

**THE PHONOLOGICAL AND LEXICAL VARIATION WITHIN  
KISUMU-SOUTH NYANZA DIALECT OF DHOLUO**

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**DECLARATION**

This research project is my original work and has not been submitted for examination in any other university.

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**C50/72379/2014**

This research project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the university supervisor.

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**DATE**

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my wife Gladys Muringo and to my daughter Glory Wanjiku who were so patient with me especially when I lacked time for them as I concentrated to come up with the best out of this work, and to my parents Ethan and Loice Muriithi who gave me moral support.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DECLARATION .....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>DEDICATION .....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES.....</b>	<b>ix</b>
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS.....</b>	<b>x</b>
<b>ABSTRACT .....</b>	<b>xi</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Background of the Study .....	1
1.1.1 Background of the Language .....	1
1.1.2 Background to the Study .....	2
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	4
1.3 Research Questions .....	6
1.4 Objectives of the Study .....	6
1.5 Rationale of the Study.....	6
1.6 Scope and Limitation .....	7
1.7 Definition of Concepts.....	9
1.8 Literature Review.....	9
1.8.1 Literature on Dholuo Language .....	9
1.8.2 Theoretical Literature .....	11
1.9 Theoretical Framework .....	14
1.9.1 The Linguistic Variable.....	17
1.9.2 The Principle of Accountability .....	18
1.10 Research Hypotheses .....	19
1.11 Research Methodology .....	19
1.11.1 Data Collection.....	19
1.11.2 Data Analysis .....	20
1.12 Conclusion .....	21

<b>CHAPTER TWO: BASIC DHOLUO PHONOLOGY .....</b>	<b>22</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	22
2.2 Dholuo Consonants .....	23
2.3 Dholuo Vowels .....	24
2.4 Dholuo Vowel Processes .....	25
2.4.1 Glide formation .....	25
2.4.2 Deletion .....	25
2.4.3 Lengthening.....	26
2.4.4 Vowel Harmony .....	27
2.4.5 Dholuo Syllable.....	27
2.5 Dholuo Suprasegmental Features .....	28
2.5.1 Tone.....	28
2.5.2 Stress .....	29
2.6 Conclusion .....	30
<b>CHAPTER THREE: PHONOLOGICAL AND LEXICAL VARIATIONS .....</b>	<b>32</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	32
3.2 Phonological Variations.....	33
3.2.1 The /h/ Variable: The Occurrence Versus the Non-Occurrence of /h/ in the Environment before a Vowel .....	33
3.2.2 Variable /f/.....	34
3.2.3 Variable /j/: The Occurrence Versus Non-Occurrence of /j/ in the Environment before a Back Vowel.....	35
3.2.4 Root Vowel Length Variable .....	36
3.2.5 Variable /w/ .....	38
3.2.6 Variable /i/ .....	39
3.2.7 Conclusion.....	40
3.3. Lexical Sub Dialect Features .....	41
3.3.1 Lexical Items Referring to the Same Concept but Represented by Radically Different Forms.....	42
3.3.1.1 The Cattle Shed Variable.....	42

3.3.1.2 The Leech Variable.....	43
3.3.1.3 Pot Variable .....	43
3.3.1.4 Close Variable .....	44
3.3.1.5 The Variable Rust.....	44
3.3.1.6 The Path Variable .....	45
3.3.1.7 The Food Left Over Variable .....	46
3.3.1.8 Maize cob Variable.....	46
3.3.1.9 The Sweat Variable.....	47
3.3.1.10 The Variable Tree .....	48
3.3.1.11 The scales variable.....	48
3.3.1.12 The Chief Variable .....	49
3.3.1.13 The Dress Variable .....	49
3.3.2 Lexical Items Similar in all Respects Except in Aspects of Pronunciation .....	50
3.3.2.1 The Sugarcane Variable.....	50
3.3.2.2 The Cassava Variable .....	51
3.3.3 Lexical Variables as a Result of Borrowing from Neighbouring Speech Communities.....	51
3.3.3.1 The Tin Variable.....	52
3.3.3.2 The Rope Variable .....	52
3.3.3.3 The Mattress Variable.....	53
3.3.3.4 The Grandmother Variable .....	53
3.3.3.5 The Cigarette Variable.....	54
3.3.3.6 The Greetings Variable.....	54
3.4 Conclusion .....	55

**CHAPTER FOUR: THE ENVIRONMENT OF DIALECTAL VARIATIONS  
IN KISUMU-SOUTH DHOLUO DIALECT .....**

4.1 Introduction.....	57
4.2 Phonological Variables .....	57
4.2.1 The Occurrence and Non-Occurrence of /h/ .....	57

4.2.2 The Development of /f/ .....	58
4.2.3 The Deletion of Palatal Approximant /j/ Variable .....	59
4.2.4 The Development of Root Vowel Lengthening Variable .....	59
4.2.5 The Deletion of /w/ Word Medially .....	60
4.2.6 Vowel Deletion Variable.....	60
4.2.7 Reconciliation of Phonological Sub Dialect Features.....	60
4.3 Lexical Variables .....	61
4.3.1 Lexical Items Radically Different in form but Represent the Same Concept .....	61
4.3.2 Lexical Items Similar in all Respects Except Pronunciation .....	62
4.3.3 Lexical Items as a Result of Borrowing from Other Sources.....	62
4.4 Conclusion .....	64

## **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND**

### **RECOMMENDATIONS .....75**

5.1 Introduction.....	65
5.2 Summary .....	65
5.3 Conclusion .....	67
5.4 Recommendation for Further Research .....	68

### **REFERENCES .....70**

### **APPENDICES.....74**

Appendix I: Sample Questionnaire .....	74
Appendix II: List of Data Collected.....	77
Map 1: KSN1 (Seme, Kisumu East, Kisumu West, Kisumu Central, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach).....	80
Map 2: KSN2 (Oyugis, Homabay, and Mbita) .....	81
Map 3: KSN3 (Rongo and Awendo of Migori County). .....	82

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Dholuo Consonants .....	23
Table 2.2: Orthographic and Phonemic Representation of Dholuo Vowels .....	24
Table 2.3: Dholuo Vowels as used in Lexical Contexts.....	24
Table 3.1: The /h/ Variable- Occurrence vs Non-Occurrence.....	34
Table 3.2: Variable /f/ Pronounced as /f/, /h/ and /Ø/.....	35
Table 3.3: Variable /j/ .....	36
Table 3.4: Root-Lengthening Variable .....	37
Table 3.5: Variable /w/- The Occurrence vs Non-Occurrence of /w/.....	38
Table 3.6: Variable /i/ .....	40
Table 3.7: Cow Shed Variable- <i>kul/dipo</i> .....	42
Table 3.8: The Leech Variable- <i>okunga/chwe</i> .....	43
Table 3.9: Pot Variable- <i>agulu/oigla</i> .....	43
Table 3.10: Variable ‘to close’- <i>dedo/loro/chiego</i> .....	44
Table 3.11: Variable Rust- <i>nyal/kal</i> .....	45
Table 3.12: Variable ‘Path’- <i>yo/lida</i> .....	45
Table 3.13: ‘Food Left Over’ Variable.....	46
Table 3.14: ‘Maize Cob Variable’ – <i>ogusu/osoglo</i> .....	47
Table 3.15: Sweat Variable- <i>kuok/luya</i> .....	47
Table 3.16: The Tree Variable.....	48
Table 3.17: The Scales Variable- <i>kalagakla/oswaklo</i> .....	49
Table 3.18: The Variable ‘Chief’ .....	49
Table 3.25: The Dress Variable .....	50
Table 3.19: The Sugarcane Variable .....	50
Table 3.20: The Cassava Variable- <i>mariwa/marieba</i> .....	51
Table 3.21: The Tin Variable- <i>gorogoro/kube</i> .....	52
Table 3.22: The Rope Variable- <i>ngori/tol</i> .....	52
Table 3.23: The Mattress Variable .....	53
Table 3.24: The Grandmother Variable.....	54
Table 3.26: The Cigarette Variable .....	54
Table 3.27: The Greetings Variable.....	55

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS**

KSN	Kisumu South Nyanza
+ATR	Advanced Tongue Root
-ATR	Retracted Tongue Root
IPA	International Phonetic Association
σ	Syllable
C	Consonant
V	Vowel
L	Low
H	High
TP	Typical
KN	Known
ABS	Absent
OP	Optional

## **ABSTRACT**

This study set out to investigate the Sub dialects within Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect of Dholuo. The analysis was done within the framework of Variationist Theory proposed by Labov (1963). The main objective of the study was to investigate the phonological and lexical variations within the Kisumu South Nyanza dialect and the data used for the study was drawn from native speakers of Kisumu South Nyanza dialect living in Kisumu, Homabay and Migori counties. The study has revealed that vowel processes such as deletion, root lengthening, and glide formation are responsible for the phonological variations observed in KSN dialect of Dholuo. It was also established that Kisumu South Nyanza Dialect of Dholuo exhibits lexical variations that define the sub dialects within it. These variations define three distinct sub dialects of KSN that are phonologically and lexically marked. It was also established that the occurrence of these phonological and lexical variables is determined by the geographical locations of the speakers.

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 Background of the Study**

The concern of this chapter is to give the background information of the study. It begins with a discussion on the background of the language of the study and background of the study. It also looks at the statement of the research problem under investigation, the objectives of the study, the hypothesis to be tested, the rationale for the study, the scope and limitation and a review of the literature. The significance of the study, and the research methodology used in the study are provided as well in this chapter.

#### **1.1.1 Background of the Language**

The language under study is Dholuo. Dholuo language is spoken by the Luo community of Kenya and Tanzania. Particularly, it is spoken in an area surrounding parts of the Eastern shores of Lake Victoria. Greenberg (1995) suggests that Dholuo is a member of the Western Nilotic Branch of Nilotic group of languages. He further posits that Lango and Acholi are the closest linguistic relatives of Dholuo.

Presently, in Kenya, the Dholuo speakers are found in Siaya, Kisumu, Homabay and Migori counties. However, a number of Dholuo speaking families can also be found in other parts of Kenya as a result of marriage and migration. Dholuo has a large number of speakers. The national population census of Kenya of 2009, puts

the number of Luo at four million forty four thousands four hundred and forty (4,044,440). In the immediate neighbourhood of the Luo are the Luhya, Gusii, Kuria, Suba, Maasai and Kalenjin speech communities with whom they have varying degrees of contact that has also seen borrowing of linguistic items from the languages to Dholuo and vice versa.

Stafford (1967) identified two major geographical dialects of Dholuo: the Trans-Yala and South Nyanza varieties. However, Oduol (1990) in her major work on Dholuo dialects classified these varieties as the Boro-Ukwala and the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialects respectively. This study adopts Oduol's classification.

### **1.1.2 Background to the Study**

As stated in section 1.1 above, Dholuo has a large speech community that lives in different parts of the country and as a result has developed varieties in relation to the geographical locations in which the speakers live. Boro-Ukwala dialect is spoken by the Luo community living in Ugenya, Alego, Yimbo and parts of Gem in the county of Siaya. The Kisumu-South Nyanza dialects, on the other hand, is spoken in Kisumu, Homa bay, Migori counties and some parts of Siaya counties (Oduol 1990).

These two dialects of Dholuo exhibit a high degree of mutual intelligibility. However, it is possible to distinguish these two varieties on the basis of their phonological, lexical and grammatical structures. This study is based on the

assumption that dialects of a language are characterized by differences of vocabulary, grammar and phonology. Trudgill (2000:5) posits that dialects refer to differences between kinds of language which are reflected in the vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. These linguistic differences may develop as a result of the geographical separation of the speakers.

Speakers of Dholuo language have interacted with neighbouring speech communities. According to Langacker (1968:176) there is no language whose speakers have had contact with any other language that is completely free of borrowed forms. The speakers of Boro-Ukwala dialect have had contact for a long time with the adjacent Luhya dialects of Lunyala, Lumarachi, Samia and Wanga. On the other hand, the speakers of Kisumu-South Nyanza dialects have interacted with languages such as Ekegusii, Kuria, Luhya and dialects of Kalenjin. These contacts and interaction with the languages of the neighbouring communities have led to borrowing of linguistic items such as lexical and phonological forms into this variety of Dholuo.

Borrowing as a word formation process can lead to lexical and phonological variation within a dialect of a language. In the case of Dholuo dialects, the borrowed words may be varied because they come from different sources as the speakers of Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect neighbour different communities. For example, Kisumu county neighbour Siaya county on the Seme side, Luhya, Nandis, and Kipsigis. Homabay county has the Kisii and Suba has their neighbours

while Migori has Kisii, Maasai and Kuria as their neighbours. This study would attempt to establish and account for the salient phonological and lexical variation within the Kisumu- South Nyanza dialect of Dholuo.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

In this study, the research attempts to identify, describe and analyse the phonological and lexical variation within Kisumu- South Nyanza dialect of Dholuo. There is a considerable amount of documented research and literature on Dholuo. Such works include Omondi (1982) that looked at the syntax of Dholuo. In this study, Omondi established and discussed morphological processes involved in the formation of Dholuo words such as compounding, affixation, and reduplication. This study, however, differs from the present study in terms of approach. The present study is an attempt to describe the phonological and lexical difference within KSN dialect.

Okombo (1997) also studied what can be described as the Functional Grammar of Dholuo. His study aimed at providing a descriptively adequate account of constituent order in Dholuo. The study concentrated on grammatical aspects of Dholuo such as nouns, verbs and adjectives. Even though this study and the present study are both concerned with Dholuo language, the present looks into sub dialectical variation within KSN dialect of Dholuo.

Other studies in the field of sociolinguistic particularly on dialectical variation include Oduol (1990), which established the existence of Dholuo regional dialects. Her study set out to define the dialects of Dholuo by identifying the phonological, grammatical, lexical, and morphological features that mark each dialect. This study is relevant to our study except that ours is a focus on one of the dialects she identified-KSN, with the aim of defining its sub varieties.

Ochieng (2012) also did a comparative study of dialectical variations within the Boro-ukwala dialect and established that Boro-Ukwala dialect has sub dialects mainly Ugenya, Alego, Yimbo and Gem and that the differences in phonological, lexical and morphological features are great enough to seriously impact variation among them. Her study and the present study are similar in their approach. However, while her study focused on the Boro-Ukwala dialect of Dholuo, this study confines itself to KSN dialect of Dholuo. To this end, a systematic study on the phonological and lexical variation within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect has not been carried out.

Phonological and lexical features are significant in the study of language variation. They provide evidence for language change as well as reveal the phonological processes and lexical features that are unique to a particular language or variety. A study to identify and analyze the phonological and lexical variation within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect of Dholuo is therefore of essence.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The questions this study seeks to address are:

- i) What are the phonological variations within the Kisumu South Nyanza Dholuo dialect?
- ii) What are the lexical variations within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect?
- iii) In which environments do these variations occur?

### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

This study was guided by the following objectives.

1. To identify the phonological variables within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect features that mark Dholuo dialects.
2. To identify the lexical variables within the Kisumu-South-Nyanza dialect features that mark Dholuo dialects.
3. To establish the environment which these phonological and lexical variations occur.

### **1.5 Rationale of the Study**

This study focused on the sub-dialects of Kisumu-South Nyanza Dholuo particularly to establish the phonological and lexical differences between them. Languages and dialects are very important tools through which one can express one's identity. The dialects we speak define speakers in terms of their geographical location, their community or ethnicity and even the groups to which they pledge their loyalties. A study on the dialectical variation is therefore

necessary to shed light on the linguistic features that mark the dialects people speak showing that Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect has phonological variables that are regionally distributed.

This current study is motivated by the development in communication technology. Linguists are currently working on computer communication with an aim of developing software that can automatically translate communication into one's own language. To accomplish this, the computer must be allowed to listen to many different varieties and dialects of a language. However, this can only happen if the respective dialect is studied and the people speaking them are recorded for ease of detection by the computer. It is for this reason that a study on Dholuo dialects is of essence to establish the linguistic features that characterize them.

The need to preserve our own local languages and dialects lends credence to this study. Our local dialects are the vehicles through which we preserve and transmit and maintain our ethnic, cultural and historical backgrounds. This study, is believed, gives us an insight into how Dholuo has changed and developed over time as an important part of cultural history.

### **1.6 Scope and Limitation**

In this study, the researcher attempted to describe and analyze the phonological and lexical differences in the KSN dialect of Dholuo. Dholuo, as has been stated in section 1.1 above, is spoken by a large number of speakers living in different

countries thus has developed numerous dialects. However, for the purpose of this study, the focus was on Dholuo spoken in Kenya particularly the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect. This study examines specifically the sub-dialects phonological and lexical variables that vary within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect. It also studies the environment in which these variations occur.

Dialectical variation entails a number of linguistic elements. Dialects can differ with respect to pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and syntax. However, the study only focused on the phonological and lexical differences within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect of Dholuo. No attempt was made to define the grammatical and morphological variations that might also be evident in KSN dialect.

Dialects of a language can emerge as a result of social factors and geographical location of the speakers. The former results into social dialects while the latter gives geographical or regional dialects. This study only made reference to geographical determinants of dialectical variation as social determinants were beyond the scope of this study.

KSN dialect of Dholuo is spoken in Kisumu, Homabay, and Migori counties of former South Nyanza region. However, for the purposes of this study, the research area covered the entire Kisumu county, Homabay town, Mbita and Oyugis areas of Homabay county, and Rongo and Awendo Sub counties of Migori county. The regions not mentioned above but are within KSN dialect zones, were covered by this study.

## **1.7 Definition of Concepts**

**Dialect:** a variety of a language 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 who are set off from others geographically or socially

**Language variation:** refers to regional, social, or contextual differences in the ways that a particular language is used.

## **1.8 Literature Review**

This section is divided into two parts. Part one is about the review of literature relating to Dholuo language. Part two on the other hand, reviews literature pertaining to the theory selected for this study.

### **1.8.1 Literature on Dholuo Language**

Huntingford (1959), Ogot (1967), Stafford (1967) and Tucker (1974) provide background information on Dholuo. Their works provide a historical background and the geographical location of the Luo. These studies were of significance to this present study as some data will be drawn from them.

Odhiambo (1981) studied Dholuo vowel processes using the Boro – Ukwala dialect in her presentation. This work is also important in our study for reference while analyzing the vowel sounds within Kisumu-South nyanza. Oduol (1990) conducted a study on Dholuo dialects. The study aimed at defining the dialects of Dholuo by identifying the phonological, grammatical and lexical features which

mark each dialect. The study established the existence of regional dialects namely; Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect and Boro-Ukwala dialect, which are phonologically, lexically and grammatically marked. This study was relevant to the present study as it provided the information that was useful in our analysis. Although this study is similar to the present study in terms of the language under analysis and the data, the present study aims at accounting for the phonological and lexical differences found in KSN dialect within the framework of variationist theory, that is, analyzing the environment in which the variations occur.

Oduor (2002) investigates syllable weight and its effect in Dholuo phonology, showing how syllable weight is related to stress, tone and vowel process majorly deletion, compensatory lengthening and glide formation. This work gives an insight into Dholuo phonology which is an important aspect in this study.

Another study by Okombo (1997) was a description of Dholuo functional grammar. The study aimed to provide a descriptively adequate account of constituent order in Dholuo. It dealt with grammatical aspects such as nouns, verbs and adjectives. This study is a good source of data more so consonantal sounds for this study.

Ochieng (2012) carried out a comparative study of dialectal variation within Boro-Ukwala dialect. This study set out to identify and describe the linguistic variables in the dialect and to investigate the conditions in which these variables

occur. Her study is relevant to the present study as it shows that the sub dialects of Boro-Ukwala dialect of Dholuo has been studied but not so with those of the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect. To this end, the sub-dialects within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect have not been researched on.

Yamo (2014) studied loanword adaptation in Boro-Ukwala dialect of Dholuo. This study specifically examined the borrowing situation between Lumarachi and Dholuo with an aim of establishing the source of borrowing. This study is relevant to the current study as they both attempt to examine the features of the regional varieties of Dholuo.

### **1.8.2 Theoretical Literature**

In this section, the research focused on a review of the literature of variationist theory, which is the theoretical framework within which this study will be carried out.

Variationist theory as was indicated in section 1.8 of this chapter was originally developed by Labov (1969). This theory aims to account for the grammatical structure in connected speech and to explain the apparent instability realized in linguistic form-function relations. It focusses on the speech of individuals as representations of members of a speech community.

Poplack (1993) carried out a study on variationist theory and language contact. This study explored how variationist sociolinguistic concerns may be applied to

issues that are fundamental to the bilingual inquiry. The study selected code-switching and borrowing as the variants. The study found out that the principle of accountability may be difficult to apply in the case of code-switching and suggested that codes may be switched intrasententially only when the word order of both languages is homologous on either side of the switch point. On borrowing, it was realized that any content word in the language is fair game for borrowing.

A starting point for variationist theory was the research carried out by Labov on semantic viz a viz pronunciation. In this study, Labov (1969) found out that differences in pronunciation correspond to the same meaning. He further suggests that the relationship between meaning and form is defined by attributing meaning to varieties based on pattern of variation itself. Levon (2011) also carried a study on gender and sexuality in variationist theory. In his study, he analyzed pitch variation amongst a cohort of Israeli lesbians. The research demonstrated that even though gender and sexuality are strongly embedded in Israeli culture, some speakers linguistically attend to these constructs in identifiably distinct ways.

Wolfram and Fasold (1974) conducted a research on phonological variation among some speakers of English to establish the factors that contribute to the simplification of final consonant clusters in English words which end in /t/ and /d/. The results indicated that the deletion of these sounds occurs under four different linguistic conditions, amongst them whether the cluster is followed by a vowel or a

consonant, and whether the final member of the cluster is itself the past tense morpheme or not, (Wolfram and Fasold 1974:132)

Chambers and Trudgil (1980) in their study of variation in Norwich, a case of linguistic change, shows that age provides the principle variationist means for studying language change. This study showed that the 10-19 age group radically increases the instance of lowered and centralized /e/ even in their most formal styles. The analysis of the data further showed that Received Pronunciation of vowels like /e/ in such words as *bell* and *tell* is giving way to /æ/ and even /ʌ/ (Chambers and Trudgil 1980: 93).

One of the traditional theories that has been used in the study of dialects is Dialectology. Francis (1983) defines dialectology as the study of dialects which are varieties of a language used by groups smaller than the total community of speakers of the language in question. Francis in his study majorly described the various methodologies employed in dialectological studies.

Keith (1988) conceptualizes this theory as a tool for collecting data for linguistic maps. It depicts the collection of maps showing the geographical distribution of some phonological, morphological, lexical or semantic linguistic variants. His study provided an insight into the data collection technique that was adopted for this study.

Chambers & Trudgill (1980) provides a detailed description of history and features of dialectology as a framework in the study of dialect. They described it as dialect geography whose main methodology is the questionnaire which can both be direct or indirect, and use of linguistic maps. They further points out that for the researcher to achieve reliability in data collection, the selection of informants should consist of non- mobile, older and rural residents. This study, like Keith's (sic), enabled us to design a reliable research procedure for this study.

### **1.9 Theoretical Framework**

The descriptive tool for this study is Variationist Theory. Variationist theory was developed by Labov and accounts for those properties of language which require reference to both external (social and geographical) as well as internal (systemic) factors in their explanations (Labov 1971). In essence, Variationist Theory concerns itself with the analysis of the interaction between language differences, social meaning and the development of linguistic elements themselves.

Labov, in his Variation Theory, postulates that variation is a basic component of language structure; the way a language is spoken differs across individuals as well as across situations encountered by the same individuals, and thus a socially realistic linguistic analysis provides valuable insights to the study of language (Labov 1971). He further notes that the theory utilizes data from large bodies of systematically collected contemporary language elements to develop accounts of language variations.

It is also argued in Variationist Theory that different linguistic forms can be used for the same function and that differences among competing forms may be neutralized in the discourse (Sankoff 1988: 153). And as Tagliamonte (2012:10) observes, the description of the data provided should be accountable of the data and that not only should the occurrence of a particular variant be noted, but also to identify the sites where it occurs even if the patterns revealed do not immediately support a specified theoretical position.

The theory holds that variation is an inherent part of language which can be observed and studied in that it shows variation and change in its historical development. It further indicates that language varies across different dialects within linguistic communities and sociogeographical distribution. Tagliamonte (2012) posits that such variation are rule- governed, that is, language variation is not haphazard phenomenon, but happens rather in systematic manner. The principle of accountability as formulated by variationists requires not only that occurrences of a particular variant should be noted, but also to identify sites where it occurs.

Variationist theory involves a combination of techniques from regional, sociology and anthropology to scientifically investigate language use and structure as manifested in naturalistic context. According to Sankoff (1988:141), the variationist viewpoint of language may be characterized by its concern with accounting for grammatical structure in connected discourse, and explaining the

instability realized therein of linguistic form-function relations. To this end, variationist theory seeks to discover patterns of usage which pertain to the relative frequency of occurrence or co-occurrences of structures, rather than simply examining their existence or grammaticality.

The primary object of analysis of the Variationist Theory is the speech of the individuals or members of a speech community. Labov (1971) suggests that variationist study involves getting into the speech community, where observation of language use in its sociocultural setting is carried out. The goal of this procedure is to enable the researcher to gain access to the vernacular, which is the most relatively homogenous spontaneous speech reserved for intimate or casual situations (Poplack 1993:252). The vernacular in this case is taken to reflect the most systematic form of the language acquired by the speaker, prior to any subsequent efforts at style shifting.

In order to account for the variation in a given situation, the variationist must determine why, where, and when it was used, as well as by whom. In so doing, the researcher considers the role of extralinguistic influence and internal features of linguistic environment in determining the choice of a variant. Rand and Sankoff (1988) posit that the use of multivariate or 'variable rule' enables the analyst to extract regularities and tendencies from the data, and thereby determine how selection of a linguistic structure is influenced by specific configuration of factors that characterize the environment in which it occurs. This study attempts to

illustrate how these consideration may be applied to the regional language variation contexts.

### **1.9.1 The Linguistic Variable**

Labov (1969:728) as cited in Tagliamonte (2012:4) posits that variation is everywhere all the time, that is, variation is inherent. A linguistic variable is an element which has identifiable variants. He asserts that variationist research starts with the observation that language is inherently variable as there are different ways of saying more or less the same thing. Such inherent variations may occur at every level of grammar of a language, in every variety of a language, in every style, in every dialect, sub- dialect and in the same discourse.

Sankoff (1988: 142) observes that linguistic variables are alternatives within the same grammatical system with the same referential meaning in a discourse. Such variables in a speech community whether phonological or lexical do not vary haphazardly but systematically, and therefore it can be quantitatively modelled, according to Labov (1969).

There are three types of variables: markers, indicators, and stereotypes (Mesthrie et al. 2000:91). Markers are those variables which show stratification according to style and social class. Indicators, on the other hand, show differentiation by age or social group without being subject to style shifting, while stereotypes are forms

that are socially marked as they are prominent in the linguistic awareness of speech communities.

### **1.9.2 The Principle of Accountability**

The main unique feature of Variationist Theory which distinguishes it from other methods is its principle of accountability. With regard to this principle, the theory states that in addition to examining a variable, the researcher must also take in to account all the other potential variants within the given system. As Mesthrie (2000:92) notes, variationists stress the significance of collection and analysis of a corpus that adequately represents the speech of members of the community under the study.

This principle of Variationist Theory requires that all the potential forms in the subsystem of grammar that has been identified for investigation, and not simply the variant of interest, should be included in the analysis, Tagliamonte (2012:19). It therefore follows that the use of the variant under investigation can be reported as a portion of the total numbers of relevant constructions.

These variables as Mesthrie et al (2000:80) points out, should be frequent enough in ordinary conversation to appear unsolicited in brief interview, structurally linked to other elements in the linguistic system. The variables, he further notes, should exhibit a complex and subtle pattern of stratification by social groupings.

In justifying the need of accountability, Tagliamonte (2012) points out that it enables the researcher to know how a variant is influenced by a particular type of context compared to another. This, he said, requires knowledge of the distribution of feature out of the total number of contexts where it could have occurred but did not.

### **1.10 Research Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses were tested.

1. That Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect has phonological variables that are regionally distributed.
2. That Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect has lexical variables that are regionally distributed.
3. That contact between speakers of Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect and other neighbouring languages is responsible for the phonological and lexical variation within Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect.

### **1.11 Research Methodology**

This section provides a descriptive account of the procedures that was used in gathering and processing of empirical data pertinent to our investigation.

#### **1.11.1 Data Collection**

The researcher selected fifty respondents who are native speakers of Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect of Dholuo. The target population comprised those who live

close to the borders of neighbouring speech communities such as Nandi, Kisii, Luhya and Abasuba. There were ten respondents in each case. There was equal number of males and females in all samples. The respondents were selected through purposeful sampling within the research area. The minimum age bracket of the respondents was forty years. This age was believed to have had a relatively systematic acquisition form of the language that would in turn enable the researcher to assess any linguistic deviance.

Data was collected by administering questionnaires and interviews to the respondents. A focus group discussion was also carried out in which respondents and the researcher had the opportunity to interact and address some of the emerging issues related to the choice of linguistic forms and language use.

### **1.11.2 Data Analysis**

An inventory of the data collected was made. They were then categorized according to their sources or regions within Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect speaking region such as Kisumu, Migori and Homa Bay. This was followed by classification based on the phonological and lexical variants. Finally, a description and analysis of the data was carried out within the framework of variationist theory. The findings are presented using tables and maps.

## **1.12 Conclusion**

Background information to the study has been given in this chapter. The chapter is introductory in its orientation. Particularly, it has outlined the background to the object language of this study which is Dholuo. The research problem, the objectives of the study and the hypotheses to be tested are also stated in the chapter. The last sections of the chapter has discussed the theoretical framework chosen for the study. The study adopted Variationist Theory as the tool that was used in the analysis of data. A review of literature, the scope and limitations and a description of the research methodology are also provided in this chapter. The chapter aimed at giving focus to the study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **BASIC DHOLUO PHONOLOGY**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The aim of this research is to study the phonological and lexical variations within the Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect. The purpose of this chapter is to give a basic description of the Dholuo consonant and vowel sounds so as to provide a basis upon which the phonological and lexical features of the KSN dialect can be discussed. The chapter is phonological in its approach with emphasis on vowel processes that are instrumental in accounting for phonological-based dialectical variation.

The chapter is divided into sections. In section one, a brief discussion of Dholuo consonant is given. Section two provides an outline of vowels in Dholuo. The third section gives a brief account of vowel processes operating in Dholuo vowels. The last section highlights the role of suprasegmental features in marking dialectical variation.

It is worth to note from the outset that the information provided in this chapter heavily borrows from earlier studies on Dholuo such as Okombo (1977; 1982), Oduol (1990) and Oduor (2002). This information provides an invaluable insight in interpreting phonological and lexical dialectical variation observed in data from this study.

## 2.2 Dholuo Consonants

Earlier studies in Dholuo such as Okombo (1982) reveal that Dholuo has twenty one pure consonants and five nasal stop compounds. Oduor (2002) describes these nasal stop compounds as prenasalised stops that all function as unit phonemes.

The table below shows all the consonants of Dholuo

**Table 2.1: Dholuo Consonants**

IPA symbol	Orthographic rep.	Word	Gloss
p	p	Par	mat
b	b	Bando	maize
w	w	Wang'	eye
m	m	Mich	gift
f	f	Fudu	straw
θ	th	Thum	music
ð	dh	Dhiang'	cow
t	t	Tong'	egg
d	d	Dero	granary
r	r	Richo	sin
l	l	Lweny	war
j	y	Yath	drug
s	s	Suya	smell
n	n	Nanga	cloth
tʃ	ch	Chilo	dirt
dʒ	j	Juok	witchcraft
ɲ	ny	Nyuka	porridge
k	k	Kom	chair
g	g	Gweno	hen
ŋ	ng	Ng'wech	athletics
h	h	Hono	miracle
mb	mb	Mbuta	nileperch
nð	ndh	Ndhadho	taste
nd	nd	Ndira	cholera
ɲj	ɲj	Njaga	bhang
ŋg	ng	Ngege	tilapia

**Partly taken from Okombo (1982) and Oduor (2002)**

### 2.3 Dholuo Vowels

Dholuo has nine vowels which are grouped into four pairs. Each pair contains [+Advanced Tongue Root] ([+ATR]) and [-Advanced Tongue Root] ([-ATR]), (Okombo 1982). One vowel, according to Oduor (2002:76), does not have a contrastive pair.

In the table below, the orthographic representation of Dholuo vowel sounds and their IPA symbols is shown. The IPA symbols on the left are [+ATR] whereas those on the right are [-ATR].

**Table 2.2: Orthographic and Phonemic Representation of Dholuo Vowels**

Orthographic representation		IPA Symbols	
Upper case	Lower case	[+ATR]	[-ATR]
A	a	a	
E	e	e	ɛ
I	i	i	ɪ
O	o	o	ɔ
U	u	u	ʊ

**Adopted from Oduor (2002:76)**

The table below shows Dholuo vowels as used in lexical contexts

**Table 2.3: Dholuo Vowels as used in Lexical Contexts**

Orthography	IPA symbols	Example	gloss
i	i	Mich /mitʃ/	to shrink
i	ɪ	Mich /mitʃ/	gift
e	e	Olemo /olemo/	A burning bush
e	ɛ	Olemo /olemo/	fruit
o	o	Goro /goro/	To be last
o	ɔ	Goro /gɔrɔ/	incubator
u	u	Kungo /kungo/	To handle with care
u	ʊ	Kungo /kʊngɔ/	To save(money)
a	a	Chak /tʃak/	milk

## 2.4 Dholuo Vowel Processes

As in other languages, Dholuo vowels undergo various phonological processes. Okombo (1982) pointed out that Dholuo vowels undergo phonological processes such as deletion, vowel harmony, compensatory lengthening and glide-formation. These processes are instrumental in this research as they form the basis upon which phonological variation within Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect is partly assessed.

### 2.4.1 Glide formation

As shown in Table 2.1 above, there are two glides in Dholuo: the palatal glide (/j/) and bilabial glide (/w/). Okombo (1982: 21) posits that as a rule, the underlying high front vowel and high back vowel are realized as a palatal glide and bilabial glide, respectively, when they precede either a non-high vowel or a high vowel with the opposite value for the feature [+back]. The following examples illustrate this rule;

1.      Chunyi+opodho      /tʃuɲjopoðo/      ‘your heart has failed’  
          Nyiri + adek         /jɪɾjadek/         ‘three girls’  
          Nduklu + eke        /nduklweke/        ‘where is’

### 2.4.2 Deletion

Deletion as Okombo (1982) observes involves [–high] vowels such as /e, ɛ, a, o, ɔ/. These vowels are deleted in contexts where they precede a vowel in an unstressed syllable. Adhiambo (1981) observed that deletion majorly takes place

in unstressed word-final vowels and unstressed word-internal positions. In most cases, this process is optional.

The following examples demonstrate vowel deletion in Dholuo;

2.	Abiriyo /abiriɔ/	--	abiryo /abirjɔ/	‘seven’
	Diriyo /diriɔ/	--	driyo /driɔ/	‘times two’
	Wuoyi /wuoji/	--	wuoy /wuoɟ/	‘boy’
	Rumbi /rumbi/	--	rumb /rumb/	‘atmosphere’
	Ariyo /ariɔ	--	aryo /arjɔ/	‘two’
	Riyo /riɔ/	--	ryo /rjɔ/	‘thirst’

### 2.4.3 Lengthening

Okombo (1982:23) notes that although Dholuo vowels are phonemically short, there is a rule that lengthens a vowel when it precedes one or two consonants that are followed by either one or no vowel at all in utterance final position. In a word that ends in a consonant, the rule affects the final vowel while in a word that ends in a vowel, the second last vowel gets affected. Oduol (1990:59) observes that this constitutes a root lengthening process and can be obligatory, optional or never realized at all. Vowel lengthening can be seen in the following examples;

3.	Kano /kanɔ/	→	/ka:nɔ/	‘to keep’
	Chilo /tʃilo/	→	/tʃi:lo/	‘dirt’
	Agulu /agulu/	→	/agu:lu/	‘pot’
	Cham /tʃam/	→	/tʃa:m/	‘grains’
	Kudho /kʊðɔ/	→	/ku:ðɔ/	‘thorn’
	Kom /kɔm/	→	/kɔ:m/	‘chair’
	Chiro /tʃiro/	→	/tʃi:ro/	‘market’

Adhiambo (1981) further notes that compensatory lengthening takes place when part of a word is deleted even though the condition under which the process takes place is not clear. This is seen in the following examples;

- |    |               |               |                   |
|----|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| 4. | Agwata achiel | /agwta:tʃɪɛl/ | ‘one calabash’    |
|    | Richo orumo   | /ritʃo:rumo/  | ‘sin is finished’ |
|    | Wuotho ogik   | /woθo:gik/    | ‘end of the walk’ |

#### 2.4.4 Vowel Harmony

Hyman (1975:223) describes vowel harmony as a situation in which all vowels within a specified unit agree in some phonetic features. In Dholuo, the feature involved in vowel harmony is [ATR]. Okombo (1982:24) notes that the effect of harmony is noticed when an affix is added to the root of a given word and the tendency is for the vowel in the affix to acquire the tongue root position of the root vowel. He gives the example of the infinitive suffix –o which is realized as a plus or minus advanced tongue root depending on the root vowel.

Examples:

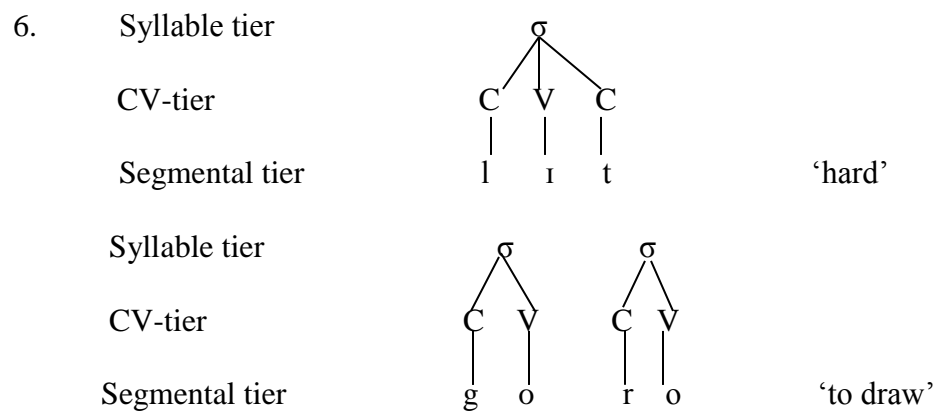
- |    |        |         |                 |
|----|--------|---------|-----------------|
| 5. | Ter-o  | /tero/  | ‘to inherit’    |
|    | Rit-o  | /rito/  | ‘to watch over’ |
|    | Ngi-o  | /ŋɟo/   | ‘to look’       |
|    | Rund-o | /rundo/ | ‘to rotate’     |

#### 2.4.5 Dholuo Syllable

Hyman (1975:188) describes syllable as a unit that consists of three phonetic units: the onset, the peak, and the coda. He further points out that syllables can be

categorized as open and closed syllables. An open syllable ends in a vowel while a closed syllable ends in a consonant.

Oduor (2002) points out that Dholuo syllables exhibit two types of syllable structures: open and closed syllables. This is shown below.



This present study confined itself to only those dialectical variations that are realised as a result of change in the syllable structure.

## 2.5 Dholuo Suprasegmental Features

The supra segmental features mainly found in Dholuo are tone and stress.

### 2.5.1 Tone

Okombo (1977) investigated some aspects of the form and functions of tone in Dholuo and noted that the domain of tone is the word and that vowels are the tone bearing units. Tone plays a fundamental role in indicating a number of aspects including lexical differentiation, tense and word category distinction.

In another study, Okombo (1982:26) outlines three basic tone patterns. These are Low (L), High (H), and down stepped high. He further observes that a large number of Dholuo words have alternative tones but they are picked from a finite set of basic tone-patterns.

The following examples illustrate the tone patterns in Dholuo.

<b>7. Pattern</b>	<b>Phonological Pattern</b>	<b>Example</b>	
Low (L)	[-]	wer /wer/	‘music’
High (H)	[/]	lit /lit/	‘bereavement’
Downstepped high (DH)	[!/]	muono /mwɔno/	‘smear’

This study focused on only tone based-dialectical features.

### **2.5.2 Stress**

Katamba (1989:221) notes that stress is basically a matter of greater auditory prominence whose major phonetic components are pitch, length, and loudness. Thus, a stressed syllable tends to have higher pitch and is longer and louder than their unstressed counterparts. A stressed syllable also requires an increased respiratory energy in their articulation. It would also be imperative to note that vowels in stressed syllables have full vowel quality.

In Dholuo, stress in most cases falls on the stem vowel of a word and not on the affix, except a verb plural affix in the imperative (Owino 2003:59). The following words illustrate this;

8.	Wit-i	/wɪtɪ/	‘throw away’ (imperative)
	Wuog-i	/wuogí/	‘leave’
	Rit-i	/rití/	‘wait’
	Keth-i	/kɛθí/	‘destroy’

In all these words stress falls on the final vowel of the last syllable.

There are various levels of stress such as word stress, sentence stress and emphatic stress, this research particularly focus on the word stress with an aim of assessing its role in dialectical variation within Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect.

## 2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the consonant and vowels of Dholuo. The study has shown that Dholuo sounds comprises twenty one pure consonants and five nasal stop compounds, and nine vowels as identified by Okombo (1982). A brief account of vowel processes has also been given in this chapter. The processes discussed are glide formation, vowel deletion, vowel harmony and lengthening.

It is noted that as a rule, high front vowel and high back vowel are realized as palatal glide and bilabial glide, respectively, when they precede a non-high vowel or a high vowel with the opposite value for the feature [+back]. It has also been shown that vowel deletion occurs in unstressed word final vowels and unstressed word internal positions. Vowel lengthening occurs in environments where a vowel precedes one or two consonants followed by either followed by either one or no vowel at all. The study has also shown that Dholuo infinitive suffix –o is realized

as a [+ATR] or [-ATR] on depending on the root vowel. This is a case of vowel harmony.

Dholuo supra segmental features such as syllable, tone and stress are also discussed in the chapter. The study noted that Dholuo has both open and closed syllable structures and that vowels bear tone which indicate various grammatical aspects such as tense and word category. Dholuo also exhibits three tone patterns: Low, High and Downstepped. On stress, only stem vowels of a word and not the affix vowel is stressed. However, this rule does not affect a verb plural affix.

These processes were put into use in the subsequent chapter where the analysis of dialectical variation within Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect was carried out.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **PHONOLOGICAL AND LEXICAL VARIATIONS**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

The concern of this chapter is to majorly provide the analysis of the samples of phonological and lexical features observed in data collected. The analysis is carried out within the framework of Variationist Theory. Variationist Theory as developed by Labov (1969) accounts for the linguistic variations that are observable, particularly, in terms of the contexts of their usage, and their distribution. The analysis done in this chapter is related to the first and second objectives whose aim is to establish the existence of phonological and lexical variations within KSN dialect.

The discussion in this chapter begins with the analysis of the phonological variations established and zones in which they occur. The last section of the chapter examines the lexical features that define the sub varieties of KSN dialect as was established in the data collected. The lexical features discussed here are classified into three categories for ease of analysis. These are cases of lexical items that are radically different in form but represent the same concept, lexical items that are similar in all aspects except pronunciation and finally, those that are borrowed from neighbouring languages as a result of contact.

### **3.2 Phonological Variations**

Phonological variations are those differences that are realized as a result of differences in pronunciation. This feature is only significant when it is realized in a large set of words. In this section, the study set out to demonstrate the sub dialect zones that can be recognized on the basis of phonological properties.

It is important at this point to note that this study has borrowed the codes used by Oduol (1990) to indicate the status of both the phonological and lexical features identified in this chapter and chapter three respectively. These codes are: KN (known but not used), TP (typically used), OP (optionally used), and ABS (absent). It is also worth to note that some of the variables identified in this study are coincidentally similar to those used in Oduol (1990). However, in such situations, an attempt to provide an interpretation in light of the research problem underpinning this study and the methodology is made.

#### **3.2.1 The /h/ Variable: The Occurrence Versus the Non-Occurrence of /h/ in the Environment before a Vowel**

The glottal fricative /h/ is distinct in some regions and absent in others. This variable defines three sub dialectical zones of KSN dialect. In zone one, /h/ is ever present and is distinct in the pronunciation. In zone two, /h/ is optional while in zone three, it is totally absent. The region where /h/ is pronounced /h/ is Kisumu County. This can be attributed to their proximity and interaction with speakers of Boro-Ukwala dialect where /h/ is a common feature.

In zones where /h/ is optional is spoken in Nyakach, Nyando and Homa-bay. In zone three where /h/ is known but not used is spoken in Rongo and Migori. Table 3.1 demonstrate the occurrence of this variable.

**Table 3.1: The /h/ Variable- Occurrence vs Non-Occurrence**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>variants</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>3</sub></b>
Slope	<i>holo</i>	TP	OP	ABS
	<i>olo</i>	ABS	OP	TP
Cough	<i>ahonda</i>	TP	OP	ABS
	<i>aonda</i>	ABS	OP	TP
Mystery	<i>hono</i>	TP	OP	ABS
	<i>ono</i>	ABS	OP	TP
Love	<i>hera</i>	TP	OP	ABS
	<i>era</i>	ABS	OP	TP
Blowing	<i>huko</i>	TP	OP	ABS
	<i>uko</i>	ABS	OP	ABS

### 3.2.2 Variable /f/

Variable /f/ defines three sub dialectical areas; one where /f/ is pronounced /f/, another where /f/ is pronounced /h/ and a third one where /f/ is absent. Sub dialect one where /f/ is pronounced as /f/ is spoken in Muhoroni, Nyando, Nyakach, Mbita, and Homa-bay. Sub dialect two where /f/ is pronounced as /h/ is spoken in Seme and Kisumu while sub dialect three where is totally absent is spoken in Migori.

**Table 3.2: Variable /f/ Pronounced as /f/, /h/ and /Ø/**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>3</sub></b>
Mouse	<i>fuko</i>	TP	ABS	ABS
	<i>huko</i>	ABS	TP	ABS
	<i>uko</i>	ABS	ABS	TP
Fish (small)	<i>fulu</i>	TP	ABS	ABS
	<i>hulu</i>	ABS	TP	ABS
	<i>ulu</i>	ABS	ABS	TP
Coughing	<i>fuolo</i>	TP	ABS	ABS
	<i>huolo</i>	ABS	TP	ABS
	<i>uolo</i>	ABS	ABS	TP
Rainbow	<i>lifudu</i>	TP	ABS	ABS
	<i>lihudu</i>	ABS	TP	ABS
	<i>liudu</i>	ABS	ABS	TP
Fly	<i>fuyo</i>	TP	ABS	ABS
	<i>huyo</i>	ABS	TP	ABS
	<i>uyo</i>	ABS	ABS	TP

### **3.2.3 Variable /j/: The Occurrence Versus Non-Occurrence of /j/ in the Environment before a Back Vowel**

The palatal approximant /j/ is present in some varieties while absent in others. In the varieties where it is absent, /j/ is deleted when it precedes a back vowel. This variable distinguishes two sub dialect areas. The first one is where /j/ is typically pronounced /j/ and is spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Nyakach, Muhoroni Oyugis, Mbita and Homabay. The second one where /j/ is pronounced as /Ø/ (deleted before a back vowel) is spoken in Rongo and Awendo

**Table 3.3: Variable /j/**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Squeeze	<i>diyo</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>dio</i>	ABS	TP
Seven	<i>abiriyo</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>abrio</i>	ABS	TP
Fertile	<i>miyo</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>mio</i>	ABS	TP
Boy	<i>wuoyi</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>wuoi</i>	ABS	TP
Thirst	<i>riyo</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>rio</i>	ABS	TP
To suck	<i>chiyo</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>chio</i>	ABS	TP

### **3.2.4 Root Vowel Length Variable**

Okombo (1982) observes that typically, Dholuo vowels are phonemically short. However, he further notes that there is a rule that yields a long vowel when a vowel precedes one or two consonants followed by either one or no vowel in word final position in an utterance. In contexts where a word ends in a consonant, it is the last vowel that is lengthened whereas in vowel final word, the rule affects the second last vowel (Oduol 1990:59).

The variation in root-vowel lengthening defines two sub dialect areas within KSN dialect; one where the root vowel lengthening rule always applies and another where it applies optionally. KSN<sub>1</sub> where the root-vowel is always lengthened is spoken in Kisumu, Muhoroni, Nyando, Nyakach, Homabay, Mbita, Oyugis and Migori. KSN<sub>2</sub> where the root-vowel lengthening rule applies optionally is spoken in Rongo and Awendo, especially, the regions neighbouring Mugerango of Kisii county. Table 3.4 demonstrates the root-vowel lengthening variable.

**Table 3.4: Root-Lengthening Variable**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variants</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Thorn	<i>/kuðɔ/</i>	KN	OP
	<i>/ku:ðɔ/</i>	TP	KN
Wailing	<i>/nduru/</i>	KN	OP
	<i>/ndu:ru/</i>	TP	KN
Chair	<i>/kɔm/</i>	KN	OP
	<i>/kɔ:m/</i>	TP	KN
Cloth	<i>/nanga</i>	KN	OP
	<i>/na:nga/</i>	TP	KN
Vegetable	<i>/alɔt/</i>	KN	OP
	<i>/alɔ:t/</i>	TP	KN
Pot	<i>/agulu /</i>	KN	OP
	<i>/agu:lu/</i>	TP	KN
Pumpkin	<i>/buðo/</i>	KN	OP
	<i>/bu:ðo/</i>	TP	KN

### 3.2.5 Variable /w/

The bilabial approximant /w/ is sometimes pronounced /w/ while in others it is deleted word medially when it occurs between a consonant and a high front vowel /i/. Oduol (1990: 58) observes that this variable defines two dialectal areas of Dholuo: Boro-Ukwala dialect where /w/ is pronounced as /w/ and KSN dialect where /w/ is pronounced as /Ø/ between a consonant and /i/.

However, this study established that even within KSN dialect of Dholuo, variation with regard variable /w/ still exist. In KSN<sub>1</sub> /w/ is typically pronounced as /w/ and is spoken in Kisumu, Nyando, Seme, and Nyakach. KSN<sub>2</sub> where /w/ is deleted between a consonant and a high front vowel /i/ is spoken in Homabay, Mbita, Rongo, Migori and Oyugis as shown in table 3.5 below.

**Table 3.5: Variable /w/- The Occurrence vs Non-Occurrence of /w/**

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Harsh	<i>kiny</i>	KN	TP
	<i>kwiny</i>	TP	KN
Right hand	<i>achich</i>	KN	TP
	<i>achwich</i>	TP	KN
Ooze	<i>chiro</i>	KN	TP
	<i>chwiro</i>	TP	ABS
Whistle	<i>liyo</i>	KN	TP
	<i>lwiyo</i>	TP	ABS
Poison	<i>kiri</i>	KN	TP
	<i>kwiri</i>	TP	KN
Blowing nose	<i>thinyo</i>	KN	TP
	<i>thwinyo</i>	TP	ABS

### **3.2.6 Variable /i/**

The high front vowel /i/ is in some utterance deleted when it occurs in the environment before /j/ while in others it is always present. The deletion of /i/ when it precedes /j/ normally occurs in rapid speech in the variety in which it occurs. As with variable /w/, this variable is also elaborately discussed in Oduol (1990). According to (Oduol 1990:51), variable /i/ is typically spoken as /i/ in Oyugis and Kendu divisions while deleted before /j/ in Boro-Ukwala dialect.

However, this study found that this variable marks two sub dialects of KSN dialect. In KSN<sub>1</sub> where /i/ is typically pronounced as /i/ in the environment before /j/ is spoken in Homabay, and Mbita. In KSN<sub>2</sub>, where /i/ is deleted is spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Nyakach and Rongo and Oyugis. The occurrence in Seme, Kisumu and Nyakach is attributed to the influence of Boro-Ukwala dialect which they neighbor while the situation in Oyugis and Rongo is as a result of the influence of the rapid speech of the Ekegusii which they neighbour.

**Table 3.6: Variable /i/**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Seven	<i>abiriyo</i>	TP	KN
	<i>abiryo</i>	ABS	TP
Two	<i>ariyo</i>	TP	KN
	<i>aryo</i>	ABS	TP
Thirst	<i>riyo</i>	TP	KN
	<i>ryo</i>	ABS	TP
Fast	<i>piyo</i>	TP	KN
	<i>pyo</i>	ABS	TP
Mirror	<i>kiyo</i>	TP	KN
	<i>kyo</i>	ABS	TP
Look	<i>ng'iyō</i>	TP	KN
	<i>ng'yo</i>	ABS	TP
To give	<i>miyo</i>	TP	KN
	<i>myo</i>	ABS	TP

**3.2.7 Conclusion**

In this section, a discussion of the phonological features is done. The study established that phonological differences that are define sub dialects of KSN dialect occur in different contexts. There are those that occur as a result of deletion of a segment in the other varieties. These include the glottal fricative /h/ which is typically pronounced /h/ in the entire Seme, Kisumu East, Kisumu Central and Kisumu West, optional in Nyakach, Nyando, and Homabay. The same sound /h/ is absent in Rongo and Awendo of Migori county. The other variable is sound /f/

which is realized as /f/ in Muhoroni, Nyando, Nyakach, Mbita and Homabay, /h/ in Seme, Kisumu East, Kisumu West, and Kisumu Central. The same sound /f/ is absent in the same contexts in Rongo and Awendo.

The study also established that the occurrence and non-occurrence of the palatal glide in the environment before a back vowel also marks the sub dialects of KSN dialect. It marks two sub dialect zones. One is where it is typically pronounced as /j/ and is spoken in Seme, Kisumu East, Kisumu West, Kisumu Central, Nyando, Nyakach, Muhoroni, Oyugis, Homabay and Mbita. However, in Rongo and Awendo, /j/ is absent. Root vowel lengthening and the presence and absence of bilabial glide /w/ also define sub dialects of KSN dialect of Dholuo. The deletion of high front vowel in the environment before a palatal glide also distinguishes the sub dialects of KSN dialect.

### **3.3. Lexical Sub Dialect Features**

Lexical sub dialect features refer to those differences that are realized at the vocabulary level of the sub dialects under analysis. This feature falls into three categories namely, same concept represented by radically different forms, cases involving borrowing from different sources and those that are similar in all respects except pronunciation. As it is observed in 3.2 above, some of the lexical variables identified in this study are coincidentally similar to those identified in Oduol (1990).

### 3.3.1 Lexical Items Referring to the Same Concept but Represented by Radically Different Forms

In this section, an account of words that are different in spelling and pronunciation but similar in meaning in all sub dialects is given. These words also define the sub dialects of KSN dialect.

#### 3.3.1.1 The Cattle Shed Variable

##### *Kul/dipo*

This variable characterizes two sub dialect regions; KSN<sub>1</sub> where cattle shed is typically represented by *kul* is spoken in Seme, Nyakach, and Kisumu, Nyando and Muhoroni while KSN<sub>2</sub> where the same concept, cattle shed, is represented by *dipo* is spoken in Homabay, Mbita, Oyugis, Rongo and Awendo as shown below. This perfectly replicates what Oduol (1990:130) established. However, while Oduol (1990) found that this variable distinguishes two dialects of Dholuo: Boro-Ukwala and KSN, this study went ahead and established that the same variable characterizes the sub dialects of KSN dialect as demonstrated in the table below.

**Table 3.7: Cow Shed Variable- *kul/dipo***

Gloss	Variants	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Cattle shed	<i>kul</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>dipo</i>	ABS	TP

### 3.3.1.2 The Leech Variable

#### *Okunga/ chwe*

Like the feature cow shed, the feature leech defines two sub dialects. The first one is where it is represented by *okunga* spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni and Nyando. The second sub dialect is where it is represented by *chwe*. This second dialect is spoken in Oyugis, Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Migori.

**Table 3.8: The Leech Variable- *okunga/chwe***

Gloss	Variants	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Leech	<i>okunga</i>	TP	ABS
		TP	ABS

### 3.3.1.3 Pot Variable

#### *Agulu/oigla*

The pot variable defines two sub dialect regions KSN dialect. Sub dialect 1 is where *agulu* is the typical representation of pot though *oigla* is known but not used. The region that typically uses *agulu* to represent pot covers Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni and Nyakach. *Oigla*, on the other hand is typically spoken in Homabay, Mbita and Migori and Rongo. In these regions *Agulu* is known but not typically used. This variable is illustrated in the table 3.9 below.

**Table 3.9: Pot Variable-*agulu/oigla*.**

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Pot	<i>agulu</i>	TP	KN
	<i>oigla</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.1.4 Close Variable

#### *Dedo/loro/chiego*

The close variable characterizes three sub dialectical areas of KSN; one is where *dedo* is used to represent the verb ‘to close’. This variant is spoken in Homabay, Mbita, and Oyugis. Sub dialect two where *loro* is used is spoken in Nyakach, Kisumu, Muhoroni and Seme. The third sub dialect where *chiego* is typically used to represent close is spoken in Rongo and Awendo. However, it is worth noting that these three variants, *dedo*, *loro* and *chiego*, are not typically confined in their respective regions. They are known but not typically used in other regions. Table 3.10 below shows this variable.

**Table 3.10: Variable ‘to close’-*dedo/loro/chiego*.**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>3</sub></b>
To close	<i>dedo</i>	TP	KN	KN
	<i>Loro</i>	KN	TP	KN
	<i>Chiego</i>	KN	KN	TP

### 3.3.1.5 The Variable Rust

#### *Nyal/okal*

The variable rust defines two sub dialects. The first sub dialect is where rust is represented by *nyal* and is spoken in Seme, Nyakach, Muhoroni and Nyando. The second sub dialect where *okal* is used to refer to rust is spoken in Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Migori. Interestingly, Oduol (1990:130) found that *okal* is typically

used in all the regions where KSN dialect is spoken and that *nyal* is only spoken in Boro-Ukwala. This is contrary the finding of this study which as shown in table 3.11 below.

**Table 3.11: Variable Rust-nyal/kal**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Rust	<i>nyal</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Okal</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.1.6 The Path Variable

#### *Yo/lida*

The variable ‘path’ also defines two sub dialect regions. In the first sub dialect, path is represented by *yo*. This variant is spoken in Nyakach, Kisumu, Seme, Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Mbita. Sub dialect two where path is represented by *lida* is spoken in Oyugis. However, its occurrence is rare among the speakers in this region.

**Table 3.12: Variable ‘Path’-yo/lida**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
	<i>yo</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>Lida</i>	ABS	TP

### 3.3.1.7 The Food Left Over Variable

*Ng'injo/ojeno*

The food left over variable characterizes two sub dialect of KSN dialect. One sub dialect is where *ng'injo* is used to represent food left over and is spoken in Kisumu, Muhoroni, Nyando, Oyugis, Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Awendo. Sub dialect two uses *ojeno* to represent food left over and is spoken in Seme.

**Table 3.13: 'Food Left Over' Variable**

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Food left over	<i>Ng'injo</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Ojeno</i>	ABS	TP

### 3.3.1.8 Maize cob Variable

*Ogusu/osoglo*

This feature defines two sub dialects of KSN dialect. The first one is where maize cob is represented by *ogusu* and is spoken in Oyugis, Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Migori. The other sub dialect where maize cob is represented by *osoglo* is spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni and Nyando and Nyakach. However, Oduol (1990:133), found that in this second region they use *osogro* instead. This study was not able to establish the changes that have resulted into this difference.

**Table 3.14: ‘Maize Cob Variable’ –*ogusu/osoglo***

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Maize cob	<i>ogusu</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Osoglo</i>	KN	TP

### **3.3.1.9 The Sweat Variable**

#### *Kuok/luya*

Sweat variable also defines two sub dialect of KSN. One dialect is where sweat is represented by *kuok* and is spoken in Oyugis, Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Awendo. The other sub dialect has *luya* as the representation of sweat. This variant is typically spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach. Oduol (1990) found the same result with regard to this variable. However, it should be noted that while Oduol’s study set out to establish the dialects of Dholuo, this current study set out to establish the sub dialects of KSN dialect of Dholuo and that the sweat variable further defines the sub varieties of KSN dialect. The variable is illustrated in the table 3.15 below.

**Table 3.15: Sweat Variable-kuok/luya**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Sweat	<i>kuok</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Luya</i>	KN	KN

### 3.3.1.10 The Variable Tree

#### *Yien/yath*

The tree variable distinguishes two sub dialects of KSN. One is where tree is typically represented by *yien* and another where the same concept tree is represented by *yath*. Yien is spoken in Oyugis, Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Awendo. *Yath*, on the other hand, is spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Nyakach, Muhoroni and Nyando. While Oduol (1990:141) established that *yath* is only spoken Boro-Ukwala regions, this study established that those KSN dialect areas neighbouring Boro-Ukwala regions also use *yath* to refer to tree, hence the variation observed with regard to this variable.

**Table 3.16: The Tree Variable**

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Tree	<i>yien</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Yath</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.1.11 The scales variable

#### *Kalagakla/oswaklo*

The fish scale variable defines two sub dialect regions. Sub dialect one is where kalagakla is typically used to represent scales. This region covers Oyugis, Homabay, Rongo, and Migori.

Sub dialect two is where spoken scale is represented by oswaklo is spoken in Nyakach, Nyando, Muhoroni, Kisumu and Seme.

**Table 3.17: The Scales Variable-*kalagakla/oswaklo***

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Scales	<i>kalagakla</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Oswaklo</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.1.12 The Chief Variable

*Ruoth/miruka/okebe*

Chief variable defines three sub dialects of KSN dialect. The first sub dialect is one in which chief is typically represented by *ruoth* is spoken Migori, Rongo and Mbita. The other sub dialect is where *miruka* is typically used to refer to chief and is spoken in Homabay and Oyugis. The third sub dialect is where chief is typically represented by *okebe* and is spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni and Nyando.

**Table 3.18: The Variable ‘Chief’**

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>	KSN <sub>3</sub>
Chief	<i>ruoth</i>	TP	KN	KN
	<i>miruka</i>	KN	TP	KN
	<i>okebe</i>	KN	KN	TP

### 3.3.1.13 The Dress Variable

*Nanga/law*

The dress variable characterizes two sub dialect of KSN dialect. The first one is where it is represented by *nanga* and is spoken in Rongo and Migori. The other variant, *law*, is spoken in Homabay, Oyugis, Nyakach, Nyando, Muhoroni, Kisumu and Seme.

**Table 3.25: The Dress Variable**

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Dress	<i>nanga</i>	TP	KN
	<i>law</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.2 Lexical Items Similar in all Respects Except in Aspects of Pronunciation

This category contains words whose meanings are similar though their pronunciations are slightly different. They fall in the category of lexical differences and phonological differences because the phonological difference is restricted to only a small set of words.

#### 3.3.2.1 The Sugarcane Variable

*Niang’/tiang’*

This variable defines two sub dialects KSN dialect. In sub dialect one, it is represented by *tiang’* and is spoken in Seme, Kisumu, Nyakach, Muhoroni, and Nyando. *Niang’* which is typical in sub dialect two is spoken Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Awendo.

**Table 3.19: The Sugarcane Variable**

Gloss	Variants	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Sugarcane	<i>tiang’</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Niang’</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.2.2 The Cassava Variable

#### *Mariwa/marieba*

Oduol (1990:129) in her study on Dholuo dialect identified this variable as one of the lexical variables marking Dholuo dialects. She found out that this variable identifies three dialect areas of Dholuo. While Oduol's study covered the entire Dholuo speaking community, this study only focused on the KSN dialect.

This study established that cassava variable defines two sub dialectal areas of KSN dialect. Sub dialect 1 where cassava is represented by *mariwa* is spoken in Oyugis, Nyakach, Kisumu, Muhoroni and Seme. Sub dialect two in which cassava is represented by *marieba* is spoken in Mbita, Homabay, and Rongo. Table 3.20 below illustrates the cassava variable.

**Table 3.20: The Cassava Variable-*mariwa/marieba***

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Cassava	<i>mariewa</i>	TP	KN
	<i>Marieba</i>	ABS	TP

### 3.3.3 Lexical Variables as a Result of Borrowing from Neighbouring Speech

#### **Communities**

These are words that were not originally in the language under study, Dholuo. They are words that are borrowed from other languages which are in contact with Dholuo. Such languages include Ekegusii, Lumarachi and Luugoli. Once the words are borrowed, they are nativized so as to sound Luo.

### 3.3.3.1 The Tin Variable

#### *Gorogoro/kube*

This feature defines two sub dialect regions of KSN dialect. The first one is where tin is typically represented by *gorogoro*. This variety is spoken in Rongo, and Oyugis. The word *gorogoro* seems to have been borrowed from *ekegusii* word ‘*egorogoro*’. The other sub dialect is where *kube* is typically used to represent tin and is spoken in Migori, Homabay, Mbita, Nyakach, Muhoroni, Nyando, Kisumu and Seme.

**Table 3.21: The Tin Variable-*gorogoro/kube***

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Tin	<i>gorogoro</i>	TP	KN
	<i>kube</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.3.2 The Rope Variable

#### *Ngori/tol*

This feature also defines two sub dialect of KSN dialect. One is where rope is represented by *ngori*, a word that is borrowed from Ekegusii ‘*engori*’. This variety is spoken in Awendo, Rongo and Oyugis. Sub dialect two where rope is typically represented by *tol* is spoken in Homabay, Mbita, Nyakach, Nyando, Muhoroni, Kisumu and Seme.

**Table 3.22: The Rope Variable-*ngori/tol***

Gloss	Variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Rope	<i>ngori</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>tol</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.3.3 The Mattress Variable

#### *Godhro/ matres*

The mattress variable distinguishes two sub dialect of KSN dialect. The first one is where it is represented by *godhro* and is spoken in Rongo, Oyugis, Homabay and Awendo. The other sub variety is where it is represented by *matres*. This variety is spoken in Mbita, Nyakach, Muhoroni, Nyando, Kisumu, and Seme.

**Table 3.23: The Mattress Variable**

Gloss	variant	KSN <sub>1</sub>	KSN <sub>2</sub>
Mattress	<i>ngodhro</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>matres</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.3.4 The Grandmother Variable

#### *Mong'ina/dani*

The grandmother variable also distinguishes two sub dialect of KSN dialect. One is where grandmother is represented by *mong'ina*, a word borrowed from Ekegusii with the same meaning. It is spoken in regions bordering Ekegusii speaking community: Rongo, Awendo and Oyugis. However, it must be pointed out that this variant is not common and is mostly used only in the presence of an Ekegusii speaker. The other sub dialect where grandmother is typically represented by *dani* is spoken in Homabay, Mbita, Nyakach, Muhoroni, Nyando, Seme and Kisumu.

**Table 3.24: The Grandmother Variable**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Grandmother	<i>mong'ina</i>	TP	ABS
	<i>dani</i>	KN	TP

### 3.3.3.5 The Cigarette Variable

#### *Ogoro/osusu/ndawa*

This feature defines three variables of KSN dialect. One is where cigarette is typically represented by *ogoro*. This variant is spoken in Rongo and Awendo. It is also borrowed from Ekegusii word *obogoro* with an equivalent meaning. The second sub variety is where it is represented by *osusuis* spoken in Homabay, and Oyugis. The third variant, *ndawa*, is typically spoken in Nyakach, Nyando, Muhoroni, Kisumu and Seme.

**Table 3.26: The Cigarette Variable**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>3</sub></b>
Cigarette	<i>ogoro</i>	TP	KN	ABS
	<i>osusu</i>	KN	TP	ABS
	<i>ndawa</i>	KN	KN	TP

### 3.3.3.6 The Greetings Variable

#### *Mirembe/misawa*

This variable defines two sub dialects of KSN. The first one is where *mirembe* is typically used when one is greeting someone and is spoken in Seme, and Kisumu. The sub variety in which *misawa* is the typical form of greeting is spoken in Muhoroni, Nyando, Nyakach, Oyugis, Homabay, Mbita, Rongo and Awendo.

**Table 3.27: The Greetings Variable**

<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Variant</b>	<b>KSN<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>KSN<sub>2</sub></b>
Greeting	<i>mirembe</i>	TP	KN
	<i>misawa</i>	KN	TP

### **3.4 Conclusion**

This section has provided a description of the lexical features that define the sub-dialects of Kisumu-South Nyanza dialect Dholuo. The study has demonstrated that sub-dialects within the Kisumu-South Nyanza can be identified on the basis of their lexical differences. The lexical differences fall into three categories. The first one comprises those words have different forms and pronunciation but represent similar concepts. This feature defines two sub dialect zones: Kisumu zone comprising Kisumu, Seme, Nyando, Muhoroni and Nyakach; and Homabay and Migori zones.

The other category established is contains words that similar in all respects except pronunciation. The study has established that this feature also defines two sub dialect zones of KSN dialect: Kisumu zone, in one hand, and Migori and Homabay zones on the other. The last category discussed is where there are words borrowed from other languages. KSN dialect has borrowed from some of the languages it interacts with such as Ekegusii, and Lumarachi. Borrowing of lexical items is shown to have defined two sub dialect regions of KSN dialect. It is established in the findings that borrowing from Ekegusii distinguishes Awendo and Rongo from the rest of KSN dialect speaking regions.

It should also be noted that this study and Oduol (1990) are similar in terms of language under study and the topic as both are concerned with the varieties of Dholuo. However as we have noted in our discussion, this study differs with Oduol's in terms of the research problem and the methodology. The two studies also took place at different times (twenty six years difference). The findings of this study would therefore be of significance as it would provide an insight into how Dholuo has changed and developed over time.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **THE ENVIRONMENT OF DIALECTAL VARIATIONS IN KISUMU- SOUTH DHOLUO DIALECT**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter aims at providing a description of the occurrence of the phonological and lexical variables identified in chapter three of this study. Tagliamonte (2012:19) posits that accountability is essential since it enables the researcher to determine how a variant is influenced by a particular type of context compared to another.

#### **4.2 Phonological Variables**

In this section, we have provided explanations to the various variations in pronunciations that characterize the sub dialects of KSN dialect of Dholuo.

##### **4.2.1 The Occurrence and Non-Occurrence of /h/**

As we have noted above, in chapter three, there are three sub dialects characterized by the occurrence and non-occurrence of the glottal fricative /h/. One is where /h/ is pronounced as /h/, the second one is where /h/ is optional and the third one is where /h/ is completely deleted. Where /h/ is pronounced as /h/ covers regions such as Seme, and Kisumu as shown in map one in the appendix. The heavy presence of this sound in these regions can be attributed to their close associations with the Luhya speaking communities which they border. The sound is common in

so many Luhya words. The influence is also indirect as a result of the interaction between these speakers and the speakers of Boro-Ukwala dialect who commonly use this sound, for example, *oliho* (cooking stick) and, *sihoho* (witchcraft of the eye) etc.

The same sound /h/ is optional, that is, it can either be pronounced or deleted altogether in a speech in some sub dialect. This is found in Nyakach, Homabay Mbita, Kano of Nyando subcounty and Muhoroni. It is mostly deleted in rapid speech. /h/ is completely deleted in sub dialect three which covers Kamagambo of Rongo sub county, and Sakwa in Awendo subcounty of Migori county. However, the study did not discover any discernible context under which this deletion occurs. Map 3 shows the regions where this deletion occurs.

#### **4.2.2 The Development of /f/**

This variable marks three sub dialect zones-where /f/ is pronounced as /f/, where /f/ is pronounced as /h/ and where /f/ is deleted. The first one is typically spoken in Kano of Nyando subcounty, Muhoroni, Nyakach, Mbita, Homabay and Oyugis as shown in map 1 and 2 in the appendix. The second zone is where /f/ is pronounced as /h/ and covers Seme and Kisumu. As we have noted in 4.2.1, above, this region prefer /h/ to /f/ as a result of the influence of the Luhya dialects which are commonly characterized by /h/ sound. In zone three, both /h/ and /f/ are known but are not typically used especially in rapid speech. This covers Rongo and Awendo. The variation is therefore as a result of the influence of the other languages such as

Lumarachi, Luugoli and Ekegusii that are in contact with KSN dialect. Variation can be realized as a result of such contact.

#### **4.2.3 The Deletion of Palatal Approximant /j/ Variable**

This also defines two dialectical zones. One is where /j/ is pronounced as /j/ and another where it is pronounced as /Ø/ (deleted). Where /j/ is typically pronounced as /j/ typically occurs in Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni, Nyakach, Oyugis Mbita and Homabay. This sound is deleted when it precedes a mid high back vowel in rapid speech and it occurs in Rongo and Awendo of Migori Sub County. These two regions neighbour Ekegusii speaking community who speak relatively fast and may have influenced them. In the variationist theory, language can vary as a result of the experience that its speakers have had. The deletion of the palatal glide therefore occurs as a result of the influence that Ekegusii has had on the KSN dialect especially on those who immediately border them.

#### **4.2.4 The Development of Root Vowel Lengthening Variable**

This marks two sub dialect zones: one is where the feature hardly applies and another where it applies. The first one where root vowel lengthening hardly applies runs through Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni, Nyakach, Mbita and Homabay. The second zone where root vowel lengthening hardly occurs runs through Oyugis and Kamagambo, and Sakwa of Rongo and Awendo sub counties respectively.

#### **4.2.5 The Deletion of /w/ Word Medially**

The bilabial approximant /w/ marks two zones of KSN dialect. One is where it is pronounced as /w/ and another one is where it is deleted when it precedes a high front vowel /i/. Where /w/ is pronounced as /w/ runs through Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni, and Nyakach while the deletion of /w/ in the environment before a high vowel occurs in Homabay, Mbita, Oyugis, Rongo and Awendo.

#### **4.2.6 Vowel Deletion Variable**

In this study, we only established internal vowel deletion process: the deletion of a high front vowel /i/ in the environment before a palatal approximant /j/. This feature also characterizes two zones of KSN dialect. The first one is where /i/ is pronounced /i/ and runs through Homabay, Oyugis, and Mbita while the one in which the high front vowel /i/ is deleted occurs in Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni, Nyakach, Rongo and Sakwa of Awendo sub county. The deletion often occurs in a rapid speech. This deletion is occasioned by the influence of Ekegusii and BU which are relatively faster than typical KSN dialect.

#### **4.2.7 Reconciliation of Phonological Sub Dialect Features**

In light of the foregoing discussion above, the phonological features established in this study characterize three sub dialect zones of KSN dialect, described here as KSN<sub>1</sub>, KSN<sub>2</sub> and KSN<sub>3</sub>. KSN<sub>1</sub> covers Seme, Kisumu, Nyando and Muhoroni. KSN<sub>2</sub> is composed of Homabay, Mbita and Oyugis while KSN<sub>3</sub> is made up of Kamagambo and Sakwa of Migori County. These are shown in maps 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

### **4.3 Lexical Variables**

The lexical variables established in this study manifest themselves in three distinct forms: those that are radically different in form but represent similar concept, those that are similar in all respects except pronunciation and finally those that are borrowed as a result of influence from the neighbouring speech communities.

#### **4.3.1 Lexical Items Radically Different in form but Represent the Same**

##### **Concept**

These lexical items are different in all respects except that they convey the same concept in all the zones they are used. They differ orthographically and even in terms of pronunciation but convey the same meaning. It constitute a case of synonymy and in zones where both are known, they can be used interchangeably.

The study established the following items in this category: cow shed-*kul/dipo*, leech-*okunga/chwe*, pot-*agulu/oigla*, close-*dedo/chiego/loro*, path-*yo/lida*, food left over-*nginjo/ojeno*, maize cob-*ogusu/osoglo*, sweat-*kuok/luya*, tree-*yien/yath*, scales-*kalagakla/oswaklo* and chief-*ruoth/miruka/okebe*.

These lexical items marks two sub dialectical zones of KSN dialect. The first one runs through Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach. The other one runs through oyugis, Homabay, Kamagambo and Sakwa of Migori County.

#### **4.3.2 Lexical Items Similar in all Respects Except Pronunciation**

These are lexical features that similar in meaning but differ in terms of pronunciation. The pronunciation differences are not phonologically motivated and thus they are considered in this study as purely idiosyncratic properties of the words in question rather than a phonological feature.

The variation established under this category are illustrated by the following lexical items: sugarcane-*niang'/tiang'*, cassava-*mariwa/marieba* and sneeze-*jir/gir*. These also marks two major sub dialect zones of KSN. The first one running through Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni and Nyakach. The second one covers Kasipul/Kabondo of Oyugis, Homabay, Mbita, Kamagambo, and Sakwa of Migori County.

#### **4.3.3 Lexical Items as a Result of Borrowing from Other Sources**

Hock and Joseph (1996:253) defines borrowing as the adoption of individual words or even of large sets of vocabulary items from another language or dialect. This study has viewed borrowing as the incorporation of lexical items from other languages into Dholuo as a result of contact between the speakers of languages in contact, in this case, Ekegusii, Kipsigis, Nandi, Suba, Lumarachi and Luugoli.

It is worth noting here that the contact between the Dholuo speakers and Suba speakers of Mbita subcounty of Homabay county has an insignificant influence on Dholuo. The study did not establish any lexical items borrowed from Suba and

used in Dholuo and this explains why we have clustered Mbita and Homabay in the same sub dialect zone. The same phenomenon was observed in the influence of Kalenjin on Dholuo. There was no Kipsigis and Nandi influence established on the neighbouring Nyakach, Nyando and Muhoroni.

However, a significant influence of Ekegusii was observed in the speech of Dholuo speakers who neighbour them such as Kamagambo and Sakwa of Migori county. The lexical items established in this category are rope-*ngori*, cigarette-*ogoro*, tin-*gorogoro*, grandmother-*mongina* and mattress-*ngodhro*. This sets Rongo and Awendo of Migori county as sub dialect Zone of KSN dialect different from Kisumu, Nyakach, Nyando, Muhoroni and Seme on one side, and Homabay, Oyugis and Mbita on the other side.

The influence of Luhya was observed as majorly indirect, through the influence of the Boro-Ukwala speakers to the neighbouring KSN dialect speakers such as Seme, Kisumu, and Muhoroni. However, directly, we established that the word popularly used for greeting, *mirembe*, equivalent to *misawa* in other sub varieties is borrowed from Luhya. This item is commonly used in the zone covering Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni and Nyakach. *Misawa* is popular in Homabay, Migori, Mbita, Oyugis and Rongo.

These borrowed items, once incorporated in the language, they undergo certain indigenization processes that make sound and appear Luo words. Such processes are not discussed in this study since they are beyond the scope of the study.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

In this chapter, explanations to the various phonological and lexical variations observed in KSN dialect are provided. The study established that the phonological variations- deletion, root lengthening, glide formation- occur due to the influence that the neighbouring speech communities have on the speakers of KSN dialect with whom they are in contact. The glottal fricative /h/ observed in KSN<sub>1</sub> is as a result of indirect borrowing from luugoli and limarachi through Boro-Ukwala dialect. This is shown in map one in the appendix. The deletion of a high front vowel /i/ in the environment before a palatal approximant /j/ observed in Rongo and Awendo is established to be as a result of the contact with a relatively faster Ekegusii they neighbor. The deletion majorly occurs in a rapid speech.

Lexical differences are also established to be a product of the contact between speakers of KSN dialect and other speech communities. The people of Rongo and Awendo have borrowed lexical items Ekegusii speakers whom they neighbour. As a result of this, they show some remarkable lexical differences with other regions that speak KSN dialect of Dholuo. Map three in the appendix demonstrates this. On the basis of these phonological and lexical differences, the study established the following three sub dialect regions of KSN dialect of Dholuo: KSN<sub>1</sub> comprising Seme, Kisumu East, Kisumu West, Kisumu Central, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach (map 1); KSN<sub>2</sub> which covers Homabay, Oyugis and Mbita (map 2); and KSN<sub>3</sub> comprising Rongo and Awendo (map 3).

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary, conclusion and recommendation for further research. To achieve these, the study has revisited the research hypotheses formulated for this study, examining them on the basis of the research findings and the discussions made in the four chapters of this study. The recommendations for further research are suggested in the last section of this chapter.

#### **5.2 Summary**

The main objective of this study was to establish the phonological and lexical features that characterize KSN dialect of Dholuo. The analysis was done within the framework of Variationist Theory originally proposed by Labov (1963) as the most adequate theory for studying language variation. To enable us to give a systematic discussion of our findings, one of the principles, the principle of accountability, was particularly used to account for the occurrence and usage of the various phonological and lexical variables established in the study.

An expository background to the study was provided at beginning of this report. This was a study of the phonological and lexical variations in the KSN dialect of Dholuo. The research problem revolved around the need to establish the sub dialects of KSN dialect of Dholuo. The study was guided by the following

questions: What are the phonological variations within KSN dialect of Dholuo? What are the lexical variations within the KSN dialect? In which environments do these variations occur? The study sought to establish the phonological and lexical variations in the KSN dialect of Dholuo and identify the environments in which these variables occur. For the analysis of data, the study adopted Variationist Theory.

A discussion of Dholuo consonant and vowel sounds in general and Dholuo vowel processes in particular was made. The aim was to provide a phonological background on which the phonological discussions in the subsequent chapters would be done. Vowel processes such as root lengthening and deletion were established to be responsible for the phonological variations observed in KSN dialect. Various segmental feature such as syllable, tone and stress were also discussed. However, the analysis did not include these phonological features as they were outside the scope of the study.

Phonological variables such as /h/, /f/, /w/, root vowel lengthening, and vowel deletion and glide formation were identified as the phonological features that mark the sub-dialect of KSN dialect of Dholuo. The study also established that the lexical features that Sub Dialects of KSN dialect fall, into three broad categories: lexical items radically different in form but represent the same concept, those that are similar in all respects except pronunciation, and finally, those that are occur as a result of borrowing from neighbouring communities.

An attempt was made to relate and classify these features according to the zones in which they occur. From the discussion, we noted that there are three major sub dialect Zones of KSN dialect. These are Seme, Kisumu, Nyando, Muhoroni, and Nyakach (map 1); Oyugis, Homabay, and Mbita (map 2); and the third one is Rongo and Awendo of Migori County (map 3).

With regard to the environment of occurrence of the phonological and lexical variations within KSN dialect, the study established that the linguistic variables that mark the sub varieties of KSN occur under different linguistic environments

### **5.3 Conclusion**

The study set out to test three hypotheses. The first hypotheses was that KSN dialect has phonological variations that are regionally distributed. The findings of the study as demonstrated in chapter three shows that phonological and lexical variations exist within the KSN dialect and that such variations are geographically distributed. These are KSN<sub>1</sub> comprising Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach; KSN<sub>2</sub> comprising Oyugis, Homabay, and Mbita; and KSN<sub>3</sub> comprising Rongo and Awendo of Migori county. This hypothesis was therefore adopted.

The second hypothesis was that KSN dialect has lexical variations that are regionally distributed. The study established that KSN dialect has sub dialects which are lexically marked and are regionally distributed. The regions are KSN<sub>1</sub> covering 2Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach, KSN<sub>2</sub> comprising

Oyugis, Homabay, and Mbita, and KSN<sub>3</sub> comprising Rongo and Awendo of Migori County.

Our third hypothesis was that the contact between the KSN dialect speakers and speakers of other neighbouring languages is responsible for the phonological and lexical variations in KSN dialect. From the discussion, it was established that the phonological and lexical differences that set KSN<sub>1</sub> (Seme, Kisumu, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach) from the rest is as a result of the heavy influence from the speakers of Boro-Ukwala dialect with whom they constantly interact and neighbor. It was also observed that the lexical and phonological features that characterize KSN<sub>3</sub> (Rongo and Awendo of Migori county) and distinguish it from KSN<sub>1</sub> and KSN<sub>2</sub>, are as a result of borrowing from the neighbouring Ekegusii language. The hypothesis that the contact between the speakers of KSN dialect and speakers of neighbouring languages is responsible for the phonological and lexical differences observed was therefore found to be valid.

#### **5.4 Recommendation for Further Research**

Since the scope of this study did not cover the entire Migori county, particularly with regard to the influence that the neighboring communities such as the Massai and the Kuria might have on the speakers of KSN dialect neighboring them, we recommend that a similar study be carried to determine the extent to which this contact might influence Dholuo spoken in this region. This should cover even the

other communities who live amongst the Dholuo speakers in Migori such as the Somali and Maragoli.

Our study concentrated only on the phonological and lexical variations. In light of this, we suggest that a further research be carried out to investigate variations in other linguistic aspects such as morphology, semantics, grammar and syntax within KSN dialect.

A study should also be carried out to establish the sociolinguistic factors that has made borrowing from Kipsigis and Nandi less productive though the two speech communities are in contact.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Sample Questionnaire

#### KISUMU SOUTH NYANZA DIALECT

Provide Dholuo equivalents to the following English word.

coughing		
lizard		
report		
Cattle shed		
seven		
ventilation		
flour		
Cowdung		
boy		
courtyard		
truth		
To whistle		
harsh		
poison		
To squeeze		
Beautiful		
Tall/far		
clean		
To win		
To sneeze		
To smell		
To soak		
Green grams		
stick		
To pass something		

To hide		
eel		
pot		
Sugar cane		
aside		
path		
To slap		
sweat		
Goat/sheep hut		
To crawl		
Cooking stick		
search		
spacious		
To sew		
To whistle		
To shut		
door		
cassava		
Maize cob		
Stomach ache		
abundant		
rust		
hole		
To throw		
To fetch water from river		
tree		
My things		
To disturb		
To beg/plead		
To trim		

To scratch		
Food left over		
To come out		
toothless		
chief		
To shake		
market		
To pour out		
thirst		
scales		
mosquito		
scar		
cigarette		
flour		
blanket		
vegetable		
mirror		
wailing		
pot		
pumpkin		
fly		
fertile		
boy		
rainbow		
slope		
suck		
mouse		

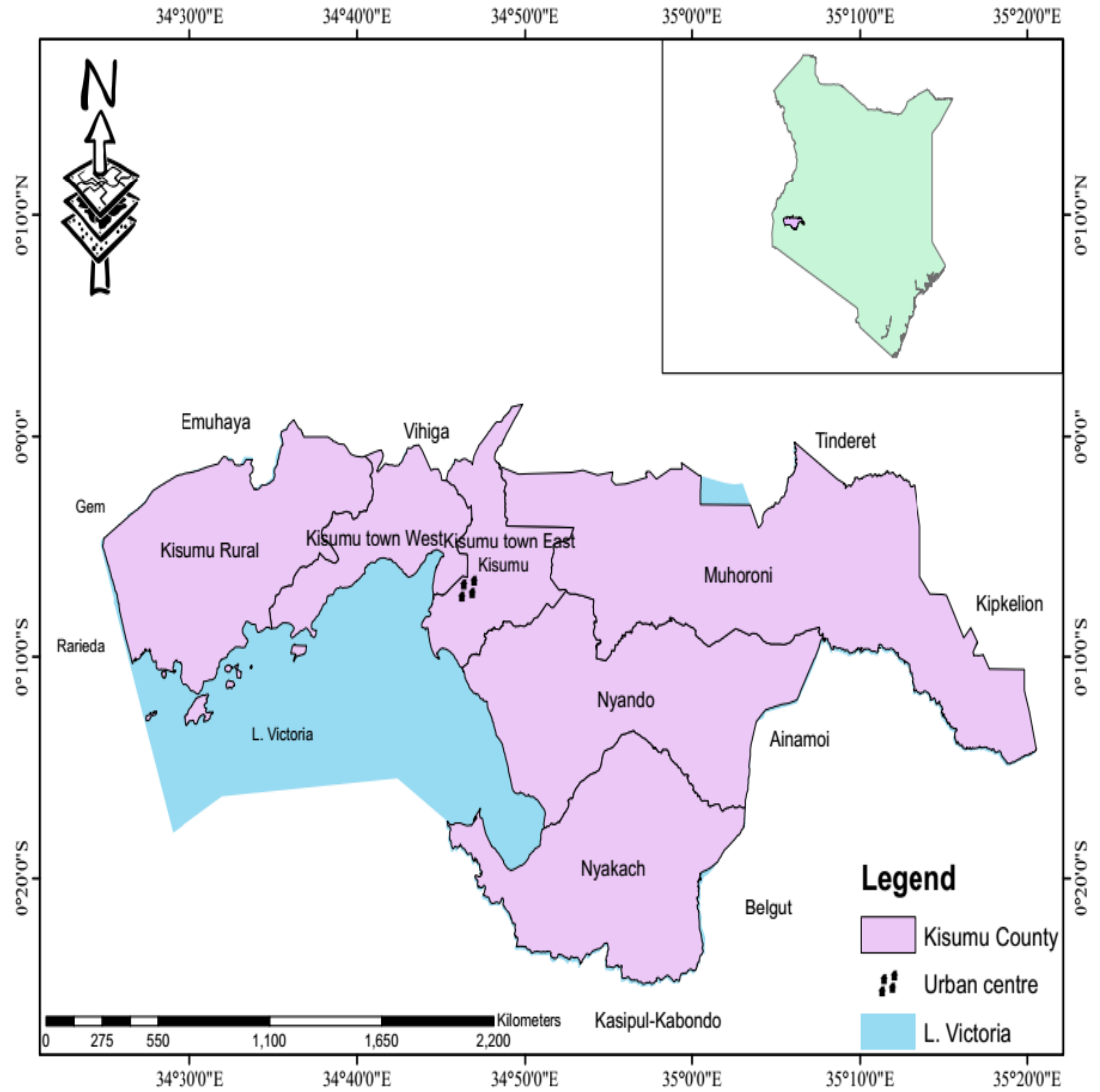
## Appendix II: List of Data Collected

Gloss	Kisumu	Homabay	Migori
Coughing	Huolo/ahonda	Fuolo/aonda	Fuolo/aonda
lizard	ogwe	Ogwe	Ogwe
report	hulo	fulo	fulo
Cattle shed	kul	dipo	dipo
seven	abiriyo	abiriyo	abryo
ventilation	otuchi	otuchi	otuchi
flour	mogo	mogo	mogo
cowdung	owuoyo	owuoyo	owuoyo
boy	wouyi	wuoyi	wuoyi
courtyard	Laru/laro	liare	liare
truth	adier	adiera	adiera
To whistle	lwiyo	liyo	lio
harsh	kwiny	kiny	kiny
poison	kwiri	kiri	kiri
To squeeze	diyo	diyo	dio
beautiful	ber	ber	ber
tall	bor	bor	bor
clean	ler	ler	ler
To win	loyo	Yombo/loyo	Yombo/loyo
sneeze	Jir/gir	gir	gir
smell	dum	Dung'	Dung'
soak	budo	budo	budo
Green grams	Alngo/olayo	alayo	alayo
stick	keci	kede	kede
To pass something	miyo	kalo	kalo
To hide	Pando	pando	pando
leech	okunga	chwe	chwe

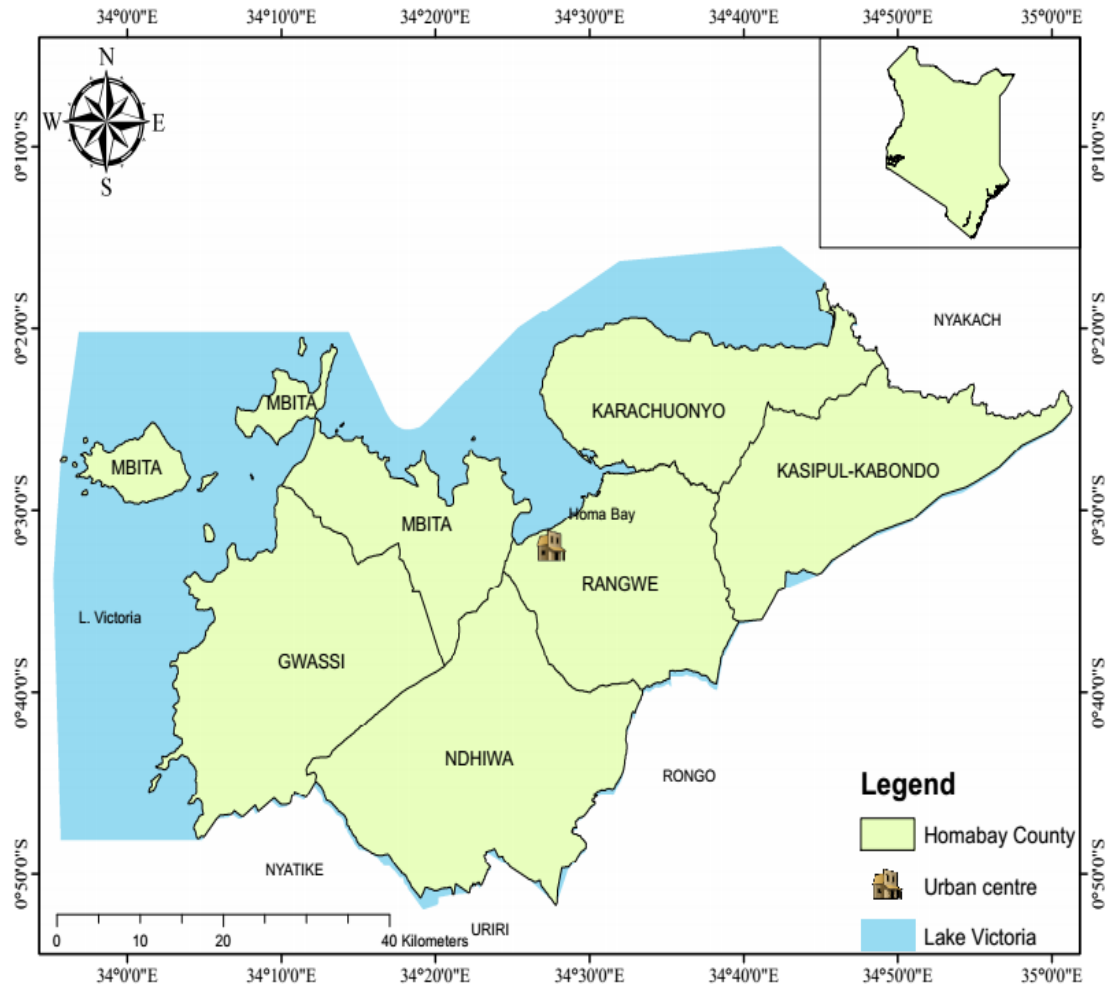
pot	agulu	Oigla/agulu	Oigla/agulu
sugarcane	Tiang'	Niang'	Niang'
aside	Thenge/bathe	bathe	bathe
path	yo	Yo/lida	yo
To slap	thalo	pado	pado
sweat	luya	kuok	kuok
slope	holo	olo	olo
mystery	hono	ono	ono
mouse	huko	fuko	uko
Goat/sheep hut	abila	abila	abila
To crawl	mol	lak	lak
Cooking stick	Oluth kuon	Oluth kuon	Oluth kuon
search	manyo	manyo	manyo
spacious	thuolo	lach	lach
boy	wuoyi	wuoyi	wuoi
To sew	Twang'o	kwoyo	kwoyo
To shut	loro	dedo	chiego
fertile	miyo	miyo	mio
thorn	kudho	Ku:dho	kudho
door	dhoot	dhoot	dhoot
cassava	mariewa	marieba	marieba
Maize cob	ogoslo	ogusu	ogusu
mirror	kiyo	kiyo	kio
rope	tol	tol	Tol/ngori
Stomach ache	Ich kach	Ich kach	Ich kach
ooze	chwiro	chiro	chiro
poison	kwiri	kiri	kiri
Blowing nose	thwinyo	thinyo	thinyo
rust	nyal	okal	okal
hole	bugo	bugo	bugo

look	Ng'iyó	Ng'iyó	Ng'yo
To throw	diro	Bayo/diro	Bayo/diro
To fetch water	kulo	Kulo/umbo	Kulo/umbo
tree	yath	yien	yien
To disturb	Thago/chando	chando	chando
My things	gika	giga	giga
To trim	tito	guro	guro
To scatch	gwaro	gwaro	gwaro
Food left over	ojeno	Ng'injo	Ng'injo
toothless	rahuok	rafuok	rafuok
chief	Okebe/ruoth	miruka	ruoth
thirst	riyo	riyo	rio
scales	oswaklo	kalagakla	kalagakla
tin	kube	Kube/gorogoro	gorogoro
grandmother	dani	dani	Mong'ina
Mattress	matres	matres	ngodhro
cigarette	ndawa	ndawa	Ndawa/ogoro
scar	mbala	mbala	mbala
Right hand	achwich	achich	achich
cloth	nanga	Na:nga	nanga
vegetable	alot	Alo:t	alot
suck	chiyo	chiyo	chio
fish	hulu	fulu	ulu
two	ariyo	ariyo	aryo
love	hera	hera	era

**Map 1: KSN1 (Seme, Kisumu East, Kisumu West, Kisumu Central, Muhoroni, Nyando and Nyakach)**



**Map 2: KSN2 (Oyugis, Homabay, and Mbita)**



**Map 3: KSN3 (Rongo and Awendo of Migori County).**

