ANALYSIS OF THE MORPHOSYNTACTIC STRUCTURE OF UTTERANCES IN DHOLUO/KISWAHILI CODESWITCHING

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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Declaration

This thesis is my original work and it has not been presented in either part or full for examination in this or any university.

Signature------------------------------- Date-------------------------------------

Jael Anyango Ojanga
AM13/2639/10

Recommendation

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as supervisors appointed by Egerton University

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved parents Mr. and Mrs Ojanga, my husband Aggrey Oballa and my children Trevine, Edna and Steve for their unconditional love.

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ABSTRACT

Code switching, the use of any two or more languages or dialects interchangeably in a single communication context, is a common linguistic practice owing to the trend of multilingualism in the world today. The study identified and described the morphosyntactic structure of utterances in Dholuo/ Kiswahili code switching. It was conducted in Nyangeta Zone, Winam Division of Kisumu East sub county, Kisumu County. The study determined the suitability of the MLF Model proposed by Myers- Scotton in 1993a to be used in the analysis of code switched utterances using Dholuo/ Kiswahili code switching data. The Descriptive Survey Design was used to investigate population by selecting samples to analyse and discover occurrences. Study population consisted of twenty four teachers, twelve from Sugar Research School and twelve others from two other schools that make up the Nyangeta Zone. These schools are Kibos Prison Primary School and Kibos School for the Visually Handicapped. Reliability of the instrument was determined through a pilot study in Sugar Research School. Data was collected using participant observation in focus group discussion. The discussion was taped using a tape recorder which was discretely placed to minimize observer effect. Taping of code switched utterances in informal conversation was done. Systematic Random Sampling was used to select fifty code switched sentences. The collected data was analysed qualitatively using the MLF Model. The study revealed that the MLF model was adequate in the analysis of code switched utterances. Dholuo was the overall matrix language while Kiswahili was the embedded language as proposed in the MLF Model. The Morpheme Frequency was adequate in the identification of the Matrix Language. The Morpheme Order Principle and System Morpheme Principle were also adequate in the identification of the matrix language. Besides analyzing Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching, the study also set to find out if the practice of code switching poses any threat to the existence of Dholuo as an indigenous language among its native speakers. The study also established that indeed Kiswahili has greatly influenced and infiltrated Dholuo at the linguististic levels of diffusion namely semantic, Phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. The study recommends that more studies should be done on the MLF model using different sets of indigenous languages and Kiswahili to establish the effects of Kiswahili on these languages and to establish whether these languages are facing threats from Kiswahili since it has also been elevated to the status of both official and national language in the new constitutional dispensation.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EL--------------Embedded Language

Det------------ Determiner

ELI------------Embedded Language Island

ML----------- Matrix Language

MLF -----------Matrix Language Frame Model

MLG------------Matrix Language Goal

MLI-------------Matrix Language Island

MOP------------Morpheme Order Principle

MOH------------Morpheme Order Hypothesis

NP----------------Noun Phrase

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER THREE:RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The world has been reduced to a global village. This is as a result of the advances made in communication. The level of interaction among people with divergent culture and languages, improvements in the level of education across the world, coupled with trade and industry has forced people to contend with communication involving interchange in the language use, a trend of mixing languages in the same context, code switching has become a common practice.

Code-switching is a common phenomenon in societies in which two or more languages are used. Studies of code-switching enhance our understanding of the nature, processes and constraints of language (Myers-Scotton, 1993a), and of the relationship between language use and individual values, communicative strategies, language attitudes and functions within particular socio-cultural contexts. Code switching as an emerging linguistic phenomenon has over time developed into a linguistic domain of study.

In language contact situations, speakers of various linguistic backgrounds make diverse code choices not all of which should be regarded as code switching. The ideal code switcher is a phantom appearing in almost as many guises as there are scholars interested in his/her performance. However, some common features of code switchers stick out. They are fluent in both languages, although they may not be balanced bilinguals. As pointed out, their linguistic repertoire encompasses not just two main systems L1 and L2 but at least three languages which are connected with code switching. Code switching then is a linguistic skill in its own right rather than a makeshift solution to an anomalous communication problem. Code switchers accommodate each other. They possess a wider repertoire of adaptive strategies and modification devices than monolingual speakers (Grosjean 1985). However, they do not feel the need to settle on a lingua franca in the sense of one language one conversation. Summarily bilingual speakers who regularly and competently engage in the practice of concurrently choosing portions of L1 and L2 in the same conversations fit the bill of who a code switcher is. How do people code switch? Many observations have shown that in terms of co-operations, transmitting information and building rapport, bilingual conversations involving code switching function much like monolingual conversations, smoothly and without disruption.

Code switching is a commonly employed communication mode by elite Dholuo speakers especially in their informal conversations. Dholuo native speakers, especially the elite urbanites often code-switch between Dholuo and Kiswahili in their in- group informal communication. This is done as a show of competence in the switched languages. They employ code-switching deliberately as a style to mark their socio-economic position, modernization and membership in a unique urbanite group.

A survey of code switching literature shows that the speaker's first language is almost always the language which is identified by the morpheme frequency criterion as the matrix language (Myers Scotton 1993a). In this study therefore, Dholuo was the expected Matrix Language from the data that was collected since the targeted group were Dholuo first language speakers and Kiswahil will be the expected embedded language.

Dholuo, a language spoken by the Luo (also spelled as Lwo) is a Nilotic language spoken by the fourth largest linguistic group in Kenya (Ogot 1967). The Luo are several ethnolinguistically related ethnic groups in Africa who inhabit an area ranging from South Sudan and Ethiopia, through northern Uganda and Eastern Sudanic (Nilotic language, a branch of the Nilo-Saharan language family. According to various ethnic classification schemes, they are refferd to as River-Lake Nilotes which also includes the Dinka-Nuer language group.

The people who speak Luo language include the Shilluk, Anuak, Acholi, Jurluo, Lango, Palwo, Alur, Padhola, Joluo (Kenyan and Tanzanian Luo), Bor and Kuman. According to ethnologists, linguists, Luo oral history, the Luo are part of the Nilotic group of tribes who separated from the other members of the East Sudanic family by the 3rd millennium B.C. (Bethwel Ogot places the area of origin of the Luo in South Sudan). More than eight centuries ago, the Luo people occupied the area that now lies in present day eastern Bar-el-Ghazal, South Sudan.

The reason for their dispersion from this area is not known for certain, though it is widely believed to have been due to the Arab conquest. Internal contradictions or population explosion may also have driven them from this region. The Luo moved to nearly all the countries neighbouring Sudan, resulting in many separate groups with same language and traditions as each group moved further away from their kin.

Between about 1500 and 1800, other Luo groups crossed into present day Kenya and eventually into present day Tanzania. They inhabited the area around Lake Victoria. According to Joluo, a warrior chief named Ramogi Ajwang led them into present day Kenya about 500 years ago. As in Uganda, some non-Luo people in Kenya have adopted Luo language. A majority of the Bantu Suba people in Kenya speak Dholuo. The Luo in Kenya, who call themselves Joluo (aka "Jaluo- people of Luo") are the 4th largest community in Kenya after Kikuyu, Kalenjin and Luhyia. Their population was estimated to be around 4 million. The Luo in Kenya settled on the shores of Lake Victoria, in Nyanza province which is located on the Western part of Kenya. The Luo are a River- Lake Nilotic speaking community who had moved from Southern Sudan through Uganda to their present territory on the Eastern shores of Lake Victoria (Ochieng'1979).

According to Ogot (1967), the Luo travelled one thousand miles for nearly one thousand years through seven cradles of evolution, three in the Sudan and four in Uganda. Finally the composite society went through an intense societal revolution between 1750-1900 before colonialism set in, emerging as a cohesive Luo community. The Luos are neighbours to the Bantu language speakers, the Luhyas (Samia, Banyala, Marachi, Banyore, and Maragoli) and the Nandi to the North, the Kipsigis to the East, the Gusii and Kuria (both Bantu) to the South East of Kenya and the Shirati and Waswa (Bantus) people to the Northern Tanzania.

According to Stafford (1967), Dholuo has two major regional varieties:
a) The Trans-Yala dialect-spoken in Ugenya, Alego, Yimbo and parts of Gem.
b) The Trans-Kuja dialect, spoken in the various locations of Southern-Nyanza area plus those parts of Siaya and Kisumu not included in the Trans-Yala group.

Although these dialects of Dholuo have a high degree of mutual intelligibility, they are distinct enough in their lexical and phonological features to enable one identify a dialectal zone a speaker comes from merely by the way he speaks (Ochieng 1979). The South Nyanza variety is the one that has been used in the bulk of the literature, including the Bible and readers for schools. On account of their mutual intelligibility, the present study does not go into details of any dissimilarities of whatever nature and therefore the mention of the term Dholuo will be universal to the dialects. Today the Luo people practice a mixed economy,

involving agriculture, fishing, livestock rearing etc. Many of them are also to be found in diverse professions and vocations.

Swahili on other hand belongs to the North-East Coastal Bantu group of the Benue-Congo family, which is a member of the Niger-Congo group of languages, one of the largest families of languages in Africa (Campbell 1991). The name 'Swahili' is derived from the Arabic word 'Sawahil' which means Coast. There seems to be evidence of Swahili being spoken in the East Coast of Africa centuries before the arrival of Europeans.

Miehe (1995) also suggests that Swahili had its origin at the East Coast of Africa in the period before the 10th c. Four separate but hardly exclusive groups were found in this area: the "pure-blooded Arabs or Persians", The Afro- Arabs, of mixed blood, the Islamized Africans and non- Islamized Africans from outside the Coastal area. As a result of intermarriage and closer interaction, it became difficult over the years to differentiate between those groups, and so the term "Waswahili" was used to refer to them (Miehe 1995).

Later on Ibn Battuta, who visited East Africa in the 14th Century, referred specifically to "Swahili" being spoken somewhere between Mombasa and Kilwa or even between Mombasa and Mogadishu, "Within the country of Zenj" (Gillian, 1859, cited in Whitely 1969:35). By the end 19th century, Swahili was still essentially a language of the Coast, serving as a means of communication for the many trading communities along the Coast (Whitely 1969). However later on, Arab slave traders moved through most of East and Central Africa in search of slaves and ivory. The trading caravans usually included a number of Swahili speakers from the Coast. In view of the linguistic diversity of the areas through which caravans passed, Swahili obviously proved itself a most useful medium of communication at least in the trading context.

The Arab traders later on set up interior trading centres which served as stopping depot for slaves in transit and for purchase of locally available ivory. They also founded dynasties to help facilitate their trade. Whitely (1969) records that Swahili, the language of the coastal traders eventually spread inland along the trade routes and inland centres they founded.

Towards the 2nd half of the 19th century, Christian missionaries added their number to the Arab Caravans and Europeans explorers who increasingly criss-crossed East Africa. During

this time, Swahili penetrated westwards into present day Congo and Zambia (Whitely 1969), with time, it spread to more countries as legitimate trade opened up and as more schools were started by missionaries. During the colonial period, the use of Swahili improved. It was widely used by the colonial administration for administrative purposes. In education, it was used both as a medium of instruction and also taught as a subject. Recent estimates put the speakers of Swahili to be between 50 to 70 million people, the great majority of whom are bilinguals, using Swahili as a second language alongside other African languages (Campbell 1991). It is also used as a lingua franca in the whole of East Africa. Swahili can claim the status of first or second language to many people in the African hinterland.

At present, the language is spoken as far south as Mozambique and the Northern tip of Madagascar (Chimerah 1998). In Kenya Swahili is the national language and is taught and examined as a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools. It is also taught at the universities and other institutions of higher learning. Because of the domains of its uses, any Kenyan who has gone through the country's education system must have knowledge of the Kiswahili Language.

Language as have been seen on several occasions is a cooperative game, each player following the rules and making his or her choices with interlocutors in mind. How can this be done in the absence of an agreed-upon common language that constitutes the frame work of the rules and elements to be selected? If there are no rules, utterances cannot be interpreted. The obvious conclusion is that code switching itself must be rule governed and accordingly, that it must be possible to determine the rules that speakers apply in code switching. The general question is how, when L1 and L2 are used concurrently, the grammar of L1 and L2 are co-ordinated. Is one grammar given precedence over the other? Are both grammars suspended or is there a third?

1.2 Statement of the problem

The Analysis of morphosyntactic structure of utterances in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching, the influence of such code switching on Dholuo language and linguistic levels of how Kiswahili elements are diffussing into Dholuo language are not known and have nobeen described linguistically and this is why the study has set the following objectives below

1.3   Objectives of the study

i). To identify and describe the morphosyntactic structure of utterances in
       Dholuo/Kiswahili Code switching.

 ii). To identify linguistic levels of diffusion in L1 (Dholuo) as a result of the contact and use
       of Dholuo and Kiswahili in code switching.

iii). To determine influence of Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching on Dholuo language among
        its native speakers.

1.4   Research Questions

i). How are the morphosyntactic structures utterances in Dholuo/ Kiswahili code switching
       identified and described?

ii). what are the linguistic levels of diffusion in Dholuo Language as a result of the contact
        and use   of Dholuo and Kiswahili in code switching?

iii). How has Dholuo as a language been influenced among its native speakers as a result of
       Code switching involving Dholuo and Kiswahili?

1.5   Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to do an analysis of the morphosyntactic structure of utterances of
Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching while paying specific attention to the major word classes.

1.6   Justification of the study

The Matrix Language Frame model (MLF) was proposed by Myers-Scotton (1993a) for
analysis of code switching utterances. According to this model, there exists in a code
switching utterance a dominant language and embedded language(s). A number of studies
have been carried out to analyze language as used in code switching using this model. Most
of these studies have been done using an indigenous language and a foreign language in code
switching. To the best of my knowledge this model has not been used with data from two
indigenous languages which are used as L1 by the native speakers.This study is of great
importance as it helps in providing the morphosyntax of utterances in Dholuo/ Kiswahili code
switching. Secondly, this study is important given that there is a knowledge gap on the
morphology and syntax of Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching thus this study is important in
adding knowledge in the fields of morphology and syntax. Such knowledge is useful in

guiding other scholars interested in studying other morphosyntactic aspects of Dholuo and Kiswahili and other languages in general. Data used in this study can be used by comparative linguistics in the understanding of language typology. It is against this background that the study set to analyse Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching data using the MLF model as it applies to all sets of languages used in code switching.

1.7   Scope of the study

(i) The study was confined to the analysis of morphosyntactic structure of utterances in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching in informal situations.

(ii) The study is only limited to intrasentential code switching as practiced by teachers in Nyangeta Zone of Winam Division.

1.8 Limitation of the study

(ii) The study is only limited to the intrasentential code switched utterances in Dholuo/Kiswahili utterances.

(ii)   The study is limited to code switched sentences in Dholuo/Kiswahili utterances data collected in informal environment.

(iii) The study covered the month of June to August 2012.

1.9 Definitions of term

The definitions of terms given here are as the words appear in context in this document.

Borrowing- source language words which have been incorporated into the lexicon of target language and are therefore part of the linguistic competence of atleast some group of native speakers.

Code switching- Use of two or more languages or dialects interchangeably in a single comunication context.

Code mixing- use of elements, mostly typically nouns from one language in utterance predominantly in a nother language

Content Morphemes- Assigns and receive thematic roles e.g nouns**,** verbs and adjectives.

Corpus- Collection of spoken or written languages of focus.

Determiner- Any group or class of words (e.g a, the, any) that determines the kind of reference a noun or a group of nouns has.

Embedded Language- The less dominant language in a code switching situation i.e. the language with the least number of morphemes in a code switching situation.

Embedded Language Island- These are embedded language structures that are well formed in the embedded language.

Intersentential code switching - Code switching that occurs outside the sentence boundary or the clause level.

Intrasentential code switching- Code switching which occurs within a sentence or phrase.

Linguistic Diffusion- Shift in the proportions of linguist variants used by a population.

Matrix Language- The language which takes pre-eminence in switching situation.

Metaphorical code switching- Change in topical emphasis.

Morpheme Smallest distinctive unit of meaning.

Morphosyntax- The system of internal structure of words.

Semantics- The study of meaning of words as used in alanguage

Situational Codeswitching- Shift in topic and often extralinguistic contentext markers that characterize the situation.

Syntax – How words are put together to form larger construction

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE   REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on Code switching. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section concentrates on code switching as a sociolinguistic phenomenon while paying specific attention to its inception and development as a sociolinguistic field of study up to the studies recently carried out in the area. The second part of this chapter discusses the theoretical framework that informs this study.

2.2 Theoretical Literature

2.2.1 Historical and contemporary views on Code Switching

The term code switching is discussed and used in linguistics and a variety of related fields. A search of the Linguistics and Languages Behaviour Abstracts data base in 2005 shows more than 1,800 articles on the subject have been published in virtually every branch of linguistics. However, despite this ubiquity- or perhaps in part because of it- scholars do not seem to share a definition of the term. This is perhaps inevitable given the different concerns of formal linguists, psycholinguists, sociolinguists, philosophers, and anthropologists' e.t.c.

The term code switching has been written as two words "code-switching" or "code switching" and has also been referred to as code mixing, code shifting, language alternate language mixture and language switching (Benson 2001). Though some scholars have differentiated between these terms (Pfaff 1979), currently the one-word term "code switching" is most commonly used to describe the use of two languages within one conversation or text (Benson 2001). The first use of the term code switching has been attributed to Hans Vogt in an article written in 1954 (Auer 1998), although the earlier evidence of code switching research in the U.S dates back to the work of Aurelio Espinosa 1911, Professor of Romantic Languages at Stanford University (Benson 2001).

Code switching was historically believed by many earlier scholars to be primarily employed by individuals who possessed inferior intelligence level or a low mastery of a second language (Benson 2001). Speakers of more than one language (bilinguals) are known for their ability to code switch or mix their languages during communication. This phenomenon occurs when bilinguals substitute a word or a phrase from one language with a phrase or

word from another language. Shortcomings in the new language were believed to cause people to go back and forth between the new and the known languages. It was also viewed as an aberration and even less a topic worthy of research Weinreich (1953). Weinreich had earlier denied that an ideal bilingual would even engage in code switching. The ideal bilingual's attitude towards code switching was later reiterated by others such as Labov (1972) when he counted code switching among the puzzling problems of studying language change.

However, Espinosa 1911 disagreed with these scholars in his research among the U.S.A Hispanic communities of Colorado and New Mexico. He described the observed half-English, half Spanish speech mixture as "astonishing" and "pervasive"—its use is independent of social class as well as education level. Today, prevailing perspective cite code switching as a skilled code, used most effectively by individuals who have a high degree of mastery in multiple languages. In other words, code switching is now thought to be an indicator of bilingual ability rather than merely a demonstration of language deficiency (Becker 1997).

The social factors behind code switching were first to become prominent in the early code switching research. Traditionally, code switching has been viewed as a strategy to compensate for diminished language proficiency. The premise behind this theory is that bilinguals code switch because they do not know either language completely. This argument is also known as semi- lingualism, which underscores the notion that bilinguals almost speak both languages correctly. An individual's level of second language ability can be demonstrated through his manner of code switching. For example, those with low levels of proficiency (Such as those at the early stages of second language acquisition) engage in intersentential switching (Becker 1997). That is, one sentence is first spoken in one language, and another complete sentence is then spoken in the alternate language. This use has been suggested for fear of violating grammatical rules when speaking, as this is a less "risky" way to switch as compared to code switching within the same sentence (Sandoff and Poplack 1981).

An important base for code switching in the field of linguistics is Weinreich (1953). One of those inspired by Weinreich was Hans Vogt, whose Language Contacts (1954) cited as the first to use the term "codeswitching" in Linguistics.

Weinreich was interested to describe the effect of language contact on languages, in addition to describing the activities of bilingual speech communities. Weinreich's description of switching codes suggested those bilingual individuals' posses' two separate linguistic varieties, which they employ on separate occasions. He suggested that frequent alternation, such as that Becker described among Tucson youth, was a product of poor parenting. Regular code switchers, Weinreich speculates, in early childhood, were addressed by the same familiar interlocutors indiscriminately in both languages. This indiscriminate use of languages differed from the ideal bilingual of Weinreich's imagination.

Other psycholinguistic research was concerned with identifying some of the factors influencing the comprehension of code switched words. Research shows that bilinguals comprehend code switched words faster when there is phonological overlap between the two languages. E.g Chinese- English bilinguals take longer to recognize English code switched words in Chinese sentences, but only if the English words contain initial consonant-consonant (such as the word flight) clusters simply because the Chinese language lacks this phonotactic structure. Other important factors reported to influence the recognition of code switched words include context, phonetic homophonic and homographic overlap between the two languages.

Vogt (1954) though very much inspired by Weinreich (1953) is much less apprehensive about bilingual code switching. Code switching in itself is perhaps not a linguistic phenomenon, but rather a psychological one and its causes are obviously extra linguistic. Vogt assumes that code switching is not natural but common. He suggests that all language users- experience language contact and that contact phenomena, including language alternation, are an important element of language change.

More advanced bilingual speakers evidence their proficiency in both languages by participating in intrasentential code switching, where the speaker switches back and forth within a single sentence Becker (1997). The social factors behind code switching were the

first to become prominent in the early code switching research. Fishman's (1968) allocation of language to social domains in bilingual speech communities was influential in establishing the allocation paradigm (Myers-Scotton1993). Within this paradigm, languages are allocated to specific domains and the choices between the uses of one language or the other depends on the social situations. Linguists refer to the primary language used in conversation as the "matrix" language. The language switched to- which may be seen as non-dominant within a conversation is termed the "embedded" language (Finalyson, Calteux and Myers-Scotton 1998) i.e. the grammatical rules of the matrix language guide the formation of the code switched sentence structure

2.2.2 The uses of code switching in language

Code switching is a widely observed phenomenon especially seen in multilingual and multicultural communities.

Valdes-Fallis (1977) defines code switching as the use of two languages simultaneously or interchangeably. This can happen at word phrase, or at the sentence level with a clear break between the phonemic systems. He considers code switching as a manifestation of a degree of intelligibility in the two languages used in a code switching situation. He says code switching is used to achieve two things: to fill a linguistic gap and for purposes of multiple communicative purposes like solidarity, eliminating some speakers from aconversation, to show formality and to express identity. He tackles the idea of frequency of use of code switching as a communication strategy adding that where code switching is the norm, it is perceived as 'fluid, unmarked and uneventful' and where it is exceptional it will be oriented'. He views code switching as a universal linguistic competence of multilinguals

Code-switching may be used to achieve two things:

(a) Fill a linguistic/conceptual gap, or

(b) For other multiple communicative purposes. While in some places and cases code switching is the exception, in many multilingual and bilingual communities it is and should be seen as the norm (Swigart, 1992). It appears that where code-switching is the norm it is perceived as fluid, unmarked, and uneventful, and where it is the exception it will be perceived as marked, purposeful, emphasis-oriented, and strange.

How is code-switching explained by those who study it? Code-switching seems to serve important communicative and cognitive functions.

Valdes-Fallis (1978) found out that code switching does not simply occur because the informant lacked equivalent expression in the base language chosen. Switching patterns were seen to be influenced by the particular proficiency of the speakers and their performance for the one or the other language or the blend of the two. Some studies on bilingual speech production regard the use of L1 content or function words in L2 speech as a form of borrowing that speakers employ in order to compensate for their lack of knowledge in the target language. The use of L1 form is regarded as compensatory strategy.and to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention.

Trudgill (2000) says that speakers switch to manipulate or influence or define the situation as they wish and can to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention. It may then be suggested that code switching can be used for self expression and is away of modifying language for the sake of personal intention. Another function of code switching is that it may be used in order to build intimate interpersonal relationships among members of a bilingual community. In this respect, it may be claimed that it is a tool for creating linguistic solidarity especially between individuals who share the same ethno-cultural identity.

Mattson and Burchult (1999) Lists functions of code switching as topic switch where a speaker alters his/her language according to the topic that is under discussion. In this respect code switching is used to build solidarity and intimate relations among interlocutors. They also posit that code switching serves a repetitive function and in this way code switching can be used to transfer necessary knowledge for clarity.

Skiba (1997) Suggests that in circumstances where code switching is used due to an inability of expression, it serves for continuity in speech instead of presenting interference.

Eldridge (1996) gives the functions of code switching as equivalence, floor-holding, reiteration and conflict control. In equivalence, a speaker may use a native equivalent of a certain lexical item in the target language and therefore code switches to his/her native language. This process may be correlated with the deficiency in linguistic competence of target language, which makes the speaker to use the native lexical item when he/she has not mastered the competence for using the target language for a particular lexical item. In floor-

holding, the speaker may fill a stop gap with native language use. In reiteration, Eldridge pointed it out as reinforcement, emphasizing or clarification where the message has already been transmitted in one code but not understood. The last function of code switching as stated by Eldridge is conflict control. Here lack of some culturally equivalent lexis among the native language and target language-which may lead to violation of the transference of intended meaning, may result in code switching for conflict control, therefore the possible misunderstanding are avoided.

Appel and Muysken (1987) just like Gumperz consider code switching a sociological issue. They expound on the sub categorization of code switching giving the following as the functions of code switching: it serves as a referential in that it often involves lack of knowledge in one language or lack of facility in that language on a certain subject. Secondly, it serves a directive function in involving the learner either by including or excluding him. Thirdly, code switching serves an expressive function. The speakers emphasize a mixed identity through code switching. Fourthly, code switching serves a phatic function, i.e. it serves to indicate a change of tone of the conversation. Finally, code switching functions metalinguistically, when it is used to comment directly or indirectly in the language involved.

Gumperz and Blom (1987) disputes Apell and Muysken's 1972 perception of code switching arguing that, contrarily, code switching is much more useful than only demonstrating 'we'-ness and 'they'-ness. What Giles, Thakerer and Chesire (1982) capture in their study of code switching is the speech convergence and divergence. Gumperz and Blom (1987) explain that code switching is also useful in expressing finer gradation of feeling for others, involvement with the topic, politeness to strangers and deference to officials.

Romaine (1995) uses the concept of footing in a conversation analysis of code switching.She describes footing as a socio-pragmatic alignment between interlocutors for example to convey the relationship of identity, power and transaction. In addition, she explains that realignment between interlocutors or a change in footing recasts a speech in a different socio-pragmatic frame. This change can be accomplished for example by monolingual style changes or bilingual code switching. An example is the use of sheng by youths in Kenya to indicate shared identity and a switch to English (where English is the language of power and prestige) for business transaction.

Zentella (1997) Says that code switching may be used to perform several functions. First people may use code switching to hide fluency or memory problems in the second language (but this account for only 10% of code switches). Second, code switching is used to mark switching from informal situations (using native language) to formal situations (using second language). Third, code switching is used to exert control, especially between parents and children. Fourth, code switching is used to align speakers with others in specific situations (e.g defining oneself as a member of an ethnic group). Code switching also functions to announce specific identities, create certain meanings and facilitate particular interpersonal relationship.

Malmkjaer (1991) notes that code switching is common among bilinguals who speak the same languages. He gives the reason for code switching as that the speakers may forget a term in the language that he is speaking and so he switches to the other language, a word which is similar in both the languages may also trigger a switch and quoting the speech of another person in the language he was using. He also gives psychosocial reasons for code switching as expressing emotions, close personal relationships, solidarity and to exclude a third person from part of a conversation. The distinction between code switching and code mixing is made. He defines code mixing as the use of elements, mostly typically nouns from one language in utterance predominantly in another language while code switching is a change from one language to another in the same utterance or conversation, Malmkjaer (1991). He points out the points at which code switching can take place as between sentences and clauses (intersentential), phrases and words (intrasentential). He goes further to clarify code switching as being governed by different norms in different bilingual communities.
Code switching sometimes becomes more problematic when the languages involved in the code switches are typologically different than when they are typologically similar. Typologically similar languages have morphological similarity therefore the structure easily maps on each other as opposed to languages with different typology.

Becker (1997) says that code switches are often triggered by unconscious factors and consequently, bilingual speakers are often unaware of their spontaneous alternation between languages. He posits that there is evidence that bilingual speaker both consciously and unconsciously participate in code switching. Becker (1997) classifies unconsciously

motivated code switching into three categories. The first category includes code switches that result from a momentary inclination during the production stage of speech i.e. this means that a speaker is not able to access the equivalent lexical item in the other language. The second category refers to switches that are triggered due to the frequent exposure of such items in another language. This is due to habitual use of these terms, so that their usage is no longer a conscious choice. The third category for unconsciously triggered code switches is due to the untranslatability of a given item into another language. This occurs when a speaker would be hard-pressed to find an appropriate synonym in another language.

Recent developments in psychololinguistic research has focused on how code switching is a natural product of the interaction of the bilingual's two languages. Early researchers viewed as evidence that the bilingual's two languages were organized in separate and distinct mental dictionaries. For example, a general finding throughout the literature is that bilinguals take longer to read and comprehend sentences containing code switched words as compared to monolingual sentences. Apparently, this time consuming process due to a mental switch mechanism that determine which of the bilingual's two mental dictionaries are "on" or "off" during the course of language comprehension. This mental switch is responsible for selecting the appropriate mental dictionary to be employed during the comprehension of a sentence.

However, it has also been discovered that bilingual code switches may also occur due to conscious psychological factors. According to Becker (1997), psycholinguists have found that bilingual speakers use code switching as a communication resource to achieve their communicative intentions. Further, social motivations may also play a part in conscious code switching. Sociolinguists appear more interested in this conscious form of code switching and what the speaker is trying to communicate beyond the linguistic content of the message.

Myers- Scotton opines that code switching is a rather recent sociolinguistic phenomenon though a lot of studies have been undertaken in the same field. She says that code switching is a field of study which undertakes to describe how a language reflects social changes and cultural values. She says that the study of code switching as an area of study dates back to 1972 and was provoked by Jan Blom and John Gumperz in a collection of readings in sociolinguistics edited by Gumperz and Hymes (1986). Blom and Gumperz dealt with code switching not between languages but between dialects of Norwegian in Hemneserget, a

Norwegian fishing village. This article stimulated a flood of investigation of code switching between languages.

Jacobson (1998) provides instances of intrasentential code switching attempts to characterize language switches as motivated by social categories such as emotions, domain, culture, interpersonal relationships, topics, metaphor and preference.

Poplack and Sankoff (1988) in contrast to Jacobson do not focus on social or extra linguistic factors of code switching, but they state that the social role or function of language switching is a major factor in determining bilingual speech. They also speak of a community identity associated with Spanish/English smooth code switching among Puerto Ricans in New York city and imply that other social information is associated with flagged code switching (code switching characterized by an interruption of the speech flow at the code switching point in order to mark the utterances socio-pragmatically) found in Ottawa and Hull, Canada among French/ English bilinguals. Their smooth code switching is similar to Myers- Scotton's code switching as a marked choice.

Several subsequent studies have examined sequential or interactional functions of language alternations. Conversationists have suggested that code switching may serve to enhance turn selection (Li 1998) or soften refusals (Li 2005), and is a possible resource to accomplish repair (Auer 1995) or mark dispreffered responses (Li 1998). In addition to these interactional functions, empirical studies have examined how switches in language variety made particular elements of situation, speaker identity or background relevant to ongoing talk. (Li 1998).

Poplack and Sankoff (1988) in contrast to Jacobson do not focus on the social or extra linguistic factors of code switching, but they state that the social role or function of language switching is a major factor in determining bilingual speech. They also speak of a community identity associated with Spanish/English smooth code switching among Puerto Ricans in New York city and imply that other social information is associated with flagged code switching (code switching characterized by an interruption of the speech flow at the code switching point in order to mark the utterances socio-pragmatically) found in Ottawa and Hull, Canada among French/English bilinguals. Their smooth code switching is similar to Myers-Scotton code switching as a marked choice

2.2.3 The structures of the code switched utterances

Poplack (1981) found that nearly half the switches are full sentences, with the next common switches found between the noun phrase and the verb phrase, between the verb phrase and the object noun phrase and between the verb phrase and prepositional phrase. The noun was found to be the single most frequently switched item. According to Lipski (1982), nouns provide the bilingual speaker with "a ready word which may not be found in one language or which, for whatever reason, seems more appropriately expressed in one language than in another.

Gumperz (1982) however does not agree with the notion of code switching universality. He asserts that the norm varies from group to group, even within what may be regarded as a single community. Each communicating sub group tends to establish its own conventions with respect to both borrowing and code switching and that, factors such as region of origin, local residents, social class and occupational niche are involved in defining the norm. He concludes that code switching is not a uniform phenomenon. He introduces situational versus metaphorical switching as two ways of classifying code switching. Situational code switching is defined as a shift in topic and often extra linguistic context markers that characterize the situation. The change in situation will allow for the enactment of two or more different relationships among the same set of individuals. For example, when the students switch to a standard dialect they do so because of a topic change and also that use of the standard dialect evokes memories of participants shared experiences as intellectuals.

Metaphorical switching on the other hand involves only a change in topical emphasis. Metaphorical language switching relates to particular kinds of topics subject matter rather than to a change in social situation. He likens metaphorical switching to conversational switching that is creative discourse performance.

Gumperz (1982) describes code-switching as discourse exchanges which form a single unitary interactional whole: Speakers communicate fluently, maintaining an even flow of talk. No hesitation, pauses, changes in sentence rhythm, pitch, level or intonation contour mark the shift in code. There is nothing in the exchange as a whole to indicate that speakers don't understand each other. Apart from the alternation itself, the passages have all the earmarks of ordinary conversation in a single language.

This bilingual state of affairs is described in terms of the heavily interactive nature of the two languages. Traditionally code-switching was seen and still is seen by many as a random process that could be explained by interference. Today it is considered as rule-governed behavior and as a communication strategy (Corder, 1981).

Grosjean and Soares (1986) studied language processing in the mixed language mode in French/English and Portuguese/English. They state that a bilingual has the choice of activating both, thus code-mixing, or of deactivating one and activating the other in a monolingual context; however, there is never total deactivation of one language when the other is more prominent in the situation. They propose a base or matrix language and then the bringing in of the other language by either code-switching through the word, phrase, clause, or sentence level or through borrowings. The interaction procedure is still unclear in terms of linguistic processing theory. They propose with Obler and Albert (1978) a general language monitoring device that is flexible, rapid, and automatic, and they agree with Paradis (1980) that the bilingual has two language lexicons, each of which is connected to one conceptual store (Paradis does not posit a bilingual monitoring device). If there is such a device it uses all the information it can to indicate as quickly as possible which language is being spoken: prosodic information (fundamental frequency), duration, rate, amplitude, stress pattern, etc.); segmental information (phoneme and syllable characteristic); syntactic and semantic rules; knowledge of the speaker and of the topic; pragmatic factors, as well as the constraints imposed on code-switching and borrowing by the two languages in question. This means, of course, that the device is constantly receiving feedback from the higher level processors. The device is always active, but especially so when the speaker is in a bilingual speech mode and the probability of language mixing is high.

Grosjean and Soares (1984) explain that the challenge for psycholinguists interested in studying mixed language processing will be to explain how communication in mixed language takes place so rapidly and so efficiently despite what they have seen as some rather intricate operations and strategies.

Sankoff and Poplack (1980) refer to an "equivalence constraint" or rule which states that bilinguals in uttering sentences may use constituents of one language at one point and those

of another at another point as long as the order of these constituents is shared by the two languages (at least in the study of Spanish/English mix modes).

Woolford (1983) views code-switched sentences as resulting from a mixture of phrase structure rules extracted from the two languages. She argues that phrase structure rules of the two languages can be freely mixed in the construction of the tree structures of code-switched sentences.

Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) assume that there is a basic language bilingual discourse and propose the terminology of guest and host languages to describe code-switched utterances. They argue that intrasentential code-switching is a case where guest elements, which have their own internal structure, occur in the sentences of the host language, obeying the placement rules of the host language or the matrix language (at least as they saw it in the study of Kannada/English mix).

Poplack (1980) discusses two grammatical constraints on code-switching: (a) a free-morpheme constraint which states that a switch cannot occur between a lexical form and a bound morpheme unless the former has been phonologically integrated into the language of the latter and (b) the equivalence constraint rule which states that the word order immediately before and immediately after a switching point should exist in the two languages to make it possible for a switch to take place. The two languages involved can then be interchanged freely.

Chana (1984) describes code-switching as the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems. The items are tied together prosodically as well as by semantic and syntactic relations equivalent to those that join passages in a single language.

Lipski (1982) speaks of a bilingual grammar especially during intrasentential code-switching in written text: Type I is the monolingual text in which there are some Spanish words within English literature or vice-versa; Type II text is the bilingual text in which lines from the two languages alternate with switches at the phrase or sentence boundaries. Type III text is the bilingual text which would include intrasentential code-switches-- the most highly developed.

He proposes a bilingual grammar constructed of a finely integrated blend of two languages. He says that code-switching provides evidence on two related planes: linguistic and psychological. The psychological includes the situational variables that permit a switch to occur, and the linguistic includes factors that facilitate the switch and the precise form that a switched utterance takes.

Romaine (2001) went beyond considering the uses of code switching which had been a major concern for the early linguistic scholars. He says that in code switched discourse, the items in question form part of the speech act. They are tied up prosodically as well as by semantic and syntactic relations equivalent to those that join the passage in a single act. When code switching represents a marked choice, the switched portion may show marked prosody. He discusses various types of code switching. These include: tag switching, intersentential and intrasentential switching. Tag switching refers to the insertion of a tag in one language into an utterance which is entirely from another language. Intersentential switching refers to the kind of switching which occurs at a clause or sentence boundary, where each clause or sentence is in one language, while intrasentential switching is where the switching of different types of languages occurs within a clause or within a sentence. He compared code switching and borrowing admitting that both are closely related and it is very difficult to differentiate between the two.

Blom and Gumperz (1972) analyze code switching within the same conversation as a major topic of study in the field of sociolinguistics. They explain that "situational switching involves change in participation and or strategies and that metaphorical switching involves only a change in topical emphasis. Myers-Scotton (1993) clarifies the situation by interpreting situational Code switching to be motivated by changes in factors external to the participants' own motivation (make up of participants' setting and topic) and metaphorical code switching to be that which is not really topic so much as presentation of self-relation to the topic, or changes in relationship to other participants.

Myers-Scotton's (1993) Markedness Model of Code switching emanates from her negotiation principle. The language of unmarked choice is associated with the social norms sometimes called a rights-and-obligation set. Choosing the marked language constitutes a speaker's

negotiation for another rights-and-obligation set different from the social norm of the status quo. Myers-Scotton lists four types of code switching under her markedness Model

(i) Code switching as a sequence of unmarked choice in which each language is the unmarked choice due to changing social of other conversational context requirements.

(ii) Code switching itself as the unmarked choice, which may occur, for example between bilingual interlocutors who are peers.

(iii) Code switching as a marked choice in which interlocutors switch codes in order not to comply with an expected social or contextual norm and

(iv) Code switching as an exploratory choice or code switching to explore or negotiate the unmarked choice between interlocutors when the choice of code is not clearly apparent, given the situation (Myers-Scotton 1993). In a conversation the unmarked language is frequently the matrix language (ML) and the marked language is frequently the embedded language (EL). The ML is the most frequently used language and the EL is the less frequently used language in a conversation or utterance.

Hymes (1967) and Gumperz (1972) provide the impetus for the study of code switching at the micro-level including conversation analysis and other methods based on naturally occurring data in small group interactions (micro-level). In contrast Myers-Scotton Markednes model, Hymes, (1967) ethnography of speaking advocated examining language variation with social contexts with an emphasis in descriptive studies

Myers-Scotton (1988) makes a distinction between borrowing and code switching. She claims that there is little difference between established loanwords and the multi-word, spontaneous insertion of an embedded language into a matrix language. Quoting (Poplack 1987), Scotton outlines two different approaches to the definition of loanwords and code switching. She says that in one approach, the main difference between borrowing and code switching has to do with morphological and syntactic integration of embedded language material into the matrix language. According to this approach, borrowing includes established or widespread loanwords which recur with relative frequency and are widely used in the speech community and have a certain level of recognition or acceptance.

Borrowing may also include language material which may occur only once but which receive affixation of the matrix language and follows matrix language word order. On the other hand, Myers-Scotton (1988) argues that code switching involves multi-word sequences which remain syntactically and morphologically unintegrated into the matrix language patterns; code switching then has more special purpose and occurs when the speaker is looking for a new word. Borrowing, on the other hand, is acquired behaviour and is not merely a function of a lexical need.

The second approach, notes Myers- Scotton (1988), differentiates borrowing from code switching on the basis of reoccurrence value or frequency. Borrowing has a tendency to occur with some level of predictability when the target language is used, while code switching forms have no reoccurrence value. Only a single occurrence of code switching is entirely possible. They also rarely show any phonological integration into the language. Another difference between these two concepts, argues Myers-Scotton (1988), is in terms of the words themselves. Borrowing, she notes, means source language words which have been incorporated into the lexicon of the target language and are therefore part of the linguistic competence of at least some group of native speakers of the target language. Code switching, on the other hand, includes morphemes, words, phrases, clauses or sentences which occur spontaneously in the target language discourse, but which have not been part of lexicon of the target language.

Reyes (1976) and Poplack (1981), distinguish and exclude borrowing forms from what they term code switching. Thus, they largely exclude borrowing in a discussion of the structural constraints behind code switching. Borrowing is, however considered, along with code switching in the overall discussion of structural constraints but is excluded from code switching proper because of the different terminology used for each.

Sanchez (1982) considers code switching along with other language phenomenon that deviate from standard Spanish, including borrowing, interference from English and Mexican-American variations in phonology, morphology and syntax, whether influenced by English or not. She does not view code switching and borrowing together, however, in a continuum along with other language contact or language change phenomena.

Myers- Scotton (1993) suggests that borrowing forms may be a result of words introduced into a host language through code switching over an indefinite period of time and frequency of use. She claims that code switching forms may be less integrated into the host language than borrowing forms but that this is a difference in the degree of integration and not in kind . However, this research does not attempt to distinguish borrowing from code switching especially since it is not concerned with the difference between them but rather with how Dholuo/ Kiswahili speakers code switch between Dholuo and Kiswahili.

Poplack and Sankoff (1988) posit that the equivalence constraints prevents or at least greatly inhibits ungrammatical utterances because of language differences in word-order (For example adjective position with respect to the noun) or lexical sub-categorization (For instance, in English 'listen' subcategorizes for 'to' before direct object. This pattern leads to four types of code switching: Smooth code switching, constituent insertion, flagged code switching and nonce borrowing. Smooth code switching obeys the equivalence constraints by switching exclusively at junctures where word-order or sub categorization properties are same in both languages.

Constituent insertion is an insertion of an entire constituent such as an NP (e.g. Det+Nouns) from a guest language into a host language sentence (even if there is already a determiner in the other language before the switch points) but a switch is made again to the host language immediately following the insertion. Thus the parenthetical nature of the language is recognized; unlike with smooth switches where language switched to may continue indefinitely because the equivalence constraint was fully in control at the point of the switch.

Flagged code switching unlike constituent insertion does not necessarily conform to the equivalence constrained either. For this reason, it is characterised by disruptions to smoothen the grammatical flow of an utterance with pausing or parenthetical asides for example. Nonce borrowing is single word insertion that is used by bilingual speakers and not monolinguals. Poplack and Sankoff predict that bilingual data from language closer in typology will have smoother code switching; likewise data from languages dissimilar in typology will have more nonce borrowing and constituent insertion.

2.2.4 Code switching and Language Change

The role of code switching, a long with other symptoms of contact in language change is still a matter of discussion on the one hand, the relationship between contact and language change is now generally acknowledged: few espouses the traditional view that change follows universal, language internal principles such as simplification and takes place in the absence of contact with other varieties (James Milroy 1998). On the one hand some researchers still downplay the role of code switching in change, and contrast it with borrowing which is seen as a form of convergence while other linguists assume that the process of integration happens gradually, so that some forms of borrowing cannot be easily distinguished from code switches. This study looked at some of those changes that have occurred in Dholuo language as a result of its contact with Kiswahili with a view of establishing whether Dholuo has gained as a result of this contact or not. It also undertook to look at the aspects of diffusion between the two languages which have occurred because of this close contact.

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2.2.5 Diffusion in codeswitching

In many situations of language contact, constituents of one language can be found within the constituents of another in a number of linguistic phenomena, namely lexical borrowing, transferring, interference, diffusion and reflexification, Code switching and code mixing e.t.c (Annamalai, 1989). Code switching and code mixing are two linguistic phenomena claimed to be the most prevalent and common modes of interaction among multilingual speakers. They can occur in all the levels of language (phonological, lexical, semantics and syntactics) and in all modalities (spoken or written). Language is a socio-cultural phenomenon that undergoes constant change (Hruscha 2009). Many changes are achieved via diffusion of various types (phonetic, lexical, syntactic e.t.c.) of linguistic variants such as the Great Vowel Shift in English in the 14-16th Century (Wolfe, 1972), Other sounds in Wu dialect of Chinese (Shen, 1997), or lexical borrowing (Cheng, 1978). Linguistic diffusion can be viewed as the shift in proportions of linguistic variants used by a population over time (Nakamura 2007). Studying the manners in which diffusion occurs helps understand human cognitive capacities for language and socio-cultural constraints on language evolution. (Croft, 2000; Labov, 2001) Theories of diffusion usually assume an innovator-learner frame-work, discussing who mainly innovate or introduce preference for certain types of variants and who mainly learn variants in linguistic interactions (Mufwene, 2008) or examining factors that can affect

individuals' choice of variants or languages (Labov,2000) . Besides the small- scale, empirical approach in sociolinguistics (Croft, 2000, Fisiak, 1995), Mathematical and behavioural simulations have been recently adopted to study the effects of linguistic, individual learning and socio-cultural factors on language evolution. By quantifying contact patterns and social prestige, mathematical models help produce the outcome of language competitions, (Minett and Wong 2008) by simulating linguistic behaviours, behavioural models trace the conventionalization of form meaning mappings (Steels, 1995) and linguistic regularities (Gong, 2011) via local interactions, and reveal the correctional between population size or social connections and individual memory load or diffusion success (Dall'Asta 2006). However these studies usually separate individual and social factors in diffusion. For example, in Mathematical models, individual choice of languages is mainly determined by global factors such as linguistic prestige, disregarding social connections. In behavioural models, hearers mainly acquire and update linguistic knowledge.

During diffusion, speakers or hearers or both can innovate or introduce identical or different preferences for variants. For example, speakers tend to use easily produced variants and hearers may prefer easily perceived or salient variants (Labov 2000, Shen 1997) combining speaker's and hearer's preference with social constraints due to network structures can better understand the mutual, influence of individual learning (e,g who introduces preference for variants) and social networks on diffusion. The study reveals that Dholuo employs several strategies to nativize unnatural non-canonic syllable structure: epenthetic vowel insertion, extrasyllabic consonant or vowel deletion, devocalization of unnatural vowel consequences addition of a final vowel and in some cases consonants clusters may be tolerated. Dholuo has the canonical syllable structure of CV, V, CVC, and VC syllable types. The syllable therefore may dominate a single vowel, a combination of a consonant and a vowel, a consonant followed by avowel and then another consonant or a vowel plus a consonant. This language therefore does not allow consonant sequences at the syllable level. The occurrence of consonant clusters is one of the most cases of markedness in Dholuo loans. When such words with consonant clusters enter the language they violate one of the canonical syllable structures of Dholuo language. If such syllables are encountered, the language applies a filtering process whose naturalness has to be viewed in terms of maximising the optimum syllable structure. This filtering process results in modification of the incoming word in a

number of ways, including extrasyllabic consonant deletion, vowel and consonant epenthesis, vowel coalescence and homogenic nasal assimilation.

This study examines how the new or foreign words from Kiswahili are diffused into Dholuo language. The study analyses strategies that Dholuo language has used in adapting the foreign phonemes to the native phoneme system. It also examines the way the foreign consonants and vowel clusters are adopted to the Dholuo systems. On adaptations of incoming sounds into the language, the study determined that Dholuo replaces such foreign segments with native sounds which are acoustically and auditorily closest to the foreign sounds, however, are adopted into the sound system of the language, either to fill some phonological gaps in the language or for non-linguistic factors.

2 .2.6   Influence of Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching on Dholuo Language among native speakers

Language contact occurs when two or more languages interact. When speakers of different languages interact closely, it is typical for those languages to influence each other. Interaction between languages results in some characteristics of each of these languages influencing each other. However   the dominant language will often have more effect on the minority language and vice versa. In our study it was noted that there was increased activation in forward switching but not backward switching i.e it was noted that there are many Kiswahili vocabulary items that were incorporated in Dholuo language as opposed to Dholuo vocabulary items being incorporated in the Kiswahili language.

The influence of Swahili can be seen in areas such as grammar and phonology of Dholuo. The most remarkable influence is in the lexicon. There are many Swahili words in today's Dholuo, especially those spoken by the working class urbanites. Some Swahili words are used as a result of unconscious code –mixing, but so far used as new vocabulary items loaned from Kiswahili. This trend points to a language shift that will certainly grow stronger given the status of Kiswahili in Kenya. Kiswahili has been granted the status of both official and national language. This means that Kiswahili can be used in all domains. As a result of expanding domains where Swahili can be used, the linguistic influence can be easily recognized in ethnic languages throughout Kenya, even in the villages.

(i) Influence of Kiswahili on Dholuo Lexicon

The most remarkable influence of Swahili is observable in the lexicon. Many Swahili words have crept into today's Dholuo, especially in the urbanites speech. Some of these words are used because of unconscious code-mixing i.e the tendency to mix two or more languages in their speech. However, in many cases, the Swahili words come into use as new Dholuo Vocabulary, as Swahili loanwords.These loanwords from Swahili can be divided into three groups.

(a) Loanwords representing completely new ideas.

(b) Loanwords describing objects or concepts that may not be completely new, but providing new concepts.

(c) Loanwords co-existing and synonymous with Swahili words.

(ii)   Loan words and pronunciation

When Swahili words come into contact with Dholuo Language, generally the pronunciation of some words changes to conform to the Dholuo phonological system.

2.2.7 Research Literature

Myers- Scotton (1993a) in her later studies came up with the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) model to help in the analysis of the language as used in code switching utterances.

The MLF model states that it is the basic word structure of the matrix language that determines what happens to the words in the embedded language(s) in code switching.

MLF model has been tested by Nishmura (1986) on Japanese /English code switching, Kamwangamalu and Lee (1992) on Chinese/English code switching in Singapore, and Mazrui (1990) on Sheng/English code switching confirming that the model successfully worked in the analysis of the data of those languages. Other scholars who have used this model are Mc Swan (2002), Muthuri (2001), Muysken (2000), Lanza (2004), and Owino (2007).

Muthuri (2001) studied functions of code switching among multilingual students at Kenyatta University, Kenya. She observed that students use English, Kiswahili and vernacular interchangeably in their informal interactions. Students from similar ethnic background often use English and Kiswahili code switches in initial stages of their conversations and gradually move to their vernacular languages as the Matrix Language and/or Kiswahili as the

Embedded Language(s) as the conversation proceeds. This attests to Myers-Scotton's earlier findings that the speaker's first language more often forms the Matrix language in bilingual speakers who know similar languages (Myers-Scotton 1993b). Muthuri's analysis was based on the frequency based criterion, although her interests were sociological and not   for generally two functions: convergence and divergence i.e. either to include or exclude a speaker except for technical and intellectual topics where they had no option. This study however differs from the present one in that looked at the functions of codeswitching among multilingual university students with major emphasis on the identification of the matrix language of the interlocutors. The present study on the other hand looks at the structure of the code switched utterances with emphasis on how the code switched lexical items are diffused into the matrix language the effects and the effects the embedded language has on the matrix language involved in code switching.

Owino (2007) studied code switching among Dholuo speakers. He used Myers-Scotton's MLF to study code switching involving the Dholuo speakers using Dholuo/English corpus. In his findings, it was proved that in code switching situation, the speakers first language is always the Matrix language while the second or subsequent languages are always the embedded languages. However in this study the researcher strived to establish the matrix language in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching and to also establish linguistic levels of diffusion in two languages involved. This study also used two local languages i.e a Bantu language and a Nilotic language in code switching. This study however was significant to the present study as the definition and identification of matrix language and the embedded language given by Owino were of importance to the present study.

Wasaka (2004) tested on the validity of the MLF model using data from English/Kiswahili code switching. His study was more informed by the earlier works on code switching by Myers-Scotton (1993a) on English/Kiswahili data that proved that MLF model adequately explained the data. Wakasa's findings however contradicted Myers-Scotton's earlier works. His study tested the principles and hypothesis of MLF model and found out that in some instances the data supported them while in others; the data contradicted the principles and hypothesis. He found out that the frequency criterion which should be used to determine the matrix language was not adequate because in some instances it clashed with the system morpheme principles. The present study however differs with Wasaka's study in that it

looked at the grammatical structure of the major word classes which are realized in the process of code switching. However Wasaka's study was informative to the present study as it gave a lot of insight to the analysis of the data that was collected for the present study.

Lanza (2004) studied code switching with reference to language mixing in infant bilingual children's language acquisition. She used Myers –Scotton's MLF model to study code mixing in infant children language involving Norwegian and English Language(s). She looked at the relevance and the strengths of the model in studying infant bilingual code switching. Her findings just like Muthuri (2001) supported the model in the presence of the Matrix Language and the Embedded Language and the principles of structural and content morphemes in the infants' language as well. However this present study deals with elite adult speakers using Dholuo/Kiswahili languages.It deals with adults who have near full mastery of the two languages whereas Lanza was interested in children bilinguals. Lanza describes MLF model as a model which attempts to find universally valid constraints on intrasentential code switching, and which has implications for other types of bilingual language productions. Lanza's study was important to the present study in that it highlighted on the analysis of code switched sentences using two languages.

In this present study the researcher used the MLF model to identify and describe the morphosyntactic structures of code switched utterances involving Dholuo/Kiswahili codeswitching. The researcher also identified the content and system morphemes and how they are realized in code switched utterances involving Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching. On diffusion it was realized that Kiswahili has so many morphemes adopted and incorporated in Dholuo while there were hardly any Luo morphemes that had been incorporated in Kiswahili language. The researcher also strived to determine the extent of influence which the embedded Languange, Kiswahili has had on Dholuo language as a result of code switching

2.3 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework that was adopted for this study is the Matrix Language Frame Model formulated by Myers-Scotton (1993a). This model is a comprehensive model that has been largely successful in predicting the permissible structures that occur within a clause showing code switching (Myers-Scotton 1993a). The model relies on the distinction it makes

between the roles of the participating languages. Specifically the heart of the MLF is that it restricts the participation of one of the languages in building the frame of the bilingual clause. Thus the basic generalization that the model offers is that code switching is characterized by a basic asymmetry between the participating languages so that only one language accounts for the uniform structure that prevails in the bilingual clause. In addition, the model shows how there are differences in the distribution of the types of the morphemes that are related to the asymmetry between the languages. At the same time, any exposition of the model assumes that the main reason code switching occurs at all is that a switch to another language better conveys the speaker's semantic and pragmatic intentions at some point in their conversation than when speaking monolingually.

Identification of the Matrix Language is crucial because MLF model posits that the specialized syntactic procedures of the formulator which set the frame must come from the Matrix Language. Matrix Language has major structural consequences for code switching utterances (Myers-Scotton 1993a). The MLF model stipulates that the Matrix Language plays the dominant role in code switching discourse since it determines the morphosyntactic frame for code-switched sentences.

Myers-Scotton proposed the frequency based criterion to identify the matrix language. Matrix Language is also the one which marks tense, aspect and agreement. The embedded language(s) play lesser roles in the code switched utterances and have fewer morphemes in a code switched situation.

The pillars upon which the MLF model is based are:

1) The MLF and code switching constituents
2) Content versus system morpheme
3) The MLF goal
4) The Matrix Language Identification

2.3.1 MLF and Code switching Constituents

The MLF model consists of three types of constituents. These three types of constituents are different though they are interrelated through the constraints governing them. These constituents include: ML+EL constituents, ML Islands and EL islands. ML+EL constituents consist of morphemes from both the Matrix Language and the Embedded Language. The

prototypical ML+EL constituents contain a singly occurring EL lexeme in a frame of any number of ML morphemes.

ML+EL constituents conform to the structural specifications of the Matrix Language hypothesis as opposed to ML islands and EL islands. ML islands are constituents consisting entirely of Matrix Language morphemes. They must be well formed constituents according to the Matrix Language grammar and must show internal structural dependency.

EL may supply what is called EL Islands. These EL Islands are monolingual EL phrases that are grammatically well-formed in the EL (i.e. they include inflections). Similarly, phrases that are entirely composed of ML elements (ML islands) may also occur within the larger bilingual clause.

2.3.2 Content versus system morpheme

The MLF model strives to differentiate between content and system morphemes (Myers-Scotton: 1997). From the standpoint of the semantic-syntactic structure, content morphemes are the only ones that assign or receive thematic roles. From the language production point of view, they are the ones directly activated by semantic and pragmatic features that match the speaker's pre-linguistics intentions.

Verbs are prototypical assigners of the thematic roles and nouns most typically receive these roles. Content morphemes are activated early. As a first step in actual linguistic production, the semantic pragmatic feature bundles that match the speaker's intended meaning point to lemmas (abstract lexical elements) in the mental lexicon that underlie content morphemes. In contrast, system morphemes are not directly activated and none assigns or receive thematic roles. Morphemes with a plus setting for the feature Quantification are system morpheme categories. These morphemes pick out individuals or events. Such morphemes comprise of quantifiers, specifiers and inflectional morphemes. They include words such as a little, few, those, these, more, etc.

Content morphemes must be either a thematic role assigners or thematic role receivers. Thematic roles refer to the semantic relationships between verbs and their arguments. Verbs, prepositions, nouns etc are the examples of the content morpheme.

2.3.3 MLF Goal

MLF model has two goals. The first goal strives to predict the contents of code switching utterances. It predicts which utterances containing code switching are to be considered well formed and those which are not well formed. The second goal is to offer an explanation of the differential appearance of Matrix Language and Embedded Language in intrasentential codeswitching by fitting code switching in a larger theoretical mode of language production. In order to achieve this, the MLF model has proposed a set of hypotheses below.

(i) The Matrix Language Hypothesis (MLH)

The Matrix Language Hypothesis sets the morphosyntactic frame for the ML+EL constituent The ML hypothesis is proposed to account for the differential activation of ML or EL morphosyntactic procedures during production of ML+EL constituents. The Matrix Language provides the morphosyntactic frame of the ML+EL constraints. The ML hypothesis states that those grammatical procedures in the central structures in the language production which accounts for the surface structure of ML+EL constituents are only ML based procedures. Matrix Language hypothesis can be realized as two testable principles: The morpheme order principle and the system morpheme principles.

a) The morpheme order principles states that the morpheme order must not violate ML morpheme order. In ML+EL constituents consisting of singly occurring EL lexemes and any number of ML morphemes, surface morpheme order will be that of ML.

b) The system morpheme principle states that all syntactically relevant system morphemes must come from the ML. In ML+EL constituents, all systems which have grammatical relations external to their head constituents will come from the ML. These two hypotheses predict that only one language supplies the morpheme order to bilingual clauses as the morphemes that indicate the grammatical relationships across maximal projections (e.g. subject-verb agreement). The principles are testable hypotheses because they state that only one language is the source of critical aspects of the morphosyntactic frame of the clause. In the corpora where these hypotheses are supported, the MLF model calls this language the Matrix Language (ML) and the other language is called the Embedded Language(s).

(ii) The Blocking Hypothesis

The Blocking Hypothesis states that the ML blocks the appearance of any EL content morpheme which does not meet certain congruency conditions with ML components. Blocking hypothesis proposes that a filter blocks not only EL system morphemes prohibited under the system morpheme but also content morpheme which do not show certain specified congruencies with ML content morphemes. The Blocking hypothesis further states that in ML+EL constituents, a blocking filter blocks any EL content morphemes which is not congruent with ML. This happens with respect to three levels of abstraction regarding sub categorization. These are:

a) EL Islands occur when EL procedures are activated and ML is inhibited.

 b) EL Islands include only syntactically relevant EL System morphemes.

 c) EL Islands can also result from 'misfiring' e.g. an EL system morpheme is accessed in error. Since errors might be the triggers which activate EL morphosyntactic procedures for the rest of the constituents.

2.3.4 The Matrix Language

 Matrix language assignment has major structural consequences for code switched utterances. The single definition which best achieves empirical verification is based on the relative frequency of morphemes from ML and the EL in the interaction type which includes the structure of code switched data under study, that is the language which is more socially unmarked choice.

Matrix language and the embedded language identification are therefore done through frequency based criterion. A frequency based criterion holds that the matrix Language is the language of many morphemes in the interaction type including intrasentential code switching. There are two issues that must be taken into consideration when identifying the matrix language based on the frequency criterion. First is that the sentence must be on a discourse sample and secondly cultural borrowings from EL for new objects and concepts are excluded from the counts as part of the total morphemes from the EL.

2.4 Conclusion

An elaborate review of literature on code switching as a linguistic domain of study has been carried in this section. The section was divided into two sections, one dealing with general literature on code switching as a sociolinguistic phenomenon, giving a brief summary on the genesis and development of code switching by various linguistic scholars. The other part concentrated on literature relating to MLF model and its relevance in the analysis of code switching data, the results of contact between languages in code switching and how these languages influence each other in the process of code switching.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses methodology used in this study. It is divided into four sections; Research design, Sampling procedures and sample size, data collection, data recording and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

A research design is the overall plan or strategy for conducting the research. This study used Descriptive Survey Design. Descriptive survey is present oriented methodology used to investigate population by selecting samples to analyse and discover occurrences. It is used to describe and explain events as they are (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). This study selected respondents from Kisumu East District who could speak both Dholuo and Kiswahili fluently as part of the study sample that was used to collect cases of Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching as it is happening presently.

3.3 Location of Study

The study was carried out in Winam Division of Kisumu East district which is one of districts in Kisumu County. Kisumu East district shares borders with other districts namely Vihiga to the North, Nyando to the East, Kisumu West to the West and some parts of Rachuonyo District to the South. Kisumu East District occupies an area of 559.2 square km. It has a total population of 473,649 with a 2.1% population growth rate (2009, Kenya population and Housing Census). It is sub divided into two administrative divisions namely Winam and Kadibo divisions. Winam divisions take the greater part of urban area within Kisumu East District. It is in Winam division that the researcher collected data because of its urban set up. Most of the elites are found in urban centres because these are the areas where economic activities take place

3.4 Study Size

The data for this study was collected from Nyangeta zone in Winam division. The data was collected from two groups. The first group was made up of teachers from Sugar Research Primary School (KESREF Primary) and the second group is a social group, Mamboleo Friends Group, made up of teachers from the three schools. Winam Division comprises two

36

bases namely: Miwani base and Kibos base. Kibos base where the data was collected comprises three schools: Kibos Prison Primary School, Kibos special school for the visually impaired and Sugar Research Primary School (KESREF Primary). The three schools have a teacher population of forty-five (45) teachers. Twelve (12) teachers from Sugar Research and twelve others from Mamboleo Friends Group were finally selected to form part of the respondents from whom data was collected.

3.4.1 The Sample and Sampling procedure

The sampling technique that was used in this study is the purposive sampling. Purposive sampling technique is whereby a sample is selected according to someone's personal judgement in order to cultivate an in depth understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Mugenda & Mugenda 1999). In addition Mugenda & Mugenda posit that the power of purposive sampling lies in selecting information thus enables researcher to target and engage only those respondents who are likely to have the required information and are willing to share it. Using this method of sampling enabled the researcher to select only those teachers who could communicate effectively in the desired languages and to elicit the required data.

Convenience sampling was also used to select twelve teachers from Sugar Research Primary School. The teachers who were chosen were easily accessible to the researcher. This population acted as a representative of the teachers within Kibos Base. In this group the researcher held thirteen sessions each lasting between twenty to thirty minutes. The second group from which data was collected is social groups comprising twelve women who are friends but also teach in the schools that make up the Kibos Base. In this group the researcher also held three sessions lasting around thirty minutes. To ensure rational judgement in the selection of the selected informants, the researcher selected informants who:

(a) Have education level not lower than K.C.S.E. level. This study holds the assumption that speakers falling within education bracket are relatively proficient speakers of Kiswahili which is taught and examined both in Primary and Secondary Schools in whole of the republic of Kenya.

(b) Have lived among Dholuo speakers for most of their lives or who has Dholuo language as their L1 because they are assumed to be able to speak Dholuo fluently.

37

(c) Have shown that they could use both Kiswahili and Dholuo as languages of communication. These were considered to be pointers towards using Dholuo and Kiswahili interchangeably in code switching.

Observation was done through taping of natural and free conversation from the teachers and the members of the social group in focus group discussion. The researcher joined teachers and the group members so as to record interactions that occurred during free time. Jorgensen, (1989), notes that observation techniques can be used to collect in-depth information and the information required was acquired during a conversation. The method provides detailed, rich insights into the practice of code switching and its use among the native Dholuo speakers.

Participant observation as a method of data collection has its advantages and disadvantages. It is based on spontaneous or naturalistic data gathered by an observer. It enables the researcher to capture some incidents which otherwise may have been ignored. Despite its many advantages, this method requires meticulous preparation to enable the researcher fit into the group being observed without disturbing anyone. Considerable time for data collection is also required making it a rather an expensive method.

3.4.2 Sampled Population

The researcher selected twelve (12) teachers from Sugar Research Primary School (KESREF Primary) and twelve (12) members of a social group whose first language is Dholuo or those who have demonstrated the ability of native like speaker using Dholuo language. The teachers from Sugar Research were five males and seven females while the social group consisted of twelve females. So total population from whom data was collected was nineteen females and five males. This population was representative of the population of teachers of Kibos Base of Winam Division.

Participant observation was done in the selected groups. The observation in the school was mostly done during breaks from the normal class times. These times were considered appropriate as the teachers were free and able to engage freely in conversations touching on different issues and using language freely as these were very informal settings and they were able to use any language of their choice. The teachers were relaxed during the conversations. In the social group, data was collected just before the official commencement of the

meetings. This is because during the official time of the meetings the language use was restricted to either Kiswahili or English.

Data was collected from naturally occurring conversation in focus group discussion. The study used participant observation technique to collect data (Cresswel 2011). Under the participant observation method, the information is sought by way of investigator's own direct observation. The observer observes by making himself more or less a member of the group. In participant observation the researcher is enabled to record the natural behaviour of the sample he is observing so that he can experience what the members are experiencing.

The study targeted elite but native Dholuo speakers who reside in Winam Division, Kisumu East District of Kisumu County. According to the Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary a native speaker is one who uses a language as his first language. The operational definition of a native speaker in this study is one who has a near perfect competence in Dholuo and therefore can:

(a) Produce and comprehend an infinite number of sentences in Dholuo.
(b) Can perceive the structure of sentences in Dholuo.
(c) Can identify individual words in sentence constructions in Dholuo or if not a native Luo then he/she should have lived among the Dholuo speakers most of his life or one who has a near-perfect grasp of the Luo language. Other speakers who have attained high level of proficiency in Dholuo yet it is not their L1 will also make part of the study sample. This is important because it will indicate that he/she has been using Dholuo as the language of communication.

3.4.3 Research Instruments

In collecting data, the study used participant observation in focus group discussions. Under the participant observation method, the information is sought by way of investigator's own direct observation.

Observation was done through taping of natural and free conversation from the teachers and the members of the social group in focus group discussion. The researcher joined teachers and the group members so as to record interactions that occurred during free time. Jorgensen, (1989), notes that observation techniques can be used to collect in-depth information and the

information required was acquired during a conversation. The method provides detailed, rich insights into the practice of code switching and its use among the native Dholuo speakers.

Participant observation as a method of data collection has its advantages and disadvantages. It is based on spontaneous or naturalistic data gathered by an observer. It enables the researcher to capture some incidents which otherwise may have been ignored. Despite its many advantages, this method requires meticulous preparation to enable the researcher to fit into the group being observed without disturbing anyone. Considerable time for data collection is also required making it a rather an expensive method.

3.5 Data Collection

The researcher sought and got permission from the headteacher Sugar Research School and the chairlady Mamboleo Friends Group to carry out research from the school and from members of the group. The data used was collected by tape recording informal conversations among urbanized elite Dholuo L1 speaker's colleagues living in Kisumu. The researcher also participated in the conversation to minimize the observer effect, Labov (1972). It was hoped that the reseacher's participation in the conversation would make the other participants feel freer in their conversations. Data was collected from naturally occurring conversation in informal settings. The tool that was used to collect data is the tape recorder. The selection of this tool had been guided by the nature of data to be collected as well as by the objectives of this study (Yuko & Oren 2008). The objective of this study was to capture Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching occurring in a natural environment. Such natural conversation is best captured using the tape recorder.

3.5.1 Procedure for Data Analysis

Focus was on the morphosyntactic realizations of words from the major word classes that is the nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Furthermore, efforts were made to check the applicability of the frequency criterion and matrix language hypothesis with specific reference to its two principles, the morpheme order principle and the system morpheme principle in matrix language identification in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching. The study also examined how diffusion of Kiswahili has taken place in Dholuo through the linguistic levels, it also analysed how the new or foreign words from Kiswahili are co-opted into the Dholuo Language corpus. For every sentence, a translated version was given. The researcher

used free translation theory by translating loosely from the original sentence because of the syntactic nature of the data. However, under the discussion on the morpheme order hypothesis both free and word for word translation was given. The latter word for word translation was given simply to clarify the concept of morpheme order, which in our data can be equated with word order.

3.5.2 Data analysis

Data analysis involves sifting, organizing, summarizing and synthesizing the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusion required (Sellinger and Shohamy, 1989). The taped material was replayed, and then the code switched sentences were identified and written down. With the help of the observation which was made during data collection, the researcher then morphosyntactically described the sampled code switched sentences. The researcher then used the MLF model in distinguishing the Matrix Language from the Embedded Languages and then established cases of applicability and inapplicability of the MLF model. The researcher also sought instances of the diffusion that takes place during the process of code switching. Cases of influence of Kiswahili language on Dholuo language were also identified.

3.6. Conclusion

The chapter has given the model and methodology employed in this study. The researcher has indicated that the study used primary data and systematic random sampling was used in sampling to get the final study samples. The chapter also highlighted the   use of participant observation as a method of data collection

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, analysis of data which was obtained from naturally occurring conversations involving Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching has been done. Data analysis and presentation is guided by the objectives of the study. Specifically, the description of the data focused on the morphosyntactic realizations of the major word classes including nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The structure of the code switched sentences was identified, the translated version given below it and then its description given. The study used the free translation theory by translating loosely from the original sentence. Free translation was identified to be the best because of the syntactic nature of the data, Larson (1988). However, under the discussions on the morpheme order hypothesis, both free and word for word translations have been given to help clarify the concept of morpheme order which is equated with word order.

4.2 Morphosyntactic structures of code switched elements

The word morphosyntactic is an adjective of morphosyntax. Morphosyntax is derived from morphology which is the study of word formation and syntax which is the study of how words are combined into larger units such as phrase and sentences. According to Crystal (1980) Morphosyntax is a term used in linguistics to refer to grammatical categories/ properties for whose definition criteria of morphology and syntax both apply as in describing the characteristics of words. Morphosyntactic structures of utterances in Dholuo/ Kiswahili code switching were realized under three categories: ML+EL Constituents, ML Constituents and EL Constituents. These three types of constituents are different though they are interrelated through the constituents governing them.

4.2.1   ML+ EL Constituents

ML+EL Constituents consists of morphemes from both the matrix language (ML) and the Embedded language (EL). The prototypical ML+EL constituents contain a singly occurring EL lexeme in a frame of any number of ML morphemes.

E.g in sentence

> 16 *An ok ahero* **porojo** *mang'eny*.
>
> (I don't like too much disturbance)

The sentence has four morphemes from the matrix language Dholuo-(an, ok, ahero, mang'eny) against only one morpheme from the embedded language, Kiswahili (**porojo**). The singly occurring EL morpheme is the NP **porojo** embedded in the structure of the matrix language.

4.2.2   ML Island   Constituents

The ML Islands are constituents consisting entirely of Matrix Language Morphemes. They must be well formed constituents according to the Matrix Language grammar and must show internal structural dependency. In this research the matrix language is Dholuo Language and so the ML Islands must be well formed according to the internal structure of Dholuo language. E.g in sentence

29 Thoth nyithindo matiyo matek e klas.

(Most of the children who work hard in class).

This sentence has been realized as a nounphrase in ML. The determiner *thoth* (many), the noun *nyithindo* (children) and the verb *tiyo* (working) have all been realized in the ML and even the surface word structure is that of the matrix language.

4.2.3 EL Island Constituents

The EL Island may supply what is called EL Island. These EL Island are monolingual EL phrases that are grammatically well formed in the EL (they include inflections). In this study the embedded language is Kiswahili. E.g in sentense 39

Kwa nini unamringia hivyo?

*(*Why are you so boastful to him?)

4.3 ML+EL, ML and EL Structure of the Noun Phrase.

Evidence attested in our corpus of Dhuluo/Kiswahili code switching shows that noun phrases are realized at virtually all the three constituents (ML Islands, EL Islands and ML+EL Constituents) though with varying constraints. However, they are more likely to occur as single morphemes in the EL. For descriptive purposes, we will consider sentences that exemplify the occurrence of the nouns as Islands as we discuss the nouns in the ML+EL constituents. The following examples of sentences numbered 1, 15, 21 and 49 are used to highlight the occurrences of nouns as ML+EL, ML Islands and EL Islands.

1) *To* **ajali** *marach notimore* **e barabara kubwa** *madh*i **Kakamega.**

(But accident that other happened on the road big which goes to Kakamega) for

(That bad accident happened on the main road to Kakamega.)

This sentence was captured when the researcher and colleagues were discussing about the increasing number of accidents happening on the Kenyan roads.

To **ajali** *marach notimore e* **barabara kubwa** *madhi* Kakamega has two main Noun Phrases:

Ajali *marach* (a bad accident) is an ML+EL Constituent as it comprises a morpheme each from the two participating languages involved in the code switching. **Ajali** is Swahili word for accident while *marach* is Dholuo word for (very bad). As stated in the MLF Frame model, the constituent has adopted the Matrix Language Frame Model's proposition that the ML+EL Constituents must adopt the Matrix Language Structure. This sentence has adopted Dholuo Language structure where a noun is post modified by the adjective it has occurred with. The noun **ajali** has been postmodified by the adjective *marach.*

Barabara kubwa (main road) is the other noun phrase realized as an EL Island comprising two Kiswahili words **barabara and kubwa** for (the main road). It is important to note that the NP in the EL constituent takes the morpheme order of the embedded language, Kiswahili which like Dholuo has the main verb barabara being post modified by the adjective **kubwa** it has occurred with.
.

The above sentence has Dholuo as the matrix language since it has produced the highest number of morpheme in the structure - 4 morphemes (*morono*, *notimore, e, madhi)* while Kiswahili, the embedded language has produced only three morphemes **(-ajali, kubwa** and **barabara)**

15**) Katiba** *manyienni* to *ber nikech omiyo ng'ato ka ng'ato* **hakine.**

(Constitution new this one is good because it gives each person his right) for

(This new constitution is good as it grants each individual his/her rights).

The sentence was captured by the researcher when one of the group members was commenting about the new constitution.

This sentence has three main noun phrases: **Katiba** *manyienni, ng'ato ka ng'ato,* **haki**ne.

Katiba *manyienni* (constitution new this) for (this new constitution)   has been realized as an **ML+EL Constituent.** The main noun **katiba** has been postmodified by a Dholuo adjective *manyienni* (this new one)

The second nounphrase ng'ato *ka ng'ato* (every person) is a Dholuo morpheme realized as an ML island and it has taken Dholuo structure where a morpheme may be doubled for emphasis.

The third noun phrase has been realized as an ML+EL morpheme where the main noun **hakine (right)** has a prefix *ne (his/hers)* which refers back to the noun **haki**. As stipulated in the MLF model when a morpheme is realized as an ML+EL it must take the morpheme order of the matrix language. The suffix *ne* has been attached to the main noun **haki** because of the agglutinative typology of the Dholuo language.

The above sentence has Dholuo as the matrix language since it has contributed the highest number of morphemes- 8 (*manyienni, to ber, nikech, omiyo, ng'ato, ka, ng'ato)* while the embedded language Kiswahili has contributed only two morphemes-(**katiba and haki)**

>   21) ***Ndik andika* maneno mawili matatu hivi e baruwano,** *jonyuol go bende onge gi*
>   **wakati** *mar somo gigo te***.**

(write words two three like this inside that letter those parents also do not have with time for reading those things all) for (just write two or three words in that letter as those parents do not have time to read all those things.)

This sentence was captured during a discussion between the head teacher and one of the class teachers about what contents to include in a letter that she was writing to her class parents for an intended meeting.

The sentence *Ndik andika* maneno mawili matatu hivi e baruwano, *jonyuolgo bende onge gi* wakati mar *somo gigote* has three main noun phrases:

Maneno mawili matatu hivi is an EL Island NP Constituent comprising four morphemes-**maneno, mawili, matatu, hivi for** (two or three words like these) and it has taken the word order of Kiswahili language where a noun is post modified by the demonstrative it has occurred with. In this sentence the demonstrative **hivi**   (these**)** has post modified the noun phrase **maneno mawili matatu.**

The second noun phrase **baruwano (letter that)** for (**that letter)** has been realised as an ML+EL constituent because it has one Kiswahili morpheme which has been agglutinated with a demonstrative (*no*) for (that) from the Dholuo Language. **Barua** refers to a letter in Kiswahili while *no* refers to the demonstrative **that** in Dholuo. As stipulated in the MLF model, all nouns captured as ML constituents must take the morpheme order of the matrix language which in this case is Dholuo language and all the system morphemes alwaya come from the matrix languange.

 In the above sentence, system morpheme like the demonstrative (that) in that letter (*baruwano*) has been realized as an ML constituent. **Baruwano** (letter that) for (that letter) has taken the word order of Dholuo where a noun is postmodified by the demostrative it co-occurs with.

The third nounphrase *gigote* (those things all) for (all those things) has been realized as an ML Island and it has followed the word order of the matrix language.

The above sentence has Dholuo as the matrix languauge since it has contributed the highest number of morphemes: 12 morphemes (*ndik, andika, jonyuol, go, bende, onge,gi, mar, somo, gigo,te.*) while Kiswahili, the embedded language has contributed 5 morphemes (**maneno, mawili,matatu,wakati, hivi**.). It should be noted that the word **barua** (letter) is a Kiswahili word for a letter and it has been incorporated into Dholuo language where it has acquired Dholuo system of pronunciation where the last letter **a** in a morpheme is pronounced as **wa.**

49) **Wananchi***gi bende* **changia ufisadi** *matimor*e e Kenya *kae.*

(Citizens these also contribute corruption those happening Kenya here) for

 (These citizens also contribute to the corruption cases which happen here in Kenya.)

This sentence was captured by the researcher during a conversation among the staff members who were decrying the number of corruption cases going on in Kenya.

This sentence has three main noun phrases:

Wananchigi (citizens these) for (**these citizens**) is an ML+EL noun phrase because it has two morphemes from the two languages used in code switching i.e **wananchi** is a Kiswahili word for **citizens** and gi is a Dholuo word meaning **these**. As posited in the MLF model, the noun phrase has taken the morpheme order of the matrix language, Dholuo where the noun and the determiner have been agglutinated to form one word**, wananchigi.** The Dholuo morpheme *gi* for (these) has also postmodified the noun it has occurred with.

The second noun phrase which has been captured in this sentence is **ufisadi** *matimore* (corruption happening) for (corruption which is taking place) is also an ML+EL because it also has two words from the two languages which have been used in the codeswitching i.e **ufisadi** is a Swahili word for corruption and *matimore* is a Dholuo word for which is happening.

The last noun phrase which has been realised in the sentence is **Kenya** *kae* (Kenya here) for (here in Kenya). The noun phrase has taken the word order of the matrix language, Dholuo where the adverb of place *kae (here)* has post modified the noun Kenya that it has occurred with.

Sentence 49 also has Dholuo as the matrix language contributing majority of the morphemes, four morphemes-(**gi***, matimore, e, kae)* while Kiswahili has contributed three morphemes (**wananchi, changia, ufisadi.)**

Considering the above examples, it is evident that whenever the nouns occur in the ML+EL constituent, the noun is in EL and the word order which is adopted is that of the matrix language while in an island constituent, it occurs in EL or ML for EL and ML island constituents respectively. This is in accordance with MLF model, which consider nouns as content morphemes and posits that most of the times the EL may occur as single lexeme in any frame of the ML morphemes.

4.3.1 ML+EL, ML and EL Structure of the verb phrase

According to our corpus, the occurrence of the verb in either ML+EL, ML or EL in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching is dependent on the constituent area in which it is realized. Where the main verb is in an Island constituent occurring either as ML or EL constituent, it occurs in the respective language of the Island constituent that is the main verb will be in EL or ML if it occurs in EL Island and ML Islands respectively. The following sentences numbered 6, 20, 23, 26 and 27 are given as illustrations to exemplify the realizations of the verbs.

> **Sentence 6**) *Otieno to pok o***tembelea***ga koro kik o***babaika**
>
> (Otieno but not visited me so he not need not worry) for
>
> (Otieno has not visited me so he need not worry).

This sentence was captured from a conversation between friends discussing their meetings during social gatherings. One member was lamenting about one of the members who had not gone to her house despite the fact that they had been members of one social group for many years.

In the sentence, there are two main verb phrases: Pok-o- **tembelea-ga** and *kik* o**babaika** which have both been realized as ML+EL constituents.

The sentence has *pok-o-***tembelea-***aga* (has never visited me) as an ML+EL constituent with the main verb **tembelea** premodififed by *o* **(him)** in (otembelea) to mark number (third person singular) and post modified by ***a* (me)** in *pok-o-***tembelea-***a* and *ga* (**always)** to mark the progressive aspect. As proposed in the MLF model, when a verb occurs as an ML+EL constituent it takes the word order of the matrix language which in this case is Dholuo.

The other main verb **babaika** has also been realized as an ML+EL constituent, i.e the main verb **babaika** has been premodified by **o** in **obabaika** to mark person (3rd person singular). The verb has also taken the word order of the matrix language where person premodifies the verb attached to it as Dholuo is an agglutinating language.

In the sentence, ***Otieno* to pok o*tembelea***ga koro kik o**babaika** also confirms to the matrix language model's proposition in the Matrix Language Frame Model that the matrix language

must produce the highest number of morphemes. Dholuo which is the matrix language in this sentence has produced seven morphemes (*bende, pok, o, a, koro, kik o,*) and the embedded language, Kiswahili has produced two morphemes (**tembelea and babaika).**

Sentence 23 *Kata Muma bende wachoni **wakumbushwe tu** kata gingeyo kamano*
(Even the Bible also says remind them just even if they know like that) for
(Even the Bible says just remind them even if they know)

This sentence was captured from a discussion between the headteacher and the chairperson of the staff welfare committee. The headteacher was appealing to the chairperson to keep on reminding members to submit their contributions towards the welfare account.

In the above sentence, there are 2 verbs phrases i.e *wacho ni*, (says that) and **wakumbushwe tu (just be reminded)**.

Wachoni (**says that**) has been realized as an ML Island in the sentence kata *muma bende wacho* (even the Bible says).

There other verb phrase **wakumbushwe tu** has been realized as an EL Island and as proposed in the MLF Mode, when a verb occurs as an ML or EL Island it takes the word order of the language in which it has been realized.

In the above sentence, Dholuo, which is the matrix language has contributed 8 morphemes-(*kata, Muma bende, wacho, ni, kata, gingeyo* and *kamano*) compared to Kiswahili that has only contributed only two morphemes-(**wakumbushwe**, **tu**).

The EL Island **wakumbushwe tu** has the main verb **wakumbushwe** in the EL language. The same thing has happened in Dholuo verbs, *bende wacho* (**also says),** both in Dholuo, ML Island Constituent.

Sentence 26 *Asewinjo **watangazaji wengi** kaketho **Kiswahili** marach*
(I have heard announcers many when spoiling Kiswahili badly) for
(I have heard many news presenters speak ungrammatical Kiswahili).

This sentence was captured when the staff members were discussing about the requirements one must meet in order to be employed as a news anchor in a radio station.

There are two verb Phrases captured in the above sentence *asewinjo* (I have heard) and *kaketho* (when spoiling). This verb phrases have been realized as a Matrix Language constituents.

Kiswahili, the embedded language has contributed only two morphemes- **watangazaji** (newsmen) and **wengi** (many). As proposed in the MLF model the system morpheme has been realized in the matrix language.

The system morpheme in this sentence is *ase* in the verb *asewinjo* (**I** have heard). As proposed in the MLF model, the system morpheme must always come from matrix language.

> Sentence 27 (*Jopuonjgo* to be o**zidi** *gi* kwayo **pesa** *penj ma* **kila mara**
>
> (Teachers those ones are too much with asking for exams money all the time) for
>
> (Those teachers are now too much with their demand for exam money all the
>
> times)

This sentence was captured when a staff member was complaining to her colleagues about the school where her child is learning where the teachers keep on demanding for exam money from their pupils.

In the sentence there is only one verb which has been realized as an ML+EL constituent. The sentence has *jopuonjgo go to be o***zidi** (Those teachers are now too much). *O***zidi** is realized as an ML+EL constituent with the main verb **zidi** in Kiswahili, the embedded language and *o* (**they**) to mark number –plural for those teachers. As proposed in the MLF Model, when a verb occurs as an ML+EL constituent, the main verb must take the word order of the matrix language. This is why the main verb **zidi** has been premodified by **o** to mark third person plural in reference to the teachers.

The sentence has Dholuo as the matrix language since it has produced the highest number of morphemes- 8 morphemes (*jopuonj, go, to, be, o, gi, penj*, *ma)* against the embedded language Kiswahili which has only produced only 3 morphemes (**zidi, kila, mara).**

Sentence 38 (*Ok a* **amini** *ni ng'ato nyalo paro gima kamano* **wacha kuthubutu kutenda**.

(I don't believe that someone can actually think of such a thing let a lone doing it.)

The main verb phrases in this sentence are *ok a* amini (I don't believe), *nyalo paro* (can imagine) kutenda (doing).

 Ok a **amini** has been realized as an ML+EL constituent with *a* **(i)-**pronoun for first person singular premodifying the main verb it has occurred with thus following the Dholuo word order where a pronoun always premodifies the verb.

The other two verbs **nyalo paro** (can imagine**)** and **wacha kuthubutu kuitenda** (Let a lone doing it) are ML and EL morphemes that have been fitted into the the ML structure where they don't go against the word order of the matrix language.

It is important to note that in the data above, whenever a main verb occurred in the ML+EL constituent it took the morphological structure of the host language thus the agglutinative nature of Dholuo is exemplified in the sentence 6 and sentence 26 above. The verbs in these sentences *pok* **otembelea** *a ga* (he has never visited me), **obabaika** (he need not worry), and *o***zidi** (they are too much) have inflectional typology of the host language, Dholuo which agglutinates the subject and the object on the main verb. All the inflectional morphemes are ML+EL constituents since they all have morphemes from the two participating languages i.e. Dholuo and Kiswahili. These ML+EL constituents however pick the morpheme order of the host language which supports the morpheme order principle which states that in ML+EL constituent, the morpheme order will be that of the matrix language.

4.3.2 ML+EL, ML and EL Structure of the adjectival phrase

As is the case with nouns and verbs discussed above, the realization of adjectives in the ML and EL islands also conforms to the MLF proposition because the adjectives also follow the word order of the respective Islands in which they are realized, that is Kiswahili word order for the EL Islands and Dholuo word order for the ML Islands. When the adjectives occur as ML+EL Islands then the structure of the ML is adopted. The following sentence examples numbered 1, 3, 31, exemplify these.

 1) *To* **ajali** *marach* notimore *e* **barabara kubwa** *madhi* **Kakamega.**
(But accident bad also happened on road big which goes Kakamega) for

51

(Very bad accident happened on the main high way to Kakamega.)

*Ajali marach notimore e***barabara** *kubwa madhi Kakamega* is an adjectival phrase realized as an ML Constituent. (*Marach* **for (bad)** is a Dholuo morpheme while **ajali** *marach* is an embedded constituent comprising two morphemes: **ajali**, a Kiswahili word for accident and *marach* is a Dholuo morpheme meaning bad. And as has been stated above (**ajali** *marach*) for (bad accident) is an ML+EL which conforms to the Dholuo word order where the noun, ajali (accident) is post modified by its adjective *marach* (bad). As posited in the MLF Frame model, when a constituent is realized as an ML+EL then the word order must be that of the Matrix Language.

The EL, Kiswahili also has the noun (**barabara**) road post modified by its adjective **(kubwa).**

The above sentence has Dholuo as the matrix language because it has contributed five morphemes- *to, marach, , notimore*, *e*, and *madhi* while Kiswahili the EL Language has contributed only three morphemes- **ajali**, **barabara**, **and kubwa)**

3) *An nga'ma* **mwaminifu** *makiora to nyaka aduogi* **mwalimu.**

(Me am a person trustworthy should you send me then I must come back, teacher) for (I am a very trustworthy person that I must come back if you send me)

This sentence was collected by the researcher from a discussion between the head teacher and the grounds man who had taken a long time returning from running an errand for the head teacher.

The adjective (**mwaminifu)** has been realized as an ML+EL-(**an ng'ama mwaminifu)**   a person trustworthy) for a trustworthy person. As stipulated in the matrix language hypothesis, the ML+EL has taken the ML, Dholuo word order, which has the adjective post modifying the noun-(*ng'ama* **mwaminifu)** (a person trustworthy) for (a trustworthy person) .The matrix language in the sentence is Dholuo since it has contributed 6 morphemes (-*an, ng'ama, makiora, to*, *nyaka, aduogi*) against Kiswahili, the EL which has produced only two morphemes (-**mwaminifu)**

31) *Nyako maberno to orwako* **nguo chafu** *kamano nango*?

(Girl that beautiful but puts on dress dirty like that why?) for (Why is that beautiful

girl wearing such a dirty dress?)

The sentence was collected by the researcher during a report on random inspection of students' personal hygiene. The teacher incharge was commenting about one girl whose uniform was very dirty.

In the above sentence, two main adjectives have been realized: *maberno* (that beautiful) and **chafu** *kamano nan'go?* (dirty like that). The first adjective *maberno (beautiful that) for (that beautiful)* has been realized as an ML Island since it has been captured in the Dholuo language and the neighbouring morphemes are also in the same language, while the second adjective has been realized as an EL Island. The second adjectival phrase **chafu** *kamano nan'go* **(dirty like that why)** is an ML+EL constituent and as proposed in the Matrix Language Frame Model it has taken the word order of the language in which it has been realized, i.e Kiswahili word order where a noun is post modified by the verb it has co-occured with. The MLF model proposes that when an adjective is realized in either matrix language or the embedded language as a single morpheme then it takes the word order of the language in which it is realized.

The sentence *nyako maberno to orwako* **nguo chafu** *kamano nan'go? also* conforms to the model's proposition that the matrix language should be the language of more morphemes in code switched utterance.

In the above sentence the matrix language, Dholuo has produced the highest number of morphemes-6 (*nyako, maberno, to, orwako, kamano, nan'go*) **while** Kiswahili has contributed only two morphemes-(**Nguo**, **chafu**).

4.3.3 ML+EL, ML and EL Structure of the Adverb Phrase

Adverbs in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching can occur as an ML+EL, EL Island and ML Islands. The adverb takes the structure of the Islands in which it has occurred and takes the structure of the matrix language should it occur as an ML+EL. This is exemplified below using sentences numbered 3, 12,

> **3)** *Nyathino kwelo marach manyaka ng'iye mana* **kwa makini** *sechete.*
>
> (Child that steals so bad and must be looked at at all times) for
>
> (This child steals so much that he has to be watched keenly at all times)

This sentence was captured by the researcher when the deputy headteacher of the school was reporting to a colleague why he had decided to relieve the school's headboy of his duty.

In the sentence two adverbial phrases were realized: kwelo *marach* (stealing so badly) realized as an ML structure and the other adverb makini **sechete (keenly at all times)** was realized in the embedded language.

The first adverb *marach* has been realized as an ML Island. In the ML language structure, an adverb always postmodifies the verb it has occured with. So the adverb *marach* has been used to stress how seriously the boy steals, and as posited in the MLF model when an adverb occurs as an Island it must take the word of the language in which it has been realized.

The second adverbnyaka ngiye kwa **makini sechete (keenly at all times)** has been realized as an ML+EL and it is grammatically well formed in the ML+EL. The embedded language Kiswahili always has a preposition premodifying the adverb it has co-occurred with. So in this sentence, an adjective **makini** has been premodified by the preposition kwa (with).
The above sentence, *nyathino kwelo marach manyaka ng'iye mana* **kwa makini sechete** has Dholuo as the matrix language as it has contributed 6 morphemes- *nyathino*, *kwelo*, *manyaka*, *ng'iye, mana sechete*) while Kiswahili being the embedded language has only produced only two morphemes- **kwa, makini**)

> **12)** *Nyithindogo ne* **hemahema** *ban'g ringo matek*
>
> *(*The children were breathing loudly after running speedily) for
>
> (Those children were panting heavily after running at a high speed).

The sentence was captured when a colleague on duty was commenting about some two students who had come to school late but were excused from doing any punishment.

In the above sentence only one adjective has been realized. It has been realized as an ML Island constituent. The sentence has *ringo matek* (**running speedily**) as an ML Island with the main adjective *matek* (**speedily**) postmodifying the verb *ringo* (running) it has co-occurred with. This is in tandem with the MLF model's proposal that when an adjective occurs as an ML morpheme then it can be realized as a single morpheme that occurs within the major frame of the ML language.

The sentence, *nyithindogo ne* **hemahema** *ban'g ringo matek* has also conformed to the matrix language Frame Model which states that the matrix language should be the language that produces many morphemes in a given code switched sentence. In this sentence, the matrix language Dholuo has produced 6 morphemes-(*nyithindo, go, ne*, *ban'g*, *ringo, matek*) against the embedded language Kiswahili which has produced only two morphemes-(**hema, hema)**

4.4 Identification of the Matrix Language

Matrix language and the embedded language identification is done either through frequency based criterion or the matrix language hypothesis. These are exemplified below:

4.4.1 Frequency based criterion

Frequency based criterion holds that the Matrix language is the language of more morphemes in the interaction types including intrasentential code switching.

Our counting was based on individual words and not morphemes because of the agglutinative nature of Dholuo language. In our corpus there were a total of 518 morphemes out of which 290 words were from Dholuo language representing 55.98 %while Kiswahili had 228 morphemes representing 44.02%.

At individual sentence level 30 sentences out of the 50 sentences representing 60% had more Dholuo morphemes than those of Kiswahili and therefore had Dholuo as the matrix language and Kiswahili as the embedded language. 11 sentences representing 26% of the total number of the sentence had more Kiswahili morphemes than Dholuo and therefore had Kiswahili as the matrix language. Only 12 sentences had equal number of morphemes from the participating languages representing only 5%. One would be tempted to discredit the theory on the latter scenario of presence of a turnover. Myers-Scotton (1993a) however clarifies that since our study was based on discourse sample, it would be empirically imprudent to hinge on these isolated sentential incidences to find faults with the theory. The overall sample discussed above strongly supports the existence of Dholuo as the main language and Kiswahili as the embedded language. The data therefore strongly offer unequivocal support for this theory despite of these isolated instances of a turnover.

Dholuo was the overall matrix language deducing from the frequency of occurrence of its morphemes both at individual sentence level and in the entire corpus. Although my counting was based on the individual words and not the actual morphemes, it is logical to assume that more Dholuo morphemes would have been realized had the counting targeted on each and every individual morpheme. Dholuo being agglutinative language has a number of morphemes affixed to root words e.g. *ok* **wabadilisha***ga* has Kiswahili root verb **badilisha** but it has been inflected for subject **wa** (us -persons) and *ga* (always-tense) at the word initial and final positions respectively.

4.4.2   The MLF Goal

The MLF Model has two goals. The first goal strives to predict the contents of code switching utterances while the second goal offers an explanation of the differential appearance of Matrix Language in intrasentential code switching by fitting code switching in a larger theoretical mode of language production.

4.4.2 (a) Matrix Language Hypothesis

ML hypothesis is realized under two principles. The first principle is the morpheme order principles. The second principle is the system morpheme principle which states that in ML+EL constituents, all system morpheme which have grammatical relations external to their head constituent (i.e. which participates in the sentence thematic role grid) will come from the ML. Below is a brief discussion on morpheme order principle and verifying on their applicability to our data.. However the morpheme order does not apply automatically when two or more EL morphemes appear. They appear as either part of the ML+EL constituent or an EL Island. For the former, the morpheme order principle still applies.

When the constituent in question consists entirely of EL morphemes and is well formed according to the EL grammatical criteria, the result is an EL Island and not ML+EL constituent. Below are some sentences numbers 6, 19 and 39 from the corpus collected which have been used to illustrate the point above

In sentence 6- **Otieno** *to pok* **otembelea** *a koro kik o***babaika** has *pok o-*
            tembelea-*a* as an ML+EL.

The matrix language in this sentence is Dholuo since it has seven morphemes (*to, pok, o, a, koro, kik, o-)* while Kiswahili has contributed only two morphemes (**tembelea**, **babaika**). *Pok-o-* **tembelea** *a* (he has not visited me) has been realized as an ML+EL constituents because it contains both the Dholuo morphemes and Kiswahili morphemes.**Pok –o – tembelea-a** has taken Dholuo word order where modal auxiliary verb **pok** (has not yet) has premodified the main verb **tembelea which** it has occurred with. The main verb **tembelea** has also been post modified by –**a- (me**) in **tembelea-a**- which is a pronoun standing in place of 1ˢᵗ person singular (**me).** This also conforms to the Dholuo word order where persons post modify the verbs they occur with.

In sentence 19 Shuleni hapa *ok* **wabadilisha***ga* **alama** *ne jopuonjre mano*
pumbaza*giga*.)

(Here at school, we don't alter marks for students because that makes them
foolish).

The two main verbs realized in the above sentence are ***ok*-wabadilisha***ga* **(we don't usually alter)** and **pumbaza***giga* (that makes them to be foolish). These two main verbs have been realized as ML+EL constituents. The first verb, *o k*-**wabadilisha-ga** (we don't alter) has **ok (not)** as anegator and it has pre-negated the verb **badilisha.** In Dholuo language when a verb occurs with a negator, then the negator pre-negates the verb it has occurred with.

The main verb **badilisha** in ***ok*-wabadilisha***ga* (We don't alter) has been premodified by **wa** which is a plural marker in Dholuo signalling first person plural. In Dholuo when a verb occurs with a determiner such as a plural marker then the determiner pre- modifies the verb it has occurred with. **Badilisha** has also been postmodified by the tense marker **ga (**always) in **badilishaga** which symbolises the continous aspect. In the second verb **pumbaza***giga*, the main verb **pumbaza** has the morpheme *giga* affixed in the root word **pumbaza** following the Dholuo rule of agglutinization where a main verb has been agglutinated for plural ***gi* (them)** and tense *ga* **(always).**The matrix language in the sentence is Dholuo since it has produced 9 morhemes-(*ok, wa, ga, ne, nikech, jopuonre, mano, giga*) against the embedded language Kiswahili which has produced only 5 morphemes-(**shuleni, hapa, badilisha, alama, pumbaza).** The morphemes that have been realized in this sentence have not violated the word order of the matrix language, Dholuo.

In sentence 39) *Ok a* **amini** *ni ng'ato nyalo* **thubutu** *paro gima kamano*
Wacha kuisema.

(I don't believe that anybody can dare think of such a thing leave alone saying).

Sentence 39 has ***ok-a*-amini** as an ML+EL. The matrix language in this sentence is Dholuo judging from the system morpheme of the sentence and the relative number of morphemes for the two participating languages: Dholuo has eight morphemes (*ok, a, ni, ng'ato, nyalo, paro, gima, kamano*). The word order of the morpheme is that of Dholuo that allows *a* **(me-person)** to precede the verb it is premodifying.

Of all the ML+EL constituents in our Dholuo/Kiswahili corpus the morpheme order principle seems to be strongly applicable. There was not a single ML+EL constituent that did not follow the morpheme order principle. In all the sentences Morpheme order was that of the matrix language always and the EL morpheme was always realized as a result of insertion in the frame of the matrix language, in terms of the word order was pre-established and the EL morpheme just inserted to fill a vacuum. In virtually all the cases of ML+EL, the EL was a content morpheme.

From the foregoing discussion on the applicability of the morpheme order principle to Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching data; it is empirically justifiable to conclude that the principle is strongly supported by Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching.

4.4.2   (b) System Morpheme Principle (MOP)

This principle contains the hypothesis that if system morphemes are required in ML+EL constituent to signal system relations, they will be ML system morphemes. In events where there are code switching forms showing inflections from both EL and ML, the system morpheme holds that only the ML system morpheme that may have grammatical relations external to the lexical item (e.g. signal agreement) within ML+EL constituents all active system morphemes are from only one of the participating languages.

Any categories that are minus quantification are potential content morphemes. Summarily system morphemes include quantifiers, possessives, tense and aspect, determiners, complementizers, structurally assigned agreements e.g. subject verb agreements, idioms e.t.c.

Content morphemes on the other hand includes nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, prepositions e.t.c.

Using this criterion for the purpose of identification of the system versus content morpheme, we tested the system morpheme principle across sets of data. In the corpus there were a total of 38 ML+EL constituents, of which quite a number strongly supported the system morpheme principle. The prediction according to the hypothesis of the study was that Kiswahili members of these classes would not occur with Dholuo heads in ML+EL constituents. This proposition is strongly supported from the data. This is exemplified below using sentences numbers: 8, 9, 18, 26, 39 and 4

Sentence 18 above has *koro eka a* **fuatilia** (now is when am following his issue) as an ML+EL constituent. The content morpheme in this constituent is the word **fuatilia (follow up)** which has been realized from the embedded language. The system morphemes in this sentence include *koro* **(now),** an adverb of time, *eka* (is when) another an adverb of time, a (I) a pronoun in afuatilia which has preceded the verb it is premodifying.

 In sentence 26 *Jopuonjgo to be o***zidi** *gi kwayo* pesa *mar penj ma* **kila mara**
(These teachers are also too much with their never ending demand for money)

The sentence has Dholuo as the matrix language owing to the number of morphemes it has contributed -9 morphemes (*Jopuonj, go, to, be gi, kwayo, pesa and penj*) and Kiswahili, the embedded language has contributed three morphemes, **zidi (too much) kila mara (all the times)**
The ML+EL constituent above is made of system morpheme except the verb **zidi .** Dholuo also marks plural *go* **(those)**. This supports the system morpheme principle which states that in ML+EL constituent, the matrix language provides the system morphemes.

In sentence 38 Ok a **amini** *ni ng'ato nyalo nyisa gima kamano* **wacha**
kuthubutu kuitenda
(I don't believe that someone can dare tell me something like that let
and dare to do it.)

A **amin**i is an ML+EL constituent. The system morpheme structure is provided by Dholuo which is the matrix language in the sentence. The system morphemes in the sentence include *nyalo* (can) and *kamano* (like that) which have been provided by Dholuo which is the matrix language.

Finally as already mentioned above, there are instances when the system morpheme clashes with the morpheme frequency criterion in the matrix language identification. However, it is important to note that these are very rare occurrences from the data collected. The following are few examples encountered.

> **In sentence 8** (*Nyathino* **amekuwa na kesi nyingi za wizi** *ma nochunowa mondo* **wawachisha***e* **cheo chake kama kiranja mkuu wa shule)**
> **(**That child has had so many theft cases that it has forced us to drop him as the school head prefect).

This sentence was captured during a discussion on the fate of the school head prefect who had been involved in a series of theft cases. The deputy head teacher was reporting to the staff member about a decision to drop the head prefect. In this sentence 8, the matrix language is Kiswahili which has contributed 14 morphemes (**amekuwa, na, kesi, nyingi, za, wizi, wachisha, cheo,chake, kama, kiranja, mkuu, wa, shule**) and Dholuo has contributed only 4(four) (*nyathino, ochunowa,ma,wa).* The ML+EL constituent is *manochunowa mondo* **wawachisha***e* (It then forced us to drop him). The past tense is marked by the EL of the sentence which is Dholuo and in the preceding ML+EL constituent in the same sentence, *nyathino* **amekuwa na kesi nyingi za** wizi, tense is marked by Kiswahili which is the matrix language in the sentence. In the same ML+EL constituent, the demonstrative morpheme *no* **(that)** in **nyathino** is in Dholuo, EL when this is expected to come from ML, according to the MLF model, in the same sentence, consider how the agreement is marked. *Wa* in *ochunowa* agrees with *wa* in **wawachisha***e* while *e* in **wawachishae** agrees with the subject of the sentence *nyathini*. Both are in the EL, Dholuo. This is a clear case of contrast in the two system morpheme and the morpheme frequency criterion in the identification of the matrix language and the embedded language in a sentence.

4.4.3   Linguistic Levels of Diffusion in Dholuo/ Kiswahili Code switching

The study reveals that Dholuo employs several strategies to nativize unnatural non-canonic syllable structure: epenthetic vowel insertion, extrasyllabic consonant or vowel deletion, devocalization of unnatural vowel consequences addition of a final vowel and in some cases consonants clusters may be tolerated. Dholuo has the canonical syllable structure of CV, V, CVC, and VC syllable types. The syllable therefore may dominate a single vowel, a combination of a consonant and a vowel, a consonant followed by avowel and then another consonant or a vowel plus a consonant. This language therefore does not allow consonant sequences at the syllable level.

4.4.3 (a) Phonological Diffusion of Kiswahili loanwords into Dholuo Language

Phonological process whose motivation is in the syllable structure involves the insertion of segments. Speakers can take foreign words and modify their syllable structure by inserting or deleting segments to produce sequence with syllable structure consistent with that of their language. This is reffered to as resyllabification or vowel insertion. It is exemplified by the following examples from our corpus

Kiswahili	Dholuo
Mpira (Ball)	Mipira
Mkate (bread)	Mikate
Mkono (hand)	Mikono

Final vowel deletion also occurs to conform to the Dholuo structure. The following examples are given to exemplify this

Kiswahili	Dholuo
Jikoni (Kitchen)	Jikon
Sabuni (soap)	Sabun
Chapati	Chapat
Gazeti (magazine)	Gaset
Karatasi (paper)	kalatas
Bakuli (bowl)	Bakul

(ii)Integration of /ʃ/

The / ʃ / does not exist in Dholuo. When it comes into the language through borrowing /codeswitching, it is integrated as / ʃ / as exemplified in the following example:

Swahili   Dholuo

Dirisha (window)   Dirisa (window)

Shindana (compete)   Sindana (compete)

Shida (problem)   Sida (problem)

The plausibility of the derivation arises from the fact that /s/ is the nearest phoneme perceptively, so it is only natural that / ʃ / should be rendered as /s/ in the loan word.
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(iii) Integration of /z/

The /z/ sound is not present in Dholuo phoneme inventory. When it comes into the language, it is integrated as its voiceless counterpart /s/ as seen as exemplified in the examples below;

Swahili   **Dholuo**

Meza (Table)   Mesa (Table)

Mandazi (Buns)   Mandas (Buns)

Pazia (Curtain)   Pasia (Curtain)

Gazeti   (Newspaper)   Gaset (Newspaper)

Zambarao (strawberry)   Sambarao (strawberry)

4.4.3 (b) Semantic Diffusion of Kiswahili loanwords into Dholuo Language

In semantic diffusion, some linguistic change first manifests itself in a few words and then gradually spreads through the vocabulary of the language. This can take place when a phoneme is modified in a subset of the lexicon, and spreads gradually to other lexical items.

In our corpus, it was noted that the lexical items incorporated into Dholuo from Kiswahili having the ccv structure are always modified by inserting a vowel between the double consonants. This however brings confusion to Kiswahili native speakers as some of the lexical items which have been incorporated in this manner assume plural meaning in Kiswahili while in Dholuo they are treated as singulars. In our corpus, this phenomem is exemplified using the following examples:

Kiswahili   **Dholuo**

Mpira (a ball)   Mipira (a ball)

Mkate (a loaf of bread)   Mikate/mukate (a loaf of bread)

Mkono (a hand)   Mikono (a hand)

Mguu (a leg)   Miguu (a leg)

Mshahara (a salary)   Misara (a salary)

Mpera (a guava)   Mapera (a guava)

Embe (embe)   Mawembe (a mango)

Chungwa (orange)   Machunga (an orange)

4.4.3 (c) Syntactic Diffusion of Kiswahili Loanwords

Due to typological and structural similarities between Dholuo and Kiswahili, there wasn't much interference in the grammatical structures of the Dholuo language. The two languages both being agglutinative in nature did not exhibit any infringement in the grammar of either language. In question formation, the syntactical structure is maintained.This is exemplified is sentence 43 of our corpus.

In sentence 43 *To* **wahubiri** *matindegi bende wacho adier?*

Na wahubiri wa siku hizi wanaweza kusema ukweli*?*

*(*But do these current preachers really tell the truth*?)*

In verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs, wherever they co-occurred with a determiner or a modifier there was always post modification of the major word class in both languages.

4.4.3 (d) Morphological Diffusion

In linguistics, morphology refers to the identification, analysis and description of the structure of a given language's morpheme and other linguistic units such as rootwords, parts of speech intonation and stress e.t.c. Dholuo and Kiswahili are both agglutinating languages i.e their words tend to have lots of easily separable morphemes. At the morphological level it was established that verbs acquired from Kiswahili had Dholuo affixes attached to them to create possessives, person, plurals and negatives etc. The following examples exemplifies affixation to a Kiswahili word to show possessiveness

Kiswahili   **Dholuo**

Picha (photograph)   Picha (photograph)

In this word picha (photograph) Dholuo language has added suffixes to the root word to make different word showing the possessive aspect different from the original one:

63

Pichana—my photo

Pichani ----Your photo

Pichane—   his /her photos

Pichawa-----our photo

Pichagi------ Their photo

Gari (vehicle)   Gari (vehicle)

                                                       Gacha----my vehicle

                                                       Gachgi---Their vehicle

                                                       Gachu---your vehicle

4.4.4   Influence of Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching on Dholuo Language

Language contact occurs when two or more languages interact. When speakers of different languages interact closely, it is typical for those languages to influence each other. Interaction between languages results in some characteristics of each of these languages influencing each other. However the dominant language will often have more effect on the minority language and vice versa. In our study it was noted that there was increased activation in forward switching but not backward switching i.e it was noted that there are many Kiswahili vocabulary items that were incorporated in Dholuo language as opposed to Dholuo vocabulary items being incorporated in the Kiswahili language.

The influence of Swahili can be seen in areas such as grammar and phonology in Dholuo. The most remarkable influence is in the lexicon. There are many Swahili words in today's Dholuo, especially those spoken by the working class urbanites. Some Swahili words are used as a result of unconscious code –mixing, but so far used as new vocabulary loaned from Kiswahili. This trend points to a language shift that will certainly grow stronger given the status of Kiswahili in Kenya. Kiswahili has been granted the status of both official and national language. This means that Kiswahili can be used in all domains. As a result of expanding domains where Swahili can be used, the linguistic influence can be easily recognized in ethnic languages throughout Kenya, even in the villages. The most remarkable influence of Swahili is observable in the lexicon. Many Swahili words have crept into today's Dholuo, especially in the urbanites speech. Some of these words are used because of unconscious code-mixing i.e mixing two or more languages in their speech. However, in

many cases, the Swahili words come into use as new Dholuo Vocabulary .These loanwords from Swahili can be divided into three groups.

4.4.4 (a) Loanwords representing completely new objects and ideas

As a natural result of larger changes taking place in Dholuo Society, new objects and concepts are being introduced into the Dholuo community with new words to express them. These loanwords are exemplified by the following examples from our corpus.

Kiswahili	Dholuo
Sabuni (Soap)	Sabun (Soap)
Saa (Clock)	Sa (Clock)
Mkate (Bread)	Mikate (Bread)
Mpira (Ball)	Mipira (Ball)

4.4.4 (b) Loanwords describing objects or concepts that may not be completely new, but providing new expressions.

In the previous subsection dealing with cases of loan words for new expressions, the original Dholuo words and Swahili loanwords are both used more or less independently of one replacing the other because the relationship between original Dholuo and Swahili loans are in complementary distribution. However, there are examples where Swahili loanwords are causing word replacement. Today, it is very common for people in Luo community to use Swahili loanwords where genuine words exist in Dholuo. The speakers simply alter the sounds of the Swahili words to match the Dholuo phonology system. This phenomena is exemplified by the following examples in our data:

Kiswahili	Dholuo
Jikoni (kitchen)	Jikon (kitchen)
Chumvi (salt)	Chumbi (salt)
Kioo (mirror)	Kioo (mirror)
Ndoo (pail)	Ndoo (pail)
Uwezo (ability)	Oweso (ability)

4.4.4 (c) Functional words

Functional words are being borrowed from Swahili. These loaned function words are becoming even more deeply rooted in the Dholuo language than content words. The prepositions, conjunctions or adverbs listed do not exist in original Dholuo. In this sense loaned function words are categorized in "loan words for new expressions. This is exemplified by the following examples in our data:

Kiswahili	**Dholuo**
Halafu (and then)	Halafu (and then)
Chapuchapu (quickly)	Chap chap (quickly)
Haraka haraka (Very quickly)	araka araka (Very quickly)

4.4.4 (d) Loanwords and pronunciation

When Kiswahili words come into contact with Dholuo, generally the pronunciation of those words changes to conform to the Dholuo phonological system. This is exemplified by the following data from our corpus

Kiswahili	**Dholuo**
Mandazi (buns)	Mandas (buns)
Meza (table)	Mesa (table)
Pazia (curtain)	Pasia (curtain)

As the use of Swahili becomes more wide spread, many Swahili loanwords are increasingly used with no change in pronunciation. It is difficult to say whether Dholuo speakers are unconsciously code switching Swahili words, or are consciously using them as loanwords.However, many Swahili words found in Dholuo now are pronounced just as they are.

4.5. Conclusion

This chapter focused on the identification and description of the structures of utterances in Dholuo /Kiswahili code switching with particular reference to the applicability of the MLF model to the analysis of the code switched sentences. The chapter generally identified, described and then analysed data using the MLF model laying emphasis on the establishment of the significant and relevance to the MLF model to Dholuo/ Kiswahili code switched data. It has established that morpheme order principle under the matrix language hypothesis has the strongest support from the data. The system morpheme principle and the morpheme frequencycriterion too has support from the corpus though were found in some isolated circumstances to clash in the identification of the matrix language versus the embedded language in the corpus.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Summary

This study set to out to analyse the morphosyntactic structures of utterances in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching and to determine the extent to which the MLF model is adequate in the analysis of such data. The study used the MLF model to analyse intrasentential code switching data from Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching data. The study hypothesized that the principle and the tenets of the model would be applicable to Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching data and that Dholuo would be the matrix language in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching.

Evidence attested in our corpus of structure of utterances in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching shows that noun phrases are realized virtually at all the three constituents (i.e. the ML Islands, EL Islands and ML+EL constituents) though with varying constraints. However, they are more likely to occur as single morphemes in the EL.

With verbs, the realization of the verb either as ML or EL in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching is dependent on the constituent area in which it is realized. Where the verb is in an Island constituent, ML or EL it occurs in the respective language of the Island constituent that is the main verb will be in EL or ML if it occurs in EL Island and ML Island respectively. On the other hand, whenever the verb phrase was part of the ML+EL constituent the verb occurred in the EL although it was inflected to agree with tense and aspect of the constituent. It is also important to note that in the data, whenever a main verb occurred in the ML+EL constituent it took the morphological structure of the host language thus portraying the agglutinative nature of Dholuo language. However, the auxiliary verbs in ML+EL constituent in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching according to our corpus contradicts with that of the main verb.

Realizations of adjectives in the ML and EL Islands too were in the language of the Islands. They follow the word order of the respective Islands i.e. Dholuo word order for Dholuo Islands and Kiswahili word order for Kiswahili Islands. In ML+EL constituents, realizations

of adjectives were not very regular in our corpus. It was realized in some ML+EL constituents as an EL while in others as an ML.

Adverbs had the most unique behaviour in our entire corpus. While nouns, verbs and adjectives were realized as a matrix language or embedded language both in the Islands and ML+EL constituents, adverbs always occurred in the matrix language morphemes in the ML+EL constituents.

Using the frequency based criterion for matrix language identification, Dholuo was identified as the matrix language. There were a total of 518 morphemes out of which 290 were from Dholuo language representing 55.98% while Kiswahili had 228 morphemes representing 44.02%. At individual sentence level 30 sentences out of the 50 sentence representing 60% had more Dholuo morphemes than those of Kiswahili and therefore had Dholuo as the matrix language and Kiswahili as the embedded language. 201 sentences representing 38% of the total number of the sentences had more Kiswahili morphemes than Dholuo and therefore had Kiswahili as the matrix language. Only 12 sentences had equal numbers of morphemes from the participating languages representing only 2.3%.

Our corpus had a total of 38 ML+EL constituents. Of all these ML+EL constituents, the morpheme order was that of the matrix language always and the EL morpheme always realized as an insertion where the frame of the matrix language, in terms of the word order was pre-established and the EL morpheme just inserted to fill a vacuum. In virtually all the cases of the ML+EL, the EL was a content morpheme. A number of these 38 ML+EL constituents also strongly supported the system morpheme principle. It was only in two sentences out of the total fifty where there were instances when the system morpheme clashed with the morpheme frequency criterion in the matrix language identification.
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The study also set to find out the linguistic diffusion that takes place between languages used in code switching and also strived to determine the extent to which Dholuio language has been influenced by Kiswahili as a result of code switching.

 On diffusion it was established that since the respondents were first Dholuo speakers, much of the diffusion was observed to be happening on the Kiswahili language as most of the

words which were incorporated into Dholuo from Kiswahili tended to acquire Dholuo structure and pronunciation although at the syntactic level there wasn't much activity because Dholuo and Kiswahili have same typological structure. So the two languages mapped onto each other without causing any structural interference.
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 At the phonological level it was established that speakers take foreign words and modify their syllable structure by either deletion or insertion of syllable segments to produce sequences with syllable structure consistent with that of Dholuo language.

At the semantic level it was noted that during diffusion, the lexical items incorporated into Dholuo language from Kiswahili bearing the CCV structure are always modified through vowel insertion, this however brings some confusion to the native speakers of Kiswahili as some of the lexical items which have been incorporated in this manner assume plural meaning in Kiswahili while in Dholuo they are treated as singulars.

At the morphological level it was established that nouns acquired from Kiswahili had affixes attached to them to create possessive nouns

5.2 Conclusion from the findings

Using Primary Data collected from naturally occurring conversations, the study identified and described the morphosyntactic structures of utterances in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching; the study also tested the principle and hypotheses of the MLF model to Dholuo/Kiswahili code switches. The results of the analysis point to a very strong support for the model save for a very isolated case.

There was a strong support for all the morpheme order principle in the data. In all the ML+EL constituents, the matrix language word order took precedence. This is what is predicted by the morpheme order principle.

The system morpheme principle too was equally strongly supported by our data. In our corpus, all the system morphemes in ML+EL constituent that signal system relations were all ML system morpheme. There were however instances when there were system morphemes from ML and EL in ML+EL constituent. In such cases where there were system morphemes from both the matrix language and the embedded language, only the matrix language system morpheme had grammatical relations external to the lexical item (signalling agreement). This

supports the hypothesis that all active system morphemes are from only one of the participating languages in code switching, the matrix language (Myers-scotton 1993b)

Finally, the frequency criterion proved very effective in the matrix language versus embedded language identification in Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching. The frequency criterion states that the language with the highest number of participating morphemes constitutes the matrix language for the data collected. At the individual sentence level, Dholuo had more morphemes in more sentence than Kiswahili. The same applied even as we consider the total number of Dholuo morphemes against those of Kiswahili in our overall corpus. As mentioned before, counting was based on the individual words and not the actual morphemes.

According to Myers-Scotton, the mother tongue is more often the language identified as the matrix language. On the same account, we hypothesized that in this study, Dholuo, being the mother tongue of the participants in the study would be the matrix language. This turned out to be the case. This confirms that the practice of code switching has not affected much the place and dominance of Dholuo among its native speakers and therefore does not face much threat of neutralization or relegation due to code switching. From the findings and subsequent discussions, it is justifiable to conclude that the MLF model is relevant, significant and effective in the analysis of Dholuo/Kiswahili code switching data since the major principle or tenets of the model can be accounted for successfully by the model.

There was however some very insignificant instances where the system morpheme principle conflicted with the frequency based criterion in the matrix language identification. It is noteworthy to point out that from the entire corpus of fifty complete code switched sentences only two sentences had such instances where the system morpheme principle and the frequency based criterion conflicted with the matrix language identification. Both of them had Kiswahili as the matrix language and Dholuo as the embedded language. This evidently brings to the fore the issue of the MLF model. Myers-Scotton proposes that the model is for intrasentential code switching analysis. She however clarifies that the individual sentences used in the analysis must be based on a discourse sample. This is probably the weakness point of this model according to the findings. She however partially captured this when discussing the concept of turnover when she said that in the overall discourse sample, one

71

language will be identified as the matrix language in which for our case it would be Dholuo. Basing my reasoning on this argument I was reluctant to use this to criticize this model.

On diffusion it was established that diffusion of the two languages was one sided with the embedded language having many lexical items being incorporated in the Dholuo language and almost no Luo lexical item being incorporated in the Kiswahili language at all the linguistic levels that were looked at this in this study. In our case it was established that there were so many Kiswahili lexical items which were incorporated in the Dholuo language and this happened at all the linguistic levels.

On influence it was established that Kiswahili, because of its status as both national and official language has infiltrated many of the ethnic languages and Dholuo is no exception. So much of the influence is felt at the semantic level. There are so many new items which have been introduced into Dholuo from Kiswahili and they have retained their Kiswahili names which at times have slightly been modified a little to suit the structural appearance of Dholuo language. Despite the great influence that Kiswahili is exerting on the Dholuo language, it is noteworthy that Dholuo is still standing strong among its native speakers.

From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the MLF model is significant in the analysis of Dholuo/Kiswahili intrasentential code switching and to this end; Myers-Scotton argument of its universality holds water. This conclusion is made on the basis of findings of earlier studies some of which challenged the universality of the MLF theory. We also conclude basing on the findings of the study that Dholuo stands strong in the practice of code switching.

5.3 Implicatioidn of the study
Language carries the identity of a speech community and by compelling the use of only one dominant and "token" language- English or Kiswahili- Kenya is pushing ethnic languages to extinction as people are drawn to speak the perceived languages of influence and affluence. From the observation made on the collected data, Kiswahili is really posing a threat to the ethnic languages and steps should taken to preserve these ethnic languages through well laid procedures.

5.4 Recommendations for further studies.

For purposes of further studies on MLF model, the researcher has come up with the following recommendations.

1) More studies should be done on this model using different sets of languages in code switching conversations as this will go a long way to shed greater light on the strength and weaknesses of the model.

2) More studies to be done to establish why people code switch at all.

3) Studies should also be done to establish how diffusion of languages involved in code switching occurs i.e does the diffusion occurs proportionately in the two languages or does one of the languages diffuse more than the other and why?

4) Studies should be done to establish whether a language could be facing any threats of relegation among its native speakers due to the practice of code switching

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

STUDY SAMPLES OF DHOLUO/KISWAHILI CODE SWITCHED SENTENCES

1. *To* **ajali** *marach morono timore e* **barabara kubwa** *madhi* Kakamega.

Some bad accident had happened on the main road to Kakamega.

2. *Iparo ni* **ukimtukana mwenzako hivyo** *to koro itek ndi*?

   (Do you think that abusing your colleague in that manner proves your strength?)

3. *An ng'ama* **mwaminifu** *makiora to nyaka aduogi* **mwalimu**.

   (I am a trustworthy so if you send me then I must come back.)

4. Sabun mar logoni to onge kata **povu** mandha, **bei yake** *ema ong'aw malo*.

   (This hand washing soap does not even have any lather; it's only its price which is very

   high).

5. *Nyathino kwelo marach manyaka ng'iye mana* **kwa makini** *sechete*.

   (That child steals so much that you have to watch him keenly all the times.)

6. *Otieno to pok o***tembelea** *a, koro kik o***babaika**

   (Otieno has not visited me so he need not worry.)

7. *Ok anyal amini ng'ama* **kiuka haki za watoto** *kamano*.

   (I can't trust in someone who abuses the rights of children.)

8. *Nyathino* **amekuwa na kesi nyingi za wizi** *ma nochunowa mondo wa***wachishae** **cheo**

   chake kama kiranja mkuu wa shule.

   (That child has been involved in so many theft cases that we have been forced to relieve

   him of the post of the school head prefect.)

9. **Hiyo ndiyo maana walimu** *ema thothgi o***endelea** *e gwen'ng*.

   (That is why most teachers are the ones who have developed in the villages.)

10. *Wek* **jifanya ombaomba** *ema omiyo ji mang'eny ochayi*.

   (Stop being such a beggar, that's why people do not respect.)

11. *Onego obed ni* **mwalimu mkuu** *gi* **naibu***ne tim mana tij ofis* **wawache kazi ya kufunza**

    kwa walimu wengine.

    (It would be better if the head teacher and the deputy were to do only office work and

    leave classroom teaching to the other teachers.)

12 *Osekweri ni keto chumbi mang'eny* **kwenye chakula** *biro* ***dhuru afya****ni* **lakini**

    unaendelea tu**, kwani hujali maisha yako**?

(You have been warned that putting too much salt in your food will affect your health and

you are not taking it seriously, why or don't you take your life seriously?)

13. *Nyithindogo ne* **hemehema** *ban'g ringo matek.*

   (Those children were breathing heavily after running speedily.)

14 *Nadhi e* **mkutano** *Kibos* **kwa niaba ya mwalimu mkuu.**

   (I attended a meeting at Kibos on behalf of the headteacher.)

15. **Katiba** *manyienni ber nikech omiyo ng'ato* ka ng'ato **haki** *ne.*

   (This new constitution is good because it has given everybody his right.)

16. *Ok ahero poroj*o *mang'eny.*

   (I don't like nonsense)

17. **Kama meno inamuuma** *bas nonengo odhi* e ospital **kabla ya kuja shuleni.**

   (If he has toothache, then he should have gone to the hospital before coming to school.)

18. Malaria *ni ber ber inyalo thiedhi*, **hii ebola inauwa haraka sana na haina tiba**.

   (Malaria is better because it is treatable; this ebola kills much faster and has no cure.)

19. *Koro eka a***fuatilia** *wachno, ondik andika baruano oter* eposta.

   (Now is when am following the issue, let him just write the letter and take it to the post office.)

20. **Shuleni hapa** *ok wa***badilisha***ga* alama ne *nyithindo nikech* **pumbaza** *giga.*

   (Here at school we never alter marks for students as this makes them more foolish.)

21. *Ndik andika* **maneno machache** *e* **baruwa***no*, **hawa wazazi hawana wakati** *mar somo* **hadithi ndefu ndefu** *go.*

   (Just write a few words in that letter, these parents have no time to read those long stories)

22. *Awinjo ni isetieko somo manyaka amosi mana gi* **heshima** *mang'eny.*

   (I hear you are through with your studies that I must just greet with much respect.)

23. *Kata Muma bende wacho ni* **wakumbushwe tu** *kata ging'eyo kamano.*

   (Even the Bible says that they should be reminded even if they were aware.)

24. *Pod an gi* **shughuli** *mang'eny koreka dwa dhi dala.*

   (I still have many things to do thereafter I will go home)

25. **Mtambo** *ni nyalo tiyo kata* **kwa zaidi ya dakika hamsin**i.

   (This machine can work even up to fifty minutes.

26. *Asewinjo* **watangazaji wengi** *kaketho* Kiswahili *marach.*

   (I have heard so many broadcasters use very ungrammatical Kiswahili.)

27. *Jopuonjgo to be o***zidi gi kwayo** pesa *mar penj ma kila mara.*

(Those teachers are too much with their never ending demands for exam money.)

28. **Wachezaji** *mag tim mar* Gor Mahia *manyocha tugo* **shingo upande wamefurushwa wote.**

(All the Gor Mahia players who were not committed to the team have all been sent packing.)

29. *Thoth nyithindo ma tiyo matek e klas* **hawapendi** **kucheza na wenzao uwanjani**.

   (Most of these bright children do not enjoy playing in the field with other fellow pupils.)

30. *Kidwaro* **maisha** *maber* **ya mbeleni** *to nyaka isom asoma matek.*

   (If you want to lead a comfortable life later in life then you must just study hard)

31. **Si vizuri** *bedo mana gi paro maricho* **kuhusu watu wote**.

   (It's not right for you to have only ill-feelings towards others.)

32. *Nyako maberno to orwako* **nguo chafu** *kamano nang'o?*

   (Why is that beautiful girl wearing such a dirty dress?)

33. Nyathi moro amora madwaro **maisha** maber **mbeleni** *to sani ema nyaka osom asoma matek.*

   (Any child who would want better life in future must just work hard now)

34. *Kar tedonu mandas gi chae to* **afadhali niwapikie chakula tu** *nikech gigo don'g mangeny* **na sina watu kwa nyumba**.

   (Instead of making for you people tea and buns I would rather prepare for you people some food otherwise I will be left with a lot of tea and i have no people in the house)

35. *Wechegi kata i***puuza***gi to pareni ginyalo luori bang'e.*

   (However much may you ignore these issues later on they may come back to haunt you.)

36. *Samane ne adhi e osiptalcha* **sikupanga laini na hao watu wengine** *ne ok o***furahia.**

   (That time Iwent to the hospital I didn't line up and those other people weren't amused.)

37. *Sani ema ko***tangaza n**i *o***wania kiti cha ugavana** *to jogo otieke.*

   (If he dares to announce now that he wants to contest the gorvenor's seat then those people will finish him)

38. *Ok a***amini** *ng'ato nyalo paro kamano* **wacha kuthubutu kuitenda**.

   (I do not believe anybody can think of such a thing let a lone think of carrying it out.)

39. **Kwa nini unamringia hivyo?** *Ka ok idwa konye to ok inyise.*

   (Why are you treating him like that? If you do not want to assist him then just tell him.)

40. Miguna Miguna **en moto wa kuotewa kwa mbali,** *kikete buti to odwanyi marach.*

   (Miguna Miguna is like fire; warm yourself from far otherwise if you bring him close he

can really mess you up.)

41. *An ok anyal* **vumilia upuuzi kama huo afadhali** *gino ema koro obed.*

    (I cannot withstand such nonsense, I would rather let go that thing.)

42. **Nimewahi kuishi Mombasa**, *to kuro liet marach.*

    (I have been to Mombasa and Mombsas is really hot.)

43. *To be* **wahubiri** *matindegi be wacho adier?*

    (But do these present preachers really tell the truth?)

44. **Kila kitu** *olal nikech in*.

    (Everything is lost because of you.)

45. *Ng'a maduon'g ok onengo obed* **mzembe** *kamano.*

    (A grown up should not be lazy like that.)

46. **Baada ya kuona mpira** *to ng'ma dwa dhi* **jivinjari** *to odhi adhiya.*

    (After watching football then whoever wants to go and relax is free todo so.

47. *Nyathino kwelo manyake ng'iye mana* **kwa makini** *sechete.*

    (That child steals so much that he has to be watched carefully.)

48. *Samane ne adhi nyiewo* **sukari** e **duka nilisahau kubeba pesa to mwenye duka alielewa** *momiya amiya* **sukari.**

    (When Iwent to the shop to buy sugar I forgot to carry money but the shopkeeper
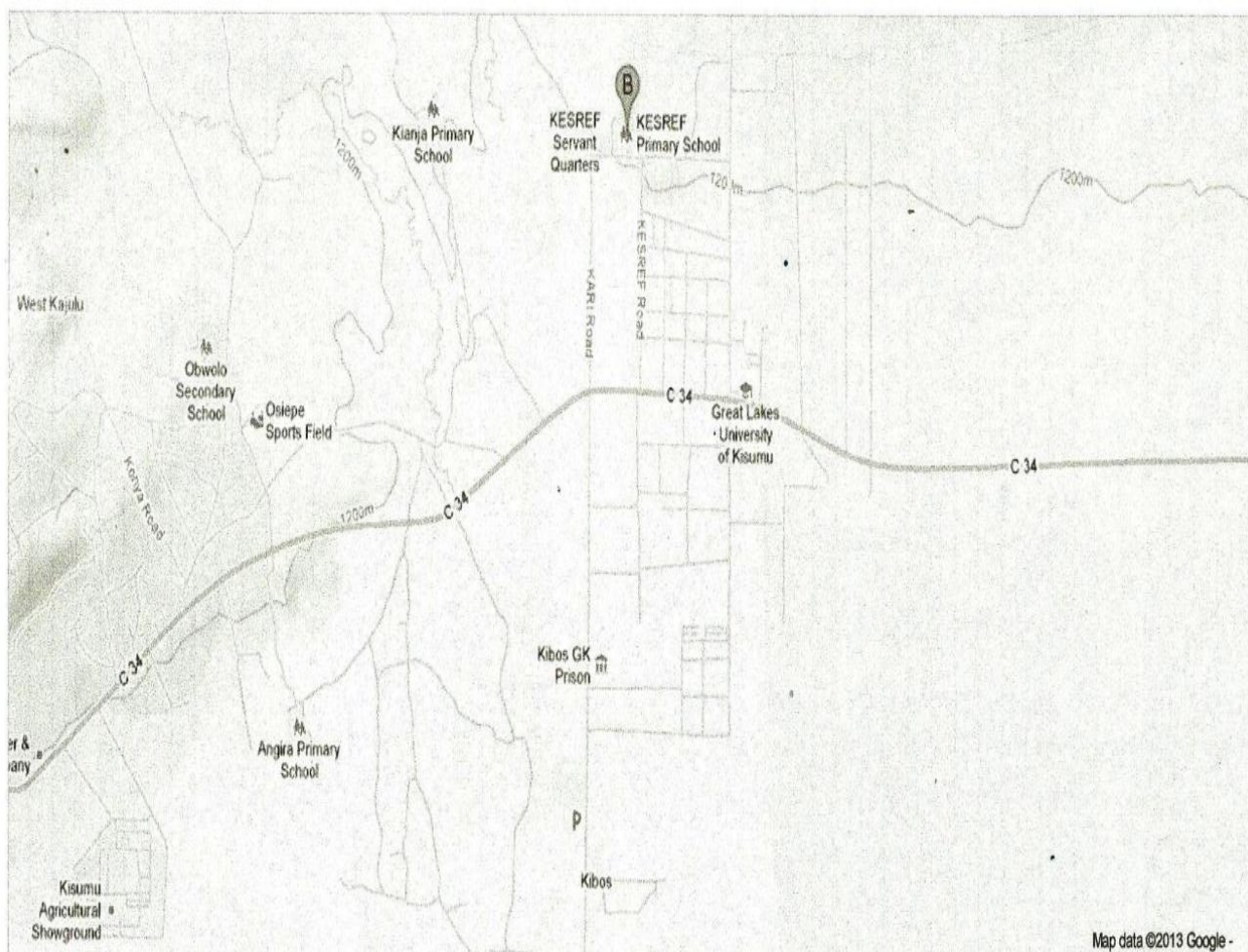
    understood and just gave me the sugar.)

49. **Wananchi pia** *bende* **changia ufisadi** *matimore* Kenya *kae.*

    (Even the citizens also contribute to corruption that is taking place here in Kenya.

50. **Wewe bado unarandaranda** *to jowadu to notieko tijegi* **kitambo sana**.

    (You are still roaming a round while the others finished that work a long time ago.)

Appendix 2

Map of Winam Division, Nyangeta zone in Kibos base showing schools where data was collected.