note that you will be required to submit to Graduate School completed supervision tracking and progress report forms per semester. The forms are available at the university's website under Graduate School webpage downloads.

Also, please ensure that you publish article(s) from your thesis before submitting it to Graduate School for examination as per the Commission for University Education and Kenyatta University guidelines.

Thank you.

ELIJAH MUTUA
FOR: EXECUTIVE DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL

c.c. Chairman, Literature, Linguistics & Foreign Languages Department
Supervisors:

1. Dr. Ngure Kenneth
C/o Department of Literature, Linguistics & Foreign Languages
Kenyatta University

EM/mo

APPENDIX VIII: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION



KENYATTA UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL

E-mail: dean-graduate@ku.ac.ke

Website: www.ku.ac.ke

P.O. Box 43844, 00100
NAIROBI, KENYA
Tel. 8710901 Ext. 57530

Our Ref: C50/CE/28011/2019

DATE: 26th July, 2023

Director General,
National Commission for Science, Technology
and Innovation
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION FOR ANGWENYI M. VINCENT - REG. NO. C50/CE/28011/2019

I write to introduce Angwenyi M. Vincent who is a Postgraduate Student of this University. The student is registered for M.A degree programme in the Department of Literature, Linguistics & Foreign Languages.

Angwenyi intends to conduct research for a M.A Project Proposal entitled, "Linguistic Description of Ekegusii Dialects at Contact Situation in Kisii County, Kenya: A Comparative Approach."


Any assistance given will be highly appreciated.


Yours faithfully,

PROF. ELISHIBA KIMANI
EXECUTIVE DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL

EM/mo


APPENDIX IX: RESEARCH PERMIT


REPUBLIC OF KENYA


**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION**

Ref No: **458537** Date of Issue: **23/August/2023**


RESEARCH LICENSE




This is to Certify that Mr., VINCENT ANGWENYI of Kenyatta University, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in Kisii on the topic: LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION OF EKEGUSHII DIALECTS AT CONTACT SITUATION IN KISII COUNTY, KENYA: A COMPARATIVE APPROACH for the period ending : 23/August/2024.

License No: **NACOSTI/P/23/28768**

458537
Applicant Identification Number


Director General
**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY &
INNOVATION**

Verification QR Code



**NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document,
Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.**

See overleaf for conditions