READING FLUENCY AMONG CLASS FOUR LEARNERS AND ITS IMPACT ON WRITING: A CASE STUDY OF TWO SCHOOLS

BY

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DECLARATION

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

Signature........................................... Date.................................................

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This project has been submitted for examination with our approval as supervisors.

Signature........................................... Date.................................................

Dr. P. JERONO

Signature........................................... Date.................................................

Dr. B.G MUNGANIA
DEDICATION

My husband Henry Mutiga

My sons Chris and Caleb
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank the Almighty God for His grace and mercies through my studies. He has remained faithful in giving health and wisdom to bring this research to completion.

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to establish whether fluency in reading had any impact on accuracy in writing. Twenty four class four pupils from two primary schools in North Imenti Sub-County participated in the study. The following questions were addressed during the study: a) whether the learners could read the given passage fluently, b) whether the learners could write the dictated text accurately, c) whether fluency had any impact on accuracy in writing and d) whether there were disparities between the performance of learners in rural and urban schools in reading and writing. To collect the data, each of the learners was asked to read a given passage aloud. As they read, they were recorded. They also wrote down the same passage as it was being dictated. Following the error analysis it was established that most of the learners had not achieved the expected proficiency in fluency as many errors were noted in their pronunciation. Many errors were also found in their written texts. The errors in both pronunciation and writing were classified as either inter-lingual or intra-lingual and they were all attributed to the learners’ poor knowledge of the English language. The theory of automaticity was also used to account for fluency where the speed with which the learners read was considered. Observation was done on their reading as well to establish if they read with autonomy, effortlessness and lack of self-awareness. Most of them read at slow speeds exerting a lot of effort in the activity. They lacked autonomy and were aware of the process hence being dysfluent. Out of the twenty four learners sampled, only two were fluent. It was concluded that fluency had an impact on writing as those who were dysfluent made more errors in reading and this was reflected in their writing as they also made more errors in writing. The learners from the rural school also made more errors in reading and writing than their urban counterparts. The study revealed that in order to be proficient in fluency, learners need to establish their knowledge in English sounds. This would enhance their skills in word recognition making the process automatic. As a result they would achieve fluency. This would enhance their skills in word recognition making the process automatic. As a result, they would achieve fluency.
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<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>Error analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>Inter-language</td>
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<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>Mother-tongue</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTI</td>
<td>Research Triangle Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Target language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WPM</td>
<td>words per minute</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
READING FLUENCY AND ITS IMPACT ON WRITING

1.1 Introduction
This is a study on fluency in reading English texts among class four learners and its impact on writing. It was carried out to establish whether the ability to write could be enhanced by fluency. Observation has shown that learners of English as a second (ESL) face various challenges while learning to read and write. Some are often classified as being unable to read while others are said to be unable to write as the texts they produce are often incomprehensible. Such terms as dyslexia and dysgraphia have been used to describe the inability to read and the inability to write respectively; however, the causes of these conditions often go unexplained. Researchers such as Ondieki (2013) and Mnyore (2016) have described the language of dyslexics and dysgraphics without offering much explanation on the causes of these conditions. This was the motivation behind this study, to fill in this knowledge gap by establishing the linguistic factors that make a learner able or unable to read and write.

There has been a debate on whether there is a relationship between reading and writing, with some scholars arguing that both skills rely on the ability to identify sounds and decode words. To them, reading is a component of writing and the latter cannot occur if reading is not an established skill in a learner, Wengelin and Arfe, (2018:36-38). Reading encompasses various skills but of key interest in this study is fluency as the learners in this study are already at a stage where they should have acquired this skill. Aged between 9 and 13 and currently in class four, the learners involved are in the reading to learn stage and the highest competence at this level is comprehension. This implies that they should have established and automated the skills of decoding thereby becoming proficient in fluency. The ability to read accurately and at speed is what will be tested in this study.

There is need to find out what fluency is, identify it among the learners and establish how it is related to the skill of writing. This study therefore, sought to distinguish the fluent from the dysfluent learners by identifying their characteristics. Secondly, it sought to
establish whether fluency or the lack of it has any impact on their ability to write accurately.

Fluency is the ability of a learner to effortlessly read accurately and at speed. Thus, a class four learner should ideally read at a speed of about 120 words per minute, Hasbrouk and Tindal (2006: 639-640). This speed of reading is achieved when a learner has acquired and automated the skills of decoding which are learnt in earlier classes. Decoding skills involve the ability to recognize sounds and match them with their corresponding letters. If the learner can recognize the sounds and match them with the corresponding letters automatically, then they can read fast with accurate pronunciation, hence fluency.

Writing on the other hand involves encoding sounds into corresponding letters and words. This implies that the learner needs to have sound knowledge of phonemes and their orthographic representation to write the words with their correct spelling. Therefore, the researcher would wish to establish whether the learners who could recognize and articulate the words accurately while reading could also recognize the same sounds by listening and match them with their corresponding graphemes and write them down accurately. The learner would then spell the words correctly.

The study was also meant to compare the performance of learners in rural and urban schools in- fluency and writing. The aim of this was to compare the linguistic abilities of the learners and establish whether the environment could affect the development of language skills. The study will therefore, be carried out in two public day primary schools. One of the schools was located within Meru Town’s Central Business District the other was in a rural setting.

The research was conducted in Imenti North sub-county in Meru County which is located in Eastern Kenya. This county is largely occupied by the Ameru people whose native language is Kimeru. It is important to take this into account since mother- tongue influence could be a hindering factor to the acquisition of a second language (L2). Meru town, which is the largest town within Meru County, is rather cosmopolitan and people of different tribes including Meru, Kikuyu, Luhya, and Luo reside here.
The Meru rural areas are largely homogeneous in the use of Kimeru. The language is used as a language of instruction not only in pre-primary and lower primary levels but also in the upper classes as observed by the researcher in two public primary schools in the region. This occurs in contravention of the recommendations by the National Committee on Education Objectives and Policies (1976) that mother tongue should be used as a language of instruction in the pre-primary and lower primary levels only, Mberia (2016:47). The use of mother tongue as a language of instruction could have an impact on the reading and writing skills of the learners as the aspects of the native language (L1) could be evident in their oral reading and written passages. Meru town on the other hand is inhabited by people from different communities such as Kikuyu, Luo, Luhya, Indians and Kisii. Due to the heterogeneous nature of the classrooms, mother tongue is not used as a language of instruction and learners are introduced to the use of English at pre-primary and lower primary levels as seen in the urban schools. This too could have an impact on enhancement of the skills of oral reading and composition writing. It was expected that the urban learners would perform better in the two tasks due to their early exposure to the target language (TL) which is English. This study would therefore seek to establish if the use of mother tongue in schools could have hindered the acquisition of oral reading skills and writing among the sampled learners.

1.2 Statement of the Problem
Studies carried out in Kenya to establish the acquisition of reading skills among grade four learners, Uwezo, (2010), RTI (2009) have revealed low proficiency levels. For instance the surveys carried out by RTI in Central and Luo - Nyanza, have revealed that only 19% of 998 and 9% of the 1002 class four pupils sampled could read a given class three comprehension respectively. The fact that a high number of learners are non-readers (81 and 91%), shows that they cannot decode the various sounds which make up the words.

Reading is an important skill among the learners as it determines their general academic performance at school. Having a high number of non-readers among the learners therefore, indicates that most of the objectives of teaching and learning are not being achieved as reading is a prominent activity in the learning process. The current study was
thus conducted to establish whether the class four learners of the sampled schools were able to read and whether they had achieved fluency. This showed how versed the learners were in English sounds as failure to have a sound knowledge of these sounds would lead to dysfluency. This in turn would have a ripple effect on the higher level reading skills such as comprehension. A learner that cannot decode and read a text fluently can hardly understand what it is talking about. As a result, he or she performs poorly in all the other academic spheres.

Letter name and letter sound knowledge is a prerequisite for decoding skills to develop and once these are established, the learner becomes fluent. Writing, especially in the case of dictation, depends highly on letter name and letter sound knowledge as it relies on the ability of the learner to translate a phoneme into its appropriate grapheme and put together all the required graphemes to come up with an accurately spelt word.

The researcher in the current study was interested in knowing whether failure to recognize a given word and pronounce its sounds accurately while reading could reflect the lack of knowledge on how to translate the same sounds into their corresponding graphemes and write them down accurately.

1.3 Research Questions
This study endeavored to provide answers for the following research questions:

1. Can the class four learners read a given English passage fluently?
2. How accurately can the learners write down the same passage that they have read?
3. Does reading fluency have any impact on accuracy in writing?
4. What are the differences between learners in rural schools and urban schools in fluency and writing?

1.4 Objectives
This research aimed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To establish whether the class four learners have achieved the expected proficiency in fluency.
2. To find out whether the learners can write down the passage which they have read correctly.
3. To establish whether reading fluency has any impact on accuracy in writing.
4. To compare the performance of learners in rural and urban primary schools in reading and writing.

1.5 Rationale of the Study

Studies in the area of reading fluency and its impact on writing had not been conducted in Meru and yet research is paramount for the development of any language. Therefore, it was important to establish whether the current class four learners in the two schools identified had achieved the expected proficiency in fluency through their performance in oral reading. This study would fill in the knowledge gap and contribute to the existing body of knowledge. Current and future scholars would thus benefit from it.

The study would also benefit the teachers of English as it would test the extent to which learners had learnt and internalized the English sounds to enable them read and write them accurately. Consequently, the teachers would get to know the areas they need to work on for enhanced development of language skills among the learners.

Thirdly, the study was carried out in only two primary schools in Imenti North Sub-County. Its findings would therefore be beneficial to future researchers as it would spur further research in the area of reading in order to arrive at a conclusion that is representative of the entire population as far as the reading abilities of the class four learners is concerned.

Finally, the study would also be of interest to current and future researchers in second language learning as it serves as a point of reference. It would motivate and facilitate further research in the area of reading and other skills attained in the learning of English as an L2. This would be through its contribution to the existing knowledge on second language learning.
1.6 Scope and Limitations
This study focused on reading and writing as two of the key skills expected to be acquired in the process of learning English. In particular, it sought to establish whether accuracy in writing can be enhanced by fluency in reading.

It was carried out in only two public day primary schools within Imenti North sub-county namely: Meru Primary School which is urban and Kithoka Primary School which is rural. Both rural and urban schools had been selected for comparison in order to gauge the differences in their performance in reading fluency and writing. These schools were selected on the basis of their location in relation to the town’s central business district. Their location was taken to have a great impact on the development of language skills in learners.

It focused only on the class four learners of these primary schools only. The class four learners had been identified because it is the level at which learners have acquired fluency having established the skills of decoding.

The learners undertook only two tests which were oral reading and writing of a dictated text. The passage was drawn from a published story book for grade three learners. The two activities enabled the researcher to connect the relationship between knowledge of sounds and their pronunciation and knowledge of sounds and their orthography.

1.7 Literature Review
This section reviews works that have been produced by other people in relation to the topic of reading and writing. These areas covered herein include reading in general, writing and error analysis, automaticity and reading fluency, reading rate and lastly, automaticity and composition writing.

1.7.1 Reading
This section defines reading and highlights the various stages through which it develops. There is also a description of reading difficulties among learners. Lastly, aspects of fluency have been discussed including automaticity and the reading rate.
1.7.1.1 Reading and the Stages of Reading Development

Reading has been defined as the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form through the medium of print. In this process, readers put sounds into strings of words and connect them to entire texts, Grabe (2009:14-15). This implies that learners have to start by learning individual sounds and apply this knowledge in pronouncing words correctly. In so doing, a child should understand the relationship between various letter sounds and recognize the patterns that form words. This is the skill of decoding and it is a prerequisite if a learner is to be fluent in reading. The acquisition of fluency is also a process as a child is dysfluent at the initial stages but as their learning progresses, they become more fluent, Breznitz (2006:13). A dysfluent child reads slowly in a non-automatic and monotonous manner.

Chall (1991) identifies various stages of reading development which show that this is a progressive process through which the reader become more proficient as they grow older. He posits that reading begins with the pre-reading stage which is the most basic stage for children between 6 months and 6 years of age. This is the stage at which children begin to recognize sounds, combine them into appropriate words. As the learners grow older and move higher the education ladder, they undergo intermediate stages which include: decoding, fluency, comprehension, multiple view points and the last stage of reading is the construction and reconstruction. At the construction and reconstruction stage, the readers who are aged 18 and above read for their own needs and purposes.

Chall (1983) suggests that fluency develops around the 2nd and 3rd grades when the child has become proficient in decoding and word recognition has become automatic. La Berge and Samuels (1974) argue that learners become increasingly fluent as a result of development of automaticity in decoding skills. This means that proficiency in decoding determines the development of fluency. By investigating whether the given learners can read fluently, the research also looked into the learners’ proficiency in the lower level skill of decoding since without it, fluency cannot be achieved.

The process of reading involves the interaction of several cognitive sub-skills which are hierarchically arranged in a reader’s mind. One skill builds upon the preceding one
through a structural arrangement. According to Palmer, they include: word recognition or decoding, pronunciation or fluency, meaning construction, comprehension, evaluation and assimilation, Palmer (1975: 50). According to this argument, the skill of fluency is built upon word recognition and therefore, a learner becomes proficient in fluency only when the skill of decoding has become automatic.

The development of reading at an early age is important because first, learning outcomes and performance in different subjects depends on children’s ability to read Mwoma (2017). This means that in order to promote all aspects of learning, children have to be taught how to read at an early age preferably in pre-primary and lower primary levels. Her study has sought to establish the children’s reading abilities in rural primary schools. She asserts that more advanced learning skills acquired in later grades depend on early grade reading development claiming that children who do not learn to acquire these reading skills in their early grades struggle to acquire more advanced skills usually absorbed through reading. She delves into the differences in reading abilities according to gender and the factors influencing these abilities. She identifies various factors which influence the learners’ ability to read which include absenteeism as a result of pastoralism. Her study was useful to the current study while establishing the challenges that learners face in learning to read ESL although the community under study is not nomadic as hers.

1.7.1.2 Reading Difficulties among Learners
There are various studies that have been carried out to establish whether learners have challenges in learning to read. To start with, the research conducted by Research Triangle Institute (2009) and (Uwezo 2010) have shown that learners in Kenya and other African countries have not acquired such skills as letter sound recognition and decoding and as such they are non-readers. A good example of this is Tanzania where Uwezo, an initiative under the United States Department for International Development, has established through a research that most learners in primary school are unable to demonstrate basic reading skills in English. ‘By the time they reach standard three, 7 out of 10 learners cannot read basic English and by the time they complete primary school,
large numbers of these learners cannot do what they should have mastered five years earlier in standard two,’ Uwezo (2010)

Reading is a basic literacy skill and learners should learn to read both at an early stage and at a sufficient rate with comprehension, RTI (2009). A learner cannot develop the skill of fluency without acquiring knowledge of letters, sounds and words which are learnt at pre- primary level. In many countries though, especially the developing ones, learners who are as far as class four are unable to read and comprehend simple texts particularly those in English which is a second language to them. This failure to acquire basic reading skills can be attributed to various factors. To begin with most learners enter school with very limited knowledge in spoken English. They are proficient in mother tongue as they acquire it from the natural environment in which they grow. Secondly, they have little prior understanding of concepts related to letter knowledge which include letter identification, sound knowledge and general communication skills of the language. This can be attributed to failure to attend pre- primary and poor instruction at that level.

In Kenya, the Net Enrolment Rate (NER), according to the ‘2018 Education Quality Dialogues’ by the Ministry of Education (2018), was at 91.2% in 2016. Despite this, many children are not acquiring reading skills. The survey carried out throughout the country by Uwezo (2015) established that only 30% of class three pupils could read a class two passage, with 25.1% of them coming from rural areas and 40.7% coming from urban regions. The same report indicated that in Meru only 35% could manage to read with the rural pupils accounting for 33.7% and the urban pupils accounting for 52.8%. In Embu, 29.5% of the class three pupils could handle the task with Kisii and Machakos recording lows of 27.7% and 22% respectively.

Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) that was carried out in Malindi by RTI (2009) shows that class two learners could read only one word per minute. This reading rate is far below the national benchmark of 100+ words per minute, Ministry of Education (2010) and it is a clear indication of poor mastery of English sound system. It shows that the learners have little knowledge on sounds and their corresponding alphabetic letters and words which in turn hinders the comprehension of texts.
The RTI report also shows that the problem of reading is even worse in other parts of the country since learners cannot read even simple words. A research conducted in Luo-Nyanza and Central parts of Kenya by RTI showed that “9% of 1002 class three pupils in Central and 19% of 998 pupils in Luo-Nyanza were non-readers.” This was largely attributed to mother-tongue influenced as the learners performed better when the reading tests were conducted in Dholuo and Kikuyu respectively. This means that the learners had not learnt to switch from the use of mother tongue (MT) which had been used at the lower levels of education, to the use of English.

Another research conducted by Jielimishe, an initiative of DFID and SOS Children’s Village, in 2017 within Meru County has also established that only 2% of class seven learners are proficient in reading English texts with 12.7% of them being non-readers. This high number of non-readers in Meru County as revealed by this survey is alarming and it prompts further research to establish whether these learners are able to perform well in writing compositions. As established by Mnyore (2016), there is a correlation between reading and writing where the learners who are poor at reading fluency are also said to be poor at writing. The current study therefore sought to ascertain whether this was a universal principle to see whether all the students who were poor at reading were also poor at writing.

In view of this, there was a need to investigate the impact that reading ability has on other linguistic skills. In particular, this study investigated the impact of reading fluency on writing. It would seek to establish whether there was a correlation between the ability to read and write fluently as well.

1.7.1.3 Reading Fluency and Automaticity
In this study, fluency in reading was viewed as a crucial determinant of good performance in writing. This is because a sound knowledge of the phonemes involved is a prerequisite for both fluency and accurate writing to occur.

The National Reading Panel (2000:3-5) defines reading fluency as the ability to read a text at quickly, accurately and with expression. It is described in terms of the speed, automaticity and effortlessness of reading. A fluent learner ought to read rapidly,
smoothly with little conscious attention to individual words, Kuhn et al (2010:231-232). As such, it is expected that a fluent reader would make few reading errors. At the word level, fluency can be viewed as an outcome of proficiency in word recognition which is achieved once a learner is able to identify the sounds which make up the word.

Fluency is measured through the accuracy and rate of reading. A fluent reader ought to articulate each word accurately and do it at speed as little effort should also be employed in articulating what is being read. These two parameters of the reading rate and accuracy in pronunciation were the key indicators of fluency in this study.

1.7.1.4 Reading Rate
The testing of fluency in this study also involved checking on their reading rate. This is the speed at which learners recognize words and read them out and it is tested by timing readers to get the number of words they are able to read per minute. Learners should therefore read at a good speed and Hasbrouck and Tindal (2006:639-640) recommend that on average, a class four learner should read at a speed of about 120 words per minute.

The rate of reading is very significant in fluency as it is one of the determinants used to gauge whether readers are fluent or not. Bretnitz (2006:13) argues that the lower reading rates leads to dysfluency and consequently poor comprehension. Low reading rates are caused by lack of proficiency in word decoding, La Berge and Samuels (1974) where a learner expends a lot of time and effort in recognizing words at the expense of fluency. This reduces the speed at which the learners read.

The ability to read fast and accurately is an indication that the lower level reading skills such as word recognition are automatic in learners hence they expend less effort in reading. With consistent repetition and practice, the learner increasingly loses consciousness in recognizing words thus reading effortlessly. This is an indication that the skill of word recognition has become automatic and this in turn results in a higher speed of reading.

The reading speed of the learners under the current study was tested through timing to check whether they had achieved the expected reading rate of about 120 wpm. Their
reading rate was arrived at by multiplying the number of words in the passage by 60 seconds and then dividing the answer by the number of seconds taken by the learner to read the passage.

This was one of the indicators of whether they were fluent or not. Their fluency was measured against their skills in writing and a correlation established. It would also be an indication of whether the learners had acquired the lower level skills of word recognition through either reading or listening. That enabled the researcher to establish whether the learners had acquired adequate knowledge of English sounds.

1.7.2 Writing
The studies discussed in this section have been carried out to investigate various aspects of writing. Writing difficulties have been identified and described.

1.7.2.1 Dysgraphia
In the study carried out by Ondieki (2013), dysgraphia is defined as the inability to write where learning disabilities that affect the way in which children acquire written language. The learning disabilities also affect the way in which they use the written language to express their thoughts. Learners thus exhibit spelling errors and difficulties in shaping the various letters. In the study where the language of two dysgraphics is described, acquired and developmental are identified as the two types of dysgraphia. The spelling errors identified in the written texts of the learners indicate dysgraphia where they omit or insert unnecessary letters in words and also tamper with the normal sequence of letters in a word. Ondieki’s study was beneficial to the current study as the various errors identified in the written texts of the learners could imply the existence of dysgraphia among the learners.

1.7.2.2 Writing and Error Analysis
Seje (2018) carried out a study in which she analyzed the errors in the written English of class four learners in Migori County. She employed the error analysis theory in her study where she also made a comparison of learners in the rural and urban schools. This complements the current study in which a comparison will be made between the performance of learners in a rural and urban school in oral reading and writing. Seje found out that the learners made morphological, syntactic, lexical errors. Other errors
identified emanated from writing mechanics. She also established that the learners in the rural schools made more errors than those in the urban schools. The current study sought to establish which of the two groups will perform better in oral reading and dictation as well.

Munyao (2016) studied the L1 negative transfer in spelling and lexical choice in the English of class eight learners from a primary school in Machakos County. In this study she focused on the effects of L1 interference on spelling and choice of words in composition writing. She identified the lexical and spelling errors made by the learners and analyzed them using the error analysis approach to establish whether they could be attributed to Kamba phonology and vocabulary. Her study was relevant to the current study as it was meant to find out whether the MT had any effects in the reading and writing outcomes of the learners. The current study diverged from this one in that a comparison between the learners in a rural and urban school would be made to establish whether both groups were equally affected by MT in reading and writing.

A similar study was conducted by Maore (2013) to investigate the effects of Kimeru phonology and orthography on the learners’ spelling of English words. He administered an English creative composition test and used the error analysis theory to study the errors identified. Errors can be classified as either inter-lingual or intra-lingual. This study focused on inter-lingual errors which would be caused by mother tongue influence. He concluded that indeed the influence of mother tongue caused errors due to such factors as pre-nasalization of graphemes, vowel length and double consonant graphemes. This knowledge informed the current study as it tested whether the errors made by learners in reading and writing could be caused by mother tongue influence. The difference between this study and the current one was that it did not only concentrate on inter-lingual errors but also intra-lingual ones. It also tested the reading skills of the learners and how they impacted on their writing skills.

1.7.2.3 Relationship between Reading and Writing
Firstly, Wengelin and Barbara (2018) highlight two perspectives of the relationship between reading and writing with reference to reading and writing difficulties. There are two perspectives that they use to explain this relationship. One school of thought views
the two processes as separate but related. The other school of thought views reading as a component of the writing process. Although there has been a debate on the relationship between word reading and spelling, studies, for instance by Angelelli, Marinelli and Zoccolotti (2010) have proven that children with reading difficulties either at the word or textual levels experience writing problems at the same levels. This is because word recognition and written spelling processes are based on the use of the same orthographic, phonological and morphological representation of the word, Wengelin and Barbara (2018: 30-36).

A study carried out by Musee (2012) among class eight learners showed that reading was a very vital component in second language acquisition. While testing the effects of reading on their writing skills, he proved that learners who were fluent in reading are equally good in communication through imaginative compositions. This study, however, failed to account for lower level reading skills and did not show the progression of the development of reading skills in these learners. It also failed to establish whether all the learners had acquired the lower level skills required for reading that is, decoding and fluency. These were the basic skills that the current study was concerned with.

Lastly, a study carried out to establish the correlation between reading and writing was carried out by Mnyore (2016). Although she carried out her study among children with dyslexia and dysgraphia, it was relevant to the current study since it proved that there was a positive correlation between reading and writing as reading abilities had an effect on the writing abilities. This implied that learners who were poor in reading were also poor in writing. In the current study, it had not been established whether the learners under study had dyslexia or dysgraphia. It therefore assumed that they were all normal class four learners who had acquired and gained competence in the skill of oral reading and writing down dictated texts.

1.8 Theoretical Framework
There were two linguistic skills under investigation in this study: reading and writing. In reading, the learners were tested on fluency while their ability to write down dictated words accurately was tested as well. Two theoretical frameworks are therefore necessary, if the two skills were to be accounted for adequately. They were the error analysis theory
which would be used to account for both fluency and writing while automaticity theory would be employed while checking for fluency.

1.8.1 The Error Analysis Theory
The error analysis theory was used in the analysis of the data in this study. Developed by Corder in the 1960s and published later in 1976, it recognizes the fact that the making of errors is a stage that every learner must pass through in the process of second language (L2) learning. L2 learning is a continuum where learners move from a place of ignorance of the TL to a place of acceptable competence albeit not the native-like kind of competence. Therefore, errors are inevitable in this process.

Carl (2013:78) defines errors as unintentional deviations that L2 learners make from the target language (TL). These deviations according to him are as a result of the learners’ ignorance of the systems of the TL and even if they are made aware of them, they cannot correct themselves. The errors indicate the discrepancy of their knowledge in the TL. The study of these errors involves an investigation into the learner’s ignorance of the TL to establish the knowledge gaps and how they cope with this ignorance.

Corder (1976:25) views learner errors as important tools to determine how far the learner has progressed towards the acquisition of the TL. Secondly, they indicate the strategies that learners in learning the TL thus giving evidence of how languages are learned. In addition to this, they are devices that learners use in learning the TL.

Studying the errors made by learners involves making an investigation into the inter-language of the learners. The inter-language (IL) is an approximative language system that L2 learners develop based on their knowledge of their native language and the TL. They develop it as a way of coping with their ignorance in the TL, Selinker (1972:35). L2 learners are often aware that they do not possess the competence of the native speakers of the TL but the need to communicate in the TL makes them to create an approximative language system to ease the process. Nemser (1971:55) argues that approximative systems are the deviant linguistic systems actually employed by the learners attempting to utilize the TL. This means that they inherently have errors and thus Error analysis (EA) concerns itself with the identification and description of these deviations.
The process of learning an L2 is a continuum where the learners move from a place of ignorance of the TL to a place of competence; and at one given point in time a learner is at a particular point of the language continuum. The approximative systems which characterize this process are thus unstable as the learners continue to improve on their knowledge of the TL. By studying and classifying the errors in them, the researcher gets to know the extent to which the learner has acquired the TL.

Richards (2002:5) classifies errors as inter-lingual and intra-lingual. Inter-language errors occur as a result of the influence that mother tongue (L1) has on their learning of the TL. The learner transfers the rules of L1 to the production of TL items resulting in errors. These errors are indicated by the evidence of items produced in their mother tongue during the production of the TL. The MT influence results in deviations from the TL. In the investigation of the errors made by the respondents in the current study, evidence of L1 influence was sought and the errors classified accordingly.

Intra-lingual errors on the other hand arise from the learners’ failure to apply the rules of the TL appropriately. Thus, the errors arise from the TL itself and they bear no evidence of L1 influence. There are various reasons for the occurrence of these errors and they include the following:

i. Overgeneralization of the TL rules
ii. Ignorance of rule restriction
iii. Incomplete application of the rules
iv. Hypothesizing false concepts

The above reasons lead to the creation of deviant structures either by applying a TL rule where it does not apply or failing to observe the restriction of the extent to which a rule can be applied. A learner may also fail to fully develop an acceptable structure and lastly, they could portray the failure to distinguish concepts in the TL.

The procedure for error analysis was followed by first counting the pronunciation and spelling errors. This indicated the frequency with which they occurred in a learner’s text. The errors were then classified on the basis of being either inter lingual and intra-lingual and the reason for the occurrence given.
1.8.2 Automaticity in Reading Fluency

The concept of automaticity was used in discussing how reading fluency was achieved. It was also used to explain how the rate or speed of reading was enhanced in learners. In this section, the concept of automaticity has been expounded.

Fluency is a reading skill characterized by speed and accuracy. La Berge and Samuels (1974) as quoted in Kunh et al (2010:231) proposed the theory of automaticity to explain how these two are achieved in reading. They argued that reading becomes increasingly efficient as a result of the development of automaticity in decoding skills. Chall (1983) suggested that fluency develops at around class two and three when decoding skills are consolidated and word recognition automatically develops. These two assertions emphasized on the need for development and automation of lower level skills such as decoding before the acquisition of fluency and this underpinned the definition of automaticity which is the ability to read without occupying the mind with low level skills that are required.

When reading is considered automatic, it is characterized by four aspects which are speed, effortlessly, autonomy and lack of self-awareness. When these four aspects are developed, they result in fast and accurate reading and hence fluency.

Automaticity is characterized by effortless reading where learners recognize most of the words they encounter in a text with ease. This ease emerges when they move from following the various steps of word recognition and collapse them into a single-step process. At this point, decoding is then said to be automatic. The automation of the word recognition process then results in increased reading speed and accuracy and hence fluency.

Effortlessness is also seen when learners are able to handle two reading processes simultaneously and this happens when he or she integrates them and they become automatic in turn. When fluency becomes automatic, the learners decode the text while comprehending what they read. In this case, the reader has integrated fluency with comprehension. Integrating skills makes reading faster where lesser time and effort are used in executing them. On the flipside, when a lot of effort is expended on word
recognition, it hampers the speed of reading. In testing the fluency of the learners, the researcher was therefore interested in checking whether the learners were able to expend the least effort in reading.

Secondly, the process of reading should be autonomous. Autonomy is achieved when the learners become unintentional about reading. Fluent readers do not necessarily have to decide whether to read the words they encounter, it happens automatically, and almost sub-consciously. For the dysfluent reader, reading is a deliberate process where they decide when to read and take control of the process. For instance, when they come across a newspaper, they take time to decide whether to read it or not because they are unable to process the text immediately and automatically.

The last characteristic of automaticity that differentiates the fluent from the dysfluent readers is the lack of conscious awareness in reading, Kuhn et al (2010:232). Dysfluent learners read slowly because they are consciously aware of the steps that they need to take to determine the words in the text. Reading speed and accuracy are enhanced when learners lack consciousness of the process since the lower level skills of word recognition have become automatic. With this automaticity, the conscious effort with which the words are recognized disappears making the process of reading fast and accurate. Reading consciousness in learners is exhibited through stammering and long pauses while trying to get the correct pronunciation. These were observed in the learners under the current study to check whether word recognition had been automated leading to fluency.

In conclusion, the fluency with which the learners read will be tested based of the following parameters:

i. The reading speed
ii. Effortlessness
iii. Autonomy
iv. Lack of self-awareness during the process
1.9 Methodology
This section focuses on three areas namely: Data collection, analysis and presentation. It will define the location where the study was carried out, the sample and the sampling procedure used. The methods of data collection are identified as well as the assessment procedure. The ways in which data was analyzed and presented will be outlined as well.

1.9.1 The Sample and Sampling Procedure
As noted earlier, the research was carried out in two public day primary schools: Meru and Kithoka. They are all located within Imenti North Sub-County, Meru County. Meru Primary School, which is urban, is located within Meru Town’s central business district while Kithoka Primary School, which is rural, is approximately 8 kms away from Meru town. The two schools had been sampled purposively for comparison. In the report, Meru Primary school was coded School A while Kithoka was coded School B.

The target population was all the class four learners of the two schools. Out of these, a sample of twelve respondents was selected from each of the schools for purposes of this study. Therefore, in total, there were twenty four respondents. For ease of identification, each of the twelve learners from school A was also be coded and these codes would run from A1 to A12. The same was done to those from school B and their codes would run from B1 to B12. Twelve would be a representative sample of the learners from each school.

There are different sampling designs but this research used the stratified random sampling method. The results of the end of second term exams were the source lists from which the samples were obtained. Four learners were picked randomly among the top ten, four in the middle and four among the bottom ten giving a total of twelve respondents per school. The stratification of the sample was meant to ensure that learners of different intellectual abilities were involved in the study.

1.9.2 Data Collection techniques
An oral reading test was administered for each of the respondents to read aloud. A 130 word passage which was drawn from a class three story book was used. Reducing the number of words from the passage to 120 would tamper with its flow of thought and make it incoherent.
The learners were taped as they read and timed as well to check how long each would take to read the passage. The time taken to read the 130 words in the passage (recorded in seconds), was then used to calculate the number of words a learner would read in 60 sec. Finally, the passage was dictated for them to write it down.

**1.9.3 Data Analysis Techniques**

The analysis of the data collected was done both qualitatively and quantitatively. The time taken by each learner was recorded. This was used to calculate the speed at which each learner read in words per minute (wpm). The result of the calculation was gauged against the recommended speed to determine whether the learner’s rate of reading was slow or fast. The calculation was done by multiplying 130 by 60 and dividing the result by the time taken by the learner to read the passage.

The recorded oral reading tests were transcribed. A phonemic analysis was carried out using the EA where the researcher checked for errors in pronunciation. This data accounted for reading accuracy as one of the parameters of fluency. The errors were counted and classified as either inter-lingual or intra-lingual. Automaticity was checked as well to establish whether the process of reading occurred at the required speed and with little effort, autonomy and lack of self-awareness. This was the second parameter of fluency. A discussion then ensued on the possible causes of dysfluency among the learners.

The written texts were also analyzed by identifying and counting the spelling errors made by the learners. Similar to the pronunciation errors, they were then classified as being either inter-lingual or intra-lingual. A discussion followed on the reasons for the occurrence of the errors.

Next, the written tests for each learner were checked against his or her oral reading. This was done to find out whether there was any correlation between fluency and writing. The words which had been written correctly were compared to the pronunciation to find out if this was done accurately as well. The number of errors made in reading was compared to the one in writing.
Lastly, a comparison was made between the performance of learners in the rural and urban schools in reading and writing. This was first done at the fluency level where the average reading speeds of both schools were compared and contrasted. The frequency of errors per respondent was established and this would be the basis of establishing the sample with the larger number of errors. On writing, the number of errors made by each learner was also tallied. And through this the school with the higher frequency of errors was identified.

1.9.4 Data Presentation
The raw data was presented in various forms. The reading speed was presented in tabular form. Then the recorded passages were transcribed and written down. The written texts were also presented in paragraphs as presented by the learners. The analysis of the quantitative data was presented in tables as well while that of the qualitative data was given in the form of discussions.
CHAPTER TWO
THE KIMERU SOUND SEGMENTS AND THEIR ORTHOGRAPHY

2.1 Introduction
This section provides the linguistic background of the sampled learners by establishing an inventory of Kimeru Phonemes. The influence of mother tongue (MT) is one of the main causes of inaccurate formations either in pronunciation or spelling in TL (Carl 2013: 121) and thus the inventory of Kimeru phonemes provided the basis of the interlingual errors observed in the learners' articulation and spelling of words. The community surrounding school B is linguistically homogeneous as Kimeru is the main medium of communication and this has had an effect on the learner’s acquisition of the school A is surrounded by a linguistically heterogeneous environment where Kiswahili is the main medium of communication. This too had an effect on the manner in which learners articulated and spelt their words.

Kimeru is a central Kenya Bantu language belonging to the larger Niger- Congo language family. Kimeru is categorized as an E50 language and according to Bennet (1985) it is part of the Thagicu sub-family. Other languages that belong to this sub-family are Kitharaka, Kikuyu, Kikamba and Kiembu, according to Mberia (2015:1).

The speakers of this language are the Ameru who live on the Eastern and Northern slopes of Mt. Kenya. The Ameru are concentrated in the Imenti, Tigania, and Igembe regions of Meru County. The vastness of the region has overtime occasioned the development of various dialects which correspond to the regions in which they are spoken. The dialects therefore, include the Kiimenti, Gitigania, Gichuka, Kimwimbi, Kimuthambi, Kimiitine, Kiigoki and Kiigembe. The researcher in the current study speaks the Kiimenti dialect in which the phonemes in the ensuing discussion will be described. This dialect is also prominently spoken in the areas where the two schools under study are situated.

2.2 The Phoneme
A phoneme is an abstract set of units, which serve as the basis of speech. These abstract concepts represent the mental knowledge of the language used by a speaker. The speaker translates this knowledge into the appropriate sounds which represent the phonemes (
Roach 1991: 38). The function of phonemes is to mark distinction in meaning between words. The distinctions are made evident by minimal pairs. Each minimal pair comprises a set of words which differs by a single phoneme, Barlow and Gierut, (2002: 58).

The following are examples of minimal pairs in English

- Fun / fᵣn /
- Run / rᵣn /

In the above example the word initial phoneme contrasts thereby changing the meaning of the words. Although the contrast appears in the word initial position in the case above, it can appear at the word – medial or word – final positions

Below are examples of words in which the distinction is in the word – medial position include the following.

- pin / pᵣn/
- Pun / pᵣn/

Below are examples of words in which the phonemic distinction appears in the word final position.

- Sit / sᵣt /
- Sip / sᵣp/

2.3 Kimeru Consonant Phonemes

Most of the consonants in the Kimeru inventory were established by use of minimal pairs. For others however, it was difficult to find the minimal parts. The following are the minimal pairs used.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minimal pair</th>
<th>Phonemes produced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Ina</em> ‘sing’</td>
<td>/n/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Inga</em> ‘close’</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Tara</em> ‘count’</td>
<td>/t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Thara</em> ‘grab’</td>
<td>/θ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Kara</em></td>
<td>/k/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Tara</em></td>
<td>/t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Taara</em></td>
<td>/r/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Taana</em></td>
<td>/n/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ngari</em></td>
<td>/ŋg/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Nkari</em></td>
<td>/ŋk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Mbaka</em></td>
<td>/mb/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Mpaka</em></td>
<td>/mp/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gura</em></td>
<td>/ɣ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Kura</em></td>
<td>/k/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ndina</em></td>
<td>/nd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ntina</em></td>
<td>/nt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Njeetu</em></td>
<td>/ʤɣ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Geetu</em></td>
<td>/ɣ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Kinya</em></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Kira</em></td>
<td>/r/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Waaao</em></td>
<td>/w/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Jaao</em></td>
<td>/ʤ/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kimeru has 24 consonant phonemes. These consonants comprise of stops, fricatives, nasals, affricates and glides. The following discussion describes the consonants.

To start with, there are four stops used in the language. These are /p/ which is orthographically represented as ‘p’, is found in words such as gapaka ‘a small cat’. This sound is also found in English words such as pan. The pre- nasalized variant of this phoneme is found in Kimeru words as /mp/. Such words include mpengu ‘handcuffs’. The voiced counterpart of /p/ must occur in the pre- nasalized form which is /mb/ for instance in mburi ‘goat’.

/t/ is a stop written down as t both in Kimeru and English. An example of words in which it is found in Kimeru is utethio ‘help’ and in English tin. There is a pre- nasalized variant /nt/ which found only in Kimeru in words like ntagu ‘namesake’. The voiced alveolar stop /d/ must occur in the pre- nasalized form in Kimeru. An example of words in which it occurs is ndegwa ‘bull’.

/c/ is the third stop found in Kimeru words such as caai or chaai ‘tea’. In English, it occurs as /ʧ/ as in the word change. In pronunciation, the two phonemes bear the same sound /ʧ/. The orthography of the phonemes is, however, different in the two languages. In Kimeru it is written down both as ‘c’ and ‘ch’ while in English it is just ‘ch’. The phoneme has its pre- nasalized variant /nc/ which occurs in such words as ncaabi ‘black beans’.

The last stop described here is /k/. It occurs in both Kimeru and English. In Kimeru it is found in such words as kairi meaning again. This stop has a pre- nasalized variant / nk/. The phoneme occurs in words like nkara ‘eggs’. In English on the other hand, it is found in words such as kettle. Its voiced counterpart /g/ occurs in Kimeru only as a pre- nasalized segment, / ng/, in words including ngari ‘car’. The phoneme represented by ‘g’ in words such as gakiri ‘a small gourd’ is the velar fricative /ɣ/. The phoneme /g/ is found in English in words like good. If pre- nasalized in English, the resulting phoneme is erroneous.
Apart from the phoneme/ɣ/ discussed above, there are three other fricatives in Kimeru. These are /v/, /ð/ and /nð/. /v/ replaces /b/ in words like baatwi ‘we’. /ð/ is written as ‘th’ and it is found in such words as thaa ‘stinging nettle’. /nð/ is the pre-nasalized variant of /ð/ found in Kimeru words, for instance, nthuki ‘age group’. On the four fricatives, only one is also found in English and that is /ð/.

There are four nasals in the language: /m/ /n/ /ŋ/ /ᶮ/. /m/ is found both in Kimeru and English. In Kimeru, for instance, it is found in muthoni ‘in- law’ while in English it found in words like money. Its orthographic representation in both languages is the same.

/n/ is also a nasal that is used in both languages and it is orthographically represented as ‘n’. An example of a word with the phoneme is nandi ‘now’. In English it is in words such as need.

The phoneme/ŋ/ is also part of both Kimeru and English sound segments. In Kimeru it is written as ng’ in words like ng’ina ‘mother of’. The apostrophe must be included in the orthography. This is unlike English where it occurs just as -ng as the final sound segment in words ending in –ing such as proceeding.

There are two affricates used in the language which are /ʤ/ and /ᶮʤ/. Although the latter is the pre- nasalized variant of the former, they are treated as distinct phonemes. Just like it happens in English, the grapheme corresponding to /ʤ/ is ‘j’ and it is found in such words as jangi ‘other issues’. English words with such a phoneme include jogging. /ᶮʤ/ occurs in nja ‘home’ and other such words.

Only one trill is used although it is not a phoneme in Kitigania and Kiigembe dialects of Kimeru language. These two replace the trill with the lateral /l/. The lateral on the hand is not a phoneme in Kiimenti. This phenomenon is not a common feature in English as both the lateral and trill are phonemes. /ɭ/ whose corresponding grapheme is ‘r’, occurs in such words as ruuju ‘tomorrow’.
The following two glides are also part of the language system: /w/ and /j/. These two are also found in English and their corresponding graphemes are ‘w’ and ‘y’ respectively. They are found in words like *wendo* ‘love’ and *yakwa* ‘mine’. The two glides are also found in English in words such as wonder and yes.

Below is a table which gives a summary of all Kimeru consonants.

**Table 2.1: A Summary of Kimeru Consonant Phonemes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palato-alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosives</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasals</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>η</td>
<td>η</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trills</td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricatives</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>ð</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximants</td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-nasalized plosives</td>
<td>mp mb</td>
<td>nt nd</td>
<td>nc</td>
<td>ηk</td>
<td>ηg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-nasalized fricatives</td>
<td>nð</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre- nasalized africates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$p_d$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4 Vowel sounds

Kimeru is a seven vowel system language (Eshun 2007:38). The seven vowels are described in the following discussion.

a) /a/ whose grapheme is ‘a’ in words like *ambia* ‘start’.
b) /ᵋ/ represented as ‘e’ in words such as mpempe ‘maize’.

c) /ᵢ/ which is written as ‘i’ is found for example in mbiro ‘soot’.

d) /ᵣ/ which is written as ‘o’ for instance in irio ‘food’.

e) /ᵣ/ which occurs as ‘u’ in the writing of words like yuuku ‘book’.

f) /ᵢ/ whose corresponding grapheme is ‘i’ is found in such words as mbiira ‘tell me’.

g) /ᵪ/ is represented as ‘u’ in words such as mung’au ‘beans’.

It should be noted that two of these vowels are not found in English. They are /ᵋ/ and /ᵦ/.

Another point to be noted here is that there are no diphthongs in Kimeru.

### 2.5 Phonemic Differences between Kimeru and English Sounds

A study of the sounds enlisted above reveals some differences between Kimeru and English phonemes. These differences may be a cause of spelling errors by learners whose L1 is Kimeru. The errors occur when the learner uses Kimeru spelling system in the spelling of Kimeru words.

The first difference identified is in the number of phonemes. There are 44 phonemes in Received Pronunciation. 24 of these are consonants while 20 are vowels, Brooks (2015 p. 14). Kimeru on the other hand has 28 consonants and 7 vowels.

There are eight fricatives in English which do not occur in Kimeru. They are /f/ /v/ /θ/ /s/ /z/ /ʃ/ /ʒ/ and /h/. Kimeru on the other hand has 21 consonants.

Similarly, while Kimeru has 7 vowels, English has 20. So there are 15 vowels in English which do not occur in Kimeru as the two which are found in Kimeru only have been discussed in an earlier session. The 15 comprise of the diphthongs such as /ᵋᵯ/ and /ᵦᵯ/. There are also long vowels including /ᵋᵯ/ and /ᵦᵯ/. Vowel length in Kimeru is marked through doubling of the vowel for instance /aa/and /ii/, Schroeder (2010:15). Other short vowels such as /ᵋᵯ/, /ᵦᵯ/ and /ᵪᵯ/ are also not found in Kimeru. These could be the cause of spelling errors for learners who are influenced by L1. For instance the word son either be articulated as /sᵣᵯn/ or spelt as ‘san’ since the learner may not perceive the appropriate sound and match it with the corresponding grapheme.
Secondly, there is lack of phoneme-grapheme correspondence of English phonemes. Out of the 24 English consonants, there are only 11 consonant phonemes whose spelling is regular. They include /b, d, g, h, m, n, p, t, r, θ and ð/, Brooks (2015: 19). For the other 13 consonants, there is no direct correspondence between the phoneme and grapheme. For example in the word ‘phonology’, the initial consonant is pronounced as /f/ and not /ph/. The lack of correspondence is also seen in vowels where only 5 vowels have highly regular spelling. They are /a, e, o, au and ju:/ For instance, letter ‘u’ in the word but does not correspond to the sound /u/ as found in the word put. In ‘but’ it is pronounced as /ʌ/. Kimeru on the other hand has a very regular spelling system as all the phonemes, both consonant and vowel, corresponds directly with the graphemes. For instance, /ŋɔmbə/ is spelt with the corresponding graphemes ‘ng’ombe’.

Thirdly there is the existence of double consonants in English, Brooks (2015:22). There are consonants with consonants with double spelling and they include /b, d, g, m, n, p, t, r, l, s and z/. Examples of such are ‘bubble and spelling’. This phenomenon does not occur in Kimeru. Learners may find themselves spelling such words with a single consonant where they should be double as *bable and *speling.

The last difference is in the pre-nasalization of consonant sounds especially the stops, affricates and some fricatives. The aspect of pre-nasalization is a common aspect in all Bantu sound systems, Schroeder (2010:32). It occurs when the nasals are placed before the consonants both in pronunciation and spelling except for /ŋ/ and /ŋ/ which occur orthographically as ‘n’.

a) /m/ is placed before the bilabial stops /p/ and /b/ for example /mbakə/ ‘tobacco’.
b) /n/ is placed before the alveolar stops /t/ and /d/ for example /ntunda/ (fruit)
c) /ŋ/ is placed before the velar stops /k/ and /ɡ/ for example /ngarə/ (car)
d) //ng/ is placed before the affricate /ʤ/ for example /ŋdzara/ (hand) and the palatal stop /ɕ/ as in the word /chaabə/ ‘black beans’.

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2.6 Conclusion

Inter-lingual errors may be caused by these factors particularly if the learner has not internalized the English sound and spelling systems and made distinctions between the two languages. A learner whose skills of word recognition are established and automated would not have a problem distinguishing the English sounds, articulating and spelling them correctly. These are the learners who have achieved fluency in English.
CHAPTER THREE
READING FLUENCY

3.1 Introduction
The previous chapter has looked into the phonemes in Kimeru where they have been identified and contrasted with the English ones. The differences between the two sets of phonemes have also been identified. It has been noted that these differences could be the cause of erroneous expressions in the learners’ pronunciation and spelling.

This chapter describes the fluency with which the learners read the passage. Fluency has been determined using two parameters which are the speed or rate of reading and accuracy of pronunciation. The two determinants would be put together to judge a student as being either fluent or dysfluent.

3.2 Reading Speed
The time taken by each of the learners to read the passage was recorded and used to determine their speed as shown in table 3.1. The results of this tabulation were used to calculate the average reading speed for each of the two schools.

Reading Speed of Learners from School A
The following are the findings of the reading speed among respondents from school A.

Table 2.2: The Reading speed of the learners in school A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>No. of Sec taken to read 130 words</th>
<th>No. of words read in 60 seconds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A11</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The average reading speed for school A was 78 wpm with the exception of the two learners who did not read a word from the passage. The fastest reader had a speed of about 122 wpm while the slowest used a speed of about 41 wpm. This rate of reading was way below the recommended speed of 120 wpm, meaning that most of the learners were slow. This slowness was caused by various factors and they led to lack of fluency. The following discussion gives evidence of why learners were classified as being fluent or dysfluent.

Learner A5 and A12 were fluent. They read fast at speeds of 118 and 122 wpm respectively. On average they read at a speed of 120 wpm meaning they were within the recommended rate. Their reading was rapid as there were very few instances of hesitation, for instance when A12 repeats the words ‘would spend’ and ‘the screen’. Another aspect of fluency evident in the two learners was that they expended little effort in reading. This was quite evident as none of them exhibited problem with word identification as even the longer words such as ‘complaining’ was read effortlessly. They were barely conscious of the reading process and thus did not spend time focusing on any particular word. This meant that their reading had become autonomous. In conclusion, all the above were indications that their skills of decoding were established and had become automatic. Together they contributed to the learners being fluent.

The other 8 learners exhibited various degrees of difficulty in reading which made their speed slow. Their average speed was 68 wpm; therefore, they did not reach the recommended reading speed. There were various reasons why they read slowly.

Learner A 10 who was the best in this category read at 101 wpm. His reading was effortless but the pauses that he made at various points indicated lack of autonomy in reading. He articulated the words quite intentionally and thus dysfluency.

Learner A7 was also slow and she read at 80wpm. She did not exhibit autonomy and lack of self-awareness as she became very intentional about the articulation of each word. This was evident as she attempted to make her reading accurate by repeating herself for instance when she read the following. ‘he sat…..he sat…..too….close’. She did not have a
problem with identification of the words although she did not articulate them rapidly; instead, she took her time before reading them out.

Another learner who exhibited a different caliber of dysfluency was A8 who used a slow speed of 41 wpm. Identification of words was not an automatic process as he took a lot of time before reading each word, for instance, he hesitated before reading such words as ‘outside’. The hesitations indicated that he was quite aware of the reading process and lack of autonomy. He became very intentional about the articulation of each word and this greatly prevented him from reading fast. He used a lot of effort in reading. This was seen in the pronunciation of such words as ‘always’, ‘dirty’, ‘sometimes’ ‘touched’. He ended up not pronouncing those words accurately. Lastly, he was quite aware of himself as he read and this is seen in the attempts that he makes to read accurately. The attempts are made evident by the pauses that he made to consider each word and ensure that he read accurately. All the above prove that learner A8 was not fluent.

Learner A1 whose reading has been transcribed in the accuracy session was one of the slowest and most dysfluent readers. Out of 130 words, he managed to read 45 words in 120 secs and used a speed of 22 wpm. There are long pauses between the words as she took a lot of time to identify each word. This was an indication that her decoding skills had not developed well. She, therefore, lacked autonomy in the process of reading. She also expended a lot of effort in reading each word and was also aware of herself during the process. Given the above factor, the learner was considered dysfluent.

The last learner considered in the category of the eight respondents is learner A4. His reading has also been transcribed in the accuracy session. He read at a slow speed of 49wpm which was occasioned by the long pauses between words. He lacked spontaneity in the reading process as he took a lot of time and effort to recognize each word. He was keenly aware of the next word to be read and took time to determine how to articulate it. He was also very deliberate about reading out each word and struggled to do it. This was an indication that his decoding skills were not developed thereby leading to dysfluenacy.
The last category of reading comprised those who could not read a word in the passage. Learners A2 and A3 exhibited a total lack of awareness of English sounds by failing to recognize the words. Learner A2 produced inaudible and incomprehensible sounds while learner A3 chose to avoid reading by remaining silent. This showed that their skills in decoding were not developed and without these skills they could not achieve fluency.

3.2.1 Reading Rate among Learners of School B

These are the findings of the investigation to determine the reading speed among respondents from school B.

Table 2.3: Reading Rate among Learners from School B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>No. of Sec. taken to read 130 words</th>
<th>No. of words read in 60 sec.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average reading speed for school B was 62 wpm. The two learners who did not read a single word have been exempt from the tabulation of the mean. The fastest reader used a speed of about 115 wpm while the slowest used 29wpm. This reading rate was much
lower than that of school A showing that more learners were slow readers in this school. This was an indication of dysfluency which was caused by various factors.

Learner B3 was the fastest with a speed of 115 wpm. This rate is within the recommended reading rate as 5 words above or below 120 wpm are within the acceptable range, Kuhn et.al (2010:231). She read rapidly and with little effort although she paused on a few occasions to consider the pronunciation of such words as ‘nose’ and ‘always’. She recognized the words quite easily showing that she had autonomy over the process. She was however, aware of the reading process and the fact that she pauses to consider the pronunciation of some words demonstrates this. All the same, despite the pauses and hesitations, the respondent is to a large extent, fluent.

Nine respondents who could read had reduced reading speeds of between 104 and 29 wpm. On average, they had a speed of 56 wpm. The slow rate of reading was caused by varying degrees of difficulty in word recognition. The learners used a lot of time and effort figuring out individual words and it was clear that they were conscious of the reading process. This indicated that their skills in word recognition were not automatic.

Firstly, learner B2 recorded a slow rate of reading of 81 wpm. Her reading was hampered by her failure to recognize some of the words effortlessly and so she took a lot of time to determine their pronunciation. In the end, she read most of these words inaccurately showing that she did not have the knowledge of how to pronounce those words. The words included ‘over’, ‘almost’ and ‘complaining’. She would hesitate to determine the pronunciation of these words showing that she did not have autonomy over the process and that she was consciously aware of every step that she needed to take to pronounce the next word. All these were indications of dysfluency.

Another case of dysfluency was registered in learner B7 who read at a slow speed of 32 wpm. It was evident that the learner was using a lot of effort to determine the pronunciation of the words. He would first whisper before actually pronouncing the words for instance, ‘lunch’ and ‘break’. This was an indication that the skills of word recognition were not developed in him. By fact that these skills were not developed, then there was no automaticity in the process. Failure to recognize words instantly showed that
the process was not autonomous for the learner. There were long pauses between words as he tried to figure out how to pronounce each word. He was thus aware of the process and this indicated a lack of fluency in the learner.

The next learner whose fluency was to be determined was learner B5. His reading speed was 29wpm which was very slow compared to the recommended rate. This learner could not recognize words automatically. He read each word at a time, pausing to consider the pronunciation of the next. Before reading out some words, he could whisper them to himself. This was evidence to show that he was self-aware of the process and lack of autonomy in the process. This was a clear sign that the learner was dysfluent.

Lastly, two other respondents, B6 and B8 could not read the words in the passage. Learner B6 whispered the words to herself and the words she produced did not correspond to the words in the passage. Learner B8 did not manage to read any word. He was not sure of any of the sounds he produced and the only two words he attempted to read were ‘school’ and ‘most’. He then chose to go silent. He simply could not recognize the words in the passage. Both of the learners’ decoding skills were not established. Without decoding skills, the two could not achieve fluency.

3.3 Accuracy of Pronunciation

Having analyzed the reading rate of the learners as one aspect of fluency in the previous section, the second aspect of fluency discussed is reading accuracy. The articulation of words by three learners from each school was studied, and that study yielded the following results.

3.3.1 Reading Accuracy among Learners from School A
The accuracy with which the learners read was determined by the manner in which they articulated each word. This analysis was carried out to establish whether the learners achieved the correct pronunciation of the words.
Learner A1

at sk⁴l..... f..... f his..... f⁴t in..... d e m e ni...... f⁴d..... t u d u c⁴d. d e .... t e k.... is.... as m e ni w t u pl e w t is d e m e ni........ w t as am t u..... kr e z..... p did fr e nds d at man w t s did sam.... h a. hi g t his w 'nt his......

Learner A1 articulated only 45 words in 120 secs and of this only the first two, ‘at school’, corresponded with the passage. Most of the words she articulated were actually not in the passage. These included, to do, many, what man and did.

The learner demonstrated that she could not recognize the words in the passage meaning that she had not acquired the skill of decoding. Decoding skills are determined by the ability of the learner to recognize the individual sounds that make up a word. The fact that the learner came up with words which were not in the passage is an indication that she could not recognize the sounds that made up each of the words. That is the reason for her failure to decode the words and without decoding, she could not achieve fluency.

Learner A4

m⁷g w u d spid ... m³.... c f his l'ntf.... br e k pliy f⁴t b' l in d e m a d' gr²d... a u sid. d'g'st b'i d' b r e k... g²t... v a hi w u d r'ntf t u klas and it his fud al was.... f'g'ti... tu w'f his dat hands. afta skul hi wud simpli si...mpli sit at h'm and w'f his t'lvif'n. sam....tims...samtaims hi sat tu kl's tu d c t'lvifon... d at his n's... l'm'o st t'ch-d t'y'd the s'rin. hi... hadli... w'nt autsaid tu pl c... wi d his... fr e nds. m⁷g's fa d'a wud ask...him.. tu klin.... p... bif o din c... b'at m⁷g wud bi s o basi w'ffiy his sa-k'a'tns d at hi wud f'g't c l abaut klini' c p. his sista c risa wud s e d' at hi w's sm'l'i f'ni. fi w's c'lw's k'mpl e ni' y tu d e a par'nts d at m⁷g w's a d o ti b'i. m⁷g wud d'g'st ign' h a/
Learner A4 made several errors in his pronunciation of words in the passage. In total there were 16 errors. Of these, three were inter-lingual bearing aspects of the learner’s L1.

- /tᵋlvᵊʃn/ - /tᵋlvᵊʃn/
- /tᵋʃd/ - /tᵋʃd/
- /dᵊn/ - /dᵊn²/

The aspects of L1 are seen where the learner read out the words the way they had been spelt. This is an aspect found in Kimeru which bears direct correspondence between the phonemes and their orthography. There are also no silent sounds in Kimeru and as such, the learner could not perceive the silent ‘e’ in the word /tᵋʃd/. The direct correspondence between phonemes and their orthography is also seen in the pronunciation of the word ‘dinner’ which comes out as */dᵊn*/.

The intra-lingual errors were also evident in his reading as seen in the words below.

- /gr₉d/ - /gr₉nd/  
- /₉lw₉s/ - /₉lw₉s/  
- /₉ts₉d/ - /₉ts₉d/  

These errors occurred as a result of incomplete application of TL rules while in other cases the learner overgeneralized the TL rules. In other cases the learner displayed ignorance on the TL rules.

These examples show that the learner was ignorant of the pronunciation of the vowel sounds. He did not know how to translate the orthographic vowels to their corresponding sounds. For instance, he translated the ‘ou’ in ground into a single /ᵊ/ instead of the diphthong /ᵊu/.
Learner A12

/ɑt skɑl mɑŋɡwɑd spɑnt mɑst ʃ f h’s ʃnɪf br e k pl e ʃ fətbɫ n ɗe mɑd’s grɑʊnd untsɑ’d. ɡs’t bʧɔ ɗe br e k ɡnɑ h’ wɑd rʧ tɑ klɑs ɑnd ’t h’s fɔd ɔlwɛs ʃɡtŋ tɑ wɔʃ h’s dɑt hɑnds. ɑfɑ skɑl h’ wɑ’d s’mpl s’t ɑt hɑm ɑnd wɔʧ ɗe tlvʧ’n. sɑmtɑms h’ sɑt tɑ: klɤ tɑ ɗe tlvʧ’n ɗɑt h’s nɑs ɭmɑst tʃʧ’d ɗe skr’n. h’ hɑdl’ wɛnt untsɑ’d tɑ pl e wɪď h’s frɛnds. mɑŋɡwɑsk h’m ɑsk h’m tɑ kl’n ɕp bʧɔ dɲɑ. bɑt mɑŋɡwɑd b’ sɔ bizi wɔʧ’n h’s kɑt’nɑs ɗɑt h’ wɑ’d ʃɡt ɑl ɑbɑt kl’nɲ ɭp. h’s sistɑ ɭrsɑ wɑ’d s’nɑ dɑt h’ wɔ’s ɭm e lɪŋ f’nɪ. fi wɔz ɡlwɛs kɑmplɛ nɪɡ tɑ ɗɑt mɑŋɡwɑd wɔ’s ɑ dɑt’ bɔ. mɑŋɡwɑd dʒst ɬnɡɔ h’.

Lastly, learner A12 was accurate in his reading despite reading */tɭvʧ’n/ without omitting sound /ɭ/. This error resulted from the learner’s ignorance of the fact that ‘o’ is silent in the word television. This was thus an intra-lingual error.

Other intra-lingual errors were noted where the learner replaced the diphthongs /e I/ with a single vowel /ə/ and /əʊ/ with /ə/. The examples of such occurrences have been given below.

- /plɛn/ - /plɛn/
- /mɑst/ - /mɑst/
- /lwɛs/ - /lwɛs/

The above demonstrated the learners’ ignorance of the TL rules regarding the articulation of diphthongs. This omission did not affect the clarity with which the words were articulated. It was expected as the class four learners would not have mastered the articulation of all English sounds especially the diphthongs and such silent sounds as in the word ‘television’. The learner was very sure of the pronunciation of these words and had articulated them without any hesitation. Therefore, no errors were made by the learner.
3.3.2 Reading Accuracy among Learners from School B

Similar analysis to those done for learners in school A, were carried out for respondents from school B.

**Learner B2**

\[ /a^t \text{sk}^u/l \text{m}^{y}g^2 \text{ w}^u\text{nd sp}^\text{nd m}^o\text{st} \text{ f } \text{h}^i/s \text{l}^n\text{f} \text{ br}^e \text{ k pl}^e \eta f^u\text{tb}^\gamma l \text{ n } \delta \text{c m}^\text{nd}^i \text{ ngr}^u^\text{nd} \text{ auts}^a\text{nd d}^f^\text{st} b^{jf} \delta c \text{ br}^e \text{ k ng}^{y} \text{t } \epsilon^{\text{v}}\text{r} \text{ h}^i \text{ w}^u\text{nd r}^s f t^u \text{ kl}^a s \text{ and } t \text{ h}^i s \text{ f}^u\text{nd } l^w e s f^u\text{ng}^u^\text{t}^y t^u \text{ w}^f \text{ h}^i s \text{ nd}^a t^c \text{ h}^a nds. a^f t^a \text{ sk}^u/l \text{ h}^i \text{ w}^u\text{nd sl}^\text{pl}^e s^t \text{ a}^t \text{ h}^o^m \text{ a}^n d \text{ w}^u^y^f^a \text{ a } t^{\text{elv}}^f\text{\text{n} s}^a^m^t^a^\text{ms} h^i s^a t \text{ t}^u: \text{ kl}^{o}s \text{ t}^u \delta e t^{\text{elv}}^f\text{n } \delta a t \text{ h}^i \text{ n}^o^s \text{ a}^m^o\text{st} \text{ t}^c^h^d \delta c \text{ sk}^r^n. \text{ h}^a \text{ h}^a^d^l^f \text{ w}^o^\text{nt} \text{ auts}^a\text{nd} \text{ t}^u \text{ pl}^e \text{ w}^m^d \text{ h}^i s \text{ fr}^\text{nds. m}^{y}g^3^s \text{ f}^{a^f^a} \text{ w}^u^s \text{ a}^s^k \text{ h}^o^m \text{ t}^u \text{ kl}^n \text{ o} p b^{jf} \text{ nd}^n^a \text{. m}^b^a^t \text{ m}^{y}g^3^s \text{ w}^u\text{nd m}^b^i \text{ s}^o \text{ m}^b^i^s \text{ e } w^y^f^u^y \text{ h}^i \text{ s}^k^a^t^\text{ns} \text{ } \delta a t \text{ h}^i \text{ w}^u\text{nd f}^{y}g^u^t \text{ } \eta l \text{ a}^m^b^a^t^u^t \text{ kl}^n^y \text{ } \eta p. \text{ h}^i \text{ s}^t^e^\text{r}^s^a \text{ w}^u\text{nd s}^e^\delta a t \text{ h}^i \text{ w}^u^s \text{ s}^m^\text{t} \text{ } f^u^n \text{ } \eta \text{ w}^u^s \text{ } l^w e^s k^m^p \text{ e } n^y \text{ t}^u \delta c^a \text{ p}^{a^r}^\text{en}^\text{ts} \text{ a}^n d \text{ } \delta a t \text{ m}^{y}g^3^s \text{ w}^u^s \text{ nd}^a t^e \text{ m}^b^\gamma l. \text{ m}^{y}g^3^s \text{ w}^u\text{nd nd}^f^s^a \text{ st } a^n g^n \text{ h}^a./\]

The above learner made frequent errors while articulating the words in the passage. In total, she produced 38 errors which are both intra-lingual and inter-lingual.

The intra-lingual errors were seen in her inability to recognize the sounds in certain words. In such instances as given below, she was unable to recognize the vowel sound in the words replacing them with erroneous options. This was an indication of the learner’s ignorance of the rules governing the pronunciation of these words.

- /m'nd/ - /m'ld/
- /ngr^u^nd/ - /gr^au^nd/

Inter – lingual errors were also evident in the learner’s articulation. To start with, there was pre-nasalization of consonant sounds, which is a feature of L1. This was seen in the words below.

- /w^u^nd/ - /w^u^d/
- /ng^t/ - /g^ot/
Another aspect of L1 was seen in the replacement of the final /l/ sound with the vernacular /l/. This was found in such words as enlisted below.

- /ndtv/ - /d:tvl/
- /¬n/ - /¬n/ /
- /mb'sv/- /blz/

**Learner B5**

/ɑt sku mɔndələ wI pnt mɔt ʃ f h's lɑn downfall br'd br'n fəmb'l n ðk məndə ngənd wɔn j's bət ðk bən gɔl wI h' wənd r'n tu kləs a e t h's fənd ðm n e frəŋgə tə wɔs h's ndrəkənd frəm skəl h's wək'd slpə s'p' at həm ənd wəf ðk tənəs təm h' stət tu ðgə tə ðk trəngə ðət h's nəstət ənd ðk rəstəs h' hənd wənt ðv'd tu plə wədə h's frənd. məŋgəfədə at əs h'm tu kr'n ʃ p frəm ndəm mbət məŋgə səs mbfə wəʃə h's kərən ðk h's wə frəm ə e lʊk krənə pət h's s'kət ə e stət tu ənd s' ðət h' wəs swəmə ləfə jə wəs mən e krəndəl tu h's pərnt at məŋgə wə ə dfrən bənt məŋgə wəs fət əs ðk m./

This learner made numerous errors. Out of the 130 words in the passage, he articulated 78 words inaccurately. There are various reasons for the emergence of these errors and these have been discussed below.

Most of these errors result from the learners’ inability to apply the TL rules of pronunciation appropriately and are thus intra-lingual. They also point at the learner’s ignorance of TL rules thereby resulting in erroneous expressions. One of such rules governs the matching of graphemes with their corresponding sounds which the learner was unable to do. This was seen in the production of such words as:

- /l'nj/ - /l'nj/
- /w'nj/- /wnts'd/
- / ndr'nk/- /d'tl/
The words produced did not show any relationship with the ones in the passage showing that the learner did not have the appropriate skills to identify the sounds in the given words. Word recognition skills must be established for fluency to develop. The failure to recognize the words in the passage thus resulted in the numerous errors.

There are errors which arose from the influence of L1 on the learners’ pronunciation. They occurred because the learner transferred the L1 rule of pre-nasalization to the pronunciation of the English words. They include the following words.

- /tʃtmbɔl/ - /fæbɔl/
- /nɡrɑʊnd/ - /grɑʊnd/
- /mbɔ/ - /bɔ/

**Learner B10**

/ət skwɔl mɔŋgɔ #w|d sp@nd mɔst əf h|s l@ntf mbr @k p|l eŋ f@tmbɔl ən əc mɔnd e
nɡrɑʊnd ɑutɔd. ndɔst bʃʃ ə mb]<k ŋgɔt ɔŋ, h|w|d rʃ tʃ klɔs ənd tʃ s
fɔnd ɔw$ fɔŋgɛʃŋ tʃ wʃ h|s dat e hɔnds. əftɔ skwɔl, h|w|d smp|l eʃt ət hɔm
əd wɔʃ ə tʃlʃfɔn. sʌmtɔms h|t sɔt tʃ klɔs tʃ əc tʃlʃfɔn ɔt h|s nɔs əlmɔst
tɔʃd ə skrɔn. h|t h|ndlʃ wnt ɑutɔs ənd tʃ pl e wɔt h|s frɛnd. mɔŋgɔ fəðə wŋnd
əsk hɔm tʃ klɔŋ əp mbʃʃ ndɔn ə mbɔt mɔŋgɔ wŋnd mbʃ sɔ mbʃʃ ə wɔʃŋ h|s
kɔtɔns ɔt h|t wŋnd fɔŋgɛʃ əl əmbɔt klɔŋŋ əp. h|s sɔst ɔrʃʃ wŋnd s əɔt h|t
wɔʃ smɔlŋ fɔn ə fɔ wɔʃ ə kɔmplɔŋŋ tʃ əc pɔrnts ɔt mɔŋgɔ wɔʃ ə ndɔt e
mbɔŋ. mɔŋgɔ wŋnd ndɔst əmgɔn ə hə/
Various factors contribute to the high number of errors exhibited by learner B10. She made a total of 31 errors.

Many inter-lingual errors are made as she sought to establish strategies to deal with the pronunciations in TL. Firstly, she pre-nasalized the stops as is done in their L1. Thus, such expressions were produced:

- /autsənd/- /autsəd/
- /fngeɪntɒ/- /fŋgeɪntɒ/
- futmbɒl/- /futbɒl/
- /mbʌ/- /bʌ/
- /wʌnd/- /wʌnd/

Another aspect of L1 influence was seen in the replacement of vowels /ɪ/ and /ɻ/ with /ɛ/ which is commonly found in Kimeru. This is because the L1 does not have diphthongs and hence the learners avoided them by replacing them with /ɛ/ and /ɻ/. This led to such erroneous expressions as these:

- /sɪmplə/- /sɪmplə/
- /mɪndə/- /mɪndə/
- /dɪtə/- /dɪtətə/
- /fɪnə/- /fɪnə/
- /brək/- /brək/

Among her errors, there were errors which occurred as a result of inability to apply the TL rules of pronunciation completely. An analysis of these errors gave some insights on the strategies that the learner employed in dealing with the difficulties she encountered in attempting to apply the TL rules.
3.4 Conclusion

The discussion above indicates that there were various strategies that the learners reverted to in dealing with their ignorance of the TL. First, they transferred the L1 rules of pronunciation into TL resulting in inter – lingual errors. Secondly, they simplified some of the pronunciations and replaced unfamiliar words and sounds with those that were simpler for them. This resulted in intra – lingual errors due to incomplete application of TL rules. All these strategies made it easier for them to handle the task. Other intra-lingual errors indicated ignorance of the TL rules.

There were learners such as A12 who were accurate in reading. The accuracy in reading was an indication of fluency among the learners. Such factors as speed, effortlessness, autonomy and lack of self- awareness which reflected automaticity in reading, added up to accuracy. Learner A12 has demonstrated this through his reading.

In general, learners from school A made less number of errors with a total of 174 errors. Two of them – A10 and A12- read the text accurately with zero errors recorded. The rest made a varied number of errors with A1 failing to read 85 words. The least had 3 errors and two of the learners failed to read any of the words in the passage. Some of the learners in this group had acquired and established the skills of word recognition leading to the accuracy in their articulation of the words.

On the other hand, none of the learners from school B read the passage accurately. They made a large number of errors with the worst case being 122 errors. The least number of errors in this group was 10. Two of the learners were also unable to read the passage. This was an indication that they had not established the skills of word recognition.
CHAPTER FOUR
IMPACT OF FLUENCY ON WRITING

4.1 Introduction
The previous chapter has focused on fluency in reading where the speeds and accuracy of reading among the respondents has been analyzed and the analysis demonstrated that automaticity in reading led to accuracy. Bearing in mind that some of the learners are not fluent, we now focus on the impact that fluency has on accuracy in writing. However, before establishing the link between fluency and writing, the texts written down by various learners were analyzed for spelling errors. Punctuation errors were not taken into account as they were not related to the pronunciation of particular words. Thus, a learner’s failure to capitalize appropriately and use punctuation marks was overlooked.

4.2 Writing Accuracy among Learners in School A
The passages of these learners enabled the identification and classification of the spelling errors. The first session deals with the passages produced by learners from school A.

Learner A5
At school mongo would spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy ground outside. Just before the break got over he would rush to class and eat his food alway forgetting to wash his dirty hands. After school he would simply sit at home and watch the television.

Sometimes he sat too close to the television that his nose almost touched the screen. He haddly went outside to play with his friends. Mongos father would ask to clean up before dinner. But mongo would be so besy watching his cartoons that he would forget all about cleaning.

His sister orisa would say that he was smelling funny. She was always complaining to their perents that mongo was a dirty boy. Mongo would just ignor her.

On counting of errors on Learner A5’s text, eight errors were identified. This was an indication that the learner was largely accurate in recording the text.
Some of these errors are intra-lingual arising from the learner’s inability to completely apply the spelling rules of the TL. This is seen where the learner fails to spell the words correctly by omitting the last letter. Let’s consider the following examples.

- befor – before
- alway – always
- ignor – ignore

In another instance, he displayed ignorance of the TL rules of spelling. This was found in words which were spelt using some wrong letters showing that he did not know how the correct spelling of such words. In other words, the learner omitted the silent letters showing ignorance of their existence in orthography. Since the letters are not pronounced, he failed to include them in spelling too. The following words illustrate such instances.

- Besy – busy
- Perents – parents

In this two cases, the learner failed to recognize the appropriate grapheme for the phonemes /l/ and /ɛl/. This resulted in the misspellings due to his ignorance of the spelling rules for the words.

- Televison – television
- Haddly – hardly

The silent sounds were left out since they were not articulated during the dictation. The learner displayed ignorance of the existence of the silent sounds as well as the TL rules of spelling silent sounds.

- Toched – touched

The learner overgeneralized the rule of spelling such words as money and monkey thereby resulting in the spelling error.
Learner A7

At school Mongo would spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy ground outside. Just before the break got over he would rush to class and eat his food alway forgetting to wash dirty hands. After school he would simply sit to home and watch the television.

Sometimes he sat too close to the television that his nose almost touched the screen. He had ugly went outside to play with is friend. Mongo’s father would ask him to clean up before dina. But mongo would be so busy watching his cartoons that would forget all about cleaning up.

His sister orisa would say that he was smelling funny. She was always complainin to they parent that mongo was a dirty boy mongo would just ignor her.

Ten errors were made in the text produced by learner A7. This shows that the learner was accurate in spelling most of the words. The errors identified have been classified as inter – lingual and intra – lingual and they have been discussed below.

Inter- lingual errors were found in words whose spelling reflected the L1 system of pronunciation. Kimeru has a very high correspondence between phonemes and their orthography and hence, words are spelt exactly the way they have been pronounced. The word *dina clearly demonstrates this. The lack of correspondence in English caused this misspelling as the learner could not relate the sound /ᵊ/ with the final letters ‘er’ to come up with the correct spelling. In another case of L1 influence, she omits ‘h’ in the word ‘his’. This was attributed to the fact that /h/ is not one of the sound segments in Kimeru.

The second category of errors identified is the intra- lingual. To start with, the learner exhibits knowledge on how to spell some of the words in the passage but fails to completely write them down. In this type of error, she fails to apply the rules of spelling of those words. These are the words.

- Beak – break
- Alway – always
- Complainin – complaining
Ignor – ignore

The learner has the knowledge of how to spell these words and this is seen where in another sentence, she spells the word ‘break’ correctly. This demonstrates that she is aware of the rules but does not apply them in totality.

There are instances that the learner exhibits ignorance of the rules of spelling. In the following instance, she displays this ignorance by splitting the word ‘hardly’ coming up with two words that are irrelevant in the situation at hand.

Had ugly – hardly

Lastly, when the learner uses the word ‘they’ instead of ‘their’ she displays a faulty comprehension of the distinction between the two words which also results in an intra-lingual error.

Learner A10

At school mongo would spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy ground outside. Just before the break got over he would rush to class and eat his food always forgetting to wash his dirty hands. After school he would simply sit at home and watch the television.

Sometimes he sat too close to the television that his nose almost toched the screen. He hadly went outside to play with his friends. Mongo’s father would ask him to clean up before diner. But mongo would be so busy waching his cartoons that he would forget all about cleaning up.

His sister orisa would say that he was smeling funny. Companing to their parents that mongo boy. Mongo would just ingnore her.

While writing down the passage, the learner above made six errors. Five of these are intra-lingual and one has been caused by L1 influence.

One of the causes of intra-lingual errors is overgeneralization of TL rules. This can be seen in the word spelt as *toched. The learner had generalized the spelling of such words
as money and monkey to the spelling of touched, bearing in mind that they all bear the vowel /u/. He thus left out the silent ‘u’ since it was not captured in pronunciation.

The second cause of errors is the learner’s failure to observe the existing structures of spelling the word complaining. Out of ignorance, he thus spelt it as companing, creating an error. Another form of ignorance of the spelling rules is seen where he omitted the silent sounds in the words enlisted below. The sounds were left out as they were not articulated with the rest of the sounds. The learner had an idea of how to spell the words but did not know that he had to include the silent sounds.

- Hadly – hardly
- Waching - watching

Two instances of mother tongue influence were noted in the text. They were found in these two words:

- Smeling – smelling
- Ingnore – ignore

In the first instance, the learner did not double the consonant. This is an aspect of L1 as Kimeru does not incorporate double consonants in its spelling system. The learner had therefore extended this rule to the spelling of the current word. The second aspect has to do with pre-nasalization of the ‘g’. This happens in Kimeru and the learner had reverted to pronunciation to consider the spelling of the word. This led to the creation of this error.

4.3 Writing Accuracy among Learners in School B

The texts produced by learners B3, B6 and B9 were analyzed for errors. It was noted that they had made a total of 153 errors.

**Learner B3**

At school mongo would spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy ground outside. Just before the break got over he would rush to class and eat is food always forgetting to wash is dirty hands after school he would simply sit at home and watch the television sometimes he sat too close to the television that his nose almost touched the screene. He adry went outside to play with friends mongo’s father would
ask him to clean before ndina. But mongo would be so bizy watching is cartoons that he would forget all about cleaning up is sister olisa would say that he was smelling funny she was always compraying to their parent that mongo was a dirty boy mongo would just ignor.

Fifteen errors were noted in the text above. The learner spelt most of the words accurately, however, both inter and intra lingual errors were identified in her text.

It was clear that the learner had transferred the L1 spelling rules to the spelling of the words from the passage. As noted earlier, Kimeru pronunciation corresponds to spelling unlike English. This aspect was seen in the spelling of these words as the spelling appears in the same manner in which the words would have been articulated. Failure to match the phoneme with its corresponding grapheme was also evidence of L1 influence.

- Ndina – dinner
- Abaut – about
- Bizy – busy

Another aspect of L1 pronunciation that had been transferred to spelling is that of pre-nasalization of consonants as seen in the first word above. The learner might have articulated the word in an attempt to establish its spelling thereby pre-nasalizing the ‘d’. This erroneous pronunciation is then reflected in writing.

The learner also keeps omitting ‘h’ in words in which it should be the initial consonant. This is an aspect of L1 because neither the sound /h/ nor the letter is used in Kimeru. The learner therefore, transfers this rule to the spelling of the following words.

- Hardly – adry
- His - is

There are various ways in which the learner produces intra lingual errors in this text. Firstly, there is evidence of ignorance of TL rules. This is seen in the word *compraying which should have been spelt as ‘complaining. The learner demonstrates that she was ignorant of the manner in which this word should have been spelt.
Secondly, she overgeneralizes the TL rules of spelling when she produces the following words.

- Screene – screen
- Whith – with

There are English words which end in an ‘e’ that follows ‘n’. Examples of these are the words ‘scene’ and ‘fine’. The learner thus extended this rule to the spelling of the word screen resulting in an error. In the second instance, the spelling of such words as ‘what’ and ‘when’ was extended to the word with similarly resulting in an error.

### Learner B6

*Hat school mongo cidi sped most of his ranch brak ctiem fieor in thr mada lgrund hathi sand. Ati bifo the poac gah hiudi rash to clss a hiti has foos oyuos foating to uos his datlhas ati afta school he ud smiti atis aumi taw penrasoi taa mit toch tanrasoi eat is nos orms taa is clindo acid to pla uis smot mongo fara und ac saa to clin to lina. Pat mongo udi siasa sadi fas hid uld foet ramat cri pias sitasoue desatuemerifaa fana sina plopu copran to sea paret rat mongo a dat boy mongo uoat sat hing hre.*

Out of the 130 words in the passage, this learner managed to spell only six words correctly. The rest of the words bear gross errors which indicate the learners’ ignorance of the existing structures for spelling English words. He created words which do not correspond to those in the passage. The words are not based on the spelling system of English. The correct words have been estimated in this case as one would not be sure what the learner wished to write. Examples of words include the following:

- Cidi- would
- Hathi sand- outside
- Oyus - always
- Penrasoi- watch

The errors produced by the learner are indicative of the leaner’s ignorance of English sounds and their orthography. He could not perceive the sounds upon hearing them and write them down accordingly.
Other than the short words to, of and his, the learner was also able to spell the words school and mongo accurately. This is because the word mongo sounds like a Kimeru word in its pronunciation. Also, the learner was very familiar with the word school as it is found in many areas within the school.

**Learner B9**

*At school mongo held spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy glound outside. Just before the break got over he hund rush to class and eat is food always forgetting to wash is darty hards after school he hund simbly sit at home and wach the television sometime he sat to close the television that is nose almost tached the scirin. He hadly went outside to play with is friends mongo’s father hold ask him to cleen before ndinna. But mongo hold be so busy waching in catunoons that he huld forget all about cleaning up is sister orisa huld sae that he was smelling fany she was always combrain to their parent that mongo was a darty boy mongo huld just egn oo her.*

There are thirty words that are misspelt by learner B9. The errors occurred as a result of both the mother tongue influence and the learner’s faulty interaction with the TL rules. The ensuing discussion illustrates this.

The influence of L1 was found in the spelling of words in the text. The learner transferred rules of L1 to the spelling of the words. The erroneous words largely correspond to their pronunciation as is the case in Kimeru. The words include the following.

- Darty – dirty
- Abaut – about
- Ndinna – dinner
- Fany – funny

Secondly, the learner failed double the consonant ‘t’ in the word *forgeting*. This is also an aspect of L1 as Kimeru does not incorporate double consonants in its spelling systems.

Intra-lingual errors are found in the case whereby the learner displays ignorance of the rules governing the spelling of some words. These words include;

- Combrain – complaining
The ignorance of the spelling rules is also seen in the wrong spelling of the words *wach and *waching. In both instances, the learner failed to include the silent letter ‘t’ as it was not articulated during the dictation. This is also the case in the spelling of the word *hadly where letter ‘r’ has been omitted.

There is also overgeneralization of the TL rules in the misspelling of the word *cleen. The long vowel /i:/ is found in such words as feet, meet and seen which are spelt with double ‘e’. The learner, therefore, uses the same system of spelling to come up with the erroneous expression.

There are instances too when the learner failed to make distinctions when choosing the correct spelling of the following words.

- Glound – ground
- Simbly – simply
- To – too

**4.4 The Impact of Fluency on writing**

The discussion on fluency and writing has demonstrated that fluency has an impact on writing. Just by considering their speed of reading vis a vis the number of errors each made in writing, it was clear that the faster the speed of reading, the less the number of errors made in writing. Learner B3 for instance read at a speed of 115 wpm and made 9 errors, learner B9 read at 59 wpm and made 29 errors and lastly learner B6 who hardly read a word in the passage accurately made 115 errors in her text. This data indicates a correlation between fluency and writing.

The tables below give a summary of the tally of errors made by each respondent in both reading and writing. The aim of comparing the data in both tables is to show that there is a correlation between the number of errors made in reading and those made in writing.

Table 4.1 contains a tally of the reading errors. The dashes (-) represents learners who could either not read a single word except for learner A1 who read out 45 words only.
The 45 words were erroneous and most of the words she produced could not correspond to the passage. The errors could not therefore be tallied or classified.

**Table 4.1: The Tally of Pronunciation Errors per Learner**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B5</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>B6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>B7</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>B8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>B9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B10</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>B11</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>174</strong></td>
<td><strong>432</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The numbers in the table above indicate that the respondents from school A made fewer errors than those from school B. Greater accuracy in pronunciation was observed among these learners, an implication of greater proficiency in sound and word recognition. This accuracy was seen in three of the learners who made no errors in their reading. Most of the errors made by the other learners were intra-lingual indicating that learners were not affected by L1. As much as there were intra-lingual errors among the learners from school B, the number of errors was increased due to the influence of MT. Two of the learners were not able to read. In contrast, none of the learners in school B was accurate in reading. While there were learners from A with less than 10 errors, all those from B had more than 10 with one recording as high as 122. The high number of errors among this group was not only caused by MT influence but also lack of adequate knowledge of the TL sound system. The similarity noted from the findings was that two of the learners from each school were unable to read. The four who were among the bottom 10 learners from their respective classes demonstrated that low intellectual abilities had a negative impact on SL learning and in particular, the mastery of the sounds.
The table below contains the errors made in writing. As in table 4.1, the dash indicates that the learner was not able to write the text legibly.

**Table 4.2: The Tally of Spelling Errors per Learner**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>B5</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>B6</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>B7</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>B8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B9</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>B10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>B11</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B12</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>324</strong></td>
<td><strong>524</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows a high number of errors made by the learners in both schools. While A had a total of 324 errors, B had 524 implying that learners in school B experienced more difficulty translating the words they heard into orthography as none of the learners made less than 10 errors. MT influence accounted for a large number of errors produced by these learners. This indicated that the learners relied on MT pronunciation to determine the spelling of the words. Other errors demonstrated the learners’ inadequate knowledge of the English sounds and their corresponding graphemes. Consequently, intra-lingual errors were produced accounting for the large number of errors. A number of learners from school A also experienced these difficulties although quite a number of them made less than 10 errors. In fact two recorded the passage accurately. Intellectual abilities of the learners played a key role in their ability to learn the English sounds and how to spell them. The two were among the top five learners in their class. These abilities to learn the L2 were reflected in their English exam results as learner A12 was the best in their class with 87%.
Going by the frequency of errors recorded for each learner, it is clear that the fewer the errors made in reading the fewer recorded in writing. For example, learner A9 who made 3 errors in reading made no errors in writing. Another such case is that of learner A11. He made 3 errors in reading and 7 errors in writing.

The same case applies to those who made many errors in reading as a high number of errors were found in their writing. Learner B12 is an example of this. With 18 errors in reading, she makes 29 errors in writing. In the same manner, learner B7 who makes 60 errors in writing makes 64 learners in writing.

The cases of the four learners who are not able to read also demonstrate the correlation between reading and writing. Not only were they dysfluent, they were also unable to write down the passage dictated to them accurately. Their data on writing has been presented below.

**Learner A2**
At school Mongo woud spend most of his usans meet breck plying soot th muddy untside just tee the break ova he would rathnsarsahenssa and cat his food olwars onsalsa forgetting to wash dairhains asas school he womsa shersen sit aonson arsa wah the ensons

**Learner A3**
Atihsdia mdia uonsdiamh wiamdi hsdiamdia india wiamdia whsdia mdi glamdi whsdiamhsd diamwandia wiamdia.

**Learner B6**
Hat school mongo cidi sped most of his ranch brak ctien fteor in thr mada lgrund hathi sand. Ati bifo the poac gah hiudi rash to clss a hiti has foos oyuos foating to uos his datlhas ati afta school he ud smiti atis aumi taw penrasoi taa mit toch tanrasoi eat is nos orms taa is clindo acid to pla uis smot mongo fara und ac saa to clin to lina. Pat mongo udi siasa sadi fas hid uld foet ramat cri pias sitasoue desatucmerifaa fana sina plopu copran to sea paret rat mongo a dat boy mongo uoat sat hing hre
**Learner B8**

At school mongo mut siped mosit of us rach bulak praning football.

The above four learners demonstrated a total lack of knowledge of sounds in general. While they listened keenly to the passage as it was read, they could not perceive and translate them into their corresponding graphemes. As a result, they produced words which reflected neither the MT nor the TL spelling systems. The examples of such errors given below show how the learners produced words which could not provide a clue of the word they intended to spell. The learners who were in the lower cadre in class performance showed their inability to learn the English sounds and their spelling conventions. The class teacher indicated that learner A2 had not been ranked with the other students as she had scored nothing in all the exams.

- Rathnsarsahensa
- Dairhains
- Bulak
- Plopu
- Tanrasoi

The lack of fluency was seen where the learners failed to recognize the words in the passage and read them out. This was an indication that their decoding skills had not been established since the skills of word recognition are a pre-requisite for fluency. Word recognition begins with the ability of an individual to correctly recognize and articulate individual sounds in a word. The cause of the learners’ inability to identify the sounds could have emanated from their poor mastery of English sounds, however, this could not be ascertained immediately as there are cases of dyslexia that have been reported among learners, Mnyore (2016).

Letter name and letter sound recognition skills are the lowest reading skills which are acquired early in pre-school. By the time a child is six years old, the skills in word recognition should be established. If this does not happen, then such reading difficulties would be experienced throughout a learner’s academic life.
The reading speed of the four learners could not be established as a measure of fluency. For the speed to be established each learner had to read the entire passage and from this, the number of words read per minute would be realized. In the case of the four respondents, there was no data from which to tabulate the reading speed, thus indicating their lack of fluency.

By failing to automatically recognize the words, the learners demonstrated that they lacked autonomy in reading. The lack of autonomy was seen for instance, when learner A3 chose to avoid attempting to read by keeping quiet. He did not even make an intentional attempt to recognize any word let alone being unintentional about the entire reading process. Failure to attempt the reading also made it impossible to tell whether the learners were conscious while reading. Thus, their fluency could not be gauged on this basis as well.

Relating the lack of fluency to what the learners produced in writing, it was evident that a learner’s knowledge of sounds has an impact not only on reading but also on writing. The learners could not discern the sound he or she had heard and relate it to the corresponding alphabetical letter. As a result, the learners created such non-sensical words as:

- Glamdi
- Hsdiamdia
- Foos oyus
- Clind
- smot

Such words were found in the writings of all the four learners showing they had a common problem of sound recognition. Since they could not perceive the sounds concerned, then they could not translate them to appropriate graphemes.

From the above findings, it was noted that three of the learners, A2, B6 and B8 could spell at least three words which were at, school and mongo. It was easy for the learners to spell the words at and mongo because they sounded like they were pronounced in mother-tongue. In an earlier discussion, it had been noted that Kimeru had a very high phoneme-grapheme correspondence. Thus words in this language are spelt the same way
in which they are pronounced. As such, it would not have been difficult for the learners to recognize the sounds in these words and write them down. The word school on the other hand, is a very familiar word as the learners encounter it every so often. With time, they could have mastered its spelling and hence, the ability to write it down.

4.5 Conclusion

The texts of the learners discussed above display various errors. Some of the errors are inter-lingual showing how the learners’ is influenced by their mother tongue. The learners have used their knowledge in mother tongue to determine the spelling of the words in the passage.

Other errors are intra – lingual where the learners failed to apply the TL’s rules appropriately thereby creating erroneous expressions. In some instances, the learners overgeneralized the TL rules and in other cases there was incomplete application of the rules. Lastly, the learners displayed ignorance of the rules involved in spelling the words in TL.

The errors were found in the texts of all but two learners from school A, who recorded the passage accurately. School A recorded the least number of errors with 324 in total while B had 524. The two learners are A9 and A12.

The other learners from school A made a varied number of errors ranging from 5- 118. The following is a break- down of the number of errors made by each learner. A1- 118; A4- 92; A8- 45; A6- 37; A10- 12; A5- 8; A11- 7 and A7- 5. The few number of errors among this group indicate that the learners had acquired he skills of sound recognition and they could match them with their corresponding letters appropriately.

None of the learners from school B produced an accurate text. Their number of errors ranged from 11 to 116 as shown in the following break- down. B11- 116; B6- 115; B5- 86; B7- 64; B1- 40; B9- 39; B12- 29; B10- 20; B4- 18; B3- 15 and B2- 11. From this, it can be deduced that these learners had difficulties perceiving the words in the passage and translating them orthographically. They had not acquired the skills of sound recognition.
Finally, the above discussion has demonstrated that there is a correlation between fluency and writing. There is an indication that learner’s awareness of sounds, shown through the ability to recognize the words automatically, is also reflected in writing as the learner is able to translate the sounds heard into corresponding orthographic letters.
CHAPTER FIVE
COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PERFORMANCE OF LEARNERS IN THE URBAN AND RURAL SCHOOL

5.1 Introduction
The previous chapter examined the impact of fluency on writing. The texts written down by the learners have been analyzed for spelling errors. Their performance was then been compared with their fluency to check whether good performance in fluency corresponds to good performance in spelling. It has been noted that although learners produced both inter-lingual and intra-lingual errors, those who produced few errors in reading also produced few errors in writing. It was thus concluded that fluency has a great impact on the accuracy with which learners write.

This chapter makes a comparison between the leaners in the rural and urban schools in their performance in reading and writing. The comparison will be made at four levels; reading speed, reading accuracy, writing accuracy and mother- tongue influence.

5.2 Differences in Reading Speed
The average reading speeds of the two schools was compared. The respondents from school A read at an average speed of 78 wpm (with the exception of learners 2 and 3 who could not read a single word aloud). The fastest reader used a speed of 122 wpm while the slowest used 22wpm. One learner recorded a speed of 122 wpm while five had speeds of between 80-110 wpm. Three had speeds of between 40 and 60 wpm and one 22 wpm. Two of the learners could not have their speeds recorded as they did not read at all.

On the other hand, the respondents from school B read at an average speed of 62wpm with the two respondents who could not read being exempt. The fastest reader used a speed of 115 wpm while the slowest used 29 wpm. None of the learners in this school read at a speed above 120wpm. Compared to the five in school A, only three read at speeds between 80 and 110 wpm. Four had speed of between 40 and 60 wpm compared to the three in school A and lastly, three read at between 20 and 30 wpm in comparison to one in school A.
The following table gives a summary of the distribution of reading speeds of the respondents from both schools.

**Table 5.1: Distribution of Reading Speeds**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading speed (wpm)</th>
<th>No of learners in school A</th>
<th>No. of learners in school B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>120 and above</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110 – 119</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 – 109</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 – 99</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 – 89</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 – 79</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 – 69</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 – 59</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners who could not read</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above findings indicate that more learners from school A read at higher speeds than those in school B. Word recognition skills were more developed in the learners in school A and that contributed to their fast speed. Many of the learners from school B had difficulty recognizing the words in the passage showing that their decoding speeds had not been established. Seven learners out of the twelve recorded speeds of below 70 wpm while only four did so from school A. More learners from A had speeds of more than 100 wpm than those from B showing greater proficiency in word recognition.
5.3 Differences in Reading Accuracy

Secondly, the accuracy of their reading was compared. This was done by counting the number of errors made by each respondent.

The table below indicates the frequency of the errors made by each respondent in the pronunciation of each word in the given passage. It also offers a comparison between the errors made by learners in school A and B.

**Table 5.2: Frequency of Pronunciation Errors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B5</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>B6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>B7</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>B8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>B9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B10</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>B11</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>54</strong></td>
<td><strong>422</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, it can be noted that learners from school B made more errors in the pronunciation of the words in the passage. They had a total of 422 errors compared to the 54 made by learners from A. The highest number of errors recorded by an individual from A was 14 while from school B, the highest number of errors was 122.

The findings above show that learners from school B had more difficulty recognizing the words and ended up articulating the words erroneously. Other errors made emanated
from the influence of mother tongue on their articulation. There were thus such instances of pre-nasalization noted. This increased the number of errors.

The distribution of errors across the two schools indicates that the respondents from school A were more accurate in reading than their counterparts from school B. Three of the respondents from school A made zero errors in reading while six of them made less than twenty errors each. For school B, only two respondents made less than 20 errors while the other eight made numerous errors ranging from twenty six to one hundred and twenty two. In fact, some of their works were incomprehensible. These results reflect the learners’ challenge of recognizing the words and reading them out correctly.

5.4 Differences in Writing Accuracy

Lastly, comparison was done on the accuracy with which the respondents wrote down the dictated passage. This comparison was also done by tallying the number of errors made by each of the learners.

Table 5.3: tally of Spelling Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>No. of errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>B5</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>B6</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>B7</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>B8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B9</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>B10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>B11</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>B12</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>324</td>
<td></td>
<td>553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A huge difference in the number of errors produced by learners from the two schools was noted as shown in the table above. The huge disparity emerged from the learners’ knowledge of sounds and the spelling system. There were learners from school A who made no spelling errors showing that they had good mastery of the sounds and their
corresponding spellings. Half the group produced between 0 and 12 errors showing a high proficiency in spelling. On the contrary, only one learner from school B made 11 errors. This group experienced great challenges with spelling implying poor knowledge in sounds and the English spelling conventions.

Lastly, a comparison was made based on the evidence of L1 influence both in reading and writing. School A had only one respondent – learner A8 - who exhibited aspects of his mother tongue in both activities. He kept leaving out the nasal /n/ in words such as spend, lunch and ground. He thus pronounced them as /sped/, /luch/ and /graud/.

On the other hand school B had all its learners demonstrating the influence of their mother tongue both in reading and in writing. In reading, pre – nasalization of the stops and was common in such words such as would, about, forget and dirty and busy. These words were often pronounced as /wund/, /ambaut/, /fonget/, /ndati/ and /mbisi/. In writing the influence of L1 was evident in the spelling of such words as about, dinner and touched. It was clear that the respondents relied on their mother tongue pronunciation to determine the spelling of the words. As a result, such spelling as ‘abaut’, ‘ndina’ and ‘tached’ were found in the passages written down by the learners. Therefore, of the two schools, school B was more affected by mother tongue.
CHAPTER SIX
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary
The purpose of this study was to establish whether fluency had any impact on the accuracy of writing among class four learners of two schools in North Imenti Sub-County, Meru County. It also aimed at making a comparison between the learners of the two schools on their performance in reading and writing.

The study had the following objectives: to establish whether the class four learners of the sampled schools had achieved the skill of fluency in reading, to find out whether the learners could write the same text they had read accurately, to establish whether fluency in reading had any impact on the accuracy of writing and lastly, to make a comparison between the learners from the rural and urban school on their performance in reading and writing.

To achieve the above objectives, the study sought to answer the following questions: can the class four learners read a given text fluently? Can the learners write down the text they have read accurately? Does fluency have an impact on accuracy in writing? What are the differences between the performance of learners from the rural and urban schools in reading and writing?

In this section, the summary of the findings and the conclusions drawn from them will be discussed. In addition, recommendations for further research will be given.

6.2 Findings
The study achieved the first objective by establishing that the class four learners from the sampled schools were not fluent in reading. This is so because of the twenty four sampled learners, only two read the passage at the recommended speed of about 120 wpm and with no errors in pronunciation. This represents 8% of the respondents. These are the only respondents who achieved the required speed and accuracy in reading. 18 respondents used speeds ranging from 29-115 wpm and in addition to this, their reading was marred by errors. The therefore, failed to meet the threshold for fluency. The 18
respondents represented 75% of the respondents. Still among the respondents, there were four who could not read a single word in the passage. This group accounted for 17% of the respondents. These findings led to the conclusion that the class four learners in these schools were not fluent.

The second objective was to establish if the learners could write down the same passage they had read devoid of errors. In this case, only two respondents wrote the passage accurately representing 8% of the respondents. 18 other respondents made various errors which upon counting, ranged between 8 – 118 errors. These learners accounted for 75% of the respondents. 4 others could not write a comprehensible passage accounting for 17% of the learners. The conclusion drawn from these findings was that the sampled class four learners could not write the passage they had read accurately.

The third objective was to establish whether fluency in reading led to accuracy in writing. The findings indicated that the two learners who had read the passage fluently also wrote it down accurately. The errors made by the other 18 respondents increased with reduced fluency. For instance, the three respondents who had read at a speed of about 80wpm made a total of 48 errors in reading and 54 errors in writing. As the speed of reading decreased among the learners, the number of errors in writing increased. The two learners who had read at a speed of about 40wpm with a total of 57 errors in reading produced 84 errors in writing cumulatively. To top it all, the four learners who had not managed to read a single word could also not write the passage down at all. In conclusion, there is a correlation between fluency and accuracy in writing. The more fluent one is the more accurate he or she is in writing.

The last objective of the study was to find out the differences between the performance of learners in the rural and urban schools in fluency and writing and here, major differences were noted. To start with there was a difference in their reading speeds. The respondents from the urban school read at an average speed of about 78 wpm. This was higher than that of their rural counterparts who read at an average speed of 62wpm. The two respondents who achieved the required speed and accuracy came from the urban school. On the other hand, none of the respondents form the rural school achieved fluency.
The respondents form the urban school made less errors in reading than their rural counterparts. Together they made 54 errors while those in the rural school made a total of 432 errors. The respondents from the urban school were therefore, more accurate in reading.

A slight difference was also noted in the number of errors made in writing. Two of the respondents from the urban school made zero where none of the rural learners fell under this category. Cumulatively, the urban learners produced 324 errors while the rural ones produced 346 in total.

Lastly, the high number errors produced by the rural learners in reading were occasioned by mother tongue influence, a phenomenon which was barely found among the urban learners. Aspects of L1 were evident in the work produced by all the learners from the rural school while only one learner from the urban school exhibited such.

6.3 Conclusion
The findings in this study have led to the conclusion that the class four learners in the sampled schools were not fluent. It has also been established that they have challenges in spelling various words. In particular, the learners who made more learners in reading made more errors in writing. This implies that there is a correlation between reading and writing. The ability to write accurately depends on the learner’s ability to read accurately.

A huge disparity between the performance of learners in rural and urban schools has also been identified with the urban school recording better performances both in reading and writing. This implies that the learners from the urban school are more proficient in reading and spelling.

6.4 Recommendations for Further Research
This study covered only two schools in North Imenti Sub- County and thus, they cannot be generalized. Further research should be carried out in the other schools in order to come up with a more representative conclusion on the state of fluency and writing accuracy among the class four learners.
Secondly, it covered only one area on reading development which is fluency. Other areas including sound recognition, comprehension and interpretation were not tackled and hence requiring further research.

Lastly, four of the respondents in this study could neither read nor write and it was not possible to establish the reason behind such a phenomenon. This should thus spur further research to establish why a class four learner would neither read nor write.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I:

At school, mango would spend most of his lunch break playing soccer in the main playground. As I sat by the break, he would rush to grass and it is sad. His something he would wash it and sit at home to watch the television. Sometimes is a boring to the television that is not at most each that is nose a scribbler just as sad to play with is rendre, mango would ask in giving up his game. But mango would be doing watchingiscations that his word to get all about the green up.

is sister or sister would was smeling so nice was all coming to the talent that mango was a day boy, was just in here.
At school mango mint spent most of his each puck a playing bagtell
in. The monday koal otat a title.
Bifo the play got over he went back
to class and tea. 13 foot alges too
be get in to class 18 feet hants after school he u7 sempie sit out
home and woman. The television
bant tem the sat too thros tos. The
Television tos 13 noise close touch
The skin. he a hand wet closes
et play way 18 flong mango Father
woseim to clean bag of time
pat mango u7 went by 80 tire washes
is basis wet he end of eet etlanet
cleaning out it is sitter else wonders as
we we u7 es eoly rain c blasts
slews kope hen to wear parent went
mengo was outoot toy mango went
chab hien u7.
At school, Mango would spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy
ground outside. Just before the break got over, he would rush to the cooks
canteen to get a sausage for getting to wash his dirty hands. After school, he would
simply sit at home and watch the television sometimes he would help out with the
tea. He would lock the screen when he heard his father. He would ask him to clean the
house, but Mango would be so busy watching cartoons that he would forget about
doing all the chores. His sister, Kisia, would say that he was being funny. She was
always complaining to their parents that Mango was a dirty boy. Mango would just ignore her in her.
At school, Moshi played most of the time. He was a football player. His grades were good. He got the highest grades before the exams. He would usually watch TV in his room before going to bed. After school, he would spend time with his friends to watch the TV.

He sat too close to the TV. The screen was close to his skin. He had trouble seeing clearly because of the distance. He had to lean back from the TV. Mortons was watching TV with his friends. He took his phone to watch the game.

His sister, Alice, was happy. He was smiling. She was always asking to watch different things. Mortons was a quiet boy. Among his friends, he got along well.
MONGO the dirty boy

At school, Mongo would spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy ground outside. Just before the bell rang, he would rush to class and eat his food, always forgetting to wash his dirty hands. After school, he would simply sit at home and watch the television.

Sometimes, he sat too close to the television that his nose almost touched the screen. He hardly went outside to play with his friends. Mongo’s father would ask him to clean up before dinner, but Mongo would be so busy watching his cartoons that he would forget all about cleaning up.

His sister, Orla, would say that he was smelling stinky, but she was always complaining to their parents that Mongo was a dirty boy. Mongo would just ignore her.
At school, Mango would spend most of his lunch break playing football in the muddy ground outside. Just before the break got over, he would rush to class and eat his food always forgetting to wash his dirty hands. After school, he would simply sit at home and watch the television. Sometimes, he sat too close to the television that his nose hair most reached. The skrin, he had left outside to play with his friends. Mango’s father would ask him to clean before Dina, but Mango would be so busy watching his cartoons that he would forget. All about cleaning up his sister. Ora would say that he was smelling funny. She was always complaining to their parents that Mango was a dirty boy. Mango would just ignore her.