

**AN INVESTIGATION OF PHONOLOGICAL VARIATIONS IN  
THE ENGLISH SPOKEN BY INDIGENOUS ZAMBIANS AS  
USED IN THE MEDIA**

**BY**

**CHIKUTA PRISCA**

*A Dissertation Submitted to the University of Zambia in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
of the Degree of Masters of Arts in Linguistic Science*

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

**2017**

## **DECLARATION**

I, CHIKUTA PRISCA, declare that this dissertation represents my own work, it has not been submitted for a degree to this university or any other university before and does not incorporate any published work or material from another dissertation.

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## **CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL**

This dissertation of CHIKUTA PRISCA is approved as fulfilling in part the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in Linguistic Science by the University of Zambia.

Examiner 1

Name: .....

Signature ..... Date: .....

Examiner 2

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

Examiner 3

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

## ABSTRACT

English as a global language is fast growing and spreading, thereby, giving rise to varieties peculiar to the speech community using it. One of such speech communities is Zambia. The widespread use of English in Zambia has resulted into an interaction with the Bantu languages spoken in the country. English in Zambia, British in origin, is undisputedly spoken differently from Received Pronunciation (RP). The aim of this study was to establish the phonological features of English spoken by indigenous Zambians in order to establish the extent to which this form could be deviant from Standard British English. Specifically, the study sought to establish the sound system, examine the phonological processes that give rise to the ‘deviant’ sound system and analyse stress placement in English by Zambian English speakers. This study is important because it gives features and nuances of the English language spoken in Zambia as used in the media and adds significantly to the body of knowledge about world Englishes. The study was qualitative in nature and employed the ethnographic research design. Through non-participant observations, data were collected through 30 recordings from purposively sampled local and national TV and Radio newscasts, interviews and phone-in programmes. The findings of the study revealed that English spoken in Zambia as used in the media has a five vowel system similar to the Bantu languages, that is, /a, e, i, o, u/ partly because of the interaction between English and the Bantu languages spoken in Zambia. Consonant sounds on the other hand are similar to those of RP. Consonant clusters tend to be simplified through phonological processes such as deletion, insertion and substitution. Other processes include vowel changing such as lowering, vowel substitution and monophthongizations of diphthongs and triphthongs. Additionally, the findings revealed that the English spoken in Zambia is syllable-timed. Finally, the conclusion drawn is that the findings are indicative of the fact that the English spoken in Zambia as used in the media is a different variety from Received Pronunciation (RP). The phonological trends show that Zambian English speakers seem to have established a phonologically distinct variety spoken in Zambia. The English spoken in Zambia can thus be said to be phonologically deviant from RP. From the findings, it is recommended that due to the phonological trends happening in the media, teachers and other ‘Zambian English’ speakers should not ridicule or even punish those said to be using Zambian English because RP seems to be unachievable.

## **DEDICATION**

To my dear Mother *Phyllis Malichi Chikuta*.

May your soul continue resting in eternal peace.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to give thanks and praise to God Almighty for His blessings and unmerited favour that has seen me through my study. I am thankful for blessing me with good health, a sound mind and strength that has enabled me through my study.

Special thanks goes to Dr. Kelvin Mambwe, my academic supervisor who guided me from inception to the completion of my work. Thank you for your unrelenting support. I would also like to thank Dr. J. Simwinga and Dr. H. Jimaima for providing me with valuable support and timely advice.

Gratitude also goes to my family: My father, Mr. Chikuta Edward and my siblings Eddy, Priscilla and Elly who had faith in me and encouraged me to soldier on. I am also indebted to all my God given friends. To Saliya Muketekelwa, thank you for finding time to read my work and give valuable support and guidance. God bless.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AAVE- African American Vernacular English  
BBC- British Broadcasting Corporation  
BLs- Bantu Languages  
C- Consonant  
CE- Cameroon English  
CollSgE- Colloquial Singaporean English  
EAfE-East African English  
EFL- English as a Foreign Language  
EGE- Educated Ghanaian English  
ENL- English as a Native Language  
ESL- English as a Second Language  
GAE-General American English  
GhE- Ghanaian English  
IndE- Indian English  
IPA- International Phonetic Alphabet  
MalE-Malaysian English  
MoESVTEE- Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education  
NE-Nigerian English  
RP- Received Pronunciation  
SAFE- South African English  
SBE-Standard British English  
SgE-Singaporean English  
TV- Television  
UNICEF-United Nations International Children Emergency Fund  
V-Vowel  
ZE-‘Zambian English’  
ZEM- ‘Zambian English’ as used in the media  
ZLs- Zambian Languages

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 General**

The chapter introduces the study on the phonological variations of English spoken in Zambia. A presentation of the background information to the study is given by looking at the language situation in Zambia and English language use. Thereafter, the problem under investigation, aim, objectives and research questions are addressed. The rationale for the study, the theoretical framework and definitions of key concepts are presented.. The chapter ends by defining the scope of the study, limitation of the study and the structure of the dissertation as well as providing a summary of the issues dealt with within the chapter.

### **1.2 Background to the Study**

To understand the development of the English spoken in Zambia and properly describe its phonological aspects, it is necessary to consider the historical and socio-cultural account of the language situation in Zambia. This is important in order to understand the sociolinguistic environment in which the English been studied is found. Zambia is a multilingual country endowed with about 73 ethnic groups who speak about twenty to twenty four languages. This clustering has resulted from different leveling processes such as intermarriage, loss of original group identities, geographical nearness, political domination and mutual trade. The 73 ethnic groups mainly consist of Bantu speaking people living in the country who are believed to have come from different parts of Central, Southern and East Africa as immigrants in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The majority are reported to have come from Zaire, now the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). Those who came from DRC included the Chewa, Nsenga, Kunda, and Senga of the Eastern province, the Bemba, Bisa, Lala and Swaka of Northern and Central province, the Lunda, Luvale, Chokwe and Kaonde of NorthWestern province and the Luyana (Lozi) of Western province. Others such as Mambwe and the Inamwanga are said to have migrated from the North in East Africa; the Tumbuka from the East and Ngoni from the South (see Kashoki, 1978).



These immigrants maintained their cultural practices and ethnic identities as they mingled with the local inhabitants of the territory resulting into the creation of a highly multilingual, multicultural and multiethnic setting (Simwinga, 2006).

Later, Zambia, previously known as Northern Rhodesia experienced two different types of administration; the British South Africa Company (BSAC) from 1911 to 1924 and the second as a protectorate under Britain from 1924 to 1964. In both these times, Zambia experienced many linguistic changes in that during the reign of the BSAC, English was introduced to the country as the official language and as a medium of instruction in some of the schools that were directly under its control. However, missionaries who settled in various parts of the country that set up churches, hospitals and schools at that time promoted the use of the local languages. This was so because they believed the use of local languages would enhance their mission of evangelism (Kashoki, 1978).

When Northern Rhodesia became a British protectorate in 1924, the British colonial office in London had set up the Phelps-Stoke commission whose purpose was to examine the educational system in the colonies and advise how it could be improved at that time. In its report, the commission recommended English to become the official language of education and government business while local languages were to be used for the preservation of national values and for self-preservation on the part of the African. (Manchisi, 2004) quoted by Simwinga (2006:38). Later on, this recommendation prompted the British colonial office to formally recognize four main local languages; Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga and Lozi as regional official languages to be used in government schools as a medium of instruction for the first four years of primary education (see Annual Report on Native Education for the Year, 1927). English however, was still predominantly used as it covered all government business as well as education from the fifth grade to the highest level of education. This went on until Zambia gained independence in 1964 (Kula, 2004).

Nonetheless, at independence, Zambia was hit with a question of a language to use as a national language. As Kaplan and Baldauf (1997: 7) point out that “at independence, African countries needed to select a language or languages that could serve the needs of national unification. Countries needed a language that could be used to enhance the myth of historical identity that was spoken by some significant segment of the population and

was acceptable to other population segments. The government of the republic of Zambia declared English as a language of instruction and official use at independence because there was need to promote unity. This was so because English was considered a neutral language that did not belong to any linguistic or ethnic group in Zambia. Some scholars have argued that English has politically united the people of Zambia by preventing the conflicts that would have obviously risen if the government had chosen one of the Zambia languages as a national official language. This argument however is subject to debate among many other scholars. The promotion of English added a new dimension to the linguistic dispensation of the country as the educated Zambian added English to their bi/multilingual repertoire.

According to the 2010 census, Zambia's most widely spoken languages were Bemba at (33.5%), Nyanja (14.8%), Tonga (11.4%) and Lozi (5.5%). An urban variety of Nyanja is the lingua franca of the capital Lusaka and is widely spoken as a second language throughout Zambia. Bemba, the country's largest indigenous language, also serves as a lingua franca in some areas as is it a common language used at bus stations and market places in most of the provinces of Zambia. The aforementioned languages are among the seven regional official languages of the country. Others include, Lunda, Luvale and Kaonde.

According to Marten and Kula (2007) the seven Zambian national languages are used alongside English in a number of contexts. We have already mentioned their increasing use in primary education and on the radio. They are also used to disseminate specific government policy or health information (e.g. in cholera alerts). Furthermore, the national languages are the main mediums of wider communication in particular in spoken language and in less formal contexts, although they are also used in the lower ranks of formal administration. Local court proceedings are mostly conducted in a local national language although the legislating judicial law is in English. Another example is that of police interrogations which are also in the local or regional language. Each language has a specific regional base, where it is predominantly used. Bemba is the main language of the Northern, Luapula, Copperbelt, and, to a lesser extent, Central provinces. Nyanja is the main language of the Eastern province as well as of Lusaka. Tonga of the Southern province, and Lozi of the Western province. Lunda, Luvale, and Kaonde are spoken in the Northwestern

province. These seven regional official Zambian languages are used for literacy campaigns, radio broadcasting, and dissemination of official government information, political statements and in courts of law in their respective regions. The seven regional official languages are also used in news broadcasts on television (TV) as well as other light entertainment programs.

Apart from the seven regional official languages, English is the national official language and is the first language of only 2% of Zambians but also most commonly used second language. It is used for the administration of the country, in parliament, as a medium of instruction in schools and for all national and international official communication. The use of English as an official language has its historical origins from its use under the British colonial rule.

In addition to indigenous Zambian languages, English is the main ‘foreign’ language with a few other European and Asian languages that plays a significant role with the Bantu languages of the country. Most notable is Swahili, which has small settlements on the Copperbelt and Northern provinces.

Zambia is a linguistically complex and dynamic country, with a range of different languages playing different roles in different contexts. This has led to an interaction between the Zambian local languages and English in many different contexts. This interaction seem to have influences some changes in the way English is spoken in the country.

### **1.2.1.English use in Zambia**

English as a national official language is extensively used in Zambia. Owing to government decisions since independence, English is required to be used in schools as the only medium of instruction from grade five to the highest level of education. It is also used in parliament, for the administration of the country, for all national and international official communication, and in the more important commercial and industrial institutions. The use of English as an official language has its historical origins in the colonial period (Maten and Kula, 2007).

To ensure smooth running of the administration and communication between the colonial masters and the local people of Northern Rhodesia, colonial masters set up schools to teach first English and then other subjects through English in order to provide a local workforce able to communicate in the languages. As time went on, and the number of students increased, the English-medium schools began to recruit local non-native teachers. Their English was, inevitably different from that of their native speaker teachers and the differences grew still more marked among the children who were taught by non-native speakers (Jenkins 2006: 26). Differences could be seen in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary/idiom and discourse style. With the promotion of the seven regional lingua francas to be used alongside English for functional literacy and public education, variations can be said to be distinct due to the influence of the mother-tongue languages on English.

According to UNICEF (2016), the current language policy takes a much firmer stand on the use of Zambian languages in education. A strong statement is further made, that the January 2013 National Guide for language of instruction practice, published by the Zambian Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education mandates that Zambian languages replace English as medium of instruction in Grades one to four, in all primary schools in the nation. The Ministry declared that “familiar languages will be used for teaching initial literacy and content subjects in the early education (pre-school) and lower primary school (Grades one to four) (MoESVTEE, 2013:3). The term “familiar language” as used in the policy is not referring to the seven regional languages, but rather to the local language of the community. This dramatic policy change is based on the advocacy of Zambian linguists such as Sampa, (2005); Muyebea (2009); Tambulakani and Bus (2012) among others, who argued that the use of English as medium of instruction was not serving the nation well. This however has not helped in that the use of English at lower levels of education is still seen. Despite the medium of instruction being local languages at primary level (Grade one to four), the text books used for learning are still in English as most of them have not been translated into the local languages. Then arguably, we can say that English is used even at primary schools as pupils read in English despite having explanations in the local languages. This has thus promoted the use of English and the Zambian local languages side by side. This promotion has brought about a very close

interaction which may have resulted into deviations in the English spoken by indigenous Zambian.

The use of English in schools, especially primary level just shows how a Zambian learner is introduced to the interaction between the English language and the Bantu languages of Zambia. As school years go by, one becomes acquainted with English and one's native language or language of classroom instruction (probably one of the regional official languages). This has led to the birth of code switching, mixing, blending and so forth because rules of English and the Bantu languages are learnt at a young age by the Zambian speaker. All these are because of language contact that goes on in English and Zambian Bantu languages.

The use of English is not limited to schools but also widely used in the media, in government, business and in many formal and semi-formal contexts, especially in urban settings. In the Media, the two major national daily newspapers, the *Times of Zambia*, and the *Daily Mail* are all in English. Print media, in the recent past, in the local languages was left to small publishing, done weekly or monthly in magazines, pamphlets, brochures and flyers. Nevertheless, overtime, the Zambian National Broadcasting Corporation (ZNBC), Muvi TV, prime TV, Diamond TV and many other TV stations where presentation of programs is done in a Zambian language of choice, sees changes in television programmes. This is seen more especially on Muvi TV programmes such as *Ready for marriage, beads and lipstick* and so many others. Since TV and Radio is trying to capture the needs of people's lifestyles. Interviewees are seen to be expressing themselves in a language they are comfortable with. On most radio stations, English is used extensively on radio alongside local languages covering a range of topics from political and economic issues to general issues through interviews and 'phone-in' programmes where callers comment live on various issues of general interest.

Additionally, English has gone further from education and official public use to use in homes. As Kashoki (1990:11) states, 'English has occupied a unique position in the life of the Zambian, especially that of the Zambian elite, who in any case is the person who matters when questions of language are debated. English has also occupied a central position as far as political unification and natural development is concerned. It is easy to conclude that it

is the instrument perhaps the only one, for 'national unity'. English has not only been used for official purposes but in homes as well. Parents nowadays encourage their children from pre-school level to speak English at all times and speak English with them instead of their Bantu languages. For some children, it can be argued that English is their first language. This is so if by first language we mean a language that a person learns first as a child at home. According to Jenkins (2006:15), a number of the so-called English as second language (ESL) countries such as Singapore and Nigeria, some English speakers learn language as either their first language or one of two or more equivalent languages within their bi-multilingual repertoires. This is so because they want their children to be viewed as the elite in society. This has gone to the extent that whenever one meets a child, they would greet them in English in the hope that the child knows English as well. Thus, for some children in Zambia, English is their first language. Banda (1995:5) postulates that, in Zambia the English language has been internalized to such an extent that 'in urban Zambia', it is increasingly becoming unmarked for a father or even grandparent to use English in communicating with children and other family members. English is beginning to assume the role of first language in some homes in Zambia. English use in homes shows that English has spread in its use from public domain to private domain.

The widespread use of English in Zambia and interaction with the Bantu languages in the country seems to have led to an English that is different from the yardstick. The differences can be seen at all the linguistic levels; grammar, syntax, semantics and more markedly at the phonological level. This study therefore sought to consider these differences at the phonological level.

Deviations and variations in pronunciation of English has been noted in many other varieties of English in the world but there seems to have been no study with empirical evidence in Zambia that has been conducted to show any such deviations/variations which may lead to an English used in Zambia to be a variety in its own right. The bulk of the studies on Zambian English have used as their data base examples from students' written exercises (see Simukoko 1977, 1981; Hayes 1982, 1984; Lawrence and Sarvan 1983; Serpell 1978 and Chisanga 1987). This study goes beyond written exercises but records actual pronunciations of the English spoken by indigenous Zambians. We cannot talk about

the English spoken in Zambia being different if we do not understand what Standard English is. The next section therefore describes the concept of Standard English.

### **1.2.2. Standard English and Received Pronunciation**

Standard English is usually perceived as a phenomenon of Standard British English (SBE). According to Trudgill (2000:6), the historical perspective of English language standardization explains that the standard variety of the English language stems from the unification of the various English dialects that were used by scholars, writers and clerks in London area. Fisher (1996:9) also adds on that these were predominantly graphemic copies of clerks which created standard. Because of the fact that all writings were dictated, clerks got used to write in almost the same style, syntax and orthography. As these clerk's graphemic copies were later distributed and preserved, they contributed to English language standardization. Nowadays, a concept of Standard English is perceived as a variety of English, which is used by educated people in newspapers and television (Mikula'sti'kova' 2012:17). SBE can then be said to be a unified form of language that stemmed from English dialects spoken in Britain. The *Collins Oxford Dictionary* describes SBE as the dialect of spoken English regarded as Standard in England and considered as having high social status in comparison with other British English dialects. It is spoken in Southern Britain hence other scholars refer to it as Southern Standard British English (SSB). SSB is a regional variety spoken across the south of England from East Anglia and Kent in the east to Devon and Cornwall in the Southwest. Accent boundaries for the dialects of British English are typically fussy, isoglosses shifting with trends in sound change. Southern British English is the modern equivalent of what has been called Received Pronunciation (RP). The term 'standard' has been forced out, what guides is the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) that is used in place of RP.

Traditionally, Standard English is the medium of the upper and (especially professional) middle class, and largely of education. Although not limited to one accent (most notably in recent decades), it has been associated since at least the 19th century with the accent that, since the 1920s, has been called *Received Pronunciation*, and with the phrases the

*Queen's English, the King's English, Oxford English, and British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) English* (McArthur, 2002).

Received pronunciation is the only standard accent that is connected with Standard English. The historical development of RP claimed that this accent was created as the favoured accent among aristocracy and upper-middle class who could afford to pay a fee at English "Public Schools" for their children. Later, RP was established as an accent of BBC announcements and as a language of prestige. Trudgill (2000:7) notes that 'the most peculiar feature of RP lies in its neutral character, as it is difficult to distinguish the origins of its speakers.' RP is the only representing accent of Standard English, General American English (usually referred to as GenAm or GA) is the only neutral accent standing for Standard American. Both the accents, RP and GA, have many similarities as well as many differences. The most recognizable distinction between these two accents can be observed in pronunciation of postvocalic /r/ in words like *father*, *car*. Whereas speakers of RP do not pronounce the postvocalic /r/ in these words, speakers of GA English do.

RP is probably the most widely studied and most frequently described variety of spoken English in the world, yet recent estimates suggest only 2% of the UK population speak it in Southern England. It has a negligible presence in Scotland and Northern Ireland. It is arguably losing its prestige status in Wales. It properly should be described as an English, rather than a British accent. As well as being a living accent, RP is also a theoretical linguistic concept. It is the accent on which phonemic transcriptions in dictionaries are based, and it is widely used (in competition with General American) for teaching English as a foreign language. RP is basically educated Southern British English (Torto, 2013).

Zambian speakers, therefore, at independence adopted to use RP in all formal domains. However, due to what linguists' term mother tongue interference, RP is not spoken the same way at all the different linguistic levels. Because there has been a legacy of English in Zambia, the historical dimension, and because Zambia is plurilingual in the linguistic dimension, there is no doubt that the English used here is undergoing change (Africa, 1983).



Moreover, Kashoki (1990) raises pertinent issues regarding the status of RP in Zambia as he asks whether RP is attainable in Zambia and wonders if Zambia has the tools to make it attainable. A common trend seen in Zambia is that ‘a Zambian who refines his speech to the point of articulating like an English man from Southern England usually receives ridicule from his compatriots. He will be accused of wishing to sound like a white or wishing to be one, which is not a welcome compliment. From Kashoki’s (1978) arguments, the conclusion drawn is that the education system should therefore not impose RP on its learner as there are no RP speakers to teach the language. The teacher of English today speaks and teaches a form of English that is an ‘Africanised/Zambianised’ English and his learners learn it and use it as well. They grow up with it. The media disseminates information in the same version of English. The fact that there is a widespread use of an English peculiar to the Zambian culture cannot be overlooked. This study thus sought to look into these peculiarities of the English spoken in Zambia at the phonological level.

Signs of nativisation of English in Zambia are quite common and seen at all the linguistic levels. Some aspects have since been documented by linguists like Africa (1983), Lawrence and Sarvan (1983), Chishimba (1984), Richardson (1962), Simukoko (1977) and Chisanga (1987). Chishimba (1984) defines phonological nativisation as a process by which phonetic segments of the target language (TL) are made to sound like those of the speaker’s native language. However, there seems to be no clear documentation, particularly, at the phonological level to establish the extent to which the nativisation process of English spoken by Zambians has reached by identifying phonological variations.

### **1.2.3. The Phonology of Zambian Languages**

It is important then to give a brief account on the phonology of the Zambian languages in order to understand the differences in the languages that are interacting that is, Zambian languages and English. Zambia is linguistically diverse endowed with so many languages. Virtually all languages spoken in Zambia belong to the Bantu family, except of course, the more recent European and Indian languages and the small number of Khoisan languages (Marten & Kula, 2007). The majority of Zambians have more than one language in their

linguistic repertoire and can choose from among these languages, both for communication and for ethnic and linguistic identities.

Kashoki (1978) makes a comprehensive sound system of all the Bantu languages of Zambia. He asserts that they all have a five contrastive vowel system as shown below:

**Table 1: Zambian Languages Vowel System**

	Front (unrounded)	Central (unrounded)	Back (rounded)
High	i		u
Mid	e		o
Low		a	

Vowels are realized as either long or short. Long vowels are usually orthographically shown by doubling of the letter. For instance:

Bemba: *Mona* ‘look’

*Moona* ‘nose’

Lunda: *kwimba* ‘to sing’

*Kwiimba* ‘to dig’

In all languages of Eastern province and in several languages of the North Western province, the penultimate syllable of a word is always lengthened. A similar lengthening will be found to occur in some languages in positions of the word other than the penultimate one. In many Zambian languages (ZLs), for example, the vowel before a nasal plus another consonant, for example, mp, nt, ns, and many more is always long. Vowels from two adjacent parts always fuse (Kashoki, 1978).

Vowels are similar in many languages, however, there are a few differences when it comes to consonants but the common ones are many as shown in appendix one. There are some rare consonants in ZLs such as dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ commonly found in Mbunda of North Western province and Simaa, Kwandu, Mbowe, Mbukushu and Nkoya in Western

province. /y/ in Tonga and Tumbuka. Almost all Zambian Languages show all four nasal consonant contrasts /m, ɱ, n, ŋ/. Another common distinction is lack of distinction between /l/ and /r/ whereby chicken can be pronounced as either *nzolo* or *nzoro* in Kaonde, *mpilimplili* or *mpirimpiri* ‘chili’ in Bemba.

Moreover, the syllable structure of ZLs is typically one that ends with vowels. Relatively all syllables in ZLs just like most BLs end in vowels commonly known as open syllables. Syllable boundaries are shown by use of (.). For instance:

Lozi: /βu.si.hu/ ‘night’ has CV.CV.CV

Lunda: /ku.di.ma/ ‘to cultivate’ has CV.CV.CV

Bemba: /ci.ku.lu/ ‘grandfather’ has CV.CV.CV

Nyanja: /bwe.la/ ‘come’ has CCV.CV

Tonga: /ka.βo.tu/ ‘fine’ CV.CV. CV

Kaonde: /ku.ja/ ‘to eat’ has CV.CV

Lunda: /nswa.na/ ‘successor’ has CCCV. CV

Typically, ZLs syllable are made up of vowels (V) and consonants (C), so the patterns are as follows: V, CV, CCV and CCCV. Only Lozi is reported to have words ending in consonants (Kashoki, 1978). The highest consonant cluster being CCCV, which is basically made of three consonants comprising a nasal (N), any other consonant (C) and a semi-vowel (S) thus, having an NCSV structure. The combination of such a structure can only be made of the sounds mentioned otherwise the basic structure of a syllable in Bantu languages is CV. Understanding the syllable structure of the Bantu languages spoken in Zambia will help in understanding the phonological trends that occur among ‘Zambian English’ speakers in the media.

Most importantly is the fact that all Bantu languages are tonal languages and generally have two distinctive tones: High and Low (Kisseberth and Odden, 2003:59). This means ZLs are also tonal which is in contrast to the English language as it is a stress language. How words are pronounced in tonal languages will differ from how they are pronounced

in stress languages as placing of tone and stress in words differ considerably. As mentioned earlier, English is a stress language that comes into contact with the Zambian Bantu languages that are tonal languages. Thus, there could be influence of one language on another through the interaction that might bring about variations in the way the English language is spoken by the non-native speakers of Zambia. This study hence sought to establish whether the phonology of Zambian Languages influences the phonology of the English spoken in the country at the point of interaction.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

When English migrates to foreign countries from what is known to be native areas, it diffuses, acculturates, adapts and diversifies, resulting into a localized or nativized linguistic variety with its own unique characteristics. Such characteristics may have some marked differences from what is known to be Standard English or other varieties, more generally, spoken in what is has been known as the ‘Centre’ (see Canagarajah, 2006), leading to an emergent variety of English. In Zambia, since the introduction of the language, English has interacted with several Bantu languages spoken in the country as it is used in social, political and cultural domains, among others. It is common knowledge therefore that there has been language contact between English and the local languages in Zambia. This contact has resulted into the development of a phonologically variant form of English with its own peculiar linguistic characteristics at various levels of linguistic analysis. However, these linguistic peculiarities have not been studied at all levels of linguistics except for a few studies that have attempted to explore Zambian English variations at the grammatical and lexical levels such as Chisanga (1987), Simukoko (1977) and some seminar papers, Moody (1984), Africa (1983) and Chishimba (1985). These studies have established that these forms are deviant from the SBE. Clearly, there is hardly a study in Zambia that has sought to examine the phonological variations that are critical in determining the extent to which ‘Zambian English’ could be said to be a variant form of English in its own right.

#### **1.4 Aim**

The aim of the study is to examine the phonological features of English as spoken by indigenous Zambians in the media in order to establish the extent to which this form could be said to be deviant from Standard British English.

#### **1.5 Research Objectives**

This study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- i. Identify ‘deviant’ segmental features of English as spoken by indigenous Zambians;
- ii. Examine the phonological processes that give rise to the phonological deviations established in (i); and
- iii. Analyse stress placement in the English spoken by indigenous Zambians.

#### **1.6 Research Questions**

In order to meet the objectives stated above; the following questions were addressed:

- i. What are the ‘deviant’ segmental features of English as spoken by indigenous Zambians?;
- ii. What are the phonological processes that give rise to the English spoken by indigenous Zambians? and
- iii. How do indigenous Zambian English speakers place stress in English?

#### **1.7 Rationale**

The rapid spread of English as a language of communication has no doubt stimulated interesting but at the same time controversial debate about the status of English in its varieties, which are commonly called World Englishes. The fact that English as used in Zambia is different from the yardstick, RP, cannot be overlooked and thus this study added to the body of Knowledge about World Englishes. Importantly, this study gave features and nuances of the English that are peculiar to the Zambian users that showed the nativization of the English language in Zambia from a phonological point of view.

Moreover, it also highlighted how the English language has being influenced by local indigenous languages in a multilingual setting resulting into pronunciation differences.

These pronunciation issues start from the education system, this study therefore, gave insight to language policy formulators on the common trends happening in English spoken in the media so as to help policy formulators to provide proper guidance to the education system from the phonological point of view on which variety of English to use in schools. Through this study, it was hoped that one day Zambians will be able to acknowledge the existence of a variety of English in Zambia in its own right. Besides, one day come up with a codified form like Nigerians have done with the production of the *A Dictionary of Nigerian English Usage* and South Africans with *The Oxford Dictionary of South African English*. This is because it seems that we are moving towards a phonological distinct variety of English. Such forms help the foreigner and native alike to recognize and learn the varieties of English peculiar to the native usage and gain a more in-depth understanding of the state of the English language in a country that has nativized it.

### **1.8 Definition of key concepts**

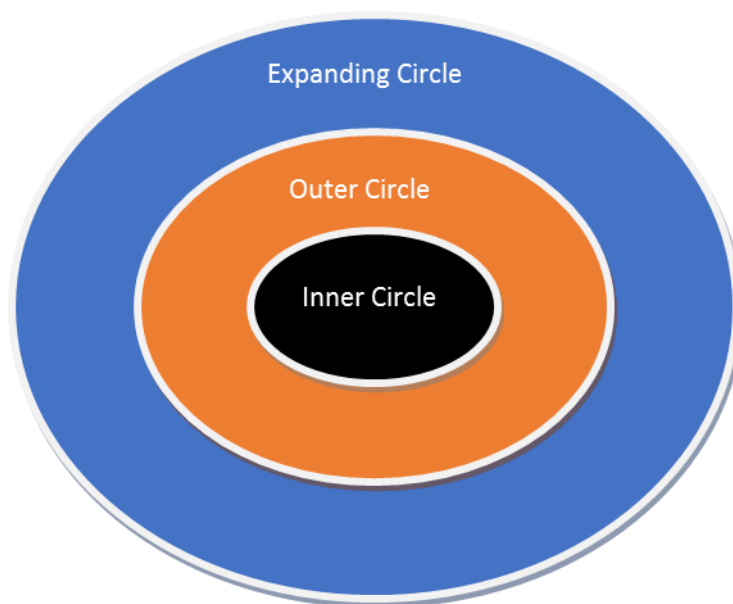
This study made reference to some linguistic concepts which need to be defined lest they be misunderstood

1. World Englishes is a term for emerging localized or indigenized varieties of English (Kachru, 1992)
2. Phonology is the study of the sound structure in a language (Oden 2005:2). It deals with phonemes, sound systems and processes including those that occur when morphemes come together.
3. Received Pronunciation (RP) is basically educated southern British English (Torto, 2013).
4. A syllable is a unit of pronunciation having a vowel with or without surrounding consonants.
5. Nativisation is a process by which a language foreign to a community acquires characteristics which were not originally present in the language as it is used by its native speakers (Torto 2013)

## 1.9 Theoretical Framework

English being a global language, spoken by different ethnic groups and found in different linguistic environments has no doubt developed varieties that probably reflect local nuances but nonetheless mutually intelligible. These varieties have come to be known as World Englishes. The varieties have come up due to interaction with other languages. This research therefore is governed by a combination of two theories, these being the theory of World Englishes popularized by Braj Kachru and Contact Linguistics by Uriel Weinreich (1968).

According to Kachru (1992), the spread of English has been put in a model of World Englishes. This is one of the most influential models in explaining linguistic phenomena related to the spread of English across the world. In this model the diffusion of English is captured in terms of three concentric circles of the language. The three concentric circles represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts (Jenkins, 2009). The circles are categorized into Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle as illustrated in figure 1 below:



**Figure 1: Kachruvian Model of World Englishes (Kachru, 1992)**

According to Kachru (1992), the Inner Circle refers to English as it originally took shape and was spread across the world in the first diaspora. The Inner circle thus represents the

traditional, historical and sociolinguistic bases of English in regions where it is now used as a primary language. English is the native language or mother tongue of most people in these countries. Countries in the inner circle include the US and the UK. The Outer circle of English is produced by the second diaspora of English, which spread the language through imperial expansion by Great Britain in Asia and Africa. In these regions, English is not the native tongue, but serves as a useful lingua franca among ethnic and language groups. Countries in the outer circle include Nigeria, Ghana, Malaysia and Zambia. The Expanding Circle encompasses countries where English plays no historical or governmental role, but where it is nevertheless widely used as a medium of international communication. The expanding circle include countries like Japan, Korea, China and Egypt.

The inner, outer and expanding circles are normatively characterized as Norm-producing, Norm-developing and Norm-dependent users respectively. Norm-producing because language norms are developed in these countries, norm-developing because language norms of the inner circle are changed to meet the speakers communicative needs and norm-dependent because speakers rely on the standards set by the native speakers in the inner circle.

This sociolinguistic scenario is also aptly captured by Quirk (1985). He categorises the inner circle as comprising English as a Native language (ENL) countries such as Great Britain, United States, Canada and Australia among others. The outer circle comprising English as Second Language (ESL) countries such as Nigeria, India, Singapore, Tanzania, Zambia, Ghana, Uganda and Kenya among others. The expanding circle as comprising English as a Foreign Language (EFL) countries such Germany, Russia, China, France, Belgium, Italy, Saudi Arabia, Greece (Adedimeji, 2006). In the post-colonial contexts of the Outer Circle, one finds many people who regularly use English as a second language (ESL users), in addition to their first language. English often has official status in the country and maybe used as the medium for government business or education, and often as a national lingua franca in multilingual countries. However, the majority of the population does not necessarily use the language often, and there may be a sizeable group of native speakers.



This Kachruvian model makes English plural so that one English becomes many Englishes. Moreover, the model does not suggest that one variety is linguistically better than another is. It only suggests that English has multicultural identities (Kachru 1985:357).

In the development of a new variety in the outer circle, there is co-existence of local languages and imported languages. This co-existence tends to influence one another and thereby bringing linguistic variations and changes at the phonological, grammatical, vocabulary, stylistic and syntactic levels of analysis. Zambia is a country or rather speech community where the local Bantu languages co-exist with an 'imported' language, English. Thus most certainly there are variations and changes in the way English is spoken as variations and changes in varieties of English are natural and inevitable (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Consequently, linguistic features, which differ from Standard English, are not necessarily errors but new components of a new English. This is because speakers of a foreign language develop norms to accommodate their communicate needs.

Therefore, how the norms in Zambia have developed is governed by contact linguistics. Contact linguistics is a study of language contact. The phenomenon of language contact has received considerable attention from many researchers in the field of language and applied language studies over the years, including Thomason and Kaufman (1988), Thomason (2001), Weinreich (1968) and Winford (2002). Language contact occurs when two or more languages or varieties interact in a given speech community resulting in both direct and indirect influence of one or more languages on another. The most common way that languages influence each other is the exchange of words. The influence can go deeper, extending to the exchange of even basic characteristics of a language such the phonology of a language. Language contact of two languages can also result in the replacement of one by the other. This is most common when one language has a higher social position (prestige). This sometimes leads to language endangerment or extinction.

However, when language shift occurs, the language that is replaced can leave a profound impression on the replacing language, when people retain features of the substratum as they learn the new language and pass these features on to their children, leading to the development of a new variety. Language contact can also lead to the development of new languages when people without a common language interact closely, developing a pidgin,

which may eventually become a full-fledged creole language through the process of creolization. According to Sebba (1997), language contact, can in some instances, lead to the formation of a pidgin, a Creole, or even the birth of a new language altogether. It is therefore common knowledge that languages can influence each other in so many ways in a language contact situation. Therefore, this study through examining the phonological features of English as spoken by indigenous Zambians sought to establish the extent to which the English spoken by indigenous Zambians could be said to deviate from SBE.

The present study was conceived on the understanding that a situation of language contact exists between English and the local languages of Zambia and thus it was assumed that language contact may have influenced the norms of SBE and thus created some linguistic changes that have manifested into a 'new' variety of English in Zambia. This type of English falls under what is known as 'New' Englishes. Therefore, Kachru's spread of English and emergence of new varieties of English can be accounted for by contact linguistics. Language contact and thus geography are important factors influencing language change and development (Kortmann, 2010).

### **1.9.1 'New' Englishes**

The term "New" Englishes covers a large number of varieties that are far from uniform in their characteristics and current use. 'New' Englishes nevertheless share certain features. Platt, Weber and Ho (1984: 2-3) gives the criteria that characterize what is known as a New English as follows:

1. One which has developed through the education system. This means that the language is learnt extensively in schools, that is, from pre-school to tertiary;
2. One which has developed in an area where a native variety of English was not the language spoken by most of the population;
3. One used in a range of functions among those who speak or write in the region where it is used; and
4. One which has become 'localised' or 'nativised' by adopting some language features of its own, such as sounds, intonation patterns, sentence structure, words and expressions.

‘New’ Englishes are for the most part learnt as a second language or as one language within a wider multilingual repertoire of acquisition. This group include, for example, Indian English, Phillipine English, Nigerian English and Singapore English. Many scholars therefore raise a strong statement; among them is Kachru (1992) who argues that ‘New’ Englishes should be considered in their own right, not in terms of their differences from a particular native variety. This study was thus guided by this theorization in the quest to establish if English as spoken by educated indigenous Zambians could be seen in its own right from the phonological perspective instead of comparing it to the yardstick.

### **1.10 Scope of the Study**

The study did not look at every aspect of English language use but just the spoken in order to get the phonological characteristics however not every activity where English is spoken was studied but media. The study also limited itself to looking at English as used in the media at the phonological level and not at all the other linguistic levels. Moreover, the study was not a comparative one but used RP as a reference point in its discussion.

### **1.11 Limitations of the Study**

The study did not look at English spoken by indigenous Zambians on media at all the other linguistic levels; morphology, syntax, discourse styles due to the limited time of the study. The other limitation is that the findings could not be said to be a general trend among all speakers of English in Zambia because the study limited itself looking at the English used on media and not many other domains in which English is also commonly used. Moreover, there was no soundfile software in the school laboratory that could help with phonetic transcriptions of the words and sentences that were collected. The researcher had to do it intuitively.

### **1.12 Structure of the Dissertation**

The dissertation is organised into seven chapters. The first chapter is the introduction of the study that presents the background of the study, objectives and theoretical framework. Chapter two reviews literature that was directly related to the study so as to put the research within the context of other similar studies and provide justification for it. Chapter three presents the methodology used in the study. Chapter four discusses the segmental features of the English spoken by the indigenous Zambians. Chapter five discusses the phonological

processes that give rise to the deviations of English from SBE found in chapter four. Chapter six discusses the findings on stress placement by indigenous Zambians and chapter seven provides a summary of the study and then draws a conclusion and makes recommendations.

### **1.13 Summary**

The chapter has introduced the study by giving the background to the study and discussed key and relevant phenomena pertaining to the language situation in Zambia. The statement of the problem, aim, objectives, research questions and significance of the study are presented. The theoretical framework as well as operational definitions are also presented followed by the methodological framework, scope of the study, limitations of the study and structure of the dissertation.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 General**

This chapter reviews works conducted on the varieties of English language in many countries. It first starts by looking at related studies conducted in Zambia and then goes on to further look at those done in other parts of the world. It is worth noting that the process of nativization of English started soon after English began spreading from the British Isles. As Britain established American colonies in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, an American version of English was developed simultaneously and overtime are varieties of English in various places where English spread and emerged as well. Different scholars have referred to the process of nativization with different names such as indigenization, acculturation, domestication, hybridization, localization meaning the same thing. All pointing to an emergency of a 'new' English.

In works within world/new Englishes paradigm, it is customary to distinguish different varieties of the outer circle Englishes. These different levels are labelled as basilect, mesolect and acrolect, although these consist of a continuum. Acrolect is a type of English that tends towards Standard English. It is the educated variety that is referred to as institutionalized. Mesolect is an informal style of English, spoken fluently by educated speakers but because of salient features of pronunciation, it cannot be overly judged as prestigious. This is the variety spoken by the educated in Zambia. Moreover, basilect is one that signifies the uneducated style of speech communication often termed as broken English (something below expectation or standard). The variety therefore under investigation in this study is the mesolect.

### **2.2 Studies in Zambia**

There are many studies in Zambia previously conducted focusing on English however; little work has been done in Zambia that has looked at the variety spoken in Zambia. Among these are Chishimba (1983) who worked on African varieties in general as reflected in African literature. Other works have been seminar papers presented at the University of Zambia (Hayes 1982, Africa 1983, Lawrence and Sarvan 1983, Moody 1984). Moody

(1985) and Chisanga (1987) so far seem to be ones that have done detailed work on the variety of English in Zambia. Otherwise, many works have been on English in education.

The earliest observation of what can be termed as ‘Zambian English’ was made by Richardson (1962) in his observations on *African English in Northern Rhodesia* at the 1962 colloquium at Brazzaville in which he makes two main observations in the use of idiomatic expressions and phonetic characteristics. He suggests that the salient features of African English are to be faced largely in phonetic characteristics and idiomatic usage. Phonetically, he remarks on ‘the failure to accommodate African sound to that odd Standard English and the superimposition of the complicated vowels on an African five vowel system. On idiomatic expressions, he notes the eccentric use of many expressions which are not so misused as a result in incomprehension but which are sufficiently strange to cause the uninitiated from the United Kingdom to hesitate in their acceptance of the utterance. His presentation however did not explicitly state the differences in phonetic characteristics, as there was no empirical evidence to show the changes at the phonetic level. This study therefore endeavours to go even further beyond the phonetic level onto the phonological level to look at what exactly happens in the differences that occur in pronunciations.

Richardson thus made an interesting forecast, which foreshadowed Simukoko’s investigation. He predicted that the English that will be spoken in Zambia by 1982 will be a version that is a standard to the territory but different in several ways from Standard English is the United Kingdom.

Therefore, Simokoko (1977) carried out a *preliminary investigation into some features of a Zambian variety of English with particular reference to Bemba speakers*. In his study, he first recognizes the fact that local varieties of English had emerged in the former British colonies and territories with characteristic features marked by divergence from English varieties used as native languages, such as British English and American English. In addition, goes on further to state that elements that constitutes a second language such as the English variety used in Zambia depends entirely on whether or not we are prepared to accept the local variety as an independent linguistic system describable by normal descriptive techniques. He postulates that the language situation in Zambia was

complicated by the fact that it was very difficult to determine what constitute erratic or random variations and systematic ‘rule-governed’ usage.

Simukoko therefore, makes an assumption on the English used in Zambia in which he states that ‘Zambian English is a linguistic system which has deviated from target language norms because of interlingual factors such as language transfer, transfer of training, communication strategies and over-generalization of TL rules.’ This assumption was viewed as a confirmation of the fact that for the average Zambian English user-learner the chances of exposure to natively spoken forms of English were very small indeed. The situation at that moment was that there was a possibility of encountering authentic and more approximate forms at the secondary school, colleges of vocational training and of education, and at university, but even more then the speaker-learner would have passed the ‘critical period’ of language learning (Lenneberg 1968). Therefore, using data collected between January to march 1974, through translation elicitation tests, personal observations, reading lists and story from Kasama Township Simukoko observes the following realisations among the Bemba speakers. In terms of consonants /h/ was realized as a glottal /ʔ/, /r/ was realized as /l/ and /ʒ/ as /ʒ<sup>j</sup>/. Diphthongs were realized as long vowels, for instance, /eɪ/ in words like *rain* and *maize* was realized as /ɛ:/. Others were realized as disyllabic, for example, *hair* /hɛja/, *ear* /ijɛ/, *sure* /ʃuwa/. Triphthongs also tended to be disyllabic in words like *fair* /faja/, *hour* /awa/.

Simukoko (1977)’s study attempted to establish a descriptive sketch of the interlanguage (IL) of the Bemba speakers relative to English by a process of extrapolation from the common features of Bemba informants. However, the features arrived at were not exhaustive which the researcher also recognizes (Simukoko 1977:70). His study did not attempt a detailed analysis of the distributional differences in the phonological patterns of Bemba and English that this study wishes to make and beyond the Bemba speaker, but a Bantu language speaker of Zambia. The study also excluded vowels such as diphthongs and triphthongs and only concerned itself with the pure vowels which can be seen to be inadequate as a study of the variety of English in relation to any native language should be looked into at all phonetic aspects to make a conclusion that such a variety exists.

Simukoko (1977) however makes recommendations which this study takes on in which he suggests that attention to be made on influence of native language tones and rhythms in IL speech and that further research should include suprasegmentals and bigger utterance units.

Many other scholars investigated the possible emergence of Zambian English like Africa (1983) who attributes it to fossilization of certain forms due to the inadequate number of years spent in schools. However, this argument is disputable as Zambians today spend quite a considerable amount of time in school for at least seventeen years. This is divided in such a way that the first two years are spent in pre-school, twelve in primary and secondary school then at least three to four years in tertiary education. Moreover, with the new working policy, pupils spend more time in schools as compared to being home because they are expected to be in school from 07:00hrs to 16:00hrs. However, Africa's (1983) argument that transfer resulting from mother tongue interference is a possible factor of the emergence of ZE can be said to be true. Other factors include education and language backgrounds, socio-economic status, urban-rural context and motivation factors. Haynes (1984) alludes the possible emergence of ZE to pidginisation and creolisation. Lawrence and Sarvan (1983) investigated acceptability of Zambianisms across different social groups and it was revealed that acceptability varied according to education level, status, sex and other variables.

Moody (1985) through *an analysis of 25 conversations of educated Zambians* speaking in English in different situations about a whole range of subjects compiled a detailed analysis concentrating on code switching and mixing. He concluded that English in Zambia is close to vernacular, not in the traditional sense of the word vernacular, but as Labov (1972b:112) defines it. His study focused on the informal spoken social dialectal form and not on a relatively stable form that teachers and other language policy formulators would look to which this study aims at doing. Moody (1985) indicates that there is a possibility of a 'Zambian Language' emerging in urban areas, one which largely preserves the integrity of both English and Zambian languages as its interrelated components. However, Moody's English conversations of code-switching as examples of Zambian English would be folly. This is because Moody is more concerned with conversational rules of code-switching and their effect on the interlocutors, than with what constitutes Zambian English (Banda 1995).



Another scholar who attempted to look at the variety spoken in Zambia was Chisanga (1987) who investigated *the form and function of educated English in Zambia as a possible indigenized non-native variety*. Her thesis set out to investigate whether or not such a variety as ‘Zambian English’ exists in Zambia. Her work addressed itself to a greater or less extent to the two types of variations that Ferguson (1983) describes, in relation to the spread of English and in particular to the nature and the development of the English language in Zambia as a second language which possibly shows signs today of indigenization. She postulates that after independence, all features of the language that Zambians produced which were perceived as not conforming to the rules of British standard English were unquestionably ‘incorrect’ and to be remedied. However, conforming to the rules of SBE should not be what matters in the use of English but what should be more important is whether communication has taken place or not. The basic line to be drawn between what is correct and ‘incorrect’ should be on whether the interlocutors are comfortable and can easily express themselves, also whether the information has clearly been understood.

Using primary data, Chisanga (1987) compiled compositions written in class and then marked as to the correctness of their language of Zambian teachers. Two sources of information were used: what the teenagers wrote and what the teachers then thought was and was not acceptable. Participants were asked to write two formal essays on topic of their choice from a limited choice of topics. After the scripts were collected, Zambian English teachers were asked to mark the scripts for any incorrect structures. After analyzing the data, it showed that deviations in the school data were not corrected by the teachers in an average of 58% of the total instances of deviations. This was a remarkably high percentage and could not be dismissed as being merely slips of correction. It was discovered that the deviations were not idiosyncratic but quite widespread in the scripts. Moreover, with particular reference to the concept of ‘Zambian English’, 83% of the teachers said they have heard of the concept and 65% of those who responded felt that it should be discouraged as a local educated model for teaching. A few issues can be raised with the way data was collected and analysed. To start with, Chisanga using Zambian English teachers to mark the correctness of pupils’ works is questionable. If she was relating the information to SBE, it would have been ideal and practically sound to use SBE speakers to

identify the grammatical errors. The education system of Zambia is one in a vicious cycle where the grammatical rules of SBE are distorted from the teachers' early school years and these they carry on through secondary school and university and bring them back to class.

In her recommendation she stated that what she had done was merely to indicate the general norms but they need to be formally tested by being presented to a larger selection of educated speakers throughout the country to test their general recognition and acceptability.' Chisanga to a large extent assumed the existence of a Zambian variety of English although it was carefully referred to as 'non-problematic Zambianisms' and did not state what could constitute 'Zambian English' as there was no empirical linguistic evidence that showed Zambian English but mostly assumptions. Her study was at the grammatical level, which makes it different from this study.

The use of English in Zambia has been considered mainly from the recognition and use of specified grammatical forms (Simukoko, 1977; Haynes, 1982; Lawrence and Sarvan, 1983, Chisanga 1987). In these studies, samples of English have been taken from written medium; often student's written exercises and done in a controlled environment. To be able to establish Zambian English existence, research must be conducted in an environment where speech is done freely such as Moody (1985), though his research is somewhat a bit controlled as the interlocutors involved were aware that they are being recorded.

From all the studies conducted, it is noted that an assumption that a variety of English exists in Zambia has been made. However, there has been no detailed description of this variety done at the phonological level. This study will follow on what Moody (1984) suggests. He suggests that English that is used in Zambia should be seen in its own right and not be examined according to how well it approximates to a 'foreign' model because it has developed naturally within its own unique surroundings and the fact that language is a tool and as such belongs to whoever is using it cannot be overlooked. How Zambians have molded and fashioned English was investigated from a phonological perspective. Moreover, most of the aforementioned studies have looked at the variety of English spoken in Zambia in relation to the Bemba speakers and not an English Zambian language speaker.

With regard to phonological deviations, the phonological indices have not been studied well enough to enable one to establish an informed distinction between regional Englishes

and national Englishes (Banda 1999). This study thus endeavored to look into these phonological indices critically in order to establish the extent to which Zambian English can be said to be a variety in its own right.

### **2.3 Other Studies on English Varieties**

This section presents studies conducted on other varieties of English in order to have a general understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. It shows some specific phonological features that exist in different varieties of English.

There are well-known examples of new Englishes, among these include Indian English, Phillipine English, Singaporean English and African Englishes such as Nigerian and South African to mention only a few. In some of these examples mentioned above, English has not only been nativised but also accepted by its speakers and institutionalised. This section will thus look at some studies on some Englishes in the outer circle and inner circle.

#### **2.3.1. English Varieties in Africa**

English in Africa is spoken as either a second or a foreign language. There are many varieties of English spoken in Zambia. Some of the varieties are discussed in this section, particularly looking at the phonological features. Most African countries belong to the outer circle according to the Kachruvian theory of World Englishes. Communities/countries that have English as their second Language are normatively referred to as norm-developing in that English in these areas comes into contact with other languages and thus the contact results into some changes.

##### **2.3.1.1. Ghanaian English**

Among the Englishes of Africa include Ghanaian English (GhE) which is a system of tendencies rather than categorical differences from SBE, depending on various factors such as the speaker's linguistic competence and L1, the level of L2 command of English, the formality of the situation and many other factors. There are many studies that have been conducted on GhE. These include Torto (2013) who carried out a study on the nativisation of English at the phonological level in Ghana. The findings of the study revealed that in

Educated Ghanaian English (EGE) most words are articulated on the basis of their spellings. For instance, in standard pronunciation, the *o*, *oo* and *ou* spellings in the words above are articulated as RP /ʌ/ but in Educated Ghanaian English they were articulated as [ɔ]. There were, however, some exceptional cases in the corpus with regard to the realization of RP /ʌ/. This phonetic characteristic was due to the influence of the Ghanaian languages on English. Thus, his research showed that some innovations in English pronunciation might be due to the contact with languages with which it co-exists. Apart from spelling pronunciation, Huber (2008) sums up all the phonetic features of GhE and states that the 12 RP monophthongs are reduced to five in the system of most ‘Ghanaian’ speakers. These being /a, i, e, ɔ, ʊ/. To these are added half-close /e/ and /o/, which result from the monophthongization of RP diphthongs /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ so that in total, they are seven GhE monophthongs, a system shared with other West African Englishes as most of them share the same sociolinguistics background.

Moreover, Simo Bobda (2000) in his paper on the *uniqueness of Ghanaian English pronunciation in West Africa* showed drastic differences between the pronunciation of English in Ghana and in all the other West African countries with a similar colonial experience and similar sociological and sociolinguistic backgrounds. The paper investigated the distinctiveness of Ghanaian English which involves the restructuring of (RP) /ʌ/, /ɜ:/, post-tonic /a/ with orthographic <er, re, or, our, ur, ous, us, um>, fell before a final /n/, the pronunciation of -able and -ative words, certain words with <a>, the Alternating Stress Rule, and some miscellaneous items. The results showed that /a/ and /e/ substitute for a wide range of (RP) segments. The features identified can only be said to be part of Ghanaian English or west African. With regards to suprasegmentals specifically stress, Simo Bobda (2000) distinguishes Alternating Stress Rule (ASR) in West African Englishes. ASR defined by Chomsky and Halle (1968:78), applies in most varieties of native English. It affects words of three or more syllables ending with a strong cluster (having a tense vowel or a diphthong as the final syllable nucleus, or ending with a consonant cluster). The main stress of these words, underlie on the last syllable by virtue of the strong cluster, moves to the antepenultimate position, by the ASR. The stress of the last syllable then weakens from primary to secondary. Verbs are particularly prone to the ASR. The ASR generally does not apply in West African English, since Cameroonians,

Nigerians, Sierra Leoneans, and Gambians say indi'cate, stimu'late, rea'lise, satis'fy, etc. Educated Ghanaians, in contrast, do shift the primary stress to the antepenultimate syllable, but do not maintain a secondary stress on the last syllable. This results in the verbs *separate*, *legitimate*, *duplicate*, *advocate*, *exercise*, etc., having the same rhythm as the corresponding adjectives or nouns. In Ghanaian English, hypercorrection involving this aspect of pronunciation consists in speakers' shifting the stress even further back, to the pre-antepenultimate position in words of more than three syllables, a shift that yields (verb) 'appreciate, 'negotiate, 'articulate, 'identify, still without a secondary stress on the last syllable.

### **2.3.1.2 Nigerian English**

English in Nigeria has been extensively studied. These studies include Bokamba (1982, 1991) who recognised the existence of Nigerian English (NE) and referred to it as a variety of what he called “West African Vernacular English” (WAVE). Similarly, Jibril (1982) saw NE as part of the continuum of “West African English.” Akere (1982) likewise spoke of the emergence of a “Standard Nigerian English.” Odumuh (1987) recognized NE as one of the new Englishes and stated that “Our position is that there exists at the moment a single super ordinate variety of Standard English in Nigeria which can be regarded as ‘Nigerian English.’ Several other linguists like Salami (1968); Adekunle (1974, 1985); Adetugbo (1979), Adegbija (1989); Kachru (1986), Jowitt (1991); to mention just a few have either written about, or made passing references to this variety of English language.

Additionally, Josiah, Bobunde and Robert (2012) also carried out a study on *the patterns of pronunciations among Nigerian University undergraduates*. The study was intended to find out if the pronunciation of English by Nigerian undergraduates approximates to that of Standard British English (SBE). It was found that many Nigerian undergraduates, who, by and large represent educated Nigerian variety of speakers of English, according to Banjo's (1971) and Fakuade's (1998) classification, could not produce the SBE variant of the English words tested. Therefore, from all indications, the SBE variant posed difficulties to most of the respondents used in the research. One observation that was made with the respondents they used was that some tended to reflect the linguistic background in their pronunciations as a result of mother-tongue interference. A number of them had their

educational training within such linguistic environment; some were influenced by family background; while others were influenced by social exposure. Many others tended to reflect the sociolinguistic background within which the discussion was taking place. Therefore, it was concluded that there was no Nigerian who could speak the Standard English pronunciation.

Olajide and Olaniyi (2013) looking at *Educated Nigerian English phonology as core of a Regional RP* examined the quality of phonemes in terms of closeness or distance from the prestige, SBE, RP and noted that very few Educated Nigerians use English language effectively. This assessment was made from the perception of how few Nigerians (i.e. broadcasters) articulate fricatives, affricates, stops or plosives, continuants and central vowels, correctly. In addition, ended by saying that ‘the Nigerian RP spoken by this very few ‘educated’ people should qualify to be referred to as a regional RP.’

Moreover, a presentation on Nigerian English by Adedimeji (2007) at the 24<sup>th</sup> annual conference of the Nigerian English studies association themed ‘*English in the Nigerian Environment*’ provided a general overview of the linguistic features of Nigerian English, from phonology, morpho-syntactic, lexico-semantics to pragmatics. It was observed that Nigerian English was neither all deviant nor all variant and the two schools of variation and deviation are right or wrong by half. The fundamental pattern is that some forms of Nigerian English are variant and some are deviant. It was found that at the levels of phonology and morpho-syntax, Nigerian English could be said to be largely deviant with few instances of variation. With this, they rejected the claim of Hasman (2000) that all dialects of English are acceptable and that the language has “no standard pronunciation”. At the levels of lexico-semantics and pragmatics, Nigerian English can be said to be largely variant with just some instances of deviation. With this, they validated and agreed to the assertion of Hasman (2000) that “each country that speaks the language can inject aspects of its own culture into the usage”.

Other studies on Nigerian English have shown other features that distinguishes this variety. Some phonological features that occur in Nigerian English (NE) include avoidance of dental fricatives, reduction of final consonant clusters, and the use of syllable-based rhythm (Alabi, 2003, and Kirkpatrick and Deterding, 2011).

Apart from segmental phonology, many scholars have also conducted studies at the suprasegmental level. These include Onose (2010) who tested a passage to determine student's mastery of stress and other suprasegmentals. The results confirm Banjo's (1979) indictment that English stress and intonation is the final hurdle, which the vast majority of speakers of English as a second language never manage to cross. Amayo (1982) in his paper titled *The classification of Nigerian spoken English* sounds even bleaker than Banjo (1979). According to Amayo (1982) the degree of phonological competence does not correspond to that of syntactico- semantics". It is implied that Nigerians' mastery of English is higher in the sphere of syntactico-semantics than in phonology. In his *Popular Nigeria English*, Jowitt (1991) distances the Nigerian Variety from the RP. According to Jowitt at word-level the difference between the supra-segmental phonology of Pidgin NE (PNE) and that of SBE (RP) is most salient in the area of primary accent placement. He further argues that Prosody in Nigeria and in most other varieties has been difficult to master. This study therefore also intends to ascertain if this is a case for Zambian English speakers.

### **2.3.1.3 South African English**

South African English is complex in nature as it distinguishes between various 'ethnic varieties', such as 'Coloured'/Afrikaans, Black, South African Indian, and white English. Each of these varieties in turn extends on a continuum from 'broad' to more 'cultivated' varieties (depending on the educational level and social status of its speakers), with these varieties becoming less distinct at higher levels of education. An additional overlay of variation is the distinction between first and second language varieties.

Studies have been conducted on all the varieties of English in South Africa. Among these include Buthelezi (1995); De Klerk & Gough (2002); Gamaroff (1998); Gough (1996); Kasanga (2006); Makalela (1998, 1999, 2000, 2004, 2007); Roodt (1993), and Van Roy (2000, 2006). Notably, one of the characteristics of South African English (SAFE) is social variation that divided the SAFE variety into three. These being; Cultivated English; one close to Received Pronunciation and is associated with the upper class, General English; associated with the middle class and Broad English; associated with the working class in addition to speakers of Afrikaans who speak English as a second language.

Distinguishing features of SAFE have been established phonologically with particular reference to pronunciation where several sound systems have been discussed in the three distinctive groups mentioned above. Among many other things noted, it was discovered that on vowels in Cultivated and General SAFE, the pronunciation of /æ/ is slightly raised (as in *trap*). However, in Broad varieties, it is often raised to [ɛ]. This means that /æ/ almost becomes /ɛ/ for some speakers, as can be exemplified by the typical SAFE pronunciation of the very name of the country South Africa, which is pronounced as South Efrica. Pertaining to consonants, the following voiced and voiceless plosives are distinctive in South African English: /p, b, t, d, k, g/. These sounds are generally unaspirated in all positions of broad South African English thereby distinguishing it from the remaining formerly mentioned subcategories, namely general and cultivated South African English. On the other hand, in the other varieties of SAFE a voiceless plosive is aspirated (a strong burst of air which is produced with the release of some obstruent) when it comes before a stressed syllable. In the case of Broad South African English, this contrast is neutralised. Alternatively, these speakers have a tendency to pronounce the /t/ and /d/ sounds with some detention by articulating the tongue against the upper teeth (Esteves, 2009)

Earnnsson (2011) has identified some more pronunciation characteristics. The researcher states that the front vowel [i] as in *tin, bit, lip* and the schwa [ə] can generally be considered allophones of the same phoneme, /ə/, making the pairs *Lennon-Lenin, accept-except* and *scented-centred* homophonous (Wells, 1982). The /r/ is often a tap, which means that the tongue is flicked up against the roof of the mouth, interrupting the flow of air, or a trill, which means that the tip of the tongue vibrates in the airstream (Roach, 2001). SAFE is a non-rhotic language, there are no /r/ in words like *car, start* and *dinner* and just like in RP the words *tune* and *duke* are pronounced [tʃu:n] and [dʒu:k] in SAFE. These studies in SAFE are different from the present study in that it endeavored to establish phonological deviation of a Zambian English speaker by not categorizing them into ethnic varieties as most SAFE studies have done. Moreover, South Africa is a multi-cultural country endowed with different races quite in numbers whereas Zambia only has a minute number of other races who are almost marginal.



#### 2.3.1.4 Cameroon English

Mbufong (2013) in his paper addressed the consequences of the spread of the English language all over the world, but particularly in non-native environments like Cameroon, where it remains a L2 (second language) and is one of two official languages (French being the other) competing with over 280 home languages. The aim of his paper was to apply the Kachruvian concept of nativisation with regards to the use of English in Cameroon by users who are native speakers of languages other than English. A comparison of some features of Cameroon English (CE) and British English was made at the levels of phonology, lexis, and grammar. The results suggested that local languages like Lamso, Bafut, Eton, Mungaka, Mokpe, etc., have influenced English as used in Cameroon. In Kachruvian terms, he concludes that English has been nativised/cameroonised. While nativisation is the natural result of linguistic and cultural content, the paper argued that Cameroon's intralingualism and ethnic pluralism have added further levels of complexity to the simple idea of conscious or unconscious innovations in the language to functionally adopt it to the local milieu. He further noted that Cameroonians were not just using a code; they are also expressing an identity, a linguistic belonging to a geographical location called Cameroon. This study is similar to the phenomenon under investigation as it also uses the Kachruvian theory to ascertain where English in Zambia has been nativised at the phonological level.

Phonological features of CE identified with reference to particular languages include, the monophthongization of diphthongs in Lamso where /əu/ is realized as /u/ in words like /gəut/ goat > goal /gut/, /ʃəu/ show > /ʃu/. There is also vowel reduction of /i:/ > /e/. In Makope and Mungaka, /r/ is realized as /l/ in words like rubber > lubber, rice > lice. In Bafut, the voiceless bilabial /p/ is realized as /b/ for instance plum /pləm/ is pronounced as /bləm/, plot /plot/ as /blot/. In Eton, the interdental fricative /θ/ and /ð/ are realized as /t/ and /d/ respectively. Thus, Simo Bobda (2008) compiles studies on CE and shows that CE has seven vowels with a marginal schwa. Marginal due to its extremely low frequency. He shows various differences in the vowel system of RP and CE. Consonants however exhibit very few differences from RP such as the realization of [θ, ð] as [t, d]. Tremendous differences are seen in the environments in which consonants occur that were best examined in phonological processes. Processes that occur include voicing and devoicing

of alveolar fricatives in word-medial position, Yod deletion, non\_coronal deletion and spirantisation in *-stion* words.

### **2.3.1.5 Ugandan English**

A study by Tukwasibwe (2014) was hinged on the assumption that when indigenous languages and the target language come together in a linguistic contact situation, the resulting variety would exhibit distinct phonological, lexical, grammatical and semantic/pragmatic features (see Sankoff, (2001); Thomason, (1995); Thomason and Kaufman, (1988); Winford, (2005)).

To determine the extent of the various forms of influence that the indigenous languages of Uganda have on Ugandan English plus the resulting language variation and change, a 200,000-word text corpus of samples of written and spoken Ugandan English was sourced from the media and built by the researcher. Speech data of 50,000 words for the spoken component of the corpus was collected from radio and television talk shows, which comprises recorded spontaneous natural conversations and interviews produced by radio and television talk-show guests and commuter passengers, as well as radio phone-in programs. The recordings were then transcribed. Choosing the mass media for sources of data for this study was said to be in agreement with Fairclough (1995) who underscores the important link between language and mass media. He thus acknowledges that the media influences the evolution of language and is probably the cause of the many changes and innovations that happen in language at both written and spoken level (Fairclough 1995, cited by Gregori-Signes 2000:2). The corpus used in this investigation was too much as qualitative research can only use a small corpus in order to come up with an exhaustive, detailed and clear analysis of the phenomenon. De Klerk (2003:7) argues strongly in favour of "smaller, carefully constructed sample corpora of spoken material which contain authentic and reliable representative data, and can be analysed exhaustively in a variety of ways". The present study thus decided to use a corpus of 1000 words collected from the media unlike Tukwasibwe's study that used a corpus of 5000 words.

Evidence from the Corpus of Ugandan English showed that indigenous languages of Uganda have a significant influence on the English language variety spoken in the country,

and that a large part of English bilingual speakers cannot speak English without transferring the features from their mother tongue, including switching and mixing codes.

### **2.3.1.6 East African English**

Schmied (2006) surveyed East African English (EAFé) focusing on Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania, which are often seen as the core of East Africa. He first states that Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania share a long, common “Anglophone” background, despite some interesting differences in colonial heritage. They are also characterized by a complex pattern of African first languages (mainly from the Bantu and Nilo-Saharan language families), a common lingua franca (Kiswahili). His study revealed that the features characterizing EAFé can be found at subphonemic, phonemic, and supraphonemic levels. At the phonemic level, he shows three general tendencies of EAFé for consonants and these being; firstly, the merger of /r/ and /l/ is widespread, but still ridiculed. Secondly, intrusive or deleted (as a hypercorrect tendency) nasals, especially /n/ before plosives, are common, since some languages like Kikuyu have nasal consonants. Thirdly, English fricatives are generally difficult but particular deviations often restricted to certain ethnic groups.

At the subphonemic level, Schmied (2006) makes a general observation that a comparison of the English phoneme system with that of most African languages shows that the major differences are not the consonants (although there are fewer consonant combinations), but the small number of vowel contrasts, compared to the extensive English vowel system. Overall, EAFé tends toward a basic five-vowel system. Thus, the vowel system of EAFé is systematically different from Standard English; vowels tend to merge because the range of the English vowel continuum is not covered by the underlying African systems of, for instance, the Bantu languages. Overall, three basic generalizations are made for EAFé vowels: Length differences in vowels are leveled and not contrasted phonemically. This is not only a quantitative but also a qualitative shift, as short vowels in EAFé are usually longer and more peripheral than in RP, especially /ɪ/ tends toward /i/, /ʊ/ toward /u/, /ɔ/ towards /o/, and /ʌ/ and /æ/ toward /a/. Secondly, the central vowels /ʌ/, /ɜ:/, and /ə/, as in *but*, *bird*, and *a*, are avoided and tend toward half-open or open positions, /a/ and /e/. Thirdly, diphthongs tend to have only marginal status and to be monophthongized.

At the supraphonemic level, that is, related to phoneme sequences, word stress, intonation, and general rhythmic patterns. He notes that Consonant clusters are a major phonotactic problem, as many African languages have relatively strict consonant-vowel syllable structures (often CV-CV-CV). Thus, English consonant clusters tend to be dissolved, either by dropping one or some of the consonants involved or by splitting them through the insertion of vowels. The most noticeable feature of the speech flow in African Englishes is the tendency toward a stress-timed rather than a syllable-time rhythm. Thus, EAfE tends to give all syllables equal stress and not “cram” up to three unstressed syllables together into one stress unit to create the so-called “weak” forms of Standard British English. These findings are for EAfE and cannot be said to occur in the same way for Zambian English (ZE) as ZE is part of the South Africa and not East Africa.

Studies on African varieties of English reviewed have shown some tendencies and innovations that English has incurred as it is used in these places. From the studies, similarities among the varieties of English have been noticed as well as differences. These differences from one variety to another are what make each variety unique. Moreover, for the most part, it has been seen that educated natives of a country/speech community using English have been ones under investigation in order to establish the varieties in each. This study thus used educated indigenous Zambians in order to establish the phonological deviations of English among Zambian English speakers. The differences seen in the varieties can be said to stem from the influence of the different native-local languages found in each speech community. Therefore, the features found in the Englishes found in Africa could not be generalized as Englishes differ from one speech community to another, however, the studies reviewed were important in helping to understand the phenomenon under investigation. There are these differences in each variety of English and this is what the study wants to investigate in the Zambian context.

## **2.4 English in South East Asia**

Phonological deviations of English are also seen in other parts of the world apart from Africa. In Asia, studies on varieties of English include Indian, Singaporean and Malaysian English that have received extensive research.

### 2.4.1. Indian English

Observing first language speakers of Punjabi and Hindi, Maxwell and Fletcher (2009, 2010) investigated the acoustic–phonetic characteristics of Indian English vowels. Although Maxwell and Fletcher noted that both Punjabi and Hindi are Indo-Aryan languages, they were careful to document differences in the vowel inventories and suprasegmental features of the two languages based on phonological descriptions of these languages. While very few differences were observed in the Indian English vowels produced by the two groups, Punjabi speakers produced Indian English diphthongs with more phonetic variation than Hindi speakers did. Maxwell and Fletcher concluded that Punjabi and Hindi speakers shared vowel categories for Indian English monophthongs, but that native language phonology may influence the representation of Indian English diphthongs.

Trudgill and Hannah (2008) investigated some of the pronunciation characteristics of Indian English and discovered that vowels which in RP are long, for instance in the word *nurse* [nɜ:s] are short in Indian English, thus [nərs]. The RP diphthongs /ei/ and /ou/ as in *face* and *goat* are usually monophthongs pronounced /e:/ and /o:/ in Indian English and there is in some varieties no distinction between /v/ and /w/, /t/ and /θ/, /d/ and /ð/. Most speakers of Indian English have a rhotic pronunciation, pronouncing /r/ where there is *r* in the spelling but their pronunciation of *r* is normally with a flap, /ɾ/. However, the most noticeable feature of Indian English is the stress of words and sentences. It was found that Speakers of Indian English might put stress into syllables, which to a RP speaker would be weak and therefore unstressed. An Indian English speaker might pronounce the words *about*, *minister* and *mistake* like this ['ɜbaʊt], [mɪ'nɪstər] and ['mɪstek] (Wells, 1982). The sentences of Indian English tend to be syllable-timed instead of stress-timed, which most Englishes are. This means that suffixes are stressed and function words like *to* and *of*, which in RP are weak and unstressed, are in Indian English stressed as well.

Fuchs (2015) in his study on *speech rhythm in varieties of English: evidence from educated Indian English and British English*. He observes that studies on IndE suggested that it has ten monophthongs and six diphthongs, although it had to be stressed that some speakers

use variable pronunciation. This showed how the vowel inventory of educated IndE is smaller than in SBE, where there are eleven monophthongs and eight diphthongs (Deterding 1997; Hawkins and Midgley 2005, Wells 1982). Thus, he concluded in regards to vowels that given the pronounced phonological and phonetic differences between the vowel systems of IndE and SBE, it seemed likely that they can be easily perceived. Listeners might rely on them when identifying as speaker or Indian.

With regards to consonants, studies by Sailaja (2012), Bansal (1976, 1978, 1990), Kachru (1994), Gargesh (2004) and Hickey (2004) among others made the following observations:

1. SBE labio-dental fricative /v/ is often realized as labio-dental approximant /v\*/ and often merged with /w/.
2. The plosives /t, d/ are not realized as alveolar (as in SBE) but as retroflex sounds [t\*, d\*].
3. The SBE dental fricatives [θ, ð] are replaced in IndE by dental plosives [t\*, d\*] of which the voiceless phoneme is often aspirated [t\* & d] due to influence of spelling.
4. In SBE, the voiceless plosives /p, t, k/ have unaspirated allophones /p=, t=, k=/ in consonant clusters and sometimes at the end of a word, but are strongly aspirated if they occur initially in a stressed syllable and weakly aspirated in most other context /p<sup>h</sup>, t<sup>h</sup>, k<sup>h</sup>/. In IndE, they are always unaspirated.

From the studies it was concluded that most differences between consonants of educated IndE and SBE are phonetic. The only phonological differences are variable rhoticity in IndE and the frequent merger of /w/ and /v/.

At the suprasegmental level the differences between the intonation of educated IndE and SBE are said to be substantial. They differ in which words are accented, how utterances are split into intonation phrases. They also differ in how many pitch accents are assigned to an intonation phrase and which pitch accents are commonly used (Bansal and Harrison 1972, Bansal 1976, Nair 1996, Maxwell 2014). Some acoustic studies by Krivokapic' (2013) and Sirsa and Redford (2013) investigated by Fuchs (2008) showed that speech rhythm in IndE is syllable-timed than in SBE.

### **2.4.2 Singaporean English**

Singaporean English (SgE) has mostly been studied with Malaysian English. This is attributed to the common culture and sociolinguistic background that the two countries share as Singapore was part of the Malaysian federation until it achieved full independence in 1965. There exist two varieties; Standard SgE (SSE) and Colloquial SgE (CollSgE). The CollSgE is one that has showed a high degree of influence from other local languages such as Hokkien, Cantonese, Malay and Tamil (Platt & Weber 1980:18). This is a variety that exists in schools but mostly used in the school playgrounds and homes and is commonly known as Singlish. Singlish co-exists with SSE in a relationship that has been termed ‘diglossia’ (Ferguson 1959, Richards 1983, Gupta 1994), which essentially means that SSE is restricted in use to situations that are characterised by a high level of formality, whereas Singlish is used in all other instances. Wee (2008) identifies four phonological processes common to CollSgE. These being consonant devoicing where voiced obstruents become devoiced in word-final position. For instance, leg /lɛg/ becomes /lɛk/, news /nju:z/ becomes /njus/, judge /dʒʌdʒ/ is pronounced as /dʒʌtʃ/. Secondly, consonant deletion where only stops get deleted in words like limp [limp] pronounced [lim], cent [sɛnt] pronounced [sɛn]. Deletion also occurs with words derived by the addition of the past tense suffix –ed. For example, helped [hɛlpt] is pronounced as [hɛlp]. However, when stops are suffixed with –ing, there is no deletion. Thirdly, glottalisation of stops in final position and words beginning with vowels. The fourth process is metathesis.

Moreover, there are three prosodic features in CollSgE. These being; syllable-timed rhythm as all syllables take up the same amount of time regardless of whether it is stressed or not. Pattern of stress assignment also occurs where there is use of equal stress and absence of differential stress patterns to mark changes in parts of speech. The third aspect is lack of pitch contrast to express various kinds of speaker meaning. Thus, stress in CollSgE does not distinguish nouns from verbs, nor compounds from phrases.

### **2.4.3. Malaysian English**

Malaysian English (MalE) is usually studied with Singapore English. Despite the two being similar, they differ in some way that make MalE unique and a variety in its own right.

Some phonological features of MalE that have been noted include a tendency to shorten vowels and short vowels may be lengthened before /n, l, r, s, ʃ/ for example /fi:ʃ/ fish and /pi:n/. There is a tendency to have Diphthong RP reduced quality where /əu/ > /o/ in words like /fo.to/ photo. /ei/ > /e/ in /meɪ/ mail, /εə/ > /ɛ/ in /ðε/ there, /uə/ > /ɔ/ in cure. The symbol />/ is used to mean ‘is realized.’ At the consonantal level, there is consonant reduction, for instance [nts] > [ns], [mbr] > [mr] and [mps] > [ms] as in word [glims] glimpse. Moreover, there is loss of final /t, d, θ/, devoicing of /v, z, ð, dʒ/ in final position so that there are pronunciations like [gif] give, [mu:f] move, [dʌs] does among many other examples. There is also occasional devoicing of /z, ʒ/ in medial position, voicing of /s/ & /ʃ/ in certain lexical items. Avoidance of /θ/ and /ð/ as they are often realized as /t/ and /d/ respectively, which is a common feature in most African Englishes. Final stops are often replaced by glottal stops thus, a process of glottalisation takes place.

At the suprasegmental level, MalE speakers may reduce or increase the number of stressed syllables in a word and MalE is syllable-timed in nature instead of stress-timed. Intonation is rarely used instead loudness plays a pivotal role as a differentiating factor. Intonation within a word is most often level intonation for signifying various sentence types, showing the speakers attitude or emotion. MalE does not have wide range of intonation as RP (Baskaran, 2008).

## **2.5 Englishes in the inner circle**

The inner circle despite being natives of the English language have also developed varieties within its domain. This just shows how language is not static but changes and grows overtime. If it is possible to have varieties within the inner circle, what more in countries far from the inner circle where English is non-native. Observations are made between British and American English in order to understand the differences between the two as this is where the standard forms of English; SBE and GA are from.

Bauer (2002: 109) makes a few observations in the pronunciations of some varieties of English particularly British and American English. One major distinction noted is that of rhoticity in Britain (and New Zealand) and the lack of rhoticity in the USA. In addition he states that there are a number of phenomena which mark a non-standard accent in most varieties of English. And these being:



- i. /h/-dropping: pronunciations such as /aʊs/ for *house*. (Note that /h/-dropping on unstressed words such as *him* in sentences like *Givehim a biscuit* is perceived as being standard.)
- ii. So-called <g>-dropping (although phonetically there is no [g] to be dropped): pronunciations such as /kʌmɪn/ for *coming*.
- iii. The use of a final /k/ in words ending in *-thing* giving pronunciations such as /sʌmθɪŋk/
- iv. Loss of or reduction in use of /θ/ and /ð/. The situation with these sounds is complex and we do not need a detailed picture here. The fricative /θ/ in all positions and /ð/ in medial and final positions alternate with /f/ and /v/ respectively in urban British accents, under the influence of London (Cockney) English. This gives pronunciations like [fɪŋk] for *think* and [brʌvə] for *brother*. Such pronunciations are now occasionally heard in Australia and New Zealand. At the same time, /θ/ and /ð/ in all positions may be replaced by /t/ and /d/ respectively, under the influence of Hiberno-English and older London English. This gives pronunciations like [tɪŋk] for *think* and [dɪs] for *this*. These are heard not only in Ireland and Liverpool, but also in some regional accents in the USA.
- v. Extensive use of a glottal stop either intervocalically or word finally: pronunciations like [bʌʔə] for *butter* and [kæʔ] for *cat*. (A certain amount of glottal use is compatible with standard status, as long as it is not intervocalic as in *butter*. In some varieties a tap is heard in such environments instead, giving [bʌɾə], and this may be considered standard, for example in Canada, the USA, Australia and New Zealand.).

These variations show the fact that phonological deviations are also possible in Zambia. One type of variety that seems to be influencing the spoken form of English in Africa especially Zambia is African American Vernacular English (AAVE). This is because of the music and movie industries (mass media) that most people especially young ones are accustoming themselves with. The media influences the evolution of language as is probably the cause of many changes and innovations that happen in language at both written and spoken level (fairclough 1995 cited by Gregori-Signes 2000). Thus, this study

used the media in establishing the deviations in the English spoken by indigenous Zambians.

AAVE is an accent which emerged in the south of the USA where most people of African origin were located during the time of slavery (Trudgill & Hannah 2008). It is a variety spoken throughout USA and some parts of Canada primarily by African Americans. AAVE has been thought to have been derived from some combination of native African languages and historic dialects of English. It has a considerable amount of differences with GA at all the linguistic levels.

Some of the pronunciation characteristics of AAVE are as follows. The RP diphthong /aɪ/, which is usually pronounced as the monophthong /a:/, a word that begins with /ð/ like *this* is normally pronounced with a /d/ thus [dɪs] but inside a word or at the end of it /ð/ might be pronounced with a /v/ or /d/ thus *smooth* being pronounced [smu:v]. If the sound /θ/ appears inside or at the end of a word it might be pronounced as /f/ or /t/, *month* would therefore be either [mʌmf] or [mʌnt]. In a final position *-ng* is pronounced /n/, *singing* is pronounced [sɪŋɪn] but this is not the case in a one-syllable word, *sing* would then be [sɪŋ]. One noticeable feature in AAVE is the final consonant cluster reduction, hence *hand* and *test* are pronounced [hæn] and [tɛs] and in consonant clusters in the beginning of words /str/ as in *street*, might be pronounced /skr/ by younger users of AAVE, thus [skrit] (Wells, 2008). Striking features are found in the grammar and vocabulary used nowadays. One may therefore wonder whether GA or AAVE is taking precedence where SBE should.

## 2.6. Summary

This chapter has looked at varieties of English in different parts of the world; Africa, Asia and the inner circle. Differences in these varieties have been identified in contrast to SBE and GAE RP. Significant contrast is seen in the vowel system of most varieties. At the consonantal levels, differences are seen in the realization of the dental fricative sounds. Most consonantal differences identified are explained in the phonological processes and most common in the varieties of English are simplification, deletion and insertion of sounds among others. Suprasegmentally, most Englishes especially African Englishes have a syllable-timed rhythm instead of stress-timed as in RP. There are also variations in the

patterns of stress and a tendency to pronounce words as spelt. All these differences and many others indeed show how English in most parts of the world has been nativised due to interaction with other languages.

The studies that have been reviewed indicate that there are various English deviations at different levels of linguistics analysis particularly phonology. It has been seen that even within its original context, known as the inner circle (Kachru, 1992), there will still be these variations and this is what the study wanted to establish in the Zambian context.

## **CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the methodology and research design that was used in data collection for the study. It presents the data sources, sample and sample size as well as types of instruments that were used for both data collection and analysis.

### **3.2 Research Design**

A research design tells the investigator whether he/she should use the qualitative, quantitative or triangulation method in the process of research. Research that requires the use of statistics are said to be quantitative, those that are descriptive in nature are said to be qualitative. The ones that are both descriptive and make use of numbers use triangulation (Mungenda & Mungenda, 2003). This study used qualitative research in the collection and analysis of data because it was not seeking numerical data that is arrived at by quantitative means. The study adopted the ethnographic research design. This is where the main core of data consists of the observation of people's behavior as they carry on their everyday lives (Fasold, 1984). Observation was employed as core in the study. This provided the empirical basis for capturing language used in its social context. Specifically, non-participant observation was used as this enabled the researcher to gather data that would reflect the way some educated indigenous Zambians pronounce English words. The study sought data based on people's own spoken words in a neutral environment where one was free to express themselves in the English language which helped in obtaining detailed information about the phenomenon that was being studied.

### **3.3 Sampling**

Sampling refers to the selection of a few from a bigger group to become the basis for predicting a fact, a situation or an outcome regarding a bigger group in which one is interested (Simwinga, 2006).

### **3.4 Study Area**

The sample was drawn from Lusaka as it was seen to be a rich multilingual setting where many TV and Radio stations could easily be accessed.

### **3.5 Sample Size**

A sample of 30 instances of English language use from participants of varying age, educational level and social status was drawn from the media. The purpose of selecting a small size was to develop a deeper understanding of the phenomena studied. This study was informed by local and national TV and radio newscasts, phone-in and interview programmes. The sample size was based on the assumption that English language use was done in a natural and neutral condition where people expressed themselves freely. This was so because the informants did not know that they were being recorded. Newscasts were important to this study in that newscasters are believed to be the ones that represent the educated Zambian who is more conversant with the English language and thus would use a more standard form in their dissemination of information.

### **3.6 Sampling Technique**

Purposive sampling technique was employed in this research. The idea behind purposive sampling is to pick out a sample in relation to some criterion, which is considered important for the particular study. This method is appropriate when the study places special emphasis upon the control of certain specific variables. Purposive sampling in this case was used to select key data sources to the study that included TV and Radio stations, which were ZNBC TV1, ZNBC Radio4, Muvi TV, Q FM, 5 FM and HOT FM as well as English programmes to be used in the study. Purpose sampling technique was used because it helped in generating rich information for an in-depth analysis of the phonology of English as spoken by indigenous Zambians. This technique also helped in identifying the local and national TV and radio stations which provided multiple data sources. Multiple data sources were employed in order to provide a control against individual idiosyncrasies that could have been due to shape of the organ of speech, ethnic group or any other factors.

### **3.7 Research Instruments**

The research instruments used in this study were a notebook, tape recorder and introspection.

#### **3.7.1 Notebook**

A notebook was used to write down words and sentences that were observed from conversations by people in natural environments on media.

### **3.7.2 Tape Recorder**

A tape recorder was used as it was important to record clear and accurate pronunciations of the participants.

### **3.7.3 Introspection**

Introspection was employed because the researcher fluently speaks English and a linguist who is conversant with the English language.

### **3.8 Data Collection procedure**

Data collection was undertaken over a period of three months. The researcher observed instances of English language use on television and radio stations. The participants were not aware that they were being observed as the researcher needed to collect data that was naturally produced. The researcher recorded the TV and Radio programmes. The recorded events included newscasts, interviews and phone-in programmes.

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

The analysis of data commenced during the process of data collection. As Silverman (1993) suggests, it is important to remember that data analysis does not always come after data gathering. This is because interweaving data collection and analysis helps to collect new information to fill in gaps or test new hypotheses that might emerge in the process. The researcher listened to the recordings and transcribed the data using symbols of the International Phonetic Chart (IPA). The RP pronunciations were taken from the online Cambridge English language dictionary as well as the Oxford Advanced dictionary, which provided detailed phonetic transcription of words. The online dictionary and the *check pronunciation* software from Google playstore allowed the researcher to listen to the exact pronunciation of words as they are pronounced by native speakers. The thematic analytic technique was used as this enabled the researcher to first transcribe words verbatim and then categorised into themes through coding which is the core of qualitative analysis. According to Creswell (2009) coding is the process of organizing the material into ‘chunks’ before bringing meaning to those ‘chunks’. It involves organizing text data into categories and labelling those categories with a term, a term often based in the actual language of the participant.

### **3.10 Summary**

This chapter has discussed the methodology that was used in the collection and analysis of data. It has provided details on the nature of the research; which was qualitative and also give insight into research design that was employed in the research.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: SEGMENTAL FEATURES OF ‘ZAMBIAN ENGLISH’**

### **4.1 General**

This chapter presents the findings and discussion on the segmental features of the English spoken in Zambia specifically the media. A primary concept that should be borne in mind is that ‘Zambian English’ (ZE) is a system of tendencies rather than categorical differences from the RP just like GhE and many other Englishes. Therefore, this discussion does not compare RP and ZE but uses RP as reference in order to understand the tendencies that occur in ZE. The discussion on the segmental features is drawn from a list of 1000 words provided in Appendix III. The words were randomly picked from the informants’ speech to show the arising variation between RP and ZE. 1,000 lexemes were used following Biber’s (1990) work in which he has demonstrated how a corpus of 1,000 lexemes is capable of producing reliable results.

In the presentation of the data from the findings, the words of focus have been underlined and in some cases transcribed for ease of reference. The acronym ZEM has been used to mean the ‘Zambian English’ as used in the media.

### **4.2 Sound system of ‘Zambian English’**

This section presents the possible phonetic sounds of ZEM. Since sounds are generally classified into vowels and consonants, the section broadly discusses these sounds as they relate to ZE.

#### **4.2.1 Vowels**

RP vowels are categorized into three; monophthongs, diphthongs and triphthongs. RP as a point of reference helps to distinguish the vowels of ZE. These are as shown in table 2 below.



**Table 2: RP Vowels**

Types of vowels	Vowels in RP
<b>Monophthongs</b>	
Short	ɪ, ʊ, e, ɒ, ʌ, æ, ə
Long	ɑ:, ɪ:, u:, ɔ:, ɜ:
<b>Diphthongs</b>	eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ, aʊ, əʊ, ɪə, eə, ʊə
<b>Triphthongs</b>	eɪə, aɪə, ɔɪə, əʊə, aʊə

#### 4.2.1.1. Monophthongs

The twelve monophthongs of RP shown in table 2 are realized differently by indigenous ZE speakers. They tend to be realized as five vowels associated with Bantu languages as follows: /a, e, i, o, u/. The reduction of the twelve monophthongs into five comes about as a result of merging vowel sounds that are similar. Similar vowels that differ in one aspect or so tend to be merged into one. For instance, the sounds /ɪ/ and /i:/ that are similar with variation in length tend to be realized as /i/. Therefore, ZE monophthongs are similar to the vowels of Bantu languages spoken in Zambia. This is illustrated in the sections that follow:

##### (i) Rendition of vowels /ɪ/ and /i:/

As stated above, in ZEM, similar RP vowel sounds tend to be merged into one. The extract below illustrates how sounds /ɪ/ and /i:/ are rendered in ZE with reference to RP

#### Extract A

ZNBC Radio 4 phone-in: Our girl children should receive empowerment.

RP: /rɪsi:v/

ZE: /risiv/

5. Hot FM phone-in: There must be a separation between the church and the state.

RP: /bɪtwi:n/

ZE: /bitwin/

6. ZNBC radio 4 interview: Some youths think leadership is not theirs now.

RP: /li:dʒɪp/

ZE: /lidaʃip/

7. 5 FM news: Youths are being advised not to just sit and watch projects die natural deaths. They are advised to be involved.

RP: /sɪt/

ZE: /sɪt/

From the data presented in extract A above, the vowels /ɪ/ in words like sit /sɪt/ , think /θɪŋk/ and /i:/ in words like seat /si:t/, between /bɪtwi:n/ is merged into /i/ thus there is no contrast between the two sounds. There is a tendency, therefore, to pronounce sit as /sɪt/ and seat as /si:t/. Furthermore, the data reveals that in words that have both sounds, they are still rendered as /i/, for instance, in leadership /li:dəʃɪp/ where the first vowel is longer than the third in the word. In RP, /i:/ carries with it a quality of length thus it takes longer to be pronounced than /ɪ/. ZE speakers in the media tend not to show such a contrast.

(ii) **Rendition of vowels /u:/ and /ʊ/**

The findings further show that speakers of ZE would render the vowels /u:/ and /ʊ/ as /u/ as shown in the extract below:

**Extract B**

8. ZNBC interview: All citizens whatever name they are called as long as they are Zambians are at liberty to make their views known.

RP: /vju:z/

ZE: /vjuz/

9. Q FM Call-in: Why should we pull out from the ICC?

RP: /pu:l/

ZE: /pu/

10. Hot FM news: The Minister said that all criminals will be brought to book.

RP: /bʊk/

ZE: /buk

From the findings, the vowels /ʊ/ and /u:/ are similar sounds that are not distinguished in the English spoken in Zambia. The words book /bʊk/, cook /kʊk/, foot /fʊt/, would /wʊd/ are pronounced with the /u/ vowel just like views /vju:z/, pull /pu:l/. Thus, ZE has a tendency to merge the two sounds into /u/.

(iii) **Rendition of vowels /ʌ/ and /ɑ:/**

As regards vowel sounds /ʌ/ and /ɑ:/, the findings reveal that the two sounds are rendered as /a/ in ZE as illustrated in the data below:

**Extract C**

11. ZNBC radio4 interview: Are we going to get any value out of this discussion about the housing.

RP: /ɑ:/                      ZE: /a/

RP: /dɪskʌʃn/              ZE: /diskaʃn/

12. HOT FM: Youths should be innovative and contribute to a smart Zambia.

RP: /sma:t/                      ZE: /smat/

13. 5 FM interview: The programme and project started some time back in Kalikiliki.

RP: /sʌm/                      ZE: /sam/

14. Q FM Phone-in: I think bars in komboni (shanty) areas should be closed because they disturb us the whole day.

RP: /bɑ:z/                      ZE: /baz/

Similar vowels such as /ʌ/ and /ɑ:/ in words like done /dʌn/, some /sʌm/ and bar/bɑ:/, smart /sma:t/, respectively are merged into /a/ as they are both pronounced with the /a/ sound.

(iv) **Rendition of vowels /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/**

Furthermore, the findings show that in ZE, like the case is with the above examples, sounds /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/ are rendered as /o/. The extract below illustrates this point.

## Extract D

15. ZNBC Radio4 phone-in: Politicians must realize that no one is above the law.

RP: /lɔ:/                      ZE: /lɒ/

16. Q FM news: He implored the men folk to support the women as they celebrate the international women's day.

RP: /ɪmplɔ:d/                      ZE: /ɪmplod/

17. Muvi TV news: People at the eating competition were shocked that the men could eat the food like that.

RP: /ʃɒkt/                      ZE: /ʃokt/

18. ZNBC radio 4 interview: The quality of work by real architects in the building of infrastructure speaks for itself.

RP: /kwɒləti/                      ZE: /kwəli/

The vowels /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/ seem not be distinguished in ZE as these are rendered as /o/ with a few instances of /ɒ/ being realized as /a/ in words like quality /kwəli/, quantity /kwəntiti/ among others.

### (v) Rendition of vowel /ɜ:/

The data has further revealed that in ZE, the vowel /ɜ:/ is rendered as /e/ as can be seen from the extract below:

## Extract E

19. ZNBC phone-in: Our girl children should receive empowerment.

RP: /gɜ:l/                      ZE: /gel/

20. 5 FM: When children learn how to read it is a great achievement.

RP: /lɜ:n/                      ZE: /len/

From the extract above, the vowel /ɜ:/ sound of RP is realised as /e/ as most speakers of ZE tend to pronounce /gɜ:l/ as /gel/. The word learn is pronounced as /len/ instead of /lɜ:n/.

Other such examples include bird /bɜ:d/ which is pronounced as /bed/ thereby making no distinction between bed and bird as they are both pronounced as /bed/. Moreover /ɜ:/ in other instances is pronounced as /a/ in words like sir /sa/ instead of /sɜ:/ and her /ha/ instead of /hɜ:/.

(vi) **The vowel /e/**

The findings have revealed that the vowel /e/ in RP is retained as is in ZE. The data from the extract below illustrates this point.

**Extract F**

21. ZNBC TV news: female World Boxing Council, WBC gold champion, Catherine Phiri tomorrow steps into the box to defend her title against Marriana Joresch of Mexico.

RP: /steps/                      ZE: /steps/

22. Q FM call-in: People have the right to spend their money on whatever they so wish even giving it to a tree and the Minister of Religious Affairs has no right to stop them.

RP: /spend/                      ZE: /spend/

(vii) **The vowel /æ/**

The data from the findings revealed that the vowel sound /æ/ is rendered as /a/ in ZE. This is illustrated in the extract below.

**Extract G**

23. ZNBC TV news: The famous black mountain in Kitwe is back in the news.

RP: blæk/                      ZE: /blak/

24. 5FM phone-in: Political parties should challenge one another to better development.

RP: /tʃælɪndʒ/                      ZE: /tʃalendʒ/

25. Q FM interview: Thank you for listening to the programme, tune-in on Tuesday for another programme at the same time.

RP: /θænk/                      ZE: /θank/

The sound /æ/ is realized as full vowel /a/ thus for instance black /blæk/ is pronounced as /blak/

(viii) **The vowel /ə/.**

From the findings, the data shows that the vowel /ə/ is revealed as /a/ in ZE. This is illustrated in the extract below.

**Extract H**

26. ZNBC TV interview: The ICC is an organization that actually keeps leaders accountable most especially in Africa and the world entire.

RP: /li:dəz/                      ZE: /lidaz/

27. Hot FM interview: There must be a separation between the church and the state

RP: /ə/                              ZE: /a/

28. Q FM phone-in: People should not compare themselves with others who are making it in life if they are failing to work.

RP: /kəmpeə/                      ZE: /kompeja/

29. Muvi TV phone-in: Everyone has the freedom of expression as long as they are Zambians even HH has the right to express himself.

RP: /fri:dəm/                      ZE: /fridom/

30. ZNBC TV news: Minister of sports, Moses Mawere, has said the country is ready to host the under-twenty Africa cup championship.

RP: /mɪnɪstə/                      ZE: /minista/

The schwa /ə/ sound being the most common sound found in most English words is realized as a full vowel /a/ in ZE.

From the illustrations, it is seen that RP vowel (V) sounds except /e/ are all realized differently and are rendered as such through merging or substitution. Sounds that are similar but in contrast are merged and realized differently. Others are realized differently just on their own. An extraction from the 1000 word list presented in Appendix III summaries the number of vowels that Zambian English has as shown in table 3 below.

**Table 3: Zambian English Vowels**

VOWELS	MERGER	EXAMPLE: ZEM	EXAMPLE: RP	Word
/ɪ/ & /i:/	/i/	Sit sit pit pit	si:t sɪt pi:t pɪt	Seat Sit Peat Pit
/ʊ/ & /u:/	/u/	Pul Put	Pu:l pʊt	pool put
/ʌ/ & /ɑ:/	/a/	Kat Blad Mak glas	kʌt blʌd mɑ:k glɑ:s	Cut Blood Mark Glass
/ɒ/ & /ɔ:/	/o/	god lot mo so	gɒd lɒt mɔ: sɔ:	God Lot More Saw
/ɜ:/	/e/ or /a/	Fest gel sa saveji	fɜ:st gɜ:l sɜ: sɜ:veɪ	First Girl Sir Survey
/e/	/e/ or /a/	Bari Konsept	Beri kɒnsept	Bury Concept
/æ/	/a/	kat	Kæt	Cat

		ad	æd	add
/ə/	/a/	Lida Oda	li:də ɔ:də	Leader Order

Therefore, the substitution and merging shows that the 12 RP monophthongal system is reduced to five. A clear instance of the influence of the Bantu languages vowel system is seen and can be accounted for by language contact. The vowels of ZE are the same as those of the Bantu languages spoken in Zambia. This is because the extreme range of the English vowel continuum is not covered by the underlying African systems of Bantu languages. This can be attributed to the tendency by ZE speakers to transfer rules of Bantu language pronunciations to English. This is so because the vowels of Bantu Languages are learnt prior to the RP vowels in the early years of schooling. A similar observation was made by Richardson's (1962) who presented a paper on *African English in Northern Rhodesia*. He observed that the RP vowel reduction by ZE speakers was due to the failure to accommodate complicated RP vowels in the African sound system. Moreover, Africa (1983) posits that the five vowel system is a result of transfer of rules resulting from the mother tongue interference. He attributed this to a possible emergence of a ZE.

ZEM shows significant influences from local languages (Bantu Languages) as well as modification by way of over-generalisation. This comes in because English as a second language is learnt by the Zambian through the education system. For most Zambians, acquisition of the rules, structures and phonology of any language begins with their first language as they first learn the five vowels /a, e, i, o, u/. Therefore, by the time, they begin learning English, rules from the Bantu languages would have already been mastered and all they do is transfer these into the English language. Hence, rules of the English language tend to be overshadowed by the rules that were already learnt. This affects the pronunciation as well as the grammar of the English language. It is thus given, what Achebe (1975) calls local colourings. Simo Bobda (1994) similarly states that as long as rules are not learnt at the early stage by the teachers, the same phenomenon goes on and on. He also alludes this to inadequate learning of reading rules by early teachers. Further, he suggests that successive batches of students imitate their teachers and in turn serve as models for



future batches of students. As a result, the same pattern of speech is transmitted intergenerationally.

Similar to the current study, most studies on non-native Englishes in Africa, (Huber, 2008, Torto, 2013, Schmied) have shown that the 12 monophthongs of RP are reduced to a five vowel system or a seven vowel system (Simo Bobda, 2008) depending on the vowel system of the languages spoken in the country of interest.

#### **4.2.1.2. Diphthongs**

RP is endowed with eight diphthongs as shown in table 2. The diphthongs are classified into two: closing and centering diphthongs. Closing diphthongs move from open to close vowels and these are /aɪ, ɔɪ, əʊ, eɪ, aʊ/. Centering diphthongs move from one pure vowel to another and contain a schwa sound and these are /ɪə, eə, ʊə/.

The VV structure of diphthongs is reduced to a V or VCV structure in ZE. This can be alluded to the fact that there is an influence from the Bantu languages spoken in Zambia in that they do not allow the VV sequence. The basic syllable sequence for Zambian Bantu languages is CV-CV-CV. Therefore, there is a tendency to insert consonants/ semi-vowels specifically glides /j/ or /w/ in the middle of the diphthongs thus realizing a VCV structure. The insertion helps account for the CV structure of a syllable in Bantu languages. Diphthongs therefore are rendered as monophthongs in ZEM.

The extracts from I to P below show how the eight diphthongs are realized in the English spoken in Zambia.

#### **(ix) The diphthong /eɪ/**

As regards diphthong /eɪ/, the findings have revealed that /eɪ/ is rendered as /e/ in ZE as illustrated in the data provided in the extract below:

#### **Extract I**

31. ZNBC Radio 4 interview: The government wants this nation to develop.

RP: /neɪʃn/

ZE: /neʃen/

32. Hot FM phone-in: Once the government appreciates how agriculture contributes to development then we will see change.

RP: /tʃeɪndʒ/

ZE: /tʃendʒ/

33. Q FM Phone-in: It is never too late for government to change the system of governance to foster national development.

RP: /leɪt/

ZE: /let/

It is seen from above that /eɪ/ is realized as a monophthong /e/.

(x) **The Diphthong /əʊ/**

The data from the findings reveal that the diphthong /əʊ/ is rendered as /o/ in ZE. This is illustrated in the extract below:

**Extract J**

This extract illustrates how /əʊ/ is rendered in ZE as /o/.

34. Hot FM interview: Kalikiliki has no government school and no clinics.

RP: /nəʊ/

ZE: /no/

35. ZNBC TV1 news: Lusaka residents called on the police to find out the owner of the house where over 200 teenagers were involved in an immoral act.

RP: /əʊnə/

ZE: /ona/

The findings above show that /əʊ/ is realized as a monophthong /o/ in ZE.

(xi) **The diphthong /ɔɪ/**

As regards diphthong /ɔɪ/, the findings reveal that it is rendered as /oji/. This is illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract H

36. 5 FM interview: Youths should have the strongest voice in matters of national development, as they are the future leaders. Allow them to speak.

RP: /vɔɪs/                      ZE: /vojɪs/

37. Q FM phone-in: The point I want to make is this, if you want to make compulsory testing, let it be for Malaria and not HIV as more people are dying from Malaria than HIV.

RP: /pɔɪnt/                      ZE: /pojɪnt/

There is a tendency to split the diphthong /ɔɪ/ over two syllables thus realization it as /oji/

#### (xii) **The diphthong /ɪə/**

Further, findings have revealed that the diphthong /ɪə/ is rendered as /ija/ in ZE as shown in the data provided in extract L below:

### Extract L

38. Q FM phone-in: I would like to urge Mr. X and all politicians to be realistic.

RP: /rɪəlɪstɪk/                      ZE: /rijalistik/

39. Hot FM News: Southern province provincial education officer, urged that there is need to strengthen career guidance and counselling.

RP: /kəriə/                      ZE: /Karija/

40. ZNBC Radio4 interview: Zambians should be weary of foreign involvement in the development of our country as this will lead to indirect colonialisation.

RP: /wiəri/                      ZE: /weri//

The findings show that /ɪə/ is realized as /ija/. The diphthong is split over two syllables with the insertion of the glide /j/ while /ɪ/ is realized as /i/ and /ə/ as /a/.

(xiii) **The diphthong /aʊ/**

Moreover, findings revealed that the diphthong /aʊ/ is rendered as /awu/ in ZE. This point is illustrated in the extract below:

**Extract M**

This extract illustrates how /aʊ/ is rendered in ZE as /awu/.

41. Hot FM interview: The HIV testing routine and in line with male circumcision is good because if found positive, they will be linked to the health care they need just at the beginning.

RP: /faʊnd/

ZE: /fawud/

42. Q FM News: China has confirmed dates of president Xi Jinping trip to the US to meet his counterpart Donald Trump.

RP: /Kaʊntəpɑ:t/

ZE: / Kawutapat/

It can be seen from the examples illustrated above that the diphthong /aʊ/ is realized as /awu/. The diphthong is split over two syllables by inserting the glide /w/ and the /ʊ/ at the end is realized as /u/.

(xiv) **The diphthong /ʊə/**

As regards diphthong /ʊə/, the findings revealed that it is rendered as /uwa/ as in the data provided in extract N below:

**Extract N**

43. 5 FM phone-in: The high maize prices in the country are not going to help the poor.

RP: /pʊə/

ZE: /puwa/

44. ZNBC interview: The ICC is an organization that actually keeps leaders accountable most especially in Africa and also the world entire.

RP: /aktʃʊəli/

ZE: /aktʃuwali/

The diphthong /ʊə/ as illustrated in extract N is realized as /uwa/. The diphthong is split over two syllables and /ʊ/ is realized as /u/ and /ə/ as /a/.

(xv) **The diphthong /aɪ/**

Data from the findings revealed that the diphthong /aɪ/ is rendered as /aji/ in ZE. This is illustrated in the extract below:

**Extract O**

45. Q FM phone-in: My contribution is, I would like to disagree with the first and second callers who were suggesting that politicians have become quite irritating on radio.

RP: /laɪk/

ZE: /lajik/

46. Hot FM Phone-in: The problem madam is that any guy can wake up today and start making music which is bringing music that is not quality.

RP: /gaɪ/

ZE: /gaji/

The diphthong /aɪ/ is realized as /aji/ by splitting the diphthong over two syllables and inserting /j/ while /ɪ/ is realized as /i/

(xvi) **The diphthong /eə/**

The findings moreover revealed that the diphthong /eə/ is rendered as /eja/ as illustrated in the extract below:

**Extract P**

47. Q FM news: The Zambia National Farmers Union, ZNFU, has urged farmers not to sell their maize cheaply but hold on to their stocks until November.

RP: /θeə/

ZE: /tθeja/

48. ZNBC TV interview: There is no need to declare a dispute where there is none.

RP: /dɪkleə/

ZE: /dɪkleja/

The findings in extract p show that the diphthong /eə/ is realized as /eja/. The diphthong is split over two syllables where /j/ is inserted between the two vowel sounds. /ə/ is realized as /a/.

From the findings, ZE seems not to have diphthongs as RP diphthongs are treated in two ways as illustrated in the extracts I to P. In summary, RP diphthongs are realized as monophthongs which are realized directly or split over two syllables. This is as illustrated below:

I. Diphthongs realized as monophthongs are as follows.

a) /eɪ/ realized as /e/ as in examples below:

- i. Away /awe/ instead of /əweɪ/
- ii. Based /bezɪ/ instead of /beɪst/
- iii. Late /let/ instead of /leɪt/

b) /əʊ/ realized as /o/ as in examples below:

- i. Boast /bost/ instead of /bəʊst/
- ii. No /no/ instead of /nəʊ/
- iii. Chosen /tʃozen/ instead of /tʃəʊzn/

II. Diphthongs are extended over two syllables as illustrated in table 4 below.

**Table 4: Treatment of Diphthongs in Zambian English**

Diphthongs	word	RP	ZE	ZE-Realisation
/ɪə/	Ear	/ɪə/	/ije/	/ija/
	Here	/hɪə/	/hije/	
	Tear	/tɪə/	/tije/	
	Clear	/klɪə/	/klija/	
/ʊə/	Poor	/pʊə/	/puwa/	/uwa/
	Tour	/tuə/	/tuwa/	
	Sewer	/suə/	/suwa/	
/aɪ/	Eye	/aɪ/	/aji/	/aji/
	Like	/laɪk/	/laɪk/	

	Either	/aɪðə/	/idðə/	/i/
	Neither	/naɪðə/	/nidðə/	/i/
/ɔɪ/	Boy	/bɔɪ/	/boi/	/oji/
	Voice	/vɔɪs/	/vojɪs/	
	Oil	/ɔɪl/	/ojo/	/ojo/
	Joy	/dʒɔɪ/	/dʒoji/	/oji/
/eə/	Air	/eə/	/eja/	/eja/
	Rare	/reə/	/reja/	
	There	/ðeə/	/ðeja/	
	Care	/keə/	/keja/	
/aʊ/	Cloud	/klaʊd/	/klawud/	/awu/
	Now	/naʊ/	/nawu/	

Thus, the two ways of how diphthongs are treated all show how they are monophthongized. Many studies conducted on varieties of English show the same results shown in this study. These include Schmied (2006), Huber (2008), De Klerk and Gough (2002), Simo Bobda (2008), Trudgill and Hannah (2008) and Baskaran (2008). Similarly, Simukoko's (1977) study on *some features of a Zambian variety of English with particular reference to Bemba speakers* also agrees with the fact that diphthongs tend to be rendered as disyllabic words.

The diphthong /ɔɪ/ seems to have two realisations but the most common being the /oji/. The /oyo/ from oil comes in because of the lateral /l/ at the end of word that influences the /i/ at the end thus leading to the realization of /o/. However, this is only in few instances and most rare.

ZE therefore, realizes diphthongs as monophthongs and does not have any diphthongs. This can be summed up as follows in table 5.

**Table 5: Monophthongized Diphthongs in Zambian English**

Diphthongs	ZE pronunciation
/eɪ/	/e/
/əʊ/	/o/
/ʊə/	/uwa/
/aɪ/	/aji/ or /i/
/ɔɪ/	/oji/
/eə/	/eja/
/aʊ/	/awu/
/ɪə/	/ije/

#### **4.2.1.3. Triphthongs**

The findings have further shown that triphthongs in ZE are simplified through replacement of the middle elements. For instance, /i/ is replaced with /j/ and /ʊ/ with /w/. The replacements results from the fact that Zambian languages do not have triphthongs and the fact that the elements share similar articulatory features. /ʊ/ and /w/ are both rounded, back and high while /i/ and /j/ are both [+high], [-round] and [+coronal]. And the schwa /ə/ at the end of each triphthong is realized as /a/. This supports Jenkins (2006) statement that African Englishes tend to produce the schwa sound as a full vowel /a/ at the end of words.

Symbolically a triphthong in RP can be regarded as a VVV structure functioning as a single phoneme. However, the findings revealed that triphthongs tend to be monophthongs in ZE. This is illustrated as below:

(xvii) **Triphthong /eɪə/**

The findings show that speakers of ZE would render triphthong /eɪə/ as /eja/ as shown in the extract below:

#### **Extract Q**

49. Muvi TV news: The mayor told the contractors to expediate the construction of the Kalabo bridge.



RP: /meɪə/                      ZE: /meja/

50. Hot FM phone-in: What can a say about our fashionable player, Fashion Sakala?

RP: /pleɪə/                      ZE: /pleja/

(xviii) **Triphthong** /aɪə/

The findings show that speakers of ZE render the triphthong /aɪə/ as /aja/ as shown in the extract below:

### Extract S

51. Q FM interview: People are tired of fake promises from politicians, even you Mr. Kabimba, why should people believe what you are promising now when in office you failed to deliver?

RP: /taɪəd/                      ZE: /tajəd/

52. Hot FM phone-in: Not all politicians are liars. But others like Mr. Mutati promised people 1,000 jobs, upto now there is nothing.

RP: /laɪəz/                      RP: /ləjəz/

(xix) **Triphthong** /ɔɪə/

The findings further show that speakers of ZEM render the triphthong /ɔɪə/ as /oja/ as illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract T

53. Hot FM Phone-in: The issue about honourable Mutati is about loyalty. Who is he loyal to? Is it his party or the PF party?

RP: /ləɪə/                      ZE: /lojo/

54. 5 FM interview: Every employer in Zambia has to take into account the needs of their workers and pay them on time. Look at what is happening at *Pic n Pay*.

RP: /ɪmplɔɪə/                      ZE: /ɪmploja/

(xx) **Triphthong** /əʊə/

As regards the triphthong /əʊə/, the findings reveal that /əʊə/ is rendered as /owa/ in ZE as illustrated in the data shown in extract U below:

### Extract U

55. Hot FM interview: What the teaching council is doing will help improve the lower standards we have seen in the education system over the past few years.

RP: /ləʊə/

ZE: /lowa/

56. 5 FM interview: Who will take care of the old in our communities, the widowers and disabled?

RP: /wɪdəʊə/

ZE: /widowa/

(xxi) **Triphthong /aʊə/**

The findings also reveal that the triphthong /aʊə/ is rendered as /awa/ as illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract V

57. 5 FM phone-in: It is the duty of our leaders to make sure that they take care of us.

RP: /aʊə/

ZE: /awa/

58. Q FM phone-in: Uncle T, I can tell you that nowadays if things go sourbakamba (my elder), the madam runs away.

RP: /saʊə/

ZE: /sawa/

Just like diphthongs, triphthongs in ZE are rendered differently from RP as a vowel sequence of that nature does not exist. The VVV structure is dissolved in such a way that the mid V is realized as a consonant (glide) giving a triphthong a VCV structure. The results show similar trends in other varieties of English where the VVV structure is dissolved into a VCV structure (see Schmied, 2006, Simukoko 1977, Simo Bobda 2008). The centering C element is usually a glide either /j/ or /w/.

RP triphthongs are broken down to fit the CV structure of the Bantu languages. The triphthong /eɪə/ is realized as /eja/, /ɔɪə/ is realized as sequence of /oja/ and /ojo/ if the triphthong precedes the lateral /l/. /aɪə/ realized as /aja/, /aʊə/ as /awa/ and /əʊə/ as /owa/. From the data triphthongs can be summed as shown in table 6 below.

**Table 6: Realisation of Triphthongs in Zambian English**

Triphthong	Word	RP	ZEM	ZEM- realisation
eɪə	Player	/pleɪə/	/pleja/	/eja/
	Pair	/peɪə/	/peja/	
aɪə	Desire	/dɪ'zaɪə/	/dizaja/	/aja/
	Fire	/faɪə/	/faja/	
ɔɪə	employer	/ɪm'plɔɪə/	/imploja/	/oja/
	loyal	/lɔɪəl/	/lojo/	
aʊə	Hour	/aʊə/	/awa/	/awa/
	Sour	/saʊə/	/sawa/	
əʊə	Lower	/ləʊə/	/lowa/	/owa/
	Follower	/fɒləʊə/	/folowa/	

Diphthongs and triphthongs from the data show that they are simplified through phonological processes such as glide epenthesis, monophthongization and substitution which will be discussed in the next chapter.

#### **4.2.2. Vowel Length**

Vowel length in the ZE used in the media is hardly realized as the five long vowels are systematically replaced by short vowels. The shortening of vowels is a common trend. This is because of the influence of the Bantu languages of Zambia vowel system. Vowel length is symbolized by [:] and of the 12 RP monophthongs, five have the quality of length. ZE does not render vowel length as there is a tendency to shorten long vowels as illustrated below.

##### **(a) The long vowel /i:/**

The findings show that speakers of ZEM tend to shorten the long vowel /i:/ to /i/. This is as illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract W

59. ZNBC Interview: There is no reason to declare a dispute where there is none.

RP: /ri:zn/                      ZE: /rizon/

60. Hot FM phone-in: we need people that will lead us to a better Zambia. Look at today, the dollar is now at K9.25, next time it will be at k12. How then are we helping Zambians.

RP: /li:d/                      ZE: /lid/

ZE speakers have a tendency to realize /i:/ as /i/ in words like *lead* /li:d/ as /lid/  
*reason* /ri:zn/ as /rizon/

#### (b) The long Vowel /ɑ:/

The findings show that ZE speakers tend to shorten the long vowel /ɑ:/ to /a/. This is as illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract X

61. Q FM interview: Poultry farming is trending in the farming industry apart from agriculture.

RP: /fɑ:miŋ/                      ZE: /famiŋ/

62. Hot FM phone-in: Fathers need to be there for their children as well. So, whether married or not as long as he impregnates me he has to take responsibility.

RP: Father /fɑ:ðə/      ZE: /fadðə/

Other examples of words with /ɑ:/ include:

- a. Farm /fɑ:m/ as /fam/
- b. Mark /mɑ:k/ as /mak/
- c. Father /fɑ:ðə/ as /fada/

#### (c) The long Vowel /ɔ:/

The findings further reveal that ZE speakers tend to realize /ɔ:/ as /o/ as shown in the extract below.

### Extract Y

63. Q FM phone-in: Why are you so confident that Zambia is going to draw today?

RP: /drɔ:/                      ZE: /dro/

64. Hot FM interview: There is nobody in this world who can come and say Bishop Mambo you are a false prophet.

RP: /fɔ:ls/                      ZE: /fols/

65. ZNBC radio4 interview: Bishop I want to tell you that there is no one who is above the law. Rich or poor we are all under the law. No one has the right to endanger the life of our President.

RP: /lɔ:/                              ZE: /lo/

#### (d) The long Vowel /u: /

As regards the long vowel /u:/, the findings show that ZE speakers tend to shorten the long vowel /u:/ as /u/. This is illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract Z

66. 5 FM phone-in: We really appreciate you calling us and giving us your views.

RP: /ju:/                              ZE: /ju/

67. Hot FM phone-in: Can Nigeria lose the two remaining games?

RP: /lu:z/                              ZE: /luz/

Other examples of words with /u:/ include:

- a. Group /gru:p/ as /grup/
- b. Taboo /təbu:/ as /tabu/
- c. Too /tu:/ as /tu/

#### (e) The long Vowel /ɜ:/

The findings also showed that ZE speakers tend to realize the long vowel /ɜ:/ as /e/. This is as illustrated below:

## Extract Zz

68. Hot FM phone-in: First of all I want to tell the previous caller that mandatory HIV testing is not a bad idea. How about the pregnant women, they do mandatory HIV testing whether they like it or not.

RP: /fɜːst/                      ZE: /fest/

69. Q FM interview: Our girl child should be protected from vices that we are seeing nowadays.

RP: /gɜːl/                      ZE: /gel/

70. 5 FM news: The Minister advised heads of schools to ensure their schools are clean and kept in good condition in order for pupils to learn well.

RP: /lɜːn/                      ZE: /len/

From the examples given in extracts R to V and many more provided in Appendix III, The Zambian local languages do not use length to distinguish between two similar words but orthographically represent it by a pair of the vowel sound. And tone in the languages help distinguish similar word. Therefore, the major explanation for vowel length reduction is that Zambian languages have no phonological long vowels. Vowel length in Zambian languages is predictable and non-contrastive. Vowel length reduction is partially caused by under-differentiation of phonemes. Under-differentiation is when two sounds similar in the secondary system (English) whose counterparts are not distinguished in the primary (Zambian languages) system are confused (Weinreich, 1953). Therefore, due to under-differentiation, ZE speakers have fewer or no vowel contrasts than English. As Jenkins (2006) postulates that vowel inventories of ‘new’ Englishes in Africa distinguish minimally if at all between the short and long vowels of RP English.

Most ZE speakers tend to not distinguish similar vowel sounds which results into a merger of two sounds realizing one. For instance, the long vowels /i:/ and /u:/ lose their quality of length and are merged with /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ respectively realizing /i/ and /u/. This supports Schmied’s (2006) assertion in his study on East African Englishes that in many African Englishes, length differences are levelled and not contrasted.

### 4.2.3. Spelling pronunciation

Another aspect that came up from the findings worth mentioning is the tendency among most ZE speakers on media to pronounce words as spelt. This process is referred to as spelling pronunciation. Spelling pronunciation is a process whereby words are pronounced the way their spelling suggests. Spelling pronunciation is as result to the failure to accommodate the complex vowel of English in the ZE speakers repertoires and the influence by Zambian language word structure. The Zambian Bantu languages basically have a one-to-one correspondence between the orthography and phonology. In Zambian languages, one letter of the alphabet directly corresponds with the pronunciation in most cases.

English generally has an inconsistent relationship between the orthography and phonology. For instance, the letter <a> is pronounced differently in the words *hand*, *fast*, *cane*, *about*, *water*. /ʃ/ also have varied graphic representations in different words, for example shine, mansion, mission, duration, ocean. /f/ also has varied graphic representation like farm, doff, cough, philosophy, lieutenant. The spelling <ch> can have different pronunciations like church /tʃ/, Christ /k/ and charade /ʃ/.

ZE speakers exhibited some spelling pronunciations tendencies in the many words that include words underlined in the following sentences in extract X.

#### (f) Spelling Pronunciation

The findings showed that another aspect that contributes to the production of a five vowel system instead of 25, diphthongs and triphthongs inclusive, is spelling pronunciation. Most ZE speakers tend to pronounce certain words based on their spelling or as orthographically written. This is illustrated below:

#### Extract AO

71. Muvi TV phone-in: The village girls on the beads and lipstick programme have made the show interesting, I like watching them.
72. Q FM phone-in: I wonder what kind of parents we have that can allow their children to go out at night for such sex parties. It is really a shame.

73. Hot FM interview: Am glad that the government has decided to take this matter of mental health care to parliament.

Other words that show direct spelling include:

- a. Promote
- b. Commit
- c. Common
- d. Debris
- e. Handsome
- f. Of
- g. Parent
- h. Profit
- i. Random
- j. Telephone
- k. Standard
- l. Studio

This is as shown below:

74. Bemba: *ndeya kung'anda* 'I am going home'

75. Lunda: *Mama nakuda kabaka* 'Mother is eating maize'

From sentences 71 and 72, it is seen that there is no complexity in reading the vowels in each words. Thus, spelling pronunciation is another method used in simplifying English language pronunciation by doing so as written. Spelling pronunciations are seen as many different levels of word. For instance in:

### **Extract BO**

76. words with post-tonic <-ace, -age, ain, -ate> have [e].

- a. Popul[e]ce
- b. Vill[e]ge
- c. Mount[e]in
- d. Liter[e]te



77. The word women and words in <-ed, -less, -ness> have /e/

- a. Wom[en]
- b. Paint[e]d
- c. Usel[e]ss
- d. Happin[e]ss

78. The past form of a verb, the morpheme <-ed> is pronounced as is, despite having an [-ɪd] pronunciation in RP such as:

- a. Wanted /wanted/
- b. Attended /attended/
- c. Presented /prɪzented/

### 4.3. Consonants

Consonants realization in ZE seems to be similar to that of RP with a few deviations. Most consonant deviations can best be described in phonological processes as will be seen in chapter five. Among the few sounds discovered, include stops, laterals and inter-dentals.

#### 4.3.1. Stops/Plosives

Plosives at the beginning of a word are always aspirated unless at medial or final positions, then they are not aspirated. The treatment of plosives at the beginning of words is quite different in ZE.

##### a) Aspiration of plosives

The findings reveal that ZE speakers tend to unaspirate plosives at the initial position of a word. This is as illustrated in the extract below:

#### Extract AA

79. 5 FM phone-in: It is our parental responsibility to ensure that we control our children.

RP: [p<sup>h</sup>eərənt]                      ZE: [parent].

80. Q FM news: A federal judge has denied parole to a woman for lying about her involvement in the Rwanda genocide.

RP: [t<sup>h</sup>u]                      ZE: [tu]

81. ZNBC Radio 4 interview: There is need to develop more skills in terms of hotel management, waiters and other issues that contribute to quality hotel service in the tourism sector.

RP: [t<sup>h</sup>ɜ:mz]                      ZE: [temz]

RP: [k<sup>h</sup>ɒntrɪbjʊ:t]                      ZE: [kontribjut]

82. Q FM interview: For us to compare Kaunda's time and now, it's so different, look at the number of people that were being enrolled at UNZA back then and now.

RP: [b<sup>h</sup>æk]                      ZE: [bak]

The findings reveal that plosives like /p, b, t, d, k, g/ are usually unaspirated at the beginning or initial position of a word. They are articulated without a puff of sound and treated in the same way as those found in the any other position in a word. This can be alluded to the fact that in Bantu languages, there is no aspiration of plosive sounds at the beginning of a word. Thus /t/ in the words *stress*, *insert*, *time*, *statement* will be treated the same and the distinction between a plosive at the initial position of a word and any other position will not be realised. Similar studies on IndE by Kachru (1994), Gargesh (2004) and Hickey (2004) make the same observation. They observe that plosives such as /p, t, k, d/ are unaspirated if they occur word initially.

#### 4.3.2. Gottal Stop

##### b) Realisation of Glottal stop /h/

Some ZE speakers have a tendency of dropping the /h/ at the beginning of a word. However, this was not idiosyncratic as h-dropping can be said to be a common feature of the Bemba speakers of English (Simukoko 1977). This is because /h/ does not exist in the Bemba speakers' consonant inventory thus it is a difficult sound to realize. The findings show that it is deleted or realized as /ʔ/. This is as illustrated in the extract below:

#### Extract BB

83. Q FM interview: Coming to architects, we head the team and guide the client.

ZE: /hed/ or /ʔed/

84. Hot FM interview: We don't come here as politicians to fight with you our fellow citizens.

ZE: /hije/ or /ije/

85. 5 FM phone-in: How many times have you voted?

ZE: /awu/

ZE: /ev/

86. Hot FM phone-in: Good morning our dear caller ...hello...hello...hello. Oh! we lost that one.

ZE: /alo/

87. ZNBC TV news: President Edgar Lunga has arrived back home from Swaziland.

ZE: /homu/or /omu/

88. ZNBC TV news: President Edgar Lungu has also said he was happy to officiate at the national trade fair in Swaziland.

ZE: /hapi/

#### 4.3.3. Laterals

##### c) Lateral /l/

As regards lateral /l/, findings reveal that ZE speakers tend to realize the lateral /l/ as is, however there are instances where there is no contrast between /l/ and /r/. This is common among many ZE speakers but more so the Bemba speakers. The two /l/ and /r/ are used in most cases interchangeably. This is as illustrated in the extract below:

#### Extract DD

89. Hot FM Phone-in: The chipolopolo boys will deliver for us today.

RP: /dɪlɪvə/                      ZE: /deriva/

90. Hot FM phone-in: If the boys can believe in themselves then we will believe in them as well.

RP: /bɪli:v/                      ZE: /biliv/

91. ZNBC TV interview: Should Zambia leave the ICC or not?

RP: /li:v/                      ZE: /liv/

92. Muvi TV phone-in: Women should express pleasure and share ideas which can contribute to their social and economic wellbeing.

RP: /plezə/                      ZE: /preʒə/

93. ZNBC TV news: He implored the men folk to support women.

RP: /implɔːd/                      ZE: /implɒd/

94. Hot FM phone-in: Ladies should go out there and celebrate their day but not drink carelessly.

RP: /leɪdɪz/                      ZE: /redɪz/

The findings showed that some ZE speakers do not make a clear distinction between /l/ and /r/ as they are used interchangeably (Simukoko 1977). This can be accounted for by the fact that in most Zambian Bantu languages, these sounds /l/ and /r/ are used interchangeably as they are rendered one and the same.

Moreover, a lateral is a sound produced with the tip of the tongue raised to the upper set of teeth. The lateral approximant /l/ has two allophones. These being the clear /l/ found in words like *lady*, *lorry* and the dark /l/ found in words like *bottle* and *simple*. It is a velarized alveolar lateral approximant. ZE speakers therefore tend to clearly identify the clear /l/ though used interchangeably with /r/. However, the velarized dark /l/ is substituted with a rounded vowel /o/ when it occurs at the end of a syllable and in most cases preceded by a consonant nasal.

### **Extract DDA**

95. ZNBC interview: This is a simple and straight forward matter.

RP: /sɪmpl/                      ZE: /sɪmpo/

96. Muvi TV news: The Zambia national team has arrived from Algeria where they beat Desert Foxes 1-0 on Tuesday night to bolster their chances to qualifying for the Russia 2018 FIFA world cup.

RP: /næʃnəl/                      ZE: /nəʃono/

97. Q FM interview: Politicians are important because they help on social and economic matters.

RP: /səʊʃl/                      ZE: /soʃo/

This tendency can be alluded to the fact that ZE speakers tend to simplify the consonant cluster that occur by substituting the /l/ with /o/. Additionally, English in such cases considers the /l/ as a nucleus for a syllable but Zambian languages do not allow consonants to be considered as syllable nucleus thus the need to dissolve it into /o/.

However, there are instances where it is completely ‘lost’ or deleted like the in the words given below:

98. a. Ball /bo/ instead of /bɔl/

b. Rule /ru/ instead of /ru:l/

c. Pull /pu/ instead of /pʊl/

The lateral /l/ therefore, at the end of words is completely ‘lost’/deleted or replaced with the round back vowel /o/.

#### 4.3.4. Rhoticity

##### d) Pronunciation of /r/.

The findings revealed that ZE is non-rhotic meaning /r/ sound is pronounced in only two situations and these being in word medial positions as in *barren*, *barrier*, and word initially as in *right*, *rose*, *reign*, *rule* and many other words that have /r/ word medially or initially. It does not occur post vocally as in *word*, *war* and *worker*. This is illustrated in the extract below:

#### Extract EE

99. ZNBC radio4 interview: We are trying to sensitize our people on how to go about fish farming.

RP: /fɑ:mɪŋ/                      ZE: /famɪŋ/

100.        Q FM phone-in: Workers need to be paid on time. It is our right as Zambians whether you work for a private or government institution.

RP: /wɔ:(r)k/        ZE: /wek/

RP: /praɪveɪt/        ZE: /prajivet/

101.        Q FM interview: Children need to be taught the word of God everyday.

RP: /wɜ:(r)d/                      ZE: /wed/

Non-rhoticity of ZE is similar to that of SAFE (Roach,2001).

#### 4.3.5. Consonant Clusters

Consonant (C) clusters refer to a sound sequence made of consonants only, such sequences tend to have a CC structure or CCC structure. Consonant clusters usually occur at the beginning and end of a syllable. The English language allows consonant clusters at either position of the syllable. Consonant clusters in ZE tend to be dissolved, either by dropping one/some of the consonants involved or by splitting them through the insertion of vowels. Usually in natural speech, the stops in final positions are dropped when there are two or more in a sequence.

##### a) Deletion of consonants in consonant clusters

As mentioned above, consonant clusters are dealt with in many ways. Findings revealed that one of the ways is through deletion. This is a common trend in connected speech. Usually, deleted consonants are found in consonant clusters. This is illustrated below:

#### Extract FF

102. Hot FM interview: There is no government that could wish its people ill, people should just be ready to work with the president.

/dakʊd/

/ʃʊdʒʌst/

103. Hot FM interview: The young people took the councilor to task about the Kalikiliki bridge and the next day things started moving.

/tʊdðe/

/neksde/

104. Q FM phone-in: It is unfortunate we missed that call. You call us on 0955500016.

/mis dðə ko/

105. Hot FM phone-in: Artist nowadays think they can sing whatever they want. Some of them are contributing to the moral decay of the country.

/atis/

/fθɪndðeji/

When plosives are followed by other plosives in words or connected speech there is a tendency to drop or delete one of the plosives. This also occurs when plosives are followed by affricates.

Plosives like /p, t, k, d/ are highly prone to deletion in connected speech as illustrated in extract ff. Speakers tend to be more careful in their pronunciation of words in isolation thus consonant clusters are pronounced as they are. Words such as *past, cast, missed, cold, end, task, dusk* in isolation are well pronounced and are clearly heard. However, in connected speech they are dropped or deleted. Similarly, Wee (2008) study on CollsGE also observes that in connected speech as well as isolated word pronunciation, stops usually get deleted.

**b) Epenthetic /o/ and /e/.**

Findings further reveal that insertion of epenthetic vowels is another way in which consonant clusters are dealt with. This occurs at the end of words that end in <-tion> as shown in the extract below:

**Extract GG**

106. Q FM interview: Politicians are a necessary evil because some give direction while others misdirect.

RP: /dərekʃn/      ZE: /dajirekʃon/

107. ZNBC radio4: As parents we must encourage our children to realize their dreams. They have dreams and ambitions that need to inspired by parents.

RP: /æmbɪʃn/      ZE: /ambɪʃon/

The /ʃn/ cluster is simplified by epenthetic insertion of /o/.

108. ZNBC radio 4 phone-in: Children nowadays do not listen to their parents so we cannot entirely blame the parents for what the over 200 teenagers did.

RP: /lɪsn/      ZE: /lisen/

109. Hot FM interview: If you were chosen to run the project, how different would it be?

RP: /tʃəʊzn/      ZE: /tʃozen/

110. Q FM interview: Most people do not know much about cotton farming in Zambia.

RP: /kʌtn/      ZE: /koton/

Consonant clusters at the beginning of word tend to be pronounced as they are because even some Bantu languages allow consonant clusters at the beginning of a word, however it should be one made of a nasal (N)+Consonant (C)+semi vowel (S) (NCS) for the word *nswana* ‘successor’ in Lunda. Here the first syllable consists a nasal /n/, consonant/s/ and semi-vowel /w/. Most consonant clusters in Bantu languages begin with a nasal.

#### **4.4. Summary**

This chapter presented data on segmental deviations found in English as used in the media. From the findings, it is seen that segmental deviations are more apparent with the vowel system than the consonantal system. This has been attributed to the tendency by ZE speakers to merge the 12 RP vowels into five due to the influence from the Bantu languages of the country.



## **CHAPTER FIVE: SOME COMMON PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSES IN 'ZAMBIAN ENGLISH'**

### **5.1 General**

This chapter presents some of the phonological processes that give rise to the tendencies that have been discussed in chapter four. ZE has a sound system different from RP especially the vocalic system. As earlier mentioned, much of the deviations are due to the influence from the Bantu languages spoken in Zambia. Some phonological processes occur to yield such a sound system. This chapter will examine such processes.

In the presentation of the data from the findings, the words of focus have been underlined and in some cases transcribed for ease of reference.

### **5.2. Consonant Cluster Simplification**

Consonant cluster simplification in ZE occurs in three ways. These being through insertion, deletion and substitution.

#### **5.2.1. Elision/Gradation**

Elision is also called gradation. This involves the loss of a phoneme in connected speech. This tends to happen in unstressed syllables. Elision is a simplification or an economy to glide over in rapid colloquial speech. In natural conversation, speech tends to glide over forms and 'lose' some sounds. This occurs as discussed below.

##### **i. Final Consonant Clusters Deletion**

The data from the findings revealed that some ZE speakers tend to delete consonants when they follow each other. This deletion occurs when a sound with at least similar qualities follow each other. This is common when plosives follow each other at the end of a word or meet at word boundaries. This is illustrated in the extract below:

## Extract II

111. 5 FM interview: We have to talk about facts here. People should stop talking about issues they are not sure about.

ZE: Facts /faks/

ZE: stop talking /sto tokiŋ/

112. Q FM phone-in: The fact that people did not come in large numbers to Zamfest doesn't mean people did not enjoy.

ZE: The fact that / ðe fak ðat/

The findings reveal that when /t/ and /d/ follow each other in connected speech, one tends to be deleted. This is alluded to that influence from Bantu languages where consonant clusters at the end of words are very rare. Thus, deletion dissolves the consonant cluster.

### ii. Compound word 'and'

The findings further reveal that ZE speakers tend to delete some consonants in compound sentences as shown in the extract below:

## Extract JJ

113. Hot FM Phone-in: We need to be heard and contribute to the development of this country.

114. Muvi TV phone-in: Man and wife should work together and not compete.

In sentence 115 the phrase heard and contribute will be realized as /hed en kontribjut/ and sentence 116 will get the pronunciation /man en wife/. The /d/ at the end of the compound word 'and' is deleted.

### iii. Glottal stop /h/

As regards the glottal stop /h/, findings show that some ZE speakers tend to delete the stop /h/ if it occurs initially. However this is not widespread among all the speakers. The tendency to drop /h/ at the beginning of a word is very common among many ZE speakers but more so among the Bemba speakers (Simukoko 1977). This is as illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract KK

115. Hot FM phone-in: Hello goodmorning...hello... hello

ZE: /alo/

116. Muvi TV interview: How does government allow people to just burn markets like that, the culprits should be caught because they have destroyed many lives.

/awu/

Others examples include words as shown below and extract BB.

House /awus/

Hill /il/

Some general rules can thus be deduced from the process of elision. These being:

- i. If plosives are preceded by fricatives, they are dropped in word final position.
- ii. If they are preceded by other plosives or occur in non-final position they are split by vowels inserted between the consonants.

One important factor to be borne in mind is that the glottalisation of /h/ is not a common trend among speakers of Zambian English. This trend as already mentioned is common among the Bemba speakers of English. This can be attributed to the fact that Bemba speakers do not have the /h/ sound in their consonantal system thus it seems as if it is difficult to produce the /h/ sound at the beginning of words. Therefore, this element cannot be generalized to say it only occurs among Zambian English.

#### 5.2.2. Glide epenthesis

This process is employed in ZE pronunciations to simplify or break down diphthongs into monophthongs. This is as illustrated in tables 4 and 6, it is seen that the palatal glide /j/ is used to break the diphthongs /ɔɪ, eɪ, aɪ, eə/. The epenthesis of /j/ in this phonological environment can be accounted for by the fact that the epenthetic palatal glide j and the coronal /e,i/ are produced at the same place of articulation, that is the hard palate. The labio-velar /w/ is also epenthesized when it is either preceded or followed by the dorsal vowel /u/. The process of epenthesis results in a resyllabification of English words.

### 5.2.3. Substitution

This is a process in ZE where a consonant sound is substituted with a vowel sound. This is a common process with the later /l/. When the lateral is preceded by a nasal it substituted for the round vowel /o/. This is illustrated in extract LL.

#### iv. Substitution of /l/

Findings reveal that ZE speakers tend to substitute /l/ with /o/ in a consonant cluster where /l/ occurs at the end of the cluster as shown in the extract below:

#### Extract LL

117. Q FM phone-in: The matter is simple here, let Mutati be fired because he is most probably moving his agenda as he wants to stand for president in 2021.
118. Muvi TV interview: Its such a shame to see that teenagers are getting involved in such illegal activities.
119. ZNBC Radio4 phone-in: There is nothing special about HH, he risked the life of our president and deserves what he got.

In the sentences 122 to 124, the lateral in the words underlined would be realized as follows.

- a. /simpl/ becomes /simpo/
- b. /li:gl/ becomes /ligo/
- c. . /speʃl/ becomes /speʃo/

Other examples include:

- d. /sivl/ becomes /sivo/
- e. /tɒpɪkl/ becomes /tɒpiko/

From the example above it can be seen that the consonant /l/ is substituted with the vowel /o/ at the end of a sentence and if the /l/ is preceded by another consonant.

Consonant clusters seem to be a major phonotactic problem in many African Englishes, this is because African languages are restricted to a C-V syllable structure. This is in agreement with studies conducted by Huber (2008), Simo Bobda (2008), Alabi (2003),

Kirkpatrick and Deterding (2011) and Schmied (2006). These studies make the same observation that English consonant clusters tend to be dissolved, either by dropping one or some of the consonants involved or by splitting them through the insertion of vowels. The studies thus show two ways in which consonants clusters are reduced; by elision and insertion of epenthetic vowels. However, this study has gone a bit further and shown a third way in which consonants clusters are dealt with, that is substitution, which can be said to be peculiar to the ZE speaker.

#### **5.2.4. Glottalisation**

This is a process where a non-glottal sound is glottalised or completely replaced by a glottal sound. One such common process is T-glottalisation and T-deletion which, tend to occur in ZE. A syllable final /t/ can be replaced by a fully or only a weakly realized stop [ʔ or ʔ] or may be dropped altogether in word final position. The following examples in extract MM illustrate instances of T-glottalisation and deletion

##### **v. Glottalisation**

The findings further show that ZE speakers tend to delete or glottalise /t/ when it occurs at the end of a word as illustrated in the extract below:

##### **Extract MM**

120. Muvi TV interview: Christians are the light of this world so they should not involve themselves in vices that paint a bad picture about them.

ZE: Light /lajiʔ/ instead of /laɪt/

121. Q FM phone-in: K-Smash chill, I got this.

ZE: Got /goʔ/ instead of /ɡɒt/

Mostly words in isolation are pronounced with so much care. This is very common process in connected speech. For instance:

122. ZNBC Radio 4 interview: Cotton farming should be encouraged in Zambia.

ZE: /koʔɒn/. Or /kɒtɒn/

The /t/ can either be deleted and replaced with a glottal stop /ʔ/ or can just be glottalised. This is also common process with native speakers of RP.

### 5.3 Vowel Changes

There are many vowel changes that take place that can be accounted for by different processes. Processes that bring about the vowel changes include vowel merging, shortening/weakening, lowering, monophthongization and epenthesis. These processes account for the tendency to reduce the twelve RP monophthongs to five and also the tendency to simplify consonants through vowel epenthesis.

#### 5.3.1 Vowel Merging

Significant changes occur as there is a tendency to merge vowels. And the change occurs in such a way that vowel raising takes place. The symbol > is used to show the realization. Thus it occurs as shown in extract NN:

##### vi. Merged Vowels

The data from the findings reveal that there is a tendency among ZE speakers to merge vowels that are similar. This is as illustrated in extract NN below:

##### Extract NN

- a. /i:/ + /ɪ/ > /i/

123. Zambia should not leave the ICC.

RP: /li:v/              ZE: /liv/

124. We are a caring and listening government.

- b. /ʊ/ + /u:/ > /u/

125. Unfortunately, schools think play is outside the academic area so they don't even have play grounds anymore.

RP: /skʊlz/              ZE: /skulz/

126. In pubs we need to ensure that access for children in night clubs should be limited.

RP: /ʃʊd/              ZE: /ʃudu/

- c. /ʌ/ + /ɑ:/ > /a/

127. There must be a separation between the state and the church.

- RP: /mʌst/                      ZE: /mast/
128.            Time are hard, people need to be paid on time.
- RP: /hɑ:d/                      ZE: /had/
- d. /ɒ/ + /ɑ:/ > /a/
129.            What is surprising is the teaching council having equipment to detect fake papers, fake qualifications but ECZ does not have.
- RP: /kwɒlɪfəkeɪʃnz/                      ZE: /kwəlɪfɪkeɪʃən/

The findings showed that similar sounds are merged into a more familiar Zambian language vowel sound. This can be accounted for by the tendency for ZE speakers to reduce the complex vowel system of English to the five vowel system thus showing influence from the Bantu languages.

### 5.3.2. Vowel Shortening or Weakening

This is a process where long vowels are shortened. This is a common trend in ZE speech. Vowel weakening in ZE occurs due to the fact that most of the sounds that have length do not exist in Bantu languages and thus to accommodate words that have such qualities they are shortened.

#### vii. Weakened Vowels

As earlier shown in extracts W to Zz, the findings show that long vowels are weakened by shortening them. Words discussed that show vowel weakening include:

#### Extract OO

- a. bird /bɜ:d/ realized as /bed/
- b. leader /li:də/ realized as /lida/
- c. rule /ru:l/ realized as /ru/
- d. law /lɔ:/ realized as /lo/
- e. learn /lɜ:n/ realized as /len/
- f. girl /gɜ:l/ realized as /gel/
- g. too /tu:/ realized as /tu/
- h. mark /mɑ:k realized as /mak/
- i. father /fɑ:ðə/ realized as /fadðə/

The findings reveal that long vowels are rendered as short vowels. As mentioned earlier this is a result of influence from the Bantu languages. The realization of long vowels as short vowels can be alluded to the fact that phonologically length does not exist in Bantu languages.

### 5.3.3. Vowel Lowering

Some words that are pronounced orthographically tend to go through the process of vowel lowering. ZE speakers tend to lower vowels. This is where a high vowel is realized as an immediate lower vowel. For instance, vowel lowering from /ɪ/ to /e/ can be said to be influenced by the spelling of the word where in most cases the spelling shows <e> but RP pronunciation is /ɪ/. This is a process where a higher vowel becomes lower. ZE has a tendency to lower the high vowel /ɪ/ to /e/. This is illustrated in extract PP.

#### viii. Lowering Vowels

Vowel lowering among speakers of ZE comes about because of spelling pronunciation. This is illustrated in the extract below:

#### Extract PP

130. ZNBC TV news: The news bulleting was brought to you by Grevazo Zulu
131. Qfm interview: The most common poultry framing is chicken rearing.  
However, keeping chickens involves much care.
132. Muvi TV Phone-in: Village girls that were brought to town in *beads and lipstick* show are interesting to watch.

Words underlined in sentences 132 to 134 are pronounced as follows respectively.

- a. /bulɪt/ pronounced as /bulet/
- b. /tʃɪkɪn/ pronounced as /tʃɪken/
- c. /vɪlɪdʒ/ pronounced as /viledʒ/

Other examples include:

- a. Coll[e]ge
- b. Clos[e]t



Other instances include the lowering of /ɪ/ to /e/ in words like:

- c. Cabbage
- d. Village

The <a> in these words is taken as orthographically written. It is pronounced as /e/ instead of /ɪ/. It has thus been observed that vowel lowering comes as a result of spelling pronunciation. This is caused by the fact that Zambian Bantu language speakers have a one to one correspondence between how the word is presented orthographically and how it is pronounced.

#### **5.3.4. Monophthongization**

This is a process by which diphthongs and triphthongs are realized as a monophthong. This is seen in table 4 and 6 discussed in chapter three. ZE speakers tend to monophthongize diphthongs through glide epenthesis. However, /eɪ/ is monophthongized by loss of the second part of the diphthong. Thus, for instance:

- a. Play /pleɪ/ is realised as /ple/
- b. Lady /leɪdi/ is realized as /ledi/

The /eɪ/ is realized as a monophthong /e/.

Another kind occurs with diphthong /əʊ/ which is realized as /o/ in words like:

- c. Chosen /tʃəʊzn/ realized as /tʃozen/
- d. No /nəʊ/ realized as no.

This kind of monophthongization can be alluded to the fact that ZE speakers have a tendency to pronounce words as spelt. Thus, this occurs as a case of spelling pronunciation.

#### **5.3.5. Vowel epenthesis**

Apart from deletion, insertion of the epenthetic vowels in ZE dissolves Consonant clusters into CVC structure.

### ix. Epenthetic vowel insertion

ZE speakers as a way of simplifying consonant clusters as earlier discussed tend to insert vowels between consonant clusters. This is seen in the way final consonant clusters involving /n/ and /l/ are treated. English considers nasal /n/ and lateral /l/ as syllable nucleus but Bantu languages do not allow these. Thus they are dissolved by insertion of vowels. The words will have two syllables with a CV.CVC structure. Therefore, according to the phonotactics of ZE consonant clusters at the end of words are dissolved by deletion or insertion as this is a common feature of Bantu languages. This is illustrated in extract QQ below:

#### Extract QQ

133. 5 FM phone-in: People just like to complain forgetting that these same leaders were chosen by you.

Chosen /tʃoʒen/ instead of /tʃəʊzn/

134. Hot FM interview: So what you are trying to say is that the application of the public order act is unfair.

Application /əplikeʃən/ instead of /æplikeɪʃn/

Other examples include:

- a. Cotton /koton/ instead of /kʌtn/.
- b. Button /batan/ instead of /bʌtn/

Many other examples of vowel epenthesis are shown in extract GG and HH. Monophthongization is a common process that occurs in many varieties of English. This process has been recorded by many scholars in their studies such as Schmied (2006), Wee (2008), Baskaran (2008), Gargesh (2004), Josiah, Bobunde and Robert (2012), Kachru (1962), Mbufong (2013), Olajide and Olaniyi (2013) to mention only a few.

### 5.4 Summary

This chapter has looked at some phonological processes that give rise to the findings discussed in chapter three. The phonological processes accounted for the consonant cluster

simplification that occur in ZE as used in the media and vowel changes that take place. These processes include elision, substitution, glide epenthesis, monophthongization and many more. These processes lead to the five vowel system that speakers of ZE in the media have instead of 25 inclusive of diphthongs and triphthongs.

## CHAPTER SIX: STRESS IN ‘ZAMBIAN ENGLISH’

### 6.1 General

This chapter discusses stress placement on words and sentences by ZE speakers on the media. It looks at how ZE speakers assign stress to words with different number of syllables as well as sentences. In the presentation of the data from the findings, the words of focus in some cases have been underlined for ease of reference.

### 6.2 Stress

Stress is distinguished into lexical and sentential stress. Lexical stress is accent on one syllable within a word. Sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence that can also be said to be the syllable of the sentence. A stressed syllable is longer, has a higher pitch and is louder. Diacritics (ˈ) and (ˌ) are used for primary and secondary Stress Respectively. This discussion concerns itself with the assignment of primary stress.

#### 6.2.1 Lexical Stress

Lexical stress is rendered differently by ZE speakers from RP. ZE speakers tend to move stress from its original position in RP to another. This is as illustrated in the extracts given below.

##### i. Stress Placement in *Zambian English*

Stress as an important aspect of English occurs in many different ways. Every content word receives stress on one of its syllable. Examples of stressed words are given in the extract below:

#### Extract RR

135. ZNBC TV interview: About 65,000 people have been circumcised so far in the campaign that has been done.

/ˈpi:pl/ here stress is on the first syllable.

136. ZNBC Radio4 news: The Zambia National Farmers Union, ZNFU, has urged farmers not to sell their maize cheaply but to hold on to their stocks until November.

/ˈfɑ:məz/, stress is on the first syllable.

137. Muvi TV interview: This is where we end today's programme.

/ˈprəʊgræm/ has stress on the first syllable.

138. 5 FM interview: What are your views over the mental health bill that will be presented to the national assembly this coming sitting?

/ˈnæʃnəl/ has stress on the first syllable.

Thus it can be seen that most disyllabic words have stress on the initial syllable of the word. however, the ZE speakers tend to shift the stress as follows:

/piˈpɒl/

/fɑˈmɑz/

/prɒˈgrɑm/

/nɑˈʃnɒl/

Stress is moved from the initial to the second syllable. This can be attributed to a tendency by Zambian English speakers to pronounce English words with their local accents.

#### **6.2.1.1 Disyllabic Words**

Disyllabic words are words made of two syllables and RP stress varies from word to word. Stress can either be on the first or second syllable. In first syllables, it is as follows:

##### **ii. Stress Placement in Disyllabic Words**

The findings revealed that ZE speakers have a tendency to shift stress in disyllabic words from the first to the second syllable. This is illustrated in the extract below:

### Extract SS

139. Q FM news: A 24-year old man of Mwandu village in Western province has been killed following a domestic dispute.
140. 5 FM news: Residents who had their vehicles impounded last year for smuggling of mealie meal have asked for leniency from President Edgar Lungu.
141. Q FM phone-in: If you address Felix Mutati as MMD president instead of faction president, you are misleading people.

Stress in RP and ZE on the words underlined is as follows:

RP	ZE
a. dis'pute /dɪs'pju:t/	'dispute /'dispjut/
b. 'vehicles/'vi:əkl/	ve'hicle /vi'jeko/
c. a'ddress /ə'dres	'address /'adres/

From a and b above it has been seen that there is stress movement from initial to the second. This is caused by the fact that sounds that have the quality of length in RP are usually stressed however in ZE they are not stressed as they lose the quality of length due to merging. In c, stress is shifted to the initial, in RP, the weak vowel /ə/ cannot be stressed but since in ZE it is realized as a full vowel /a/ it tends to receive stress. Other examples of stress shift to the initial syllable include:

RP	ZE
For'bid	'forbid
Ob'tain	'obtain
De'spite	'despite
Suc'cess	'success

### 6.2.1.2. Trisyllabic Words

Trisyllabic words contain three syllables. In trisyllabic words, ZE speakers tend to move the penultimate stress to the ultimate and in instances where stress is on the first syllable, they move it to the penultimate. Examples of such words are shown in extract TT below.

#### iii. Stress placement in trisyllabic words

The findings revealed that in trisyllabic words, speakers of ZE tend to move or shift stress to either the right or left. There is a tendency to move stress from the penultimate to the ultimate or if stress occurs on the first syllable, ZE speakers tend to move it to the penultimate position. This is illustrated in the extract below:

#### Extract TT

142. Hot FM interview: Whose agen'da is Mutati moving?

RP: /ə'dʒendə/                      ZE: /adʒen'da/

143. 5 FM news: Now Defence Permanent Secretary, Steady Mwale says, go'vernment is eager to revamp the defence factories and make them relevant to the ever growing public demands.

RP: /'gʌ.vən.mənt/                      ZE: /ga'vament/

144. 5 FM news: Will the Chipolopolo boys 'deliver today?

RP: /dɪ'lɪvə/                      ZE: /deli'va/

145. Hot FM phone-in: Please people lets not be emotional but con'tribute objectively.

RP: /'kɒntrɪbjʊ:t/                      ZE: /kon'tribjut/

Other examples include words like:

RP	ZE
a. Pe'tition	peti'tion
b. So'lution	solu'tion
c. um'brella	umbre'lla
d. i'magine	ima'gine

e. 'candidate	can'didate
f. 'leadership	lea'dership
g. 'ministry	mi'nistry
h. 'performance	per'formance
i. re'porter	repor'ter
j. e'lection	elec'tion

### 6.2.1.3. Four syllable Words

In four syllable words, stress moves from the initial syllable to the antepenult and .

#### iv. Stress placement in four syllable words

In many four-syllable words, stress occurs on the first syllable with a few instances where it occurs on other positions. However, the findings revealed that ZE speakers tend to shift the first syllable stress in four syllable words to the penultimate. This is as shown in extract UU below:

#### Extract UU

146. ZNBC news: Vice President, Inonge Wina says construction of the Mongu-Kalabo road in Western province is vital in easing trans'portation need of the local people.
147. Q FM news: Mr Ngulube meanwhile said the hiking of school fees by ma'nagement is unreasonably not timely.
148. Hot FM interview: what am saying is that there must be a se'paration between the state and the church.

Other examples of four syllable words include the following.

'Journalism	jour'nalism
'Statutory	sta'tutory
'January	ja'nuary
Infor'mation	in'formation



'Secretary	se'cretary
'Everything	eve'rything
'Management	ma'nagement
De'mocracy	'democracy
Sepa'ration	se'paration
'Transportation	trans'portation

In most cases, stress in four syllable words moves from the initial syllable to the antepenult. Only in few instances where stress in RP is placed on the second syllable tends to receive stress on the initial syllable because of change in the vowel on the first syllable. For instance:

Democracy /dɪ'mɒkrəsi/ in ZE is pronounced as /demokrasi/. This is because ZE tend to pronounce as spelt. Thus,/e/ receives primary stress thereby stressing the first syllable.

#### **6.2.1.4 Five Syllable Words**

In most five syllable words, In five syllable words, ZE speakers tend to move the stress from the penultimate to the ultimate. This is alluded to the fact that the words have suffixes –tion /ʃn/ added to them from the base. ZE speakers tend to move the penultimate stress to the ultimate as in the examples shown in extract XX below.

##### **v. Stress placement in five syllable words**

As regards five syllable words, findings reveal that ZE speakers tend to move the stress in five syllable words from the penultimate to the antepenultimate. This is illustrated in words with five syllables in extract XX below:

#### **Extract XX**

149. Q FM News: NAREP has advised Mulungushi Univer'sity not to expel students as it is not the solution to the matter.
150. Muvi TV news: The African Development bank, ADB has praised Zambia for taking a painful decision to increase electri'city tariffs by 75% saying more investment will be done in the energy sector.

Other examples of stress movement in five syllable words include:

RP	ZE
Perso'nalify	persona'lity
Imagi'nation	imagina'tion
Uni'versity /ju:nɪ'vɜ:səti/	unver'sity
Elec'tricity /ɪlek'trɪsəti/	electri'city
Admini'stration	adminstra'tion
Investi'gation	investiga'tion
Partici'pation	participa'tion
Exagge'ration	exaggera'tion

Moreover, due to consonant cluster simplification, the /fn/ is simplified by inserting /e/ so it becomes /patisipefn/ thus the stress moves to the last syllable in the word.

For example

Par'ticipate + -ion = participation /pɑ:tɪsɪ'peɪfn/

On the other hand, from the antepenult to the penultimate syllable in words of five syllables as in the examples below.

- a. Ad'vertisement                  adver'tisement
- b. Al'ternative                      alter'native

#### **6.2.1.5. Six Syllable Words**

##### **vi. Six syllable words**

Findings reveal that there is tendency among ZE speakers to shift stress to the antepenult from the penultimate. This is known as backward shift. English tends to maintain the Romance principle of word stress on the penultimate syllable in contrast to the Germanic

principle of stressing the stem. However, the case is different with ZE speakers. This is as illustrated in the extract below:

**Extract YY**

151. Hot FM interview: It is our respon'sibility as government to ensure that we look into the wellbeing of our people.

152. Muvi TV Phone-in: Should confidentia'lity be key in marriages?

RP	ZE
Responsi'bility	respon'sibility
Identifi'cation	identi'fication
Enthusia'stically	enthu'siastically
Confidenti'ality	confidentia'lity
Misrepresen'tation	misrepre'sentation

From the stress patterns shown on the different words. It is seen that stress movement occurs in two ways, that is forward shift also known as right shift and backwardshift also known as left shift. The findings show that for most words, stress is usually placed on the penultimate syllable of the word. It has been noted that such deviations in stress are common not only in Zambia, but in Africa Englishes (Schmied, 1991); and in countries all over the world where English is used as a second or foreign language (Platt, Weber and Ho, 1984).

### 6.2.2 Stress in Words with Double Roles

There are words that are similar in spelling but differ in pronunciation. These words have the same form but carry different meanings or belong to different word classes due to how they are stressed. As much as context of the word differentiates the roles, pronunciation also matters because the stress patterns differ according to the word class.

## **vii. Verbs and Nouns with same spelling**

ZE usually does not make a clear distinction between the word classes as they are used interchangeably or realized as one and the same. Moreover, in most cases the stress in the initial syllable denoting a noun is moved to the second. It is pronounced as a verb even if one was referring to a noun. ZE speakers tend to pronounce similar words in the same way despite the word class it belongs to.

### **Word-Defect**

Defect can either be a noun or a verb according to the stress position in a word. This distinction is not made by ZE speakers as they pronounce ‘defect’ the same way. As a noun the word *defect* receives stress on the first syllable while as a verb it receives stress on the second syllable. However, this distinction is not made as stress falls on the second syllable despite the word being a noun. This is illustrated in the extract below:

### **Extract ZZ**

153. Q FM phone-in: For a member of a political party to de'fect then there must be wrong with the party. So UPND members have the right to leave and join a working party.

154. Hot FM phone-in: Can you then say she has a hearing de'fect.

In 156 *defect* is a verb and in 157 it is a noun. However, it is pronounced in the same way as it is stressed on the same syllable.

### **Word –Object**

Object plays two roles as a verb as well as a noun depending on the stress pattern. ZE speakers however tend to not make this contrast in the pronunciation of the word. This is as illustrated in the extract below:

### **Extract ZZZ**

155. Q FM interview: I don't want to 'object your point but K-Smash you have to be realistic, most people nowadays have sex before marriage. (v)

156. 5 FM interview: This is an 'object of discussion. (n)

In the sentences above the words underlined though of the same form belong to different word classes but ZE speakers will pronounce them in the same way thus they are stressed the in the same way. Other examples are shown in table 7below.

**Table 7: Stress in Words with Dual Roles**

NOUN	VERB	ZE pronunciation
'Contest	Con'test	Con'test
'Defect	De'fect	De'fect
'Insert	In'sert	In'sert
'Object	'Object	Ob'ject
'Present	Pre'sent	Pre'sent
'Protest	Pro'test	Pro'test
'Recall	Re'call	Re'call
'Record	Re'cord	Re'cord
'Register	Re'gister	Re'gister
'Increase	In'crease	In'crease

Therefore making a distinction of the word class by using stress seems to be problematic.

### **6.3. Sentence Stress**

Sentence stress is important for two reasons; show the key information and determines the rhythm. When dealing with sentence stress, it is important to distinguish between content and grammatical words. Content words like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are stressed while grammatical/functional words like prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary are unstressed. Exceptions like interrogatives and demonstratives receive stress.

Usually the strongest stress of a sentence falls on the last stressed syllable called tonic, accents or nucleus. The tonic helps in describing intonation as either having a falling or rising melody. Sentence stress is what gives English its rhythm.

Sentence stress in ZE occurs in such a way that all words tend to be stressed. Roughly equal time is accorded to each word thus all words tend to be stressed creating a syllable-time rhythm instead of stress timed. Extract AAA below gives examples of sentential stress.

**viii. Stress in RP.**

RP gives English its rhythm by stressing content words in a sentence as shown below. This gives it what is known as a stress-timed rhythm. Extract AAA shows how stress occurs in RP.

**Extract AAA**

157. ZNBC TV news: 'President 'Edgar 'Lungu has 'congratulated the 'Zambia  
'national 'football 'team for their 'one-nill 'victory against 'Algeria in the 'Russia  
'2018 world cup 'qualifier.
158. ZNBC TV news: 'ZANIS has the 'details in the 'following 'report.
159. 5 FM phone-in: The 'issue of 'children 'going to 'another 'church and  
'parents 'going to 'another is a no no.
160. Q FM news: 'Vice 'President, 'Inonge 'Wina 'called on 'well 'wishers to  
'come on 'board and 'support the 'bring 'back 'better 'markets 'initiative.
161. ZNBC TV news: 'One 'Zambia, 'one 'nation, a 'very 'good 'evening to  
you.

### ix. Stress in 'Zambian English'

In relation to the discussion above, the findings showed that speakers of ZE render sentence stress differently. ZE speakers tend to stress all the words in a sentence. English stresses content words in a sentence giving it its rhythm. The stressed words are spoken with louder and carry more time as opposed to grammatical words. Grammatical words are spoken faster than the content words. ZE does not differentiate the syllables but consider all as syllables and accord equal time to each during its pronunciation. This is illustrated in the extract below:

#### Extract BBB

162. ZNBC TV news: 'President 'Edgar 'Lungu 'has 'congratulated the 'Zambia 'national 'football 'team 'for 'their 'one-nill 'victory 'against 'Algeria in the 'Russia '2018 'world 'cup 'qualifier.
163. ZNBC TV news: 'ZANIS 'has 'the 'details in the 'following 'report.
164. 5 FM phone-in: 'The 'issue of 'children 'going 'to 'another 'church 'and 'parents 'going 'to 'another is a 'no 'no.
165. Q FM news: 'Vice 'President, 'Inonge 'Wina 'called on 'well 'wishers 'to 'come on 'board 'and 'support 'the 'bring 'back 'better 'markets 'initiative.
166. ZNBC TV news: 'One 'Zambia, 'one 'nation,' a 'very 'good 'evening to 'you.

The findings are in agreement with Schmied's (2006) study on *East African Englishes*. In his study he makes a general observation of stress in African Englishes. He observes that African Englishes tend towards a syllable-timed rather than a stress timed rhythm. Similar observations are made by Alabi (2003) and KirkPatrick and Deterding (2011). This is also echoed by Banjo (1979) in Onose's (2010) study where a point is raised after observing the mastery of suprasegmentals among Nigerian students. It is observed that English stress and intonation is a final hurdle which the vast majority of speakers of ESL never manage to cross. This is true for ZE speakers as well because at the segmental level, they try to maintain the same inventory specifically the consonantal inventory however when it comes to stress, it is far from being near RP stress.

Stressed syllables in a sentence usually receive more time than the unstressed syllables. ZE sentence stress occurs differently because each syllable receives equal importance, therefore equal time is accorded to each. In connected speech, English, stressed syllables follow each other nearly at roughly equal intervals of time, unstressed syllables are quickly pronounced. The greater the number of unstressed syllables the quicker they are pronounced. For instance:

167.       a. 'Dogs 'like 'people.  
          b. The 'dogs 'like 'people.  
          c. The 'dogs have 'liked 'people.  
          d. The 'dogs have 'liked the 'people.  
          e. The 'dogs might have 'liked the 'people.  
          f. The 'dogs might have been 'liking the 'people.

Although the sentences in 173 differ in the number of syllables. They roughly take the same time as only the content words are stressed and the grammatical words are pronounced quickly. ZE will accord the syllables in the sentences equal time because the unstressed will also be stressed thus the sentences will take different times. As Trudgill and Hannah (2008) points out that non-native varieties of English have a tendency to stress elements considered weak and unstressed. ZE can thus be said to be syllable-timed instead of stress-timed. This can be accounted for by the fact that tonal languages like Zambian Bantu languages makes significant use of pitch on every syllable. A tone language is one that makes significant use of pitch on every syllable (Pike, 1948). Pitch use is either lexically or grammatically significant. Just like many Englishes in Africa, in ZE, every syllable is as prominent as another and the weakening of syllables as in a stress language does not occur (Mesthrie, 2008).

Additionally, a sentence may have different stress positions according to the focus of the speaker. For instance:



### **Extract CCC**

1. a. Q FM phone-in: Question: What is your prediction in today's game?

b. Q FM phone-in: Answer: Zambia will 'win 2-0.

The stress will be on 'win' because it is about finding out how the game will go. Stress can move in a sentence as in sentence 172 below.

2. a. Q FM phone-in: Question: what is your prediction in today's game?

b. Q FM phone-in: Answer: Zambia will win '2-0.

Stress is on the number of goals Zambia will score. Moreover, stress can also be on whom Zambia beat at the game as in sentence 173 below.

3. a. Q FM phone-in: Question: what is your prediction in today's game?

b. Q FM phone-in: Answer: Zambia will beat 'Algeria 2 goals to nil.

By stressing the sentences as shown, it is very easy to understand the area of focus in one's speech. ZE speakers do not necessarily stress the focus of the sentence. Sentence 171 to 173 can either be understood from context or the relationship between the speaker and listener.

### **6.3.1 Tonic Syllable Shift**

There are times when the same sentence can have different meanings. This is because of where the stress is placed. Thus, there is a tendency to shift stress in order to convey the right meaning. The tonic of the sentence in such cases shifts from one syllable to another. This is referred to as tonic syllable shift. For instance:

### **Extract DDD**

A. I 'believe in doing what is right.

B. I believe in 'doing what is right.

Sentence A has stress placed on chocolate to mean that Mary hates chocolate but not any other thing. Maybe she likes ice cream. Sentence B stress shifts to the second syllable of the sentence, this means chocolate is the only thing she doesn't like. ZE will render the

sentences as one despite carrying different meanings. The situation in which the sentence is being said will help in conveying the right meaning. ZE will just render it as

C. I 'believe in 'doing what is ^right.

Zambians speak tone languages as their first language. Tone languages are characterized by downdrift, a general lowering of absolute pitch as the utterance proceeds. At the end of a sentence, the tonal register is usually reset (upstepped) and the downdrift starts again. There is a tendency to carry these features over to ZE. That is why at the end of the sentence, there is an up-down rhythm.

### **6.3.2 Stress of Negative Forms**

Negative forms in English receive stress. ZE speakers have a tendency of stressing the negative forms but also any other words that sends that message they want to express. For instance:

#### **Extract EEE**

- a. I am in a 'hurry.
- b. I am 'not in a 'hurry.

In sentence c, we only stress the syllable of the sentence 'hurry' but in sentence d, there is a possibility of having two stressed syllables that is 'not' and 'hurry'. Though the former is considered more prominent and thus many scholars will argue that 'not' is the only stressed syllable in the sentence. With ZE, it occurs differently for instance in the sentences below.

- c. There is 'no 'reason to declare a 'dispute where there is none.
- d. 'I 'am 'not 'a 'singer 'but 'I 'know 'how 'good 'music 'should 'sound.

In sentences 174 'no', 'reason' and 'dispute' are stressed so that the listener can get the point being made. It is all about dispute. ZE speakers will not only stress the negative forms but all the syllables just like in 175.

#### **6.4 Summary**

The findings show that stress in ZE in lexical items usually falls on the penultimate and that in sentences stress is applied to every syllable of the sentences thus rendering a syllable timed rhythm.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.1 General**

This chapter concludes the whole study. It summarises the findings of the investigation and afterwards provides recommendation for further studies on the study of nativisation of English in Zambia.

### **7.2 Summary of findings**

The aim of this study was to establish the phonological variations of the English spoken by indigenous Zambians. In order to meet this goal. Firstly, the study sought to identify the sound segments. The findings revealed that ZE as used in the media has a five vowel inventory. The extreme range of RP vowels that comprise of twelve monophthongs, eight diphthongs and five triphthongs are merged into /a, e, i, o, u/. With regard to consonants, major deviations were in the consonant clusters of words in English. It was established that there is a tendency to avoid consonant clusters thus they are simplified through deletion and insertion. Moreover, plosives /p, t, d, k/ are not aspirated at the beginning of a word.

Secondly, the study sought to examine the phonological processes that give rise to the deviations in the sound system of the English used in the media. The findings revealed that insertion, deletion and substitution were common processes that accounted for the consonant cluster simplification as well as the vowel changes that occur in ‘Zambian English’.

Thirdly, the study sought to analyse stress placement in the English spoken in the media . Findings showed that there is stress shift in ZE with reference to RP. Stress shift was observed in two ways; forward and backward shift. Stress by most ZE speakers was seen to be placed on the penultimate of most lexical items with a few instances where it was placed on the antepenultimate. At the sentence level, findings showed that ZE is syllable-timed as it accords equal stress to all the syllables in a sentence.

### **7.3 Conclusion of the study**

From the findings, the conclusion drawn is that the findings are indicative of the fact that the English spoken in Zambia as used in the media is a different variety from RP. The

pronunciation trends in the English used in the media show that ZE speakers seem to be establishing a phonologically distinct variety spoken in Zambia. It is important to note that languages are living and dynamic, what it is today may not be tomorrow. Therefore, English over the years since independence has gone through the process of nativisation to meet the expressional and communicative needs of the Zambian people.

#### **7.4 Recommendations**

This study has shown phonological trends happening among the speakers of English in Zambia as used in the media. It is recommended that since RP seems unachievable, teachers as well as other speakers of English in the Zambia should not ridicule or even punish those said to be using ‘Zambian English’.

Moreover, this study has shown that there is a lot of research that needs to be conducted on the topic of nativisation of English in Zambia. There are clearly a number of areas that can be investigated in order to come up with a hostilic understanding of Zambian English. There is need to conduct further studies on the following:

1. Nativization of English with reference to vocabulary, grammar, idiomatic expressions, lexicon, semantics and pragmatics.
2. Detailed analyses on the basilect, mesolect and acrolect varieties of the English spoken in Zambia needs to be done. This will help to establish the differences in language use among people of different social status.
3. Studies can be conducted on English relative to the Zambian Bantu languages. This can help to establish how each of the Zambian local language influence the English language.
4. Studies can be conducted to extensively examine other suprasegmental features apart from stress such as intonation patterns of the English spoken in Zambia. Moreover, stress can be exclusively studied in detail as there is much that can be written about it that was beyond the scope of the study.
5. Research can also be carried out to look at English use in other domains (formal and informal).

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Consonants of Bantu Languages of Zambia. Kashoki (1978:66)

Place/manner of articulation	Stops		Affricate		Fricative		Nasal		Lateral		Glide	
Voice	-v	+v	-v	+v	-v	+v	-v	+v	-v	+v	-v	+v
<b>Bilabials</b>	p	b		β				m				w
<b>Labials</b>			pf	bv								
<b>Dental</b>					θ	ð						
<b>labio-dental</b>					f	v						
<b>Alveolar</b>	t	d	ts	dz				n		l or (r)		
<b>Alveo- palatal</b>			tʃ	dʒ				ɲ			j	
<b>Palatal</b>					ʃ	ʒ						
<b>Velar</b>	k	g		ɣ				ŋ				
<b>Glottal</b>					h	ɦ						

### Appendix II: Phonemic Inventory of English Consonants

	Bilabial	Labio- dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post- alveolar	palatal	velar	Glottal
<b>Stops</b>								
<b>Voiceless</b>	p			t			k	
<b>Voiceless aspirated</b>	p <sup>h</sup>			t <sup>h</sup>			k <sup>h</sup>	
<b>Voiced</b>	b			d			g	
<b>Nasal</b>								
<b>Voiced</b>	m			n			ŋ	
<b>Fricative</b>								
<b>Voiceless</b>		f	θ	s		ʃ		h
<b>Voiced</b>		v	ð	z		ʒ		

<b>Affricate</b> <b>Voicless</b> <b>Voiced</b>					tʃ dʒ			
<b>Glide</b> <b>(approximant)</b> <b>Voiceless</b> <b>voiced</b>	w					j		
<b>Liquid</b> <b>Voiced</b> <b>Voiceless</b>				l r				

### Appendix III: Zambia English Word Pronunciation

	WORD	RP	ZE
1.	Above	əb'ʌv	'abav
2.	Absence	'æbsəns	ab'sens
3.	Absent	'æbsənt	ab'sent
4.	Absolute	'æbsəlu:t	ab'solut
5.	Absolutely	'æbsəlu:tli	absoljut'li
6.	Abstain	əb'stein	'absten
7.	Abuse	ə'bju:s	'abjuz
8.	Academic	ækə'demɪk	akade'mik
9.	Accept	ək'sept	'aksept
10.	Access	'ækses	a'kises
11.	Accident	'æksɪdənt	ak'sident
12.	Accommodation	ə,kɒmə'deɪʃn	akomode'ʃen
13.	Accountable	ə'kaʊntəbl	aka'wutebo
14.	Ache	eɪk	'eki
15.	Acknowledge	ək'nɒlɪdʒmənt	akno'ledʒment
16.	Acoustic	ə'ku:stɪk	akustik

17.	Across	ə'krɒs	'akros
18.	Action	'ækʃn	ak'ʃon
19.	Actually	'æktʃuəli	ak'tʃuali
20.	Add	æd	'ad
21.	Address	ə'dres	'adres
22.	Adjourn	ə'dʒɜ:n	'adʒan
23.	Adult	'ædʌlt	ada'wut
24.	Advanced	əd'vɑ:nst	'advanst
25.	Advertisement	əd'vɜ:tismənt	advetaizment
26.	Advisory	əd'vaɪzəri	advai'zori
27.	Advocate	'ædvəkət	advo'ket
28.	Affair	ə'feə(r)	afe'ja
29.	Afraid	ə'freɪd	'afred
30.	Afterwards	'a:ftəwədz	afta'wads
31.	Again	ə'gen	'agen
32.	Age	eɪdʒ	'edʒ
33.	Agenda	ə'dʒendə	adʒen'da
34.	Agent	'eɪdʒənt	a'dʒent
35.	Agree	ə'gri:	'agri
36.	Aim	eɪm	'em
37.	Air	eə	'eja
38.	Alight	ə'laɪt	'alajit
39.	Allege	ə'ledʒ	'aledʒi
40.	Allow	ə'laʊ	'alawu
41.	Allowance	ə'laʊəns	'alawans
42.	Alone	ə'ləʊn	'alon
43.	Alphabet	'ælfəbet	al'fabet
44.	Already	ɔ:l'reɪdi	ore'di
45.	Alternative	ɔ:l'tɜ:nətɪv	otene'tiv
46.	Although	ɔ:l'ðəʊ	'oθo

47.	Amazing	ə'meɪzɪŋ	ame'ziŋ
48.	Ambassador	æm'bæsədə	amba'sada
49.	Ambition	æm'bɪʃn	ambi'ʃon
50.	Ambitious	æm'bɪʃəs	ambi'ʃɪəs
51.	Ambulance	'æmbjʊləns	am'bjulans
52.	Amen	eɪ'men	'amen
53.	Amenity	ə'mɪ:nəti	ame'niti
54.	American	ə'merɪkən	ameri'kan
55.	Analysis	ə'næləsɪs	ana'lɪsɪs
56.	And	ənd	'and
57.	Animal	'æniml	a'nɪmo
58.	Annual	'ænjuəl	an'juo
59.	Answer	'ɑ:nsəl	an'sa
60.	Anybody	'enɪbɒdi	eni'bode
61.	Anything	'eniθɪŋ	eni'θɪn/ enɪfɪn
62.	Apologize	ə'pɒlədʒaɪz	apo'lɒdʒaɪz
63.	Apostle	ə'pɒsl	'aposto
64.	Appeal	ə'pi:l	'apil
65.	Appearance	ə'piərəns	apija'rans
66.	Apple	'æpl	'apo/epo
67.	Appreciate	ə'pri:ʃɪət	apri'ʃet
68.	April	'eɪprəl	e'prel
69.	Apron	'eɪprən	a'pron
70.	Are	ɑ:	a
71.	Arisen	ə'rɪzn	'arizen
72.	Around	ə'raʊnd	'arawud
73.	Arrangement	ə'reɪndʒmənt	arendʒ'ment
74.	As	əz	'az
75.	Ashamed	ə'ʃeɪmd	'aʃemd
76.	Aspect	'æspekt	a'spekt

77.	Assembly	ə'sembli	'asembli
78.	Association	ə'seʊʃieɪʃn	aso'sijeʃen
79.	Assure	ə'ʃʊə	'aʃuwa
80.	Asthma	'æsmə	as'ma/az'ma
81.	At	ət	'at
82.	Astonish	ə'stɒnɪʃ	'astonɪʃ
83.	August	'ɒgəst	o'gast
84.	Authority	ɔ:θɒrəti	oθoriti
85.	Average	'ævərɪdʒ	ave'redʒ
86.	Award	ə'wɔ:d	'awəd
87.	Away	ə'weɪ	'awe
88.	Awe	ɔ:l	'o
89.	Awful	ɔ:fl	o'fo
90.	Baby	'beɪbi	be'bi
91.	Back	bæk	'bak
92.	Bad	bæd	'bad
93.	Balance	'bæləns	ba'lans
94.	Ball	bɔl	'bo
95.	Banana	bə'nɑ:nə	'banana
96.	Bank	bæŋk	'bank
97.	Bar	bɑ:	'ba
98.	Based	beɪst	'bezd
99.	Basic	'beɪsɪk	be'zik
100.	Basis	beɪsɪs	'basis
101.	Basket	bɑ:skɪt	'basket
102.	Bastard	'bɑstəd	ba'stəd
103.	Bath	bɑθ	'baθ
104.	Battery	bætəri	ba'tri
105.	Bed	bed	'bed
106.	Beginning	bɪ'ɡɪnɪŋ	bɪɡɪn'ɪŋ

107.	Behave	bɪ'herv	'bihev
108.	Behavior	bɪ'hervjə	bihev'ija
109.	Belong	bɪ'lɒŋ	'bilɒŋ
110.	Beneficiary	benɪ'fɪʃəri	bene'fɪʃari
111.	Benefit	'benɪfɪt	be'nefɪt
112.	Beyond	bɪ'jɒnd	'bijɒnd
113.	Bias	'baɪəs	ba'jas
114.	Bible	baɪbl	'bajibo
115.	Bind	baɪnd	'bajɪnd
116.	Bird	bɜ:d	'bed
117.	Birth	bɜ:θ	beθ
118.	Bishop	'bɪʃəp	bɪʃɒp
119.	Bitterness	'bɪtənəs	bita'nes
120.	Blame	bleɪm	'blem
121.	Blanket	'blæŋkɪt	blæŋ'ket
122.	Boast	bəʊst	'bost
123.	Boat	bəʊt	'bot
124.	Bomb	bɒm	'bom
125.	Book	bʊk	'buku
126.	Boss	bɒs	'bos
127.	Boundary	'baʊndri	bawun'dari
128.	Brake	breɪk	'brek
129.	Breadth	bredθ	'bredɪf
130.	Break	breɪk	'brek
131.	Bridge	brɪdʒ	'brɪdʒ
132.	Britain	'brɪtn	bri'ten
133.	Broadcast	'brɔ:dkɑ:st	brod'kast
134.	Brother	'brʌðə	bra'da/bra'va
135.	Brown	braʊn	'brawun
136.	Bucket	'bʌkɪt	ba'ket

137.	Budget	'bʌdʒɪt	ba'dʒet
138.	Build	bɪld	'bjuid
139.	Built	bɪlt	'belt
140.	Bulge	bʌldʒ	'bawudʒ
141.	Bullet	'bʊlɪt	bu'let
142.	Burden	'bɜ:dn	be'den
143.	Burn	bɜ:n	'ben
144.	Burst	bɜ:st	best
145.	Bury	beri	bari
146.	Bus	bʌs	bas
147.	Business	'b'znəs	bizi'nes
148.	Busy	'bɪzi	bi'ze
149.	But	bət	'bat
150.	Button	'bʌtn	ba'tan
151.	Bye bye	'baɪ baɪ	'baji 'baji
152.	Cabbage	'kæbɪdʒ	ka'bedʒ
153.	Cable	'keɪbl	ke'bo
154.	Cake	keɪk	'keki
155.	Camera	kæmrə	ka'mera
156.	Can	kən	'ken
157.	Candle	'kændl	ken'do
158.	Cane	keɪn	'ken
159.	Cannot	'kænɒt	ka'not
160.	Capacity	kə'pæsəti	kapa'siti
161.	Capital	'kæpɪtl	ka'pito
162.	Captain	'kæptɪn	kap'ten
163.	Card	kɑd	'kad
164.	Cardinal	'kɑ:dɪnl	ka'dino
165.	Care	'keə	ke'ja
166.	Carpet	'kɑ:pɪt	ka'pet



167.	Carrot	'kærət	ka'rot
168.	Case	keɪs	'kes
169.	Cash	kæʃ	'kaʃ
170.	Catering	'keɪtərɪŋ	ka'tarɪŋ
171.	Catholic	'kæθlɪk	ka'θolɪk
172.	Caught	kɔ't	'kot
173.	Cease	si:s	'siz
174.	Centre	'səntə	sen'ta
175.	Challenge	'tʃælɪndʒ	tʃa'lendʒ
176.	Change	tʃeɪndʒ	'tʃendʒ
177.	Chapel	'tʃæpl	tʃa'pel
178.	Characteristics	'kærəktə'rɪstɪks	karetari'stɪks
179.	Chase	tʃeɪs	'tʃes
180.	Cheap	tʃi:p	'tʃɪp
181.	Check	tʃek	'tʃek
182.	Chicken	'tʃɪkɪn	tʃɪ'ken
183.	Child	tʃaɪld	'tʃald
184.	Children	'tʃɪldrən	tʃu'dren
185.	Chosen	tʃəʊzn	'tʃozen
186.	Christian	kristɪjən	kri'stɪən
187.	Church	tʃɜ:tʃ	'tʃetʃ
188.	Circle	sɜ:kl	'seko
189.	Circumstance	sɜ:kəmstəns	sakam'stans
190.	Citizen	sɪtɪzn	si'tɪzn
191.	Citizenry	sɪtɪzənri	siti'zenri
192.	Civil	sɪvl	'sivo
193.	Cleanup	'kli:nʌp	klin'ap
194.	Clear	klɪə	klɪja
195.	Clergy	'klɜ:dʒi	kle'dʒi
196.	Climb	klaɪm	klajɪmb

197.	Clinic	'klɪnɪk	kli'nik
198.	Closet	klɒzɪt	'klozet
199.	Clothes	kləʊðz	'klodz/'klovz
200.	Coat	kəʊt	'kot
201.	Cocoa	kəʊkəʊ	'koko
202.	Collect	kə'lekt	kole'kit
203.	College	kɒlɪdʒ	koledʒ
204.	Colon	'kəʊlən	ko'loni
205.	Column	kɒləm	ko'lam
206.	Combine	kəmbaɪn	kom'bajɪn
207.	Comedian	kə'mɪdɪən	ko'medijan
208.	Comfort	kʌmfət	kam'fot
209.	Commit	kə'mɪt	'komit
210.	Commitment	kə'mɪtmənt	komit'ment
211.	Commodity	kə'mɒdəti	komo'diti
212.	Common	kɒmən	ko'mon
213.	Communication	kə,mju:nɪ'keɪʃn	komju'nikeɪʃn
214.	Community	ke'mju:nəti	komju'niti
215.	Compete	kəm'pi:t	'kompit
216.	Compilation	ˌkɒmpɪ'leɪʃn	kom'pajilejɪʃn
217.	Complain	kəm'pleɪn	'komplen
218.	Complementary	ˌkɒmplɪ'mɛnrɪ	komplimentari
219.	Complete	kəm'pli:t	'komplit
220.	Complexity	kəm'pleksəti	kompleki'siti
221.	Complicated	'kɒmplɪkeɪtɪd	kom'pliketed
222.	Compliment	kəm'plɪmənt	kompli'ment
223.	Composition	ˌkɒmpə'zɪʃn	kompozi'ʃen
224.	Compound	'kʌmpaʊnd	kom'pawud
225.	Compromise	'kɒmprəmaɪz	kom'promaiz
226.	Concept	'kɒnsept	kon'sept

227.	Concern	kən'sɜ:n	'konsen
228.	Concerned	kən'sɜ:nd	'konsend
229.	Conference	'kɒnfərəns	kon'farens
230.	Conquer	'kɒŋkə	kon'ka
231.	Consider	kən'sɪdə	konsi'da
232.	Constantly	'kɒnstəntli	kon'stantli
233.	Constitution	kɒnstɪ'tʃu:ʃn	konstitju'ʃon
234.	Consult	kən'sʌlt	'konsalt
235.	Contemporary	kən'tempəri	komtem'prari
236.	Contempt	kən'tempt	'kontempt
237.	Continent	'kɒntɪnənt	kon'tinent
238.	Continue	kən'tɪnju:	konti'nju
239.	Contractor	kən'træktə	kontra'kta
240.	Control	kən'treɒl	'kontro
241.	Controversial	'kɒntrə'vɜ:ʃl	kon'traveʃo
242.	Copper	'kɒpə	ko'pa
243.	Corporate	'kɔ:pərət	ko'paret
244.	Cotton	'kɒtn	ko'ton
245.	Council	'kaʊnsɪ	kan'so
246.	Country	'kʌntri	kan'tri
247.	Course	kɔ:s	kos
248.	Court	kɔ:t	kot
249.	Cousin	'kʌzn	ka'zen
250.	Crayon	'kreɪən	kre'jon
251.	Cream	kri:m	krim
252.	Crimes	kraɪm	kra'jim
253.	Criminal	'krɪmɪnl	kri'mino
254.	Criterion	kri'tiəriən	kraʃiti'rijon
255.	Critical	'krɪtɪkl	kri'tiko
256.	Critics	'krɪtɪks	kri'tiks

257.	Crocodile	'krɒkədail	kro'kodail
258.	Crop	kɒp	krop
259.	Cruel	kru:əl	kru'wel
260.	Cultural	'kʌltʃərəl	kawu'tʃro
261.	Culture	'kʌltʃə	kawu'tʃa
262.	Cure	kjʊə	kju'wa
263.	Current	'kʌrənt	ka'rent
264.	Curse	kɜ:s	kes
265.	Curtain	kɜ:tn	'keten
266.	Cushion	'kʊʃn	ku'ʃon
267.	Custom	'kʌstəm	ka'stom
268.	Customer	'kʌstəmə	ka'stoma
269.	Daddy	'dædi	da'di
270.	Dangerous	'deɪndʒərəs	den'dʒaras
271.	Dark	dɑ:k	dak
272.	Date	dert	det
273.	Day	deɪ	de
274.	Deal	di:l	dil
275.	Dean	di:n	din
276.	Dear	diə	di'ja
277.	Debate	di'beɪt	'dibet
278.	Debris	deɪri	de'bris
279.	Decision	di'sɪʒn	disi'ʒen
280.	Declare	di'kleə	dikleja
281.	Deep	di:p	dip
282.	Defend	di'fend	di'fend
283.	Definition	defɪ'nɪʃn	defi'neʃon
284.	Deliberate	di'libəreɪt	deli'baret
285.	Democracy	di'mɒkrəsi	de'mokrasi
286.	Demonstrate	'demənstreɪt	de'mostret

287.	Denomination	dɪˌnɒmɪˈneɪʃn	deˈnomineʃən
288.	Depot	ˈdepəʊ	deˈpo
289.	Description	dɪˈkrɪpʃn	diskrɪpˈʃən
290.	Desire	dɪˈzaɪə	ˈdɪzəʒə
291.	Destination	destɪˈneɪʃn	deˈstɪneʃən
292.	Determination	dɪˌtɜːmɪˈneɪʃn	dɪtəˈmɪneɪʃən
293.	Develop	dɪˈveləp	dɪveˈləp
294.	Deviate	ˈdɪːviət	dɪˈviːjət
295.	Devoted	dɪˈvəʊtɪd	dɪvəˈtɪd
296.	Diabetic	daɪəˈbetɪk	dəˈdʒaːbeˈtɪk
297.	Diagram	ˈdaɪəgræm	dəˈdʒaːgræm
298.	Dial	ˈdaɪəl	dəˈdʒaː
299.	Diamond	ˈdaɪəmənd	dəˈdʒaːmənd
300.	Diarrhea	daɪəˈrɪə	dəˈdʒaːrɪə
301.	died	dɑɪd	dəˈdʒaːd
302.	Diesel	ˈdiːzl	dɪˈzel
303.	Difficult	ˈdɪfɪkəlt	dɪˈfɪkət
304.	Diocese	daɪəsɪs	dəˈdʒaːsɪs
305.	Diplomat	ˈdɪpləmət	dɪˈpləmət
306.	Direct	dəˈrekt	dəˈdʒaːrekt
307.	Direction	dəˈrekʃn	dəˈdʒaːrekʃən
308.	Dirt	dɜːt	dɜːt
309.	Disband	dɪsˈbænd	dɪsˈbænd
310.	Discipline	ˈdɪsəplɪn	dɪˈsplɪn
311.	Discourage	dɪsˈkʌrɪdʒ	dɪsˈkʌrɪdʒ
312.	Dispatch	dɪˈspætʃ	dɪˈspætʃ
313.	Dispensary	dɪˈspensəri	dɪsˈpensəri
314.	Dispute (v)	ˈdɪspjuːt	dɪsˈpjut
315.	Diversify	daɪˈvɜːsɪfaɪ	dəˈdʒaːvɜːsɪfaɪ
316.	Document	ˈdɒkjumənt	dɒˈkjumənt

317.	Does	dʌz	daz
318.	Domestic	də'mestɪk	dome'stik
319.	Doom	du:m	dum
320.	Dozen	'dʌzn	da'zen
321.	Draft	dra:ft	draft
322.	Dramatic	drə'mætɪk	dramatic
323.	Dress	dres	dres
324.	Drew	dru:	dru
325.	Drive	draɪv	dra'jiv
326.	Drop	drɒp	drop
327.	Dubious	'dju:biəs	dubi'jas
328.	Duty	'dju:ti	djuti
329.	Duvet	du:ve'	'duve
330.	Ear	ɪə	ije
331.	Earlier	ɜ:liə	eli'ja
332.	Early	ɜ:li	eli
333.	Earn	ɜ:n	en
334.	Earth	ɜ:θ	Ef/efθ
335.	Easily	i:zəli	i'zili
336.	Economic	i:kə'nɒmɪk	ikonomik
337.	Eden	i:dn	e'den
338.	Edit	'edɪt	e'dit
339.	Edition	ɪ'dɪʃn	edi'ʃen
340.	Effect	ɪ'fekt	i'fekt
341.	Effort	'efət	e'fot
342.	Ego	'i:gəʊ	igo
343.	Eight	eɪt	ejit
344.	Either	aɪðə	iða
345.	Elder	'eldə	el'da
346.	Eldest	eldɪst	el'dest

347.	Elect	ɪ'lekt	'ilekt
348.	Electricity	ɪ'lek'trɪsəti	iletri'siti
349.	Eleven	ɪ'levn	ile'ven
350.	Emotional	ɪ'məʊʃənl	imo'ʃono
351.	Employer	ɪm'plɔɪə	implo'ja
352.	Emulate	'emjuleɪt	em'julet
353.	Encourage	ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ	inkareidʒ
354.	Enemy	'enəmi	e'nemi
355.	Enhance	ɪn'hɑ:ns	enhans
356.	Enough	ɪ'nʌf	'inaf
357.	Enshrined	ɪn'ʃraɪnd	enʃi'rajind
358.	Enslavement	ɛn'sleɪvmənt	insi'levment
359.	Ensure	ɪn'ʃʊə/ ɪn'ʃʊ:	enʃu'wa
360.	Enterprise	'entəpraɪz	en'taprajiz
361.	Environment	ɪn'vaɪrənmənt	invaji'roment
362.	Especially	ɪ'speʃəli	espe'ʃali
363.	Essential	ɪ'senʃl	esenʃl
364.	Establish	ɪ'stæblɪʃ	esta'bliʃ
365.	Ethnic	'eθnɪk	eθ'nik
366.	Etiquette	'etɪket	eti'ket
367.	Evaluation	ɪ'vælju'eɪʃn	ivalju'wefen
368.	Evangelist	ɪ'vændʒəlɪst	evan'dʒelist
369.	Even	'i:vən	i'ven
370.	Everything	'evriθɪŋ	ev'riθɪŋ
371.	Exaggerate	ɪg'zædʒəreɪt	ekza'dʒaret
372.	Exam	ɪg'zæm	'egzæm
373.	Example	ɪg'zɑ:mpl	egza'mpo
374.	Except	ɪk'sept	ek'sept
375.	Excited	ɪk'saɪtɪd	eksa'jited
376.	Excuse	ɪk'skju:s	'ekskju:z

377.	Execute	'eksɪkju:t	ek'sekjut
378.	Exhaust	ɪg'zɔ:t	eg'zot
379.	Exhibit	ɪg'zɪbɪt	egzi'bit
380.	Exist	ɪg'zɪst	'egzɪst
381.	Expand	ɪk'spænd	'ekspænd
382.	Experience	ɪk'spɪəriəns	ekspi'riɛns
383.	Expert	'ekspɜ:t	ek'spat
384.	Explain	ɪk'spleɪn	'eksplen
385.	Exploit	ɪk'splɔɪt	eksplo'jɪt
386.	Expose	ɪk'spəʊz	'ekspoz
387.	Express	ɪk'spres	'ekspres
388.	Eye	aɪ	a'ji
389.	Face	feɪs	fes
390.	Facilitate	fə'sɪlɪteɪt	fasi'litet
391.	Fact	fækt	fakt
392.	Factory	'fæktri	fak'tori
393.	Fade	feɪd	fed
394.	Fail	feɪl	fel
395.	False	fɔ:ls	fols
396.	Family	'fæməli	fa'mili
397.	Far	fɑ:(r)	fa
398.	Farm	fɑ:m	fam
399.	Farmer	'fɑ:mə	fa'ma
400.	Father	'fɑ:ðə	faðə/fadðə/fada
401.	Feature	'fi:tʃə	fi'tʃa
402.	Fed	fed	fed
403.	Field	fi:ld	fild
404.	Fifth	fɪfθ	fifθ
405.	Fighter	'faɪtə	fa'jɪta
406.	Finally	fəməli	fa'jɪnali



407.	Fire	'faɪə	fa'ja
408.	First	fɜːst	fest
409.	Fixture	'fɪkstʃə	fɪk'tʃa
410.	Fleece	fliːs	flis
411.	Flour	flaʊə	fla'wa
412.	Focus	'fəʊkəs	fo'kas
413.	Follower	'fɒləʊə	fo'lowa
414.	Foot	fʊt	fu'tu
415.	Football	'fʊtbɔːl	fu'tubo
416.	For	fə	fo
417.	Forbid	fə'bɪd	'fobid
418.	Forehead	'fɔːhed	fo'hed/fo'red
419.	Forest	fɒrɪst	fo'rest
420.	Forth	fɔːθ	foθ/fof
421.	Forty	'fɔːtɪ	fo'te
422.	Forward	'fɔːwəd	fo'wad
423.	Found	faʊnd	fa'wud
424.	Freedom	'friːdəm	fri'dom
425.	Fulfil	fʊl'fl	fo'fil
426.	Fulfilled	fʊl'fɪld	'folfild
427.	Fur	fɜː	fa
428.	Furniture	'fɜːnɪtʃə	fe'nɪtʃa
429.	Future	'fjuːtʃə	fju'tʃa
430.	Gain	geɪn	gen
431.	Galaxy	'gæləksɪ	gæ'laksi
432.	Garden	'gɑːdn	ga'den
433.	General	'dʒenrəl	dʒen'ro
434.	Generalize	'dʒenrəlaɪz	dʒene'ralajiz
435.	Genocide	'dʒenəsəɪd	dʒe'nosajid
436.	Girl	gɜːl	gel

437.	Give	gɪv	gɪv
438.	Glass	glɑ:s	glas
439.	Glycerine	'glɪsərɪn	gli'sarin
440.	Go	gəʊ	go
441.	Goal	gəʊl	go
442.	God	gɒd	god
443.	Going	'gəʊɪŋ	go'jɪŋ/go'wɪŋ
444.	Gold	gəʊld	god
445.	Good	gʊd	gu'du
446.	Government	'gʌvənmənt	go'vament
447.	Grace	greɪs	gres
448.	Grade	greɪd	gred
449.	Grammar	'græmə	gra'ma
450.	Gravity	'grævəti	gra'viti
451.	Greedy	'grɪ:di	gri'di
452.	Grief	grɪ:f	grɪf
453.	Grill	grɪl	grɪl
454.	Grocery	'grəʊsəri	gro'sari
455.	Gross	grəʊs	gros
456.	Ground	graʊnd	gra'wud
457.	Group	gru:p	grup
458.	Guidance	'gɑ:dn̩s	ga'jɪd̩ns
459.	Guilty	'gɪlti	gi'wuti
460.	Hair	heə	he'ja
461.	Hallo	he'ləʊ	Halo/ alo
462.	Halt	hɔ:lt	hot
463.	Handle	'hændl	han'do
464.	Handsome	'hænsəm	hand'sam
465.	Hang	hæŋ	hæŋ
466.	Happy	'hæpi	ha'pi

467.	Harass	'hærəs	ha'ras
468.	Harmonise	'hɑ:mənaɪz	hamo'najiz
469.	Harmony	'hɑ:məni	ha'moni
470.	Hate	heit	het
471.	Have	həv	hav
472.	Hedge	hedʒ	hedʒ
473.	Hellen	'heli:n	he'len
474.	Her	hə	ha
475.	Hesitate	'hezɪteɪt	he'zitet
476.	Hindrance	'hɪndrəns	hin'drans
477.	History	'hɪstri	his'tori
478.	Holiday	'hɒlədeɪ	hol'ide
479.	Honest	onɪst	ho'nest
480.	Honorable	'ɒnərəbl	ho'narebo
481.	Hospital	'hɒspɪtl	hos'pito
482.	Hostile	'hɒstail	hos'tawo
483.	Hostility	hɒ'stɪləti	hosti'liti
484.	Hour	aʊə	a'wa
485.	House	haʊs	ha'wus
486.	Houses	'haʊzɪz	ha'wuzez
487.	Human	'hju:mən	hju'man
488.	Humane	hju:məɪn	hju'men
489.	Humanity	hju:'mænəti	hjuma'niti
490.	Hurry	hʌri	hʌ'ri
491.	Husband	'hʌzbənd	hʌz'band
492.	Identity	aɪ'dentəti	aiden'titi
493.	Ideology	aɪdɪ'ɒlədʒi	adijo'lodʒi
494.	Illicit	ɪ'lisɪt	ili'sit
495.	Ill	ɪl	i'wu
496.	Immigrant	'ɪmɡrənt	i'migrant

497.	Imperative	im'perətɪv	impe'retɪv
498.	Implement	'ɪmplɪmənt	im'plɪment
499.	Importance	im'pɔːtns	impo'tans
500.	Important	im'pɔːtnt	impo'tant
501.	Impossible	im'pɒsəbl	impo'sibl
502.	Inability	ɪnə'bɪləti	ɪnəbi'liːti
503.	Inclination	ˌɪnklɪ'neɪʃn	ɪnkleɪn'eɪʃn
504.	Increase (n)	'ɪŋkriːs	ɪŋ'kriːz
505.	Influence	'ɪnfluəns	ɪn'fluːəns
506.	Informant	ɪn'fɔːmənt	ɪn'fɔːmənt
507.	Information	ɪnfə'meɪʃn	ɪnfə'meɪʃn
508.	Infringe	ɪn'frɪndʒ	'ɪnfrɪndʒ
509.	Inhuman	ɪn'hjuːmən	'ɪnhjuːmən
510.	Injustice	ɪn'dʒʌstɪs	'ɪnjʌstɪs
511.	Innocent	ɪnesnt	i'nosent
512.	Innovate	'ɪnəveɪt	i'novet
513.	Insight	'ɪnsaɪt	ɪn'saɪt
514.	Inspiration	ɪnspə'reɪʃn	ɪnspɪ'reɪʃn
515.	Instead	ɪn'sted	'ɪnsted
516.	Institution	ˌɪnstɪ'tjuːʃn	ɪn'stɪtjuːʃn
517.	Instrumental	ˌɪnstɹə'mentl	ɪn'strɪmentə
518.	Insult (v)	ɪn'sʌlt	ɪnsə'wʊt
519.	Insure	ɪn'ʃʊə	ɪn'ʃuːwə
520.	Intelligent	ɪn'telɪdʒənt	ɪnte'lɪdʒənt
521.	Intend	ɪn'tend	'ɪntend
522.	International	ˌɪntə'næʃnəl	ɪntənə'ʃɒnəl
523.	Interrogate	ɪn'terəgeɪt	ɪntə'roʊgeɪt
524.	Intervene	ˌɪntə'veɪn	ɪn'tə'veɪn
525.	Interview	'ɪntəvjʊː	ɪn'təvjʊː
526.	Invest	ɪn'vest	'ɪnvest

527.	Investigate	in'vestɪɡeɪt	inves'tiget
528.	Involvement	in'vɒlvmənt	in'volvment
529.	Irrelevant	ɪ'reləvənt	ire'levant
530.	January	'dʒænjuəri	dʒenju'wari
531.	Jewellery	'dʒu:əlɪrɪ	dʒuwe'lari
532.	Job	dʒɒb	dʒob
533.	Journalist	'dʒɜ:nəlist	dʒe'nalist
534.	Journey	'dʒɜ:ni	dʒɑ'ne
535.	Juice	dʒu:s	dʒus
536.	Jurisdiction	dʒʊəɪs'dɪkʃn	dʒu'rizdɪkʃen
537.	Just	dʒʌst	dʒast
538.	Justify	'dʒʌstɪfaɪ	dʒa'stɪfaji
539.	Keen	ki:n	kin
540.	Kit	kɪt	kit
541.	Kitchen	'kɪtʃɪn	ki'tʃɪn/ki'tʃen
542.	Lady	'leɪdi	le'di
543.	Lake	leɪk	lek
544.	Land	lænd	land
545.	Language	'læŋɡwɪdʒ	læŋɡ'wedʒ
546.	Law	lɔ:	lo
547.	Lawn	'lɔ:n	lon
548.	Lead	li:d	lid
549.	Leader	'li:də	li'da
550.	Leak	li:k	lik
551.	Learn	lɜ:n	len
552.	Leave	li:v	liv
553.	Lecturer	'lektʃərə	lek'tʃara
554.	Legal	'li:ɡl	li'go
555.	Legit	lɪ'dʒɪt	'ledʒɪt
556.	Legitimacy	lɪ'dʒɪtməsi	ledʒɪ'timesɪ

557.	Lemon	'lemən	le'mon
558.	Length	leŋθ	Leŋθ
559.	Lenient	'lɪ:niənt	lin
560.	Leopard	'lepəd	leo'pad
561.	Lesson	'lesn	le'son
562.	Liberty	'lɪbətɪ	li'bati
563.	Library	'laɪbrəri	laji'brari
564.	Lieutenant	lef'tenənt	lu'tenant
565.	Lifebuoy	'ləɪfbɔɪ	lajifi'boji
566.	Limb	lɪm	limb
567.	Limited	'lɪmɪtɪd	li'mited
568.	Listen	'lɪsn	li'sen
569.	Listener	'lɪsənə	li'sena
570.	Literature	'lɪtrətʃə	li'tritʃə
571.	Little	'lɪtl	li'tu
572.	Live	laɪv	la'jiv
573.	Locally	'ləʊkəli	lo'kali
574.	Location	ləʊ'keɪʃn	loke'ʃen
575.	Look	lʊk	lu'ku
576.	Lose	lu:z	luz
577.	Lot	lɒt	lot
578.	Lower	'ləʊə	lo'wa
579.	Loyal	'lɔɪəl	lo'jo
580.	Luxury	'lʌkʃəri	lʌg'zari
581.	Machine	mə'ʃɪn	'maʃɪn
582.	Machinery	mə'ʃɪ:nəri	maʃɪ'nari
583.	Madam	'mædəm	ma'dam
584.	Main	meɪn	men
585.	Maintain	meɪn'teɪn	'menten
586.	Maintenance	'meɪntənəns	men'tenans

587.	Maize	meɪz	me'jiz
588.	Majority	mə'dʒɔrəti	madʒo'riti
589.	Malaria	mə'leəriə	male'rija
590.	Management	'mænɪdʒmənt	mane'dʒɪment
591.	Manager	'mænɪdʒə	ma'nedʒə
592.	Mandate	'mændət	man'det
593.	Manipulation	mə,nɪpju'leɪʃn	manju'pileʃən
594.	Mar	mɑ:	ma
595.	Mark	mɑ:k	mak
596.	Market	'mɑ:kɪt	ma'ket
597.	Marking	'mɑ:kɪŋ	ma'kiŋ
598.	Marriage	mæɪdʒ	ma'redʒ
599.	Mass	mæs	mas
600.	Massage	'mæsɑ:ʒ	ma'sadʒ
601.	Matter	'mætə	ma'ta
602.	Maturity	mə'tʃʊərəti	matʃu'riti
603.	Media	'mi:diə	mi'dija
604.	Mediocre	mi:di'əʊkə	medi'joka
605.	Medium	'mi:diəm	mi'dijəm
606.	Member	'membə	mem'ba
607.	Memorandum	memərəndəm	memo'randəm
608.	Mercy	mɜ:si	me'si
609.	Message	'mes'dʒ	me'sedʒ
610.	Method	'meθəd	me'θəd
611.	Military	'mɪlətri	mili'tari
612.	Milk	mɪlk	milk
613.	Million	'mɪljən	mi'liʒən
614.	Minimal	'mɪnɪməl	mi'nimo
615.	Minimum	'mɪnɪməm	mi'niməm
616.	Minister	'mɪnɪstə	mi'nista

617.	Minute	'mɪnɪt	mi'net
618.	Miserable	'mɪzrəbl	miza'rebo
619.	Missionaries	'mɪʃənri	mɪʃo'nari
620.	Mobilise	'məʊbəlaɪz	mo'bilajiz
621.	Money	'mʌni	ma'ne
622.	Monitoring	'mɒnɪtərɪŋ	mo'nitariŋ
623.	More	mɔː	mo
624.	Most	məʊst	most
625.	Much	mʌʃ	matʃ
626.	Murder	'mɜːdə	ma'da
627.	Must	məst	mast
628.	Mutual	'mjuːtʃuəl	mju'tʃo
629.	Naked	'neɪkɪd	ne'ked
630.	Narrow	'nærəʊ	na'ro
631.	Native	'neɪtɪv	na'tiv
632.	Near	niə	ni'ja
633.	Necessity	nə'sesəti	nese'siti
634.	Need	niːd	nɪd
635.	Negative	'negətɪv	ne'gativ
636.	Ninety	'naɪntɪ	na'jite
637.	No	nəʊ	no
638.	Nobody	'nəʊbədi	no'bode
639.	Non-	nɒn	nan
640.	None	nʌn	nan
641.	Northern	'nɔːðən	no'ðen
642.	Now	naʊ	na'wu
643.	Obedient	ə'bɪdiənt	obi'dijent
644.	Objective	əb'dʒektɪv	obdʒek'tiv
645.	observe	əb'zɜːv	'obzev
646.	Observer	əb'zɜːvə	obze'va



647.	Obtain	əb'teɪn	'obten
648.	Odd	ɒd	od
649.	Oedipus	i:'dɪpəs	idi'pas
650.	Of	əv	of
651.	Off	ɒf	of
652.	Officiate	ə'fɪʃiət	ofi'ʃijet
653.	Often	'ɒftn	o'fen
654.	Oil	ɔɪl	ojo
655.	Okay	əʊ'keɪ	'oke
656.	Old	əʊld	od
657.	One	wʌn	wanu
658.	Online	ɒn'lain	'onlain
659.	Opinion	ə'pɪnjən	opi'nijon
660.	Opposition	ɒpə'zɪʃn	opozi'ʃon
661.	Orange	'ɒrɪndʒ	o'redʒi
662.	Order	'ɔ:də	o'da
663.	Organ	'ɔ:gən	o'gan
664.	Original	ə'rɪdʒənəl	ori'dʒino
665.	Other	'ʌðə	Aða/oda/ova
666.	Outlet	'aʊtlet	awu'let
667.	Over	'əʊvə	o'va
668.	Oxford	'ɒksfəd	ox'fod
669.	Package	'pækɪdʒ	pa'kedʒ
670.	Pagan	'peɪgən	pa'gan
671.	Page	peɪdʒ	pedʒ
672.	Parent	'peərənt	pa'rent
673.	Parliament	'pɑ:ləmənt	pali'jament
674.	Participate	pɑ:'tɪsɪpət	pati'sipet
675.	Particular	pə'tɪkjələ	pati'kjula
676.	Passenger	'pæsɪndʒə	pa'sendʒa

677.	Pay	peɪ	pe
678.	Peace	pi:s	pis
679.	Pencil	'pensl	pen'so
680.	Pending	'pendɪŋ	pen'dɪŋ
681.	Perceive	pə'si:v	'pesiv
682.	Perfect	'pɜ:fɪkt	pe'fekt
683.	Period	'piəriəd	pi'rijəd
684.	Person	'pɜ:sn	pe'son
685.	Personally	'pɜ:sənəli	peso'nali
686.	Petition	pə'tɪʃn	peti'ʃen
687.	Petrol	'petrəl	pe'trəl
688.	Phone	fəʊn	fo'ni
689.	Phonetics	fə'netiks	fone'tiks
690.	Phonology	fə'nɒlədʒi	fono'lɒdʒ
691.	Picked	pɪkt	pɪkt
692.	Piece	pi:s	pis
693.	Piecework	pi:swɜ:k	pis'wek
694.	Pillar	'pɪlə	pi'la
695.	Pipe	paɪp	pa'jɪp
696.	Pity	pɪti	pi'ti
697.	plait	plæt	plet
698.	Plate	pleɪt	plet
699.	Player	pleɪə	ple'ja
700.	Plea	pli:	pli
701.	Plead	pli:d	plɪd
702.	Please	pli:z	plɪz
703.	Poor	pɔ:	pu'wa
704.	police	pə'li:s	polis
705.	Population	ˌpɒpjʊ'leɪʃn	popjule'ʃen
706.	Pose	pəʊz	poz

707.	Position	pə'ziʃn	pozi'ʃen
708.	Potato	pə'teɪtəʊ	pote'to
709.	Potential	pə'tenʃl	poten'ʃo
710.	Power	paʊə	pa'wa
711.	Powerful	'paʊəfl	pa'wafu
712.	Practice	'præktɪs	pra'katis/prak'tis
713.	Preach	pri:tʃ	prɪtʃ
714.	Precedence	'presɪdəns	pre'zident
715.	Pregnant	'pregnənt	preg'nant
716.	Prepare	pri'peə	prɪpe'ja
717.	Prescribe	pri'skraɪb	prɪskrajɪb
718.	Presence	'prezns	pre'zens
719.	Preservation	ˌprezə'veɪʃn	prɪzaveʃen
720.	Pretend	pri'tend	'prɪtend
721.	Price	praɪs	pra'jɪs
722.	Priority	praɪ'ɒrəti	prajo'riti
723.	Private	'praɪvət	prajɪvet
724.	Privilege	'prɪvəlɪdʒ	prɪva'ledʒ
725.	Proactive	ˌprəʊ'æktɪv	pro'aktɪv
726.	Probably	'prɒbəbli	pro'babli
727.	Procedure	prə'si:dʒə	prosɪdʒə
728.	Produce	prə'dju:s	'prɒdʒʊs
729.	Profit	'prɒfɪt	'prɒfɪt
730.	Project (v)	prə'dʒekt	'prɒdʒekt
731.	Promote	prə'məʊt	'prɒmot
732.	Pronunciation	prəˌnʌnsi'eɪʃn	prɒnawusi'jeʃen
733.	Propaganda	ˌprɒpə'gændə	pro'paganda
734.	Proper	'prɒpə	pro'pa
735.	Prophetic	'prɒfətɪk	pro'fetɪk
736.	Prosecute	'prɒsɪkju:t	pro'sekjut

737.	Prostitution	ˌprɒstɪtʃuːʃn	pros'titjuʃon
738.	Protect	prə'tekt	'protekt
739.	Protein	'prəʊtiːn	pro'ten
740.	Protocol	'prəʊtəkɒl	pro'toko
741.	Public	'pʌblɪk	pa'blik
742.	Publication	ˌpʌblɪ'keɪʃn	pab'likeʃen
743.	Pull	pʊl	pu
744.	Pullout	pʊlaʊt	'pulawut
745.	Pupil	pjuːpl	ˌpju'pju
746.	Purchase	'pɜːtʃəs	pa'tʃes
747.	Purpose	'pɜːpəs	pe'pos
748.	Pursuing	pə'sjuːɪŋ	pesju'wiŋ
749.	put	pʊt	put
750.	Qualify	'kwɒlɪfaɪ	kwa'lifai
751.	Quality	'kwɒləti	kwa'liti
752.	Question	'kwestʃən	kwe'ʃen
753.	Quiet	'kwaɪət	kwa'jet
754.	Radio	'reɪdɪəʊ	re'dijo
755.	Raised	reɪzd	rezd
756.	Random	'rændəm	ran'dom
757.	Rape	reɪp	'rep
758.	Rare	reə	'reja
759.	Rationale	ˌræʃə'nɑːl	'rafonel
760.	Reactive	ri'æktɪv	rijaktiv
761.	Reality	ri'æləti	rija'liti
762.	Reason	'riːzn	ri'zon
763.	Recognize	'rekəɡnaɪz	ri'kognajiz
764.	Recommendation	ˌrekəmen'deɪʃn	riko'mendeʃen
765.	Record	'rekɔːd	re'kod
766.	Rectify	'rektɪfaɪ	rekti'faji

767.	Redeemer	rɪ'di:mə	ridim'a
768.	Redemption	rɪ'dempʃn	ridem'ʃon
769.	Reduce	rɪ'dju:s	'ridjus
770.	Reduction	rɪ'dʌkʃn	ridak'ʃen
771.	Referral	rɪ'fərl	refe'ro
772.	Refer	rɪ':fɜ	'rifa/refa/rifeja
773.	Reflect	rɪ'flekt	'riflekt
774.	Reforms	rɪ'fɔ:m	'rifomz
775.	Regalia	rɪ'geɪliə	riga'lija
776.	Region	'rɪdʒən	ri'dʒon
777.	Register	'redʒɪstə	re'dʒista
778.	Religion	rɪ'lɪdʒən	rili'dʒon
779.	Rely	rɪ'laɪ	'rilaji
780.	Remembrance	rɪ'membrəns	rimem'barans
781.	Remind	rɪ'maɪnd	'rimaind
782.	Repair	rɪ'peə	ripe'ja
783.	Research	rɪ'sɜ:tʃ	'risetʃ
784.	Resolve	rɪ'zɒlv	'rizov
785.	Response	rɪ'spɒns	'rispons
786.	Result	rɪ'zʌlt	'rizawut
787.	Revote	rɪ'vəʊt	'rivot
788.	Revolutionary	,revə'lu:ʃənəri	rivoljuʃon'ari
789.	Rice	raɪs	rajis
790.	Right	raɪt	rajit
791.	Ring	rɪŋ	riŋ
792.	Ruin	'ru:ɪn	ru'wiŋ
793.	Rule	ru:l	ru
794.	Ruled	ru:ld	rud
795.	Rural	'rʊərəl	ru'ro
796.	Ruthless	'ru:θləs	ruθ'les

797.	Safari	sə'fɑ:ri	safa'ri
798.	Safe	seɪf	sef
799.	Salad	sæləd	sa'lad
800.	Salary	'sæləri	sa'lari
801.	Sale	seɪl	sel
802.	Sample	'sɑ:mpl	sam'po
803.	Satan	'seɪtn	sa'tan
804.	Saturday	'sætədeɪ	sa'tade
805.	Sausage	sɒsɪdʒ	sosedʒ
806.	Saw	sɔ:	so
807.	Scale	skeɪl	ske'wu
808.	Scone	skɒn	skon
809.	Scoundrel	'skraʊndrəl	skawu'dro
810.	Scrutiny	'skru:təni	skru'tini
811.	Second	'sekənd	se'kond
812.	Secondary	'sekəndri	sekond'ari
813.	Secret	'si:krət	sikrit
814.	Sector	'sektə	sekta
815.	Security	sɪ'kjuərəti	sekju'riti
816.	Sanction	'sɑŋkʃn	sɑŋkʃon
817.	Sedate	sɪ'deɪt	'sɪdet
818.	Seek	si:k	sik
819.	Select	sɪ'lekt	'selekt
820.	Sell	sel	sel
821.	Sensitive	'sensətɪv	sen'sitɪv
822.	Sentimental	sentɪ'mentl	sentimen'to
823.	Separate	'seprət	se'paret
824.	Serious	'sɪəriəs	sɪə'rias
825.	Shake	ʃeɪk	ʃek
826.	Shape	ʃeɪp	ʃep

827.	Share	ʃeə	ʃeɪə
828.	Shock	ʃɒk	ʃɒk
829.	Short	ʃɔ:t	ʃɒt
830.	Shortage	ʃɔ:tɪdʒ	ʃo'tedʒ
831.	Shot	ʃɒt	ʃɒt
832.	Should	ʃəd	ʃud
833.	Show	ʃəʊ	ʃo
834.	Showcase	'ʃəʊkeɪs	ʃo'kes
835.	Similarly	'sɪmələli	si'miləri
836.	Simple	'sɪmpl	simpo
837.	Sir	sɜ:	sa
838.	Skin	skɪn	skin
839.	Slave	slɛv	slev
840.	Smooth	smu:θ	smuθ
841.	Social	'səʊʃl	so'ʃo
842.	Society	sə'saɪəti	sosa'jati
843.	Solitary	'sɒlətri	soli'tari
844.	Solution	sə'lu:ʃn	soljuʃon
845.	Soon	su:n	su'ni
846.	Sovereign	'sɒvrɪn	sov'ren
847.	Speak	spi:k	spik
848.	Special	'speʃl	spe'ʃo
849.	Spend	spend	'spend
850.	Spoken	spəʊkn	'spoken
851.	Square	skweə	'skweja
852.	Stabbed	'stæbd	'stabd
853.	Stand	stænd	'stand
854.	Standard	'stændəd	stand'ad
855.	Standoff	'stændɒf	stand'of
856.	State	steɪt	stet

857.	Status	'stetəs	ste'tas
858.			
859.	Stay	steɪ	'ste
860.	Steal	sti:l	'stil
861.	Step	step	'step
862.	Still	stɪl	'stil
863.	Stir	stɜ:	stɪjə
864.	Stone	stəʊn	ston
865.	Stop	stɒp	stop
866.	strategic	strə'ti:dʒɪk	stra'tedʒɪk
867.	strategy	'strætədʒi	stra'tedʒ
868.	Stress	stres	stres
869.	Strike	straɪk	'strajɪk
870.	Strive	straɪv	stra'jɪv
871.	Strut	strʌt	strat
872.	Studio	'stju:diəʊ	stu'diəʊ
873.	Style	stɑɪl	sta'wu
874.	Submission	səb'mɜ:ʃn	submi'ʃen
875.	Success	sək'ses	'sakses
876.	Summon	'sʌmən	sa'mon
877.	Supreme	su:prɪ:m	su'prim
878.	Sure	ʃʊə	'fuwa
879.	Survey	'sɜ:veɪ	sa'veji
880.	Survive	sə'vaɪv	'savajɪv
881.	Sweet	swi:t	swit
882.	Syllable	'sɪləbl	sɪl'abo
883.	System	'sɪstəm	sɪs'tɪm
884.	Systematic	ˌsɪstə'mætɪk	sɪstɪmætɪk
885.	Taboo	tə'bu:	'tabu
886.	Talk	tɔ:k	'tok



887.	Tall	tɔ:l	'to
888.	Tap	tæp	'tap
889.	Target	'tɑ:ɡɪt	ta'get
890.	Tear	teə	tija
891.	Telephone	'telɪfəʊn	te'lefon
892.	Tell	tel	tel
893.	Tendency	'tendənsi	ten'dansi
894.	Tension	'teɪnʃn	ten'ʃen
895.	Text	tekst	tekst/teskt
896.	Than	ðæn	dan
897.	The	ðe/ði	de
898.	Theoretical	θiə'retɪkl	θijore'tiko
899.	Theory	'θiəri	θi'jori
900.	Therefore	ðeəfɔ:	ðe'jafo
901.	They	ðei	ðe'ji
902.	Thirsty	'θɜ:sti	fe'sti/tθesti
903.	Thought	θɔ:t	θot
904.	Thumb	θʌm	'θamb
905.	Ticket	tɪkɪt	ti'ket
906.	To	tu:	'tu
907.	Today	tə'deɪ	'tude
908.	Toilet	tɔɪlət	toji'let
909.	Tomorrow	tə'mɒrəʊ	tumo'ro
910.	Too	tu:	tu
911.	Topic	tɒpɪk	to'pik
912.	Topical	'tɒpɪkl	to'piko
913.	Torn	tɔ:n	ton
914.	Total	'təʊtl	to'to
915.	Tour	tuə	'tuwa
916.	Tournament	'tuənəmənt	to'nament

917.	Towel	'taʊəl	ta'wel
918.	Tradition	trə'dɪʃn	tredi'ʃen
919.	Trail	'traɪəl	trawu
920.	Transparent	træns'pærənt	transpa'rent
921.	Trap	træp	'trap
922.	Tray	treɪ	'treji
923.	Trial	'traɪəl	trajo
924.	Tribunal	traɪ'bjʊ:nl	trajibju'no
925.	Tricky	'trɪkɪ	tri'ki
926.	Turn	tɜ:n	'ten
927.	TV	ti:'vi:	'tivi
928.	Twelve	twelv	tolvu
929.	Type	taɪp	tajip
930.	Typically	'tɪpɪkli	tipikali
931.	Tyre	'taɪə	taja
932.	Umbrella	ʌm'brelə	ambrela
933.	Under	'ʌndə	anda
934.	Undue	ʌn'dju:	andju
935.	Unfair	ʌn'feə	'anfeja
936.	Union	'ju:nɪən	jun'jon
937.	United	ju'naitɪd	junaji'ted
938.	Unity	'ju:nəti	ju'niti
939.	Urban	'ɜ:bən	a'ban
940.	Urge	ɜ:dʒ	edʒ
941.	Urgency	ɜ:dʒənsi	edʒensi
942.	Usually	'ju:ʒvəli	ju'zali
943.	Vacancy	'veɪkənsi	va'kansi
944.	Vacant	'veɪkənt	va'kant
945.	Variety	və'reiəti	vara'jati
946.	Various	'veəriəsi	va'rijasi

947.	Vary	'veəri	va'ri
948.	Vehicle	'vi:təkl	vi'jeko
949.	Very	'veri	ve'ri
950.	Vicious	'vɪʃəs	vi'ʃəsi
951.	Victory	'vɪktəri	viki'tori
952.	View	vju:	vju
953.	Village	'vɪlɪdʒ	vi'ledʒ
954.	Violate	'vaɪələt	vajo'let
955.	Vintage	'vɪntɪdʒ	vajoleʃen
956.	Virus	'vaɪrəs	va'riəs
957.	Vocabulary	və'kæbjələri	voka'bjulari
958.	Voice	vɔɪs	voɪs
959.	Vowel	'vaʊəl	va'wel
960.	Voyage	'vɔɪdʒ	vo'jedʒ
961.	Vulnerable	'vʌlnərəbl	valnarebo
962.	Wait	weɪt	wet
963.	Wake	weɪk	wek
964.	Want	wɒnt	'want
965.	War	wɔ:	wo
966.	Warrant	'wɒrənt	wa'rant
967.	Wash	wɒʃ	wɒʃ
968.	Wasting	weɪstɪŋ	west'ɪŋ
969.	Watch	wɒtʃ	'watʃ
970.	Watery	'wɔ:təri	wo'tari
971.	Way	weɪ	we
972.	Weapon	'wepən	wi'pon
973.	Wear	weə	we'ja
974.	Weigh	weɪt	'wet
975.	Wet	wet	'wet
976.	What	wɒt	'wat

977.	Where	weə	we'ja
978.	Whilst	waɪlst	waji'lest
979.	Wild	waɪld	wald
980.	Will	wɪl	wil
981.	Wire	waɪə	waja
982.	Withdraw	wɪθ'drɔ:	'wiθdro
983.	Without	wɪ'ðaʊt	wiðawut
984.	Woman	'wʊmən	wu'man
985.	Women	'wʊmɪn	wi'men
986.	Wonder	'wʌndə	wan'da
987.	Word	wɜ:d	wed
988.	World	wɜ:ld	'wewud
989.	Worse	wɜ:s	wes
990.	Worship	'wɜ:ʃɪp	wo'ʃɪp
991.	Wounded	'wu:ndɪd	wun'ded
992.	Written	'rɪtn	ri'ten
993.	Wrong	rɒŋ	rɒŋ
994.	www	dʌblju dʌblju dʌblju	dabliju dabliju dabliju
995.	Xenophobia	zenə'fəʊbiə	zenofo'biə
996.	Year	jiə	je
997.	Yes	jes	jes
998.	Yoke	jəʊk	jok
999.	Zebra	'zebrə	ze'bra
1000.	Zero	'ziərəʊ	zi'ro