# MORPHOPHONEMIC CHANGES OF BORROWED WORDS FROM ENGLISH TO OLUKABARASI DIALECT OF WESTERN KENYA

BY

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#### DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

#### **DECLARATION**

This is my original work and it has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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### RECOMMENDATIONS

This M.A Thesis has been submitted with our approval as University supervisors

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September, 2006

# **DEDICATION**

To Francis and Marlyn who belong to me and to whom I belong.

To my beloved mother, Mrs. Nelly Idaya Mahero, father Mr. Godfrey Mahero, Father Johanness Eko.

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#### ABSTRACT

This study set out to investigate how Olukabarasi borrows words from English and yet the two differ widely in terms of phonemic inventories. The fact that borrowing of words from English to Olukabarasi requires some form of morphophonemic adaptation motivated the study. In addition to this, very few studies have been conducted on this dialect of the Luyia language and none has been done on borrowing. The study identified and described the morphophonemic changes that the loan words from English go through to fit into Olukabarasi speech system and established morphophonemic rules that account for the changes. The study adopted Natural Generative Phonology (NGP) as the theoretical framework. Judgemental sampling procedure was used to arrive at the fields most affected. Random sampling was also used to get the intended sample from the population in the selected areas. Eighty speakers of Olukabarasi from Malava Division. Kakamega District, were interviewed. Ten respondents were interviewed to give Olukabarasi borrowed words from English, from each selected field including Education, Administration Police, Health, Mechanics, Commerce, Building and Construction, Religion and Domestic. An interview schedule was used in data collection. The loan words were also recorded on a magnetic tape during articulation for the sake of analysis to get a clear picture of their morphophonemic structure. The loan words were then transcribed for morphophonemic analysis. The data was then segmentally analyzed using the generative framework. It was also evident that there were a lot of consonantal changes like consonant insertion, consonant deletion and consonant substitution among others. There were also vowel changes that were observed such as vowel deletion, vowel substitution, and vowel insertion. No single loan word was found to maintain its original morphophonemic structure when it moved from English to Olukabarasi in both singular and plural form. The study contributes to linguistic scholarship in the area of Olukabarasi morphophonemics. The knowledge acquired could also be utilized by institutions of higher learning and translation centres. It was recommended that more studies like the current study should be conducted in the rest of the remaining dialects of Oluluyia to give a clear picture of how Oluluyia borrows words from English, and also the Suprasegmental level should be considered.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE	PAGE	i
DECL	ARATION AND RECOMMENDATION	ii
COPY	RIGHT	iii
DEDI	CATION	iv
ACKN	NOWLEDGMENT	V
ABST	RACT	vi
TABL	E OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST (	OF TABLES	X
CHAI	PTER ONE	1
1.0	INTRODUCTION	
1.1	Preamble	
1.2	Background to the Study	
1.3	Statement of the Problem	
1.4	Objectives of the Study	
1.5	Hypothesis of the Study.	
1.6	Significance of the Study	
1.7	Scope and Limitation	
1.8	Definition of Terms	
CHAI	PTER TWO	
2.0	LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	
2.1	Introduction	
2.2		
2.3	Morphophonemic Studies on African Languages  Other Studies Related to Languages Contact and Romaning	
2.4	Other Studies Related to Languages Contact and Borrowing	
2.4	2.4.1 Olukabarasi Vowels	
	2.4.2 Olukabarasi Consonants 2.4.3 The Noun in Olukabarasi Dialect.	
2.5		
4.0	English Consonants	
2.6	2.5.1 English Vowels	
4.0	THEOLEGICAL FRAMEWORK	25

CHAI	PTER TH	IREE	29
3.0	RESEA	RCH METHODOLOGY	29
3.1	Introduc	ction	29
3.2	Locatio	n of the Study	29
3.3	Target 1	Population	29
3.4	Samplin	ng Procedures.	29
3.5	Instrum	ents for data collection.	29
3.6		w Schedule	
3.7	Record	ing	30
3.8	Procedi	ures for Data Analysis and Interpretation.	30
3.9	Data Co	ollection and Field Experience.	31
CHA	PTER F	OUR	32
4.0	RESUL	TS AND DISCUSSION	32
4.1	Introdu	ection	32
	4.1.0	Changes of Olukabarasi Loan Words from English	32
	4.1.1	Consonantal Changes	32
	4.1.2	Consonant Strengthening	32
	4.1.3	Consonant Deletion.	33
	4.1.4	Consonant Substitution	
	4.1.5	Consonant Nasalization.	37
4.2	Vowel	Changes in Olukabarasi Loan Words from English	37
	4.2.1	Vowel Insertion	37
	4.2.2	Vowel Deletion	38
	4.2.3	Vowel Substitution	39
4.3	Singul	ar and Plural Markers in Olukabarasi Borrowed Words	41
	4.3.1	Class (1) Prefix Marker, Omu-Aba.	41
	4.3.2	Class (2) Prefix Marker, Omu-emi.	
	4.3.3	Class (3) Prefix Marker, Eli-Ama.	42
	4.3.4	Class (4) Prefix Marker, Eshi-Ofu.	43
	4.3.5	Class (5) Prefix Marker, Eli(n)-tsi(n)	43

CHA	APTER FIVE	47
CO	NCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	47
5.1	Introduction	47
5.2	Conclusions.	47
5.3	Recommendation.	48
REI	FERENCES	49
APF	PENDIX 1	52
APF	PENDIX 2: Data Transcription	62
API	PENDIX 3: Map of Research Area	74

# LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.4.1a:	Olukabarasi vowel inventory	15
Table 2.4.1b:	Olukabarasi vowels (Long and short)	16
Table 2.4.2:	Olukabarasi consonant inventory	17
Table 2.5:	English consonants	23
Table2.5.1a:	English vowels	24
Table 2.5.1b:	English vowels	25

#### CHAPTER ONE

#### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Preamble

This chapter gives a description of the basis of the research. It features the issues under investigation including the statement of the problem, the hypotheses, the aims, scope and limitations of the study and an explanation of the conceptualization of the terms used in the study.

# 1.2 Background to the Study

Olukabarasi is a dialect of Luyia, a language spoken mostly in the Western Province of Kenya. Oluluyia have 17 dialects, according to Were (1967). Olukabarasi is spoken mainly in Kabras area, Malava Division, Kakamega District, Western province. This dialect of Oluluyia and English have been in contact for a long time. This can be traced to the coming of the missionaries and colonial administrators in the early nineteenth century.

The Abakabarasi who went to mission schools learnt English to help in the process of evangelization. Later, the schools such as Kaimosi Girls and Kamsinga Boys Secondary School, which were started by colonialists, also encouraged the learning of English. English was also used in the training of vocational jobs, which were emphasized by the colonial government. After independence, the Ominde Commission (1964) recommended English to be the language of instruction from the primary school level of education onwards. Massive borrowing of lexical items from English occurred as the learning of English became more formal. This was as a result of the need for new knowledge and the opportunities that English language had to offer.

The borrowing was not only enhanced by the learning system but also by the advancement of apprentice jobs most of which were semi- skilled crafts. The Olukabarasi lacked words to cover the Western materials and values that Olukabarasi speakers learnt from English and so they borrowed lexicon from English. The fact that the borrowed words have become part and parcel of Olukabarasi dialect lexicon and sound system motivated the present study. English language and Olukabarasi dialect are different in terms of phonemic inventories and morphological structure. For example, Jones (1960) notes English language has a total of twenty one vowels, twelve pure vowels and nine diphthongs while Khasandi (1996) reports that Olukabarasi dialect has five vowels which due to vowel length doubles to ten.

Secondly, the two have different phonological features, for example, Olukabarasi dialect does not have final consonants, Khasandi (1996) reports, while English language does. Khasandi (ibid) reports that while the plural marker of regular nouns in English is in word final position the plural marker in Olukabarasi is in word initial position. It was therefore of linguistic interest to study the various aspects and characteristics of Olukabarasi loan words from English using the prospects of a modern theoretical model. The morphophonemic changes were analyzed using the claims of linguistic change made by Natural Generative Phonology (NGP), which is adopted as a theoretical framework in this study

#### 1.3 Statement of the Problem

Some linguists have viewed borrowing as interference or reproduction of patterns of one language into the other. This is misleading in linguistic study and research. In this view Morphophonemic changes that English words borrowed by Olukabarasi undergo in order to fit into Olukabarasi language structure had not been accounted for. This was a gap in linguistic research.

## 1.4 Objectives of the Study

This study set out to achieve the following specific objectives:

- 1) To identify and describe the morphophonemic changes incurred by words borrowed from English and used in Olukabarasi;
- 2) To formulate morphophonemic rules accounting for the changes that the Olukabarasi borrowed words from English go through to fit into Olukabarasi speech system.

#### 1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

In this study the following research hypotheses were made.

- 1) Loan words from English to Olukabarasi go through morphophonemic changes to fit into Olukabarasi speech system.
- 2) Loan words from English to Olukabarasi are governed by morphophonemic rules.

# 1.6 Significance of the Study

There are a number of reasons that make this study significant. Few studies have been conducted in Olukabarasi. Khasandi (1996) reports that many studies in Oluluyia have tended to concentrate on Olulogooli, Olubukusu and Oluwanga (Ingonga 1990, Sumba1992, Mutonyi 1989) respectively. This study is therefore important in the sense that it contributes to Linguistic scholarship in the area of Olukabarasi Morphophonemics.

It is also important to note that no research had been done on the Morphophonemics of Olukabarasi loan words from English. This study will also be important in supporting formulated tenable claims about universal processes of natural language.

The integration of English words in Olukabarasi will help in explaining some of these processes. This study may therefore provide useful tips to the factors that motivate lexical morphophonemic changes in many languages. The knowledge acquired from this study could be utilized in institutions of higher learning, translation centres and any other institution that is interested in Comparative Linguistics.

# 1.7 Scope and Limitation

Several Levels of language analyses exist including syntactic, discourse, semantic and pragmatic, among others. This study was limited to analyzing the morphophonology of borrowed words from English to Olukabarasi. Words were considered from eight selected fields, including,

Administration Police

Domestic field

Commerce

Education

Health

Motor vehicle mechanics

Religion

Building and construction.

Most of these fields or occupation were chosen on account of Hock (1986)'s report that most easily borrowed words belong to more specialized forms of discourse often referring to technology or other phenomena that requires a good deal of mental and linguistic observation. Only the noun class was considered. Plural and Singular forms of the chosen words were considered. A brief description of Olukabarasi noun class was first given to explicate the general features of this part of speech in the dialect.

There was a lot of noise in some areas where the researcher went to collect data; like the garage and building site. The researcher had to persuade the respondents to move away from the site to a quiet pace but in the same vicinity.

Some of the sounds encountered in the Olukabarasi dialect do not exist in English like the voiced bilabial fricative  $\beta$  and hence the researcher had problems with transcription because most of the comprehensive dictionaries available deal with English sound and transcription. Olukabarasi has no dictionary and so the researcher had to use the information got from the native speakers to transcribe the loan words from English to Olukabarasi.

#### 1.8 Definition of Terms

## Allomorphs

This refers to contextually governed realizations of morphemes. For example, the plural morpheme in English can be realized as /-z /, /-s /, /-iz /.

#### Loan word

This is a word borrowed from one language or dialect and incorporated into another.

# Morphemes

This are units within the word, which signal grammatical meaning, for example, the word "pens" has two morphemes, pen+ plural.

# Morphology

This refers to study of meaningful parts of words; it is concerned with the forms of the words.

# Morphophonology / Morphophonemics

This is the study of phonemic variation which phonemes undergo in combination with one another, e.g. 'hoof' (/hu:f/) has a plural of 'hooves'(/hu:vs/) in English. It is, therefore, the study of phonological structures of morphemes and the permitted combination of morphemes within words in any given language or language variety.

#### Phoneme

This is the smallest distinctive speech sounds relevant to phonemic analysis.

#### **Phonemics**

This is the study of the smallest distinctive speech sounds relevant to phonemic analysis.

#### **Phonetics**

This refers to the scientific study of speech production that embraces not only the constituents and patterns of sound waves but also the means by which the sound waves are generated within the human vocal tract. Phonetics, therefore, gives an account of sounds available for human beings who wish to communicate.

## Phonology

This is the study of speech sounds in a particular language or a variety of language and how they are patterned into words.

#### Segments

These are speech sounds or phonetic units, which occur sequentially in language, including allophones and phonemes.

### Nativization

This is the substitution of the most similar native sounds for foreign segments which does not occur in one's native language, or adjusting the segments of the word to a more acceptable form in the borrowing language to ease pronunciation.

#### Abakabarasi

This refers to the speakers of Olukabarasi dialect of Luyia language.

#### Olukabarasi

This refers to the dialect of Luyia language spoken by the Abakabarasi.

# Ololuyia

This refers to a Bantu language spoken in Western Kenya. It has 17 dialects of which Olukabarasi is one.

#### CHAPTER TWO

#### 2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a survey of written works that bear relevance to this study. It also gives the theoretical framework and brief description of the two languages in the study.

## 2.2 Morphophonemic studies on African languages

There are several scholars who have carried out studies that are related to the current study, especially in terms of the theoretical framework and borrowing in general. Some of the studies reveal the fact that it is impossible to find a language that has not borrowed words from another language. Whiteley (1956:3) reports the following,

--- Care has been taken to avoid the use of new and obscure grammatical items. This is from a conviction that traditional terms are more accurate or more suitable for such a language, but rather from the belief that the majority of those wishing to learn African languages have so hazy an idea about grammatical terms in general that any but the simplest inspire both confusion and fear.

This study, however, found it necessary to consider the fact that any exhaustive linguistic study should include as much data as possible, including what Whiteley calls "new and obscure grammatical items borrowed from other languages."

Khasandi (1996) looks at the tense system of Olukabarasi dialect, but she does not look at the loan words. Khasandi (ibid) is related to this study in that she studies Olukabarasi. The current study uses the Olukabarasi vowel and consonant inventory given by Khasandi (ibid).

Other studies that have been considered and looked at in Oluluyia are Olulogooli, Olubukusu and Oluwanga dialect (Aswani 1995, Sumba 1992 and Mutonyi 1989). Aswani 1995 looks at Marama Phonology. Sumba (1992) looks at the major phonological processes in Olubukusu. However, Sumba (1992) does not consider the loan words at any one time in her investigation. Mutonyi (1989) looks at affixation processes in Olubukusu. Mutonyi's study is purely on morphological aspects and it does not deal with loan words.

More studies done in languages that are genetically related to Oluluyia include research done in Kiswahili by Bakari (1980), the Kikuyu language by Mutahi (1983) and Kitharaka by Mberia (1992). These works are of interest to this study from a theoretical point of view because each one of them uses the postulates of Natural Generative Phonology which the present study also employs. Mutahi (ibid) deals with sound changes and classification of the dialects of South Mount Kenya Region. He puts more emphasis on sound classification and the sound changes that he considers are not based on loan words.

Mberia (1992) looks at a Segmental Morphophonology of Kitharaka noun and verb. His study is closely related to the current study but the current study compares English and Olukabarasi while Mberia (ibid) bases his analysis on Kitharaka. The current study also puts a lot of emphasis on the noun class and studies it in details while Mberia (ibid) puts more emphasis on the verb. Mberia (ibid) is of interest to this study mainly from the theoretical point of view because he uses Natural Generative Phonology which is also employed in the current study.

Kembo (1993), in his paper Grammatical and Phononological Integration of English Loan Words in Dholuo reports the integration of words into another recipient language at two linguistic levels, Grammatical and Phonological level. Kembo (ibid) looks at both segmental and supra segmental levels. He therefore divides his emphasis between the two phonological levels. Since the current study places emphasis on the segmental level only, his study differs from the current study in the sense that it does not analyze the loan words at the supra segmental level. Kembo (ibid) also credits borrowing 'as one of the natural processes of language, which is in line with the current study. He observes that borrowing involves adopting of a foreign word and transforming it to fit in the recipient language. Kembo (ibid) adds that the borrowed words acquire the characteristic phonemic shapes of the recipient language's system to enable the borrowed words participate effectively in the borrowing language, which means that the words borrowed undergo a kind of assimilation and nativization to ease the process of pronunciation. Kembo (ibid) also employs Natural Generative Phonology as a theoretical framework, which is also used in the current study. (Kembo 1993:33) observes the following.

... borrowing is an active and creative process by which foreign words enter another language and participate in the lexical oppositions of the adopting language. Borrowing

therefore involves adoption of a foreign word and transforming it to fit in the phonetic and morphological structure of the new language ... the words acquire the characteristic phonemic and morphemic shapes of the new system to enable them participate effectively, which means that they undergo a kind of assimilation better still nativization.

The current study finds Kembo (ibid)'s idea relevant because it deals with the ways in which words borrowed from a donor language to a recipient language undergo changes to fit in to the recipient language. The definition of borrowing given here by Kembo (ibid) is relevant to the concerns of the current study because Kembo (ibid) appreciates the fact that borrowing of words is a creative and productive process where the words undergo some changes to fit into the recipient language. However, Kembo (ibid) differs from the current study because he deals with Dholuo and majors in suprasegmental features.

# 2.3 Other studies related to language contact and borrowing.

The research also made reference to work and articles that deal with language contact and lexical borrowing. Lexical borrowing is one of the processes that occur naturally among languages. Most studies done on language contact and lexical borrowing tend to show factors that lead to lexical borrowing, which are often social in nature. Hagen (1950) defines borrowing as the attempted reproduction in one language of patterns previously found in another language. This definition is relevant to this study due to the fact that it implies transfer of elements from one language to another, which is the emphasis of the current study. However the current study diverges from the above view because the view does not recognize the fact that the borrowed words undergo changes in order to fit in to the recipient language's morphological and phonological structures. The current study found out that the recipient language does not attempt to reproduce patterns previously found in the donor language but rather the recipient language nativizes the borrowed words to fit in to the language structure of the borrowing language. Hagen (1950)'s definition is one among others, which have led some linguists to view borrowing as a form of interference and so overlooking the positive linguistic and social results of bilingualism and language contact situations.

Thomas (1991) also observes that, "Phonological and Morphological structures of languages differ widely. The borrowing of a word from one language to another requires some form of phonological and morphological adaptation" (p57). This observation was quite relevant to this study considering the fact that English and Olukabarasi, a dialect of the Bantu language Oluluyia, are quite different and far from each other genetically yet they have a relationship of borrowing where Olukabarasi adapts the borrowed words from English, changing the words phonologically and morphologically to fit in Olukabarasi's morphophonemic structure.

It is natural that at one time a language has to borrow lexical items from another language in contact. Appel and Muysken (1987:164) report that it is hard to imagine a language that has not borrowed words from some other languages. This emphasizes the fact that borrowing a word from one language to another is a result of language contact situations. Wardhaugh (1987:17) also notes that when speakers of different languages come in contact with one another there is always a likelihood that one language will spread at the expense of the others. Some scholars such as Hock (1986) have also claimed that languages borrow from others in order to widen their functions in the field of literacy, religion, politics, military, science and technology. (Nehru 1953: 432) reports the following:

I would personally like Hindustani to adopt and assimilate words from English---this is necessary as we lack modern terms, it is better to have well known words rather than evolve new difficult words.

Nehru (ibid) claims that it is easier for a language to borrow words than to evolve new words in order to cover the new items that come with the contact language. This is exactly what Olukabarasi does. In order to give names to the new items that came with English, the Olukabarasi speakers do not evolve new words but borrow words from English and change them to fit in to the Olukabarasi language structure.

The issue of function is always vital whenever borrowing occurs. It is the view of many linguists that borrowing of lexical items enriches the function of the borrowing or recipient language. The lexical borrowing from English to Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia is functional. Nkulu (1985:169) notes that:

--- lexical borrowing is chiefly motivated by two necessities. The necessity for the speakers of the borrowing languages to name novel concepts and objects acquired through contact with a speech community, the language of which has names for the new

items and the necessity for the borrowers to introduce in their language delicate denotative distinctions in semantic fields where the already existing terms are not appropriate enough to capture all the niceties expressed by the donor language.

Nkulu (ibid) also cites the relationship between culture and lexical borrowing. Besides acquiring appropriate linguistic features, loan words also need to be socially acceptable. In addition, he says that whenever there are culture contacts of any sort between the speakers of different languages, speakers will make use of words from other languages to refer to things, processes and ways of behaviour, organization or thinking for which words or phrases were not available or convenient in their own languages. Fishman (1968) defines borrowing as a way of integrating features of one language into another to cater for the missing terms. These features he says are used by monolingual speakers who may know nothing of the language from which such features originated. Fishman (ibid) notes that the description of interference must be distinguished from the analysis of language borrowing. Interference is a feature of parole while borrowing is of langue. Interference (which is sometimes mistaken for borrowing) Fishman (ibid) observes, is individual and contingent but borrowing is collective and systematic. The results of the current study show that the words were systematically borrowed from English and collectively known and used in the same way by all Olukabarasi speakers who were interviewed.

Hock (1986) claims that aspects of linguistic change have received a broad documentation and that such coverage has not been comprehensive and "especially the area of sound change has generally received only a cursory exemplification" Hock (1986:vii).He adds that a comprehensive study of sound change in languages should be limited to one language, dialect or language family. The current study is in line with this observation. This is because the current study considers only one dialect of Oluluyia language although there are seventeen dialects of the same language. The current study gives a comprehensive report of the changes that the loan words from English go through to fit into the Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia language.

Hock (ibid) also reports that the reason for such general coverage is that it could be taken for granted that readers have already studied the linguistic history of at least one language or language family. It could therefore be assumed that they had become familiar with many examples and types of language change, especially sound change. He discourages generalization and the giving of broad perspectives to linguistic change because there are no two language systems that are similar. Language is unique and should be studied independently.

While observing lexical borrowing as an aspect of linguistic change, He asserts that languages and dialects do not exist in a vacuum. There is at least some contact with other languages or dialects. It is only the degree of contact that might differ from one language to another or one dialect to another or from one language to a dialect of another language. Vocabulary or lexical borrowing is a common result of linguistic contact, Hock (ibid). Such borrowing brings changes to the borrowed words; when they get into the recipient language. This view is seen to be in line with the current study since it was observed during the research that the contact between English and Olukabarasi lead to lexical borrowing. The words that were borrowed from English to Olukabarasi underwent changes to make them fit into Olukabarasi speech system as outlined in chapter four and appendix two of this thesis.

The current study was mainly interested in the words used in technical and specialized fields such as Health, Education, Mechanics e.t.c as indicated in the scope of this study (chapter one). : Hock (1986:421)'s observation is supportive of this view when he notes that,

...It's widely known that the most easily borrowed words belong to more specialized forms of discourse often referring to technology or other phenomena that require a good deal of mental and linguistic observation.

According to him other spheres of vocabulary are less commonly borrowed and seem to require more special motivation in order to be adopted from another language. This kind of borrowing is motivated by prestige. This is not what motivated borrowing from English to Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia. The kind of motivation which is given by Hock (ibid) for borrowing is need, if the speakers of a given language take over new technical, religious e.t.c., concepts and references to foreign locations, flora and fauna and so on. Hock (ibid) asserts that there will be obviously a need for vocabulary to house these concepts or references. Need is found in this study to be the reason why Olukabarasi borrowed words from English; to house the new concepts and references that came in with the English language.

During the study, it was found that Olukabarasi has borrowed more than one hundred words from English. These borrowed words have enriched Olukabarasi and expanded its lexical structure. According to Hock (ibid) when a language borrows words it enriches itself. For example, English has enriched itself with 64%- 75% of foreign words from other languages. Hock (1986:421)

Hock (ibid) also introduces the term nativization in borrowing and language contact situations. He defines nativization as "the substitution of the most similar native sound for a foreign segment which does not occur in one's native language" Hock (1986:390). One of the most obvious areas in which nativization is called for is phonological structure, for, in order to be usable in the borrowing language, loan words must first and foremost be pronounceable. At the same time, phonological nativization is perhaps the area where most divergent strategies may be employed to integrate a foreign word into one's native language. The current study agrees with this view because it was found during research that the words borrowed from English to Olukabarasi underwent phonological changes. This was found to make it easy for the Abakabarasi speakers to pronounce the foreign words from English. Hock (ibid) adds that at least some modification is required to make the borrowed words fit into the structure of the borrowing language. When borrowing occurs from one language to another language or from one language to a dialect of another different language, a lot of structural adjustments occur. This is what happens in this study where the donor language and the borrowing dialect are very different structurally. It is this structural difference that brought about the changes observed in chapter four. However, Hock (ibid) says that in case of related dialects or languages, linguistic differences are minor and little structural adjustment is needed.

Arlotto (1972) states that borrowing is related to the political and social state of the borrowing language and the donor language. In most cases, according to Arlotto (ibid), languages borrow from a more "superior" language, socially and politically, and that the language that comes with new ideas, concepts, e.t.c, is normally the donor language. This is in line with the current study, where English came with new concepts in the social and political areas and so Olukabarasi had to borrow words from English to house the new concepts. Bynon (1977) also supports the fact that language borrowing is due to language contact and that lexical items borrowed undergo morphological, phonological and morphosyntactic changes to fit into the structure of the borrowing language. This is actually the issue under investigation in this study. The study has proved that the borrowed words undergo changes to fit into the borrowing language.

Langacker (1967) reports that language among other reasons changes with time. These changes occur due to language contact. One of the occurrences of language contact is borrowing. Langacker (ibid) also adds that the borrowing affects the borrowing language phonologically. This is what was observed in the present study; that the borrowed words underwent phonological changes.

According to Langacker the main reason why languages borrow is to get new words to name items got from the borrowing language's interaction with the donor language. The current study agrees with this view because the Olukabarasi speakers lacked words to term the new items that came with the English language and so had to borrow words from English. Accordingly the words had to undergo changes that are discussed in chapter four and appendix 2. Langacker also notes that during the borrowing process a word undergoes phonological changes that can make it fit into the borrowing language.

# 2.4 Brief Description of Olukabarasi Dialect

A brief description of Olukabarasi dialect given here is meant to provide introductory information to the dialect. This is intended to make it easier for the non-Kabarasi speakers to understand how the results of this study were arrived at. This description includes the vowels of this dialect, the consonants and the noun class, which is the main focus of the study.

### 2.4.1 Olukabarasi Vowels

The Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia has five vowels which normally become ten vowels due to vowel length. These are as follows

/i/ - This is an unrounded high front vowel found in words like

[ingußo]

ingubo- dress

[ingoxo]

ingokho- hen

[lisafu]

lisafu- leaf

It is close to IPA cardinal vowel number 1 [i] but more open.

/e/- this is unrounded mid- high front vowel, it is close to the cardinal vowel number 3 [e] but more open it can be seen in words such as,

[lire\u00e30]

lirebo- question

[eingußo]

eingubo- dress

[einzu]

einzu- house

/a/- this is an unrounded open low vowel. The nearest cardinal vowel to this one is number 4 [a]. it can be seen in

[omuxasi]

omukhasi- a wife

[amandu]

amandu- rubbish

/0:/ This is a rounded mid- high back vowel close to the cardinal vowel number 7 [0] it is found in words such as

[omundu]

omundu- person

[omusa:la]

omusaala-tree

/u:/ This is a rounded high back vowel close to the cardinal vowel number 8. It is found in words such as

[∫iβuju]

shibuyu- can

[omunu]

Omunyu- soup

Table 2.41a below illustrates the position of these vowels on the vowel chart:

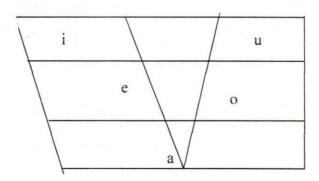
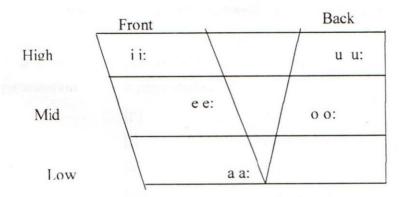


Table 2.4.1a - Olukabarasi vowel inventory (Khasandi 1996)

These Olukabarasi vowels double to ten due to vowel length. This vowel length is phonemic bringing out different meanings in lexical items. The following words illustrate this:

/i/	[sira]	hate
/i:/	[si:ra]	fence off
/e/	[bera]	cut grass
/e:/	[be:ra]	forgive/marry
/a/	[am^ba]	come
/a:/	[a:m^ba]	make friends
/o/	[loba]	refuse
/o:/	[lo:ba]	pester for payment
/u/	[ruma]	send
/u/	[ru:ma]	jump

These vowels can also be put in a table as indicated in table 2.4.1b



2.4.1b - Olukabarasi vowels (long and short vowels)

# 2.4.2 Olukabarasi Consonants

The Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia has twenty- three consonants in total. These consist of sixteen pure consonants two semi-vowels and five nasal compounds. These can be seen in the table below.

	Bilabial	Labio dental	Alveolar	Palato alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Plosives	p	3	t	EA ST		k
Nasals	m		n		n	ŋ
Fricatives	β	f	S	S		X
Affricates		-	ts	ts		
Liquids			Ir			
Semi-vowel	w			j		
Nasal compounds	mb		nd nz	nd <sub>3</sub>		ŋg

Table 2.4.2 Olukabarasi consonant inventory Khasandi (1996)

Orthographic	IPA symbol	Examples
Representation	representation	
Pp	[p]	papa (father
Tt	[t]	takhana (lack)
Kk	[k]	olukaka (fence)
Mm	[m]	mama (mother)
Nn "	[n]	shiina (dance)
NY ny	[n]	inyungu (pot)
NG ng	[ŋg]	ng'afia (shedding tears)
Bb	[β]	abandu (people)
Ff	[f]	funa (harvest)
Ss	[s]	sakala (look for)
SH sh	151	eshiachi (granary)

KH kh	[x]	khalaka (cut)
TS ts	[ts]	tsifua (vegetables)
CH ch	[ts]	chelitsa (try)
Rr	[r]	randula (tare)
LI .	[1]	luma (bite)
Ww	[w]	bwana (light)
Yy	[j]	yakala (inching)
MB mb	[mb]	olwimbo (song)
ND nd	[nd]	indalo (a day)
NZ nz	[nz]	inzukha (a snake)
NJ nj	$[nd_3]$	injila (a path)
NG ng	[ng]	ranga (provoke)

#### 2.4.3 The Noun in Olukabarasi Dialect

The Olukabarasi noun consists of a stem and a prefix. Like many other Bantu languages the Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia classifies its nouns into various classes by use of the prefixes. There are twelve noun classes in the Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia as shown below in table 4.2.3. Classes eight, nine, ten and eleven have no plural forms

CLASS	PREFIXES	EXAMPLES	GLOSS
1	omu-aba	omundu-abandu	person-people
2	omu-emi	omuembe-emiembe	mango trees
3	(e) li-ama	litukho-amatukho	hole-holes
4	eshi-ofu,	eshiachi-ofuachi	granary-granaries
5	e/i (n)- tsi (n)	ingubo-tsingubo	dress-dresses
		eneeti-tsineeti	net-nets
6	olu-tsi	olusia-tsisia	rope-ropes
7	akha-oru	akhamuli-orumuli	a small flower- small flowers
8	obu-	obuyanzi-	joy
9	okhu	okhufua	death
10	a-/e-	abundu	a place

11 mu- munzu in the house

oku-emi okhundu-emindu a huge thing-huge things

Table 2.4.3 Olukabarasi Noun Classes (Adopted from Appleby 1961: x ii in Khasandi 1996: 43)

#### Class 1: Omu-aba

Nouns in this class mainly refer to human beings for example

[omusiani] Omusiani- boy

[abasiani] Abasiani – boys

[omuxana] Omukhana- girl

[a\beta axana] Abakhana – girls

#### Class 2: omu-emi

This class includes the name of mostly trees and body parts. For examples:

[omuxono] Omukhono- a hand

[emixono] Emikhono -Hands

[omuembe] Omuembe – mango tree

[emiembe] Emiembe – mango trees

[omujot∫i] Omuyochi – yoke

[emijotsi] Emiyochi - yokes

#### Class 3: (e) li-ama

In this class, the prefix is dropped in singular, except before a vowel stem. The class contains names of fruits, animals, stones etc

For example

[lit ina] Lichina- stone

[amat ina] Amachina- stones

[lipera] Lipera - guava

[amapera] Amapera – guavas

[liβusi] Libusi - goat

[amaβusi] Amabusi – goats

[lit fembe] Elichembe – Jembe

[amatsembe] Amachembe -Jembes

#### Class 4: eshi- ofu

Nouns in this class usually indicate man-made things such as the following:

[e∫isala] Eshisala- seat

[ofusala] Ofusala – seats

[e sikombe] Eshikombe – cap

[ofukombe] Ofukombe – caps

[e∫iejo] Eshieyo - broom

[ofuejo] Ofueyo - brooms

[eʃifana] Eshifana – Spanner

[ofufuana] Ofufuana -Spanners

# Class 5: e/i (n) - Tsi(n)-

The prefix in this class is sometimes e/i (n) in the singular whereas in the plural its 'tsi'- or 'tsi (n) it has words such as shown below:

[isiongo] Isiongo – pot

[tsisioŋgo] Tsisiongo – pots

[itajwa] Itaywa - cock

[tsitajwa] Tsitaywa - cocks

[ene:ti] eneeti – net

[tsine:ti] tsineeti – nets

[esi:pu] esiipu – zip

[tSisi:pu] tsisiipu-zips

[esika:ti] eskaati – skirt

[tsisika:ti] tsisikaati – skirts

#### Class 6: Olu-tsi

This class contains nouns that have a bigger length than width according to Appleby (ibid) in Khasandi (1996). For example:

[olusa:la]

Olusaala- stick

[tsisa:la]

Tisisaala - sticks

[olulimi]

Olulimi - tongue

[tsini:mi]

Tisiniimi - tongues

It also contains names of languages. For example:

[oluswajili]

Oluswayili- Swahili language

[olukisi:]

Olukisii- Ekegusii

[olukaßarasi] Olukabarasi-Olukabarasi dialect

These are rarely used in their plural form.

# Class 7: Akha- oru (Dimunitive class)

This class can be used for any noun so long as its class prefix can be substituted with the diminutive prefixes 'akha' for singular and 'oru' for plural to indicate that it is tiny or in significant for instance

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[axa:na]

Akhaana- tiny child

[oruana]

Oruana – tiny children

[axaua]

Akhaua – tiny flower

[oru:a]

Oruua – tiny flowers

[axana:ti]

akhanaati - a small nut

[oruna:ti]

orunaati - small nuts

May be taken as endearing or insulting depending on the context in which it is said

#### Class 8: obu-

Used mainly for abstract nouns and collective nouns and is found in the singular form only. for example:

[o\u00e3ulwale]

Obulwale- sickness

[oßusuma]

Obusuma- ugali

#### Class 9: okhu- (obu)

This class can contain any noun because all verbs in their infinitive state can form verbal nouns for example:

[oßwaji]

'obwayi' - herding

[oxumona]

okhumonya, to gossip

loBuBe:jil

obubeevi - lying

# Class 10: a/e (Locative 'at')

The nouns in this class indicate a place or position. For example: -

[aBundu]

abundu - A place

[emutsera] emuchera - At the river

[alwani]

alwanyi - At the courtyard

[and 3ila]

anjila - At the wayside

[akarat [i]

akarachi - at the garage

# Class 11: a/e (Locative - in)

This class locates things contained somewhere. For example:

[munzu]

Munzu - in the house

[mupanza]

Munyanza - in the lake

[mutsera]

Muchera - in the river

[mutuka]

mutuka - in the car

## Class 12: Oku-emi (augmentative class)

This class is a giant class into which any noun may be fitted by altering its prefix to indicate big size. For example:

[okundu]

Okundu – a huge thing

[emindu]

Emindu – huge things

[okutsu]

Okutsu – a huge house

[emitsu]

Emitsu - huge houses

[okuna:ti]

Okunaati -- A huge nut

[okutuka] Okutuka – A huge car

[okune:ti] Okuneeti – A huge net

## 2.5 English Consonants

James (1980) reports that English has twenty four consonants. These include two semi-vowels [j] and |w|. The most suitable way of classifying the consonants in tabular form is according to the manner of articulation, place of articulation and voicing as shown in table 2.5 below:

Table 2.5 The English Consonants

MANNER OF	VOICELES	VOICED	PLACE OF ARTICULATION
ARTICULATION	S	86 0	
PLOSIVES	p	b	Bilabial
	t	d	alveolar
	k	g	velar
FRICATIVE	ſ	V	Labio-dental
	θ	0	inter-dental
	ſ	3	palato-alveola
	h		glottal
	s	z	alveola
FRICTIONLESS CONTINUANT		r	Post- alveola
NASALS		1	alveolar
AFFRICATES	t∫	d <sub>3</sub>	Palato-alveolar
NASALS		m	Bilabial
		n	Alveolar
		ŋ	velar
SEMI VOWELS		j	Palatal
		w	labio-velar

Adapted from Ladefoged (1975:33)

# 2.5.1 English Vowels

English has twenty one vowels, this is noted by Jones (1960). These include twelve pure vowels and nine diphthongs. This means that the English and Olukabarasi vowel systems are quite different because Olukabarasi has only five vowels, which double to ten due to vowel length. This has implication on the current study in the sense that when English words get into Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia language, a great deal of vowel conditioning takes place.

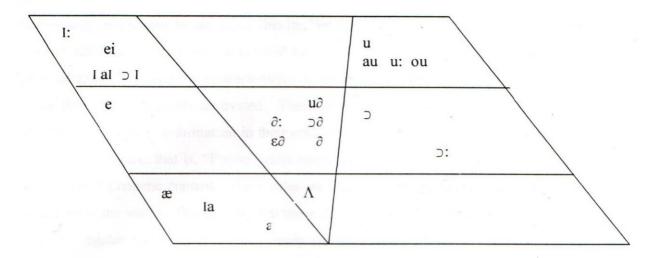
Below is a table by Jones (1960) in which the English vowels are numbered from 1-21

Table 2.5.1 a

I	1:	e	æ	a:	C	⊃:	u	u:	Λ	ð	∂:
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
				el o	ı al	au ⊃1					
				13 1	4 15	16 17					
				Ia	ε∂ Ξ	о∂ и∂					
				18	19	20 21					

Jones (1960: 64)

Table 2.5.1.b



Adopted from B.S Rosner and J.B Pickering (1994).

#### 2.6 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework adopted for this study is Natural Generative Phonology (NGP). This theory was chosen for this study because as Hooper (1976), observes NGP enables analysts to make concrete predictions about sounds of natural language. NGP also looks at phonology with full recognition of Morphology. The theory examines interaction between the two levels of linguistic study. Natural Generative Grammar, of which NGP is a part, has placed certain constraints within its framework, which operate to keep to minimum and even overcome the issue of abstractness. These apply to possible rules, alterations and underlying forms. The constraints propagated by NGG are the following:

- 1. The true Generalization condition
- 2. The no ordering condition
- 3. The strong Naturalness condition

These three constraints ensure that NGP operates within a number of principles. One of these principles states that a form that is posited as an underlying form ought to have surface manifestation, if it is to be accepted as a correct form. Therefore, if a form is not part of the surface sound system of a given language then that form cannot be posited as an underlying segment in that language. The true Generalization condition emphasizes the fact that the rules that native speakers formulate about their language relate surface forms to other surface forms

and so such rules cannot be abstract. This implies that NGP allows neither abstract segments nor abstract rules in morphophonology. NGP has several categories of rules of phonology. The physical nature or biological characteristics of the oral tract determine the first set of rules and hence they are phonetically motivated. These are referred to as P-rules. The P-rules take into account only phonetic information in their environments. Phonetic information includes syllable boundary and pause, that is, "Phonological boundaries". P-rules use phonological features that have intrinsic phonetic content. These rules are found in varying degrees of intensity in all the languages of the world. This implies that these rules are not only natural but also universal. The rules are regular and productive; they apply whenever their structural description is satisfied. They consist of such natural rules as assimilation rules, strengthening and weakening rules. For example, as Hyman (1975:156-161) reports, such rules include the tendency of velar noncontinuants to palatalize before high front vowels. For instance, in a word such as kilo, transcribed as /kilad/, where the sound /k/ which is a velar non-continuant is likely to palatalize before the high front vowel /i/ in English.

The second category of rules is called the morphophonemic rules (Mp-rules). These rules are determined by the morphosyntactic or lexical conditions. In other words they take into account morphological and syntactic information such as morpheme boundaries, morpheme classes and lexical categories. Since these rules are determined within the sound meaning correspondences of individual languages, they are language specific. For example, the regular morpheme marker for the plural in the English language is in word final position as in /ne:ts/ with 's' denoting plural. In Olukabarasi, the plural morpheme marker is in word initial position (Khasandi 1996). Therefore, when the same word enters Olukabarasi it becomes / tsine:ti / with "tsi" in initial position denoting the plural. There are three types of MP-rules as shown below:

- Morphophonemic rules that describe the various alternations of phonemes in different environments.
- b) Morphological spell-out rules, which not only show how morphemes are strung together to form words, but also the changes they undergo before getting to their surface realization.
- c) Syllabification rules that assign syllable boundaries.

Between the P- rules and the MP-rules there is a subset of rules referred to as Sandhi rules. These rules resemble MP-rules in that they take into account word boundary. Word boundaries

are not determined in phonetic terms but in terms of the syntax and semantics of individual languages. But the Sandhi rules also resemble P – rules in that word boundary has the potential to coincide with either syllable boundary or pause. For example features such as [+/- Latinate +/- noun] are considered as Sandhi rules. Both /r/ deletion and /r/ insertion in English are Sandhi rules. /r/- Ø (r deletion).

The third category of rules in NGP is that of Via-rules. These rules express phonological relationship in a situation where none of the two or more related forms can justifiably be said to be underlying and the other(s) derived from it. This implies that Via-rules apply to cases that cannot be explained in phonetic or morphosyntactic terms. They relate one lexical item to another without having to claim that one is derived from the other. They express phonological relations between lexical items. For example /aj/-/i/ relating for instance divine and divinity. The forms divine and divinity are entered in their full form in the lexical and assumed to be linked by the Via-rule above. Hooper (1976:17) reports that the forms related by Via – rules are entered as separate items in the lexicon and the rules exist to show that there is some relationship in the two terms although there can be no claims that one is derived from the other.

The fourth category is that of morphological spell-out rules. These rules determine the phonological shapes or realizations of abstract morphemes, especially those dealing with tense. for example in English, plural # z #. The fifth category of rules is that of word formation rules, which is closely related to morphological spell-out rules. The word formation rules specify what morphological elements can constitute a word and the nature of their arrangement within the word. These rules are important in explaining the word formation processes that the loan words from English to Olukabarasi undergo in order to be integrated in Olukabarasi lexicon.

Finally the sixth category is that of syllabification rules. These rules assign syllable boundaries to the phonological string or sequence. The No-ordering condition is a constraint to the application of rules. It restricts extrinsic ordering of rules, so that the rules apply sequentially and to any form that meets their structural descriptions. The No-ordering condition came in handy because this study at one stage required to formulate phonological rules to explain the changes in sounds when loan words enter Olukabarasi. When a certain condition has been met then a certain rule has to apply. This means that rules are supposed to have an intrinsic order such that certain rules only apply after their structural description has been created by the output of the others. The condition states that special rules or parts of rules always apply before the

general rules. The No-ordering condition was of value to this study especially in examining the morphophonology of borrowed words in Olukabarasi, as this study dealt with both phonological and morphological phenomena affecting these words. The strong naturalness condition constrains the abstractness of underlying representations. The condition requires that there be transparency between underlying and surface forms. This direct correspondence between forms will show the changes that are taking place and thus avoid abstractness in the Grammar. NGP holds that the phonological representation of the Lexicon and its idiosyncratic phonetic properties of the morpheme be related in a non-arbitrary way. This was an important condition in the comparison of loan words in Olukabarasi from English written in normal orthography and when phonetically transcribed for analysis. In view of the foregoing, Natural Generative Phonology was chosen for this study because. It is more constrained than Transformational Generative Grammar such that its claims are less abstract and are able to predict natural language phenomena. It is also mainly concerned with the interaction between morphology and Phonology. J. Hooper (1976: xii) notes that the theory is in fact the theory of Morphophonology.

### CHAPTER THREE

# 3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the procedure adopted in the study in the quest for the answer to the issue under investigation. The rationale for the chosen method is also given.

# 3.2 Location of the study

The data required was only limited to loan words borrowed from English to Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia. Thus the data collection was conducted in Malava Division of Kakamega District. Malava Division borders Bungoma District to the North, Uasin Gishu District to the East and Nandi District to the South East.

# 3.3 Target population

The target population in this study consisted of native speakers of Olukabarasi dialect from Malava Division of Kakamega District. This had an advantage of helping the researcher to select a linguistically homogeneous group of respondents that was best suited for this study. Abakabarasi speakers belong to the wide Oluluyia speakers of Western Kenya. Oluluyis belong to the Bantu group of language and has seventeen dialects according to Were, (1967).

# 3.4 Sampling procedures.

The sample of this study consisted of eighty Olukabarasi native speakers, ten from each selected field including Education, Administration Police, Health, Motor-vehicle mechanics. Building and construction, Domestic, Religion and Commerce. The researcher selectively went to the destinations where the occupations are practised, and then the sample was collected using simple random sampling procedure in areas where the above occupations are practised.

### 3.5 Instruments for data collection

An interview schedule in the form of a structured interview was used (appendix 1). A tape recorder was used to record the articulation of the lexical items for purposes of transcription.

# 3.6 Interview schedule

An interview schedule was used to help in collecting English loan words in Olukabarasi. The answers to the questions in the interview schedule were filled in by the researcher herself. Such control ensured safety and neatness as some of the areas where the research was conducted like the garage and building sites could easily grease them. The interview schedule was divided into two main sections (see appendix 1). Section one consisted of the general information about the respondent, like the age, occupation, level of education and the number of the languages spoken.

Section two was divided into eight sub-sections to represent the areas where there has been massive borrowing as outlined in the background to this study. Each sub-section had some objects referred to using borowed words from English. In different places the researcher pronounced the English words in the interview schedule and asked the respondent to give the Olukabarasi equivalent of that word. Whenever possible, the researcher pointed out some of the objects or items and wrote down the responses given.

Section two was also designed in such a way that enough space was left for the researcher to fill in other objects referred to using Olukabarasi borrowed words from English, but which the researcher had not included in the research schedule. The section with blanks on the interview schedule under the heading 'any others' was for this purpose. The data collected by the interview schedule was raw without any kind of analysis.

### 3.7 Recording

The recording done during the research was of two types. The first one is the written loan words in Olukabarasi, in the interview schedule and in a separate file for analysis. The second type was the recording of the oral data on a magnetic tape using a tape recorder with an inbuilt microphone. The data recorded on a magnetic tape was to be used later in arriving at the proper transcription according to articulation.

# 3.8 Procedures for Data Analysis and Interpretation

The data collected in the interview schedule was re-written in a separate file for analysis. The words were broken into morphemes for morphophonemic analysis. Singular and plural forms were considered. The loan words and their English equivalents were transcribed using the International Phonetic Association (IPA) symbols as shown in Appendix Two. The transcription

for both the English words and Olukabarasi loan words from English has been done using the phonemic transcription for morphophonemic analysis. During this analysis various changes in the loan words were found including vowel and consonantal changes.

# 3.9 Data collection and field experience.

The data collection for this work was carried out in Malava Division of Kakamega District, between October and December 2004. The researcher herself did the work of data collection and analysis. The data was collected in the given sites where the occupations are practised. Sometimes the researcher took more time than estimated in a given site but the more the time spent in the place the more loan words were found.

The fieldwork had its own problems; for example, one of the problems was explaining the researcher's motives in places where the researcher was held with suspicion. Most respondents associated the small tape recorder with some kind of investigation about their work. This was evident when the researcher visited a hospital, a market and a garage. It was hard to convince the interviewees that what was being done was purely a linguistic research. However, the researcher persuaded the respondents until they accepted to be interviewed. In other places like the garage and the construction place, there was a lot of noise that resulted from the nature of the work. This interfered with the recording at times. In this case the researcher requested the respondents to move to a quiet place but in the same vicinity. The fieldwork had some exciting moments. For example, some respondents got excited when they realized that a word they thought belonged to Olukabarasi was only nativised after being borrowed from English, for example, "omujot ii" which originated from the word yoke, and "e isoropo", which originated from the phrase "a strongrope."

### CHAPTER FOUR

### 4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results of the study are discussed. The ways in which the loan words fit into Olukabarasi are illustrated basing on the changes the words undergo and the linguistic processes involved. The changes are given in the light of the difference in the words before and after being borrowed from English. These changes will be accompanied by NGP rules that govern them as outlined by Hooper (1976).

# 4.1.0 CHANGES OF OLUKABARASI BORROWED WORDS FROM ENGLISH

# 4.1.1 Consonantal changes.

In chapter one, it was observed that English and Olukabarasi dialects are different linguistic systems and that, the English words that have found their way into Olukabarasi have undergone major morphophonemic alterations to fit into the Olukabarasi speech system. This section looks at the consonantal changes that occur when English words are borrowed into Olukabarasi, some of which include consonant deletion, consonant substitution and consonant strengthening.

# 4.1.2 Consonant strengthening

This is a linguistic process in which a sound with a single segment is replaced with a sound with two segments which are considered as one. Some words borrowed from English to Olukabarasi show a process of consonant strengthening. For instance where the velar nasal  $/\eta$ / changes to a velar compound  $[\eta g]$  when it is followed by voiced velar stop /g/ as shown below

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/∫iliŋ/	shilling >	[e∫iriŋgi]	eshiringi
	$[\eta] > [\eta g] / v - v$	1	

Sometimes the voiced velar stop /g/ becomes a velar compound [ $\eta g$ ] when the velar nasal / $\eta$ / comes before it as in the example below.

English	Gloss		Olukabarasi	Gloss
/g∂zet/	gazette	>	[eringase:ti]	eringaseeti

The rule can then be stated as

$$[g] > [gg]/v - v$$

Put in words also the rule states that the voiced velar stop /g/ becomes a velar nasal compound [ng] in the environment between two vowels

### 4.1.3 Consonant Deletion

This is a linguistic process in which a consonant is eliminated from its position. The deleted sounds are especially those that do not occur in the Olukabarasi consonant inventory. The /h/ sound in English words borrowed to Olukabarasi is deleted when the words are integrated in the Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia. This is illustrated below.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/hautel/	hotel	[eoteri]	eoteri
/hændbrek/	handbrake	[eandißureki]	eandibureki
/hÞspitl/	hospital	[eosiβito]	eosibito

The rule for the deletion here as a process of change can be stated as shown below

$$[h] > [\emptyset] / - v$$

This put in words means /h/ is deleted in the environment where vowels come after it In a few cases we have [t] deletion process as in the following examples

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/sig∂ret/	cigarette	[esikara]	esikara

The linear rule for this change can be written as follows:

$$[t] > [\emptyset] / v-v$$

In this case the sound t is deleted in its word final position when it gets to Olukabarasi.

Other words that show these consonantal changes are below.

English Gloss Olukabarasi Gloss

/pikt sol picture [epi:tsa] epiicha

The consonant deleted here is /k/

 $[k] > [\emptyset] / -v$ 

English Gloss Olukabarasi Gloss

/sainpast/ signpost [esainipoti] esainipoti

The consonant deleted here is /s/

[s] > |0| / - c

### 4.1.4 Consonant Substitution

This is a linguistic process in which a consonant is replaced by a completely different consonant. In the process of borrowing words from English to Olukabarasi some consonants are substituted so that the words can fit into the Olukabarasi dialect of Oluluyia. Most of Olukabarasi sounds are voiceless and do not pair according to the state of the glottis. English, on the other hand, has many voiceless and voiced sounds which are paired into phonological opposition apart from the nasal sounds /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/, the frictionless continuant /r/, the semi-vowel glides /j/ and /w/ and the voiceless glottal fricative /h/.

Daniel Johns (1960:A3) says the following about English consonants

...Some consonants are breathed voiceless, others are voiced. To every breathed sound corresponds a voiced sound i.e. one articulated in the same place and manner, but with voice substituted for breath, and vice versa thus /v/ corresponds with /f/, /z/ to /s/ and /b/ to /p/.

Since voiceless sounds in Olukabarasi do not have voiced counterparts, English words with voiced sounds being adopted by Olukabarasi have these sounds substituted with voiceless ones. There are also some sounds that occur in English but these are not found in Olukabarasi. In this case, when words with such sounds from English get to Olukabarasi, the sounds are substituted so that the words can fit in the Olukabarasi speech system.

For example, the voiceless bilabial stops /p/ in English words adopted by Olukabarasi changes to a voiced bilabial fricative  $[\beta]$ . The linear rule can be written as below

# $[p] > [\beta]/v-v$

The data below illustrates this change.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/dip/	dip	[eti: βu]	etibu
/ripɔ:t/	report	[eroβoti]	eroboti
/zip/	zip	[esiβu]	esibu

There is also a substitution process whereby the voiced labio- dental fricative/v/ is replaced with the voiced bilabial fricative [ $\beta$ ] as shown in the rule below.

$$[v] > [\beta] / v - v$$

The data below illustrates this

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/ v∂rænda/	veranda	[eβaranda]	ebaranda
/vest/	vest	[eßesiti]	ebesiti
/ti:vi/	T.V.	[eti:βi]	etiibi

When English words bearing a voiced alveolar fricative /z/ enter Olukabarasi, the sound is substituted with the voiceless alveolar fricative [s]. The following rule and data illustrates this.

$$[z] > [s] / v - v$$

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Closs
/ ziêrêu /	zero	[esi:ro]	esiiro
/zip/	zip	[esi:βu]	esiibu
/æzma/	asthma	[asima]	asima

English words having a voiced palato- alveolar affricate /d3/ sound have it substituted with a voiceless palato-alveolar affricate sound  $[t_{\text{I}}]$  when used in Olukabarasi speech system. This is illustrated below

$$[d_3] > [t ] / v - v$$

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/ d <sub>3</sub> æm /	jam	[et∫e:mu]	echeemu
/d <sub>3</sub> eil/	jail	[et∫e:ra]	echeera
/ d <sub>3</sub> ^g/	jug	[et∫a:ka]	echaaka
/d <sub>3</sub> aek/	jack	[et∫eki]	echeki

When English words having a voiced alveolar stop /d/ enter Olukabarasi the sound changes to a voiceless dental stop /t/. This is illustrated below

$$[d] > [t] / v - v$$

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/ k∧b∂d /	cupboard	[ekaβati]	ekabati
/ reidi∂u/	radio	[ere:tio]	ereetio
/d∧st∂/	duster	[etasita]	etasita

When English words have the velar nasal stop  $/\eta k/$  the sound changes to alveolar nasal compound  $|\eta g|$  in Olukabarasi as illustrated below.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/ hæŋk∂t∫if/	handkerchief	[e∫iaŋgatsifu]	eshiangachifu
/tæŋk/	tank	[erita:ŋgi]	eritaangi

# 4.1.5 Consonant nasalization

Gloss

English

Some consonants undergo the process of nasalization as in the data below. In the data below a single segment changes into a nasal compound in Olukabarasi. For instance, the alveolar plosive /d/ changes to a nasal compound [nd] when it comes after the alveolar nasal /n/ as in

Gloss

/deiri/	dairy	[ende:ri]	endeeri	
The rule for	r this process	of nasalisation can be	written as below	
[d] > [nd]/	V- V			
Dut in word	le the rule stat	es that /d/ hecomes [	ndl in an inter-vocalic environment	

Olukabarasi

# 4.2 Vowel changes in Olukabarasi loan words from English

The Olukabarasi vowel system differs greatly from that of English as observed in this study. Therefore, the English words that are adopted by Olukabarasi, a dialect of Oluluyia, undergo some vowel changes to fit into the Olukabarasi speech system. These changes include vowel substitution, vowel deletion and vowel insertion.

# 4.2.1 Vowel insertion

This is a linguistic process where a sound is added to the borrowed word. The vowel insertion process was realized to be motivated by morphological and phonological factors. The MP-rules discussed in the theoretical framework were found to be at work in morphologically motivated changes as illustrated in the noun classes in chapter two. The prefixes added to the loan words denote the aspect of number. The data below shows vowel insertion in the loan words as a result of morphological conditioning. It should also be noted that some of the prefixes contain a

denote the aspect of number. The data below shows vowel insertion in the loan words as a result of morphological conditioning. It should also be noted that some of the prefixes contain a consonant sound, depending on the class they fall under in the noun classification system of the dialect in question.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss	inserted prefix
/risi:ts/	receipts	[amalisiti]	amalisiti	ama-
/ m∂ut∂ka:/	motor car	[omutuka]	omutuka	omu
/mita/	meter	[emi:ta]	emiita	e-
/end3in/	engine	[eiŋndʒini]	einjini	e-

English words that are borrowed to Olukabarasi with consonant sounds in word final position have a vowel inserted in word final position due to phonological conditioning since Olukabarasi has no final consonant. The data below illustrate these changes.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss	Vowel inserted
/ t∫∋: <b>k</b> /	chalk	[et∫o:ka]	echooka	[-a]
/zip/	zip	[esi:βu]	esipu	[-u]
/sk3:t/	skirt	[esika:ti]	esikaati	[-i]

# 4.2.2 Vowel Deletion

Due to the difference in vowel inventories of the Olukabarasi dialect and English language some of the loan words show the process of vowel deletion. The example below illustrates this change.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss	Vowel deleted
/keis/	case	[ekesi]	ekesi	[-i]
/zi∂r∂u/	zero	[esiro]	esiro	[-∂]
[i]>Ø/-V				

# 4.2.3 Vowel Substitution

The English words entering Olukabarasi have some of their vowel sounds substituted with Olukabarasi vowel sounds. This is mainly because of the difference in vowel inventories of English and Olukabarasi. For example, the change below involves the high front vowel /i/ in English words being replaced by the long stressed high front vowel [i:] when the words get to Olukabarasi.

English /kəmiti/	Gloss committee	Olukabarasi [ekomi:ti]	Gloss ekomiiti
/zip/	zip	[esi:βu]	esiibu
/ misəl/	missal	[emi:sa]	emiisa

Rule /i > i:/

When adopted by Olukabarasi English words with the diphthong /a / have the sound substituted by the back mid vowel /o/ as shown below.

English /hartel/	Gloss hotel	Olukabarasi [eoteri]	<b>Gloss</b> eoteri
/nat/	note	[enoti]	enoti
/lan/	loan	[eloni]	eloni

rule /a > o/

When borrowed English words get into Olukabarasi the open central vowel /N is substituted by the open low front vowel [a]. This process is illustrated by data below.

When borrowed English words get into Olukabarasi the open central vowel // is substituted by the open low front vowel [a]. This process is illustrated by data below.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/k∧b∂d/	cupboard	[ekaβati]	ekabati
$/d3\Lambda dz/$	judge	[t∫at∫i]	chachi
/kl∧t∫/	clutch	[eklat∫i]	eklachi

### $/\Lambda > a/$

The open low front vowel /æ/ in English words borrowed to Olukabarasi are substituted by the open low front vowel /a/ as shown below

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/varænda/	veranda	[eßaranda]	ebaranda
/ æzma/	asthma	[asima]	asima
/gælan/	gallon	[ekalani]	ekalani
/kæl∂nda/ /æ > a/	calendar	[ekarenda]	ekarenda

Jones (1963) reports that many words in English have a schwa sound  $/\hat{c}/$  which is a relatively short vowel of intermediate quality and occurs in unstressed syllables in English. When this sound occurs in English words borrowed to Olukabarasi, the sound is substituted by the open low front vowel /a/. This is illustrated below.

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/trækt∂/	tractor	[etrakta]	etrakta
/n∧mb∂/	number	[enamba]	enamba
/s∂lut/	salute	[esaru:ti]	esaruti

### 1 d > a /

# 4.3 Singural and Plural markers in olukabarasi borrowed words

It was observed that the borrowed words from English to Olukabarasi fit into Olukabarasi noun classes in a unique manner after being borrowed. For English words to fit in Olukabasi language system, their morphemic shapes are alterd altogether. The prefixes of Olukabarasi that mark singular and plural forms have to be conjoined to these words. These prefixes which are morphemes come in the word initial position of the borrowed words. The data below illustrates this.

4.3.1 Class	Prefix Marker	
1	omu-aba	
Example		
omundu –abandu	ı (person – persons)	

Nouns in this class mainly refer to human beings as in the example above. Borrowed words from English are given in the data below.

Singular

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/di:k∂n/	Deacon	[omutikoni]	omutikoni
/P∂li:sm∂n/	policeman	[omupolisi]	omupolisi
/pa:st∂/	pastor	[omupasta]	omupasta

# Plural

/di:k∂ns/ Deacons [aβatikoni] abatikoni /p∂li:smen/ Policemen [aβapolisi] abapolisi /pa:st∂z/ Pastors '[aβapasta] abapasta

4.3.2 Class prefix markers

2 omu-emi

Example

Omuembe-emienbe (mango tree- mango trees)

Examples of words borrowed from English that fit into this class are as shown below.

Singular

English Gloss Olukabarasi Gloss

/mast@ka:/ Motorcar [Omutuka] Omutuka

/jak/ Yoke [Omujotsi] Omuyochi

Plural

English Gloss Olukabarasi Gloss

/Maxteka:z/ Motorcars [emituka] emituka

/jasks/ Yokes [emijotsi] emiyochi

4.3.3 class prefix markers

3 eli-ama

Example

Elitukho-amatukho (hole-holes)

The data below gives the borrowed words that fit into this class.

Singular

English Gloss Olukabarasi Gloss

/g/mbu:t/ gumboot [elikambuti] elikambuti

/risi:t/ receipt [elisit] elisiti

/sækrðmônt/ Sacrament [lisakramendo] lisakramendo

Plural

Olukabarasi Gloss Gloss English

[amakambuti] amakambuti gumboots /g/mbu:ts/ amalisiti [amalisiti] /risi:ts/ receipts

amasakramendo [amasakramendo] /sækramants/ Sacraments

#### Class prefix markers 4.3.4

4 eshi-ofu

Example

Eshisala -ofusala (seat-seats)

Singular

English Gloss Olukabarasi Gloss

eshifana [esifana] /spæna/ Spanner

eshioski /kipsk/ kiosk [e sioski] eshiraoni /kram/

[e siraoni] crown

eshibatiso /bæptiz∂m/ Baptism [esiBatiso]

Plural

English Gloss Gloss Olukabarasi

ofufana /spænaz/ spanners [ofufana]

ofuoski /kipsks/ kiosks [ofuoski]

/krams/ [ofuraoni] ofuraoni

ofubatiso /bæptiz∂ms/ baptisms [ofußatiso]

4.3.5 Class Prefix markers

e/i(n)-tsi(n)

crowns

Example

Isiongo-tsisiongo (pot-pots)

The data below indicates how some of the borrowed words fit into this class.

# Singular

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/lɔri/	Lorry	[elori]	elori
/klnts/	Clutch	[ekilat∫i]	ekilachi
/gla:s/	Glass	[eklasi]	eklasi
/sku:l/	School	[esukulu]	esukulu

# Plural

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/l⊃:riz/	Lorries	[etsilori]	etsilori
/kl\tsiz/	Clutches	[etsikilat]i]	etsikilachi
/gla:ses/	Glasses	[etsiklasi]	etsiklasi
/sku:ls/	Schools	[etsisukulu]	etsisukulu

The following is established from the data above:

Class Singular Morphemes	Plural Morphenes
omu-	aba-
omu-	emi-
eli-	ama-
eshi-	ofu-
eli(n)-	tsi(n)-

All the above plural and singular morphemes occur in comphementary distribution as shown in section 4.3.

In the second class omu-emi there is morphophonemic alteration. Both the sinhular and the plural morpheme in this class have a constant /-m-/. This constant has alternates i.e /o-u/ for singular form and /e-i/ for plural form.

# For example in words like

English Gloss Olukabarasi Gloss

marteka:/ motorcar [omutuka] omutuka
marteka:z/ motorcars [emituka] emituka
as indicated in section 4.3.2

Except the second class above which has morphephenemic alteration, the rest of the four classes are morphophonemically conditioned. The singular and plural morphemes in these four classes have no phonological relationship.

The plural and singular morphemes which are organized according to classes occur in the word initial position of the borrowed word. This contrasts with the donor language English where the plural morphemes occur in word final position in regular nouns.

Most of the words collected were found to belong to the first five noun classes. According to Khasandi (1996) the sixth noun class contains mainly names of languages such as Olukisii. Olukabarasi e.t.c and these are rarely used in their plural forms.

Prefixes used in the seventh class indicate small or tiny size eg. [axana] akhana-Small child,

[oruana] Oruana- Small children.

This kind of consideration was outside the scope of the current study because the current study did not consider size but number. The eighth class mainly contains abstract nouns and appears in singular forms only, for example,

obulwale -sickness, Obulamu-Health

No abstract nouns were collected during the research as borrowed words. The nineth class contains verbal nouns formed from verbs in their infinitive state, for example, obubeyi-lying.

Such verbal nouns were not collected during the research. Nouns in the tenth class indicate a place of possession, for example,

emuchera-at the river.

alwanyi-at the courtyard

These do not occur in singular or plural forms. The eleventh class denotes inside a place for example,

Munzu-in the house.

The twelveth class is the opposite of the seventh class. It indicates size in terms of being big.for example,

okhundu - a huge thing emindu -huge things.

No word from this class was collected because the scope of this work did not consider size.

### CHAPTER FIVE

# CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the results of the study presented in chapter four and their implications on the objectives and hypotheses of the study. The chapter also includes recommendations on the basis of the research and field experience.

### 5.2 Conclusions

The current study was generally in the area of language contact and specifically borrowing. The two critical issues to the study as reflected in the objectives of the study were: whether the borrowed words from English to Olukabarasi undergo morphophonemic changes and whether the changes are governed by the rules as stipulated in Natural Generative Phonology by J. Hooper (1976).

The hypotheses of the study were confirmed since it was found that English words borrowed by Olukabarasi undergo morphophonemic changes which are governed by morphophonemic rules as shown in section 4.3. The difference between the structure of English and Olukabarasi in relation to vowel and consonants (chapter two) is the basis of changes analyzed in this study.

Vowel and consonantal changes are established in chapter four of the study on the basis of the data transcription in appendix two. The consonantal changes observed were, consonant substitution, consonant deletion and consonant strengthening. The vowel changes observed include vowel substitution, vowel insertion and vowel deletion. There was no single word that maintained its initial structure when borrowed from English to Olukabarasi, in singular and plural form.

The results of the current study agree with the view of the other researchers and scholars such as Arlotto (1972) and Hock (1986), among others, who have done historical and comparative study of language. Arlotto (ibid) reports that words undergo systematic changes to

fit into the recipient language from the donor language. Hock (ibid) reports that a word is nativized to fit into the borrowing language and to be used like other words in that recipient language. In view of the foregoing, the hypotheses of the current study (Chapter one) were confirmed and the objectives were achieved.

### 5.3 Recommendation

During the course of this study, it was realized that very few studies have been conducted in Olukabarasi phonology in general. It is therefore recommended that studies on the phonology of Olukabarasi should be conducted using modern theories of phonological discription of language.

Oluluyia has seventeen dialects yet due to the limitation of time and funds, this study looked at borrowing in only one dialect of Oluluyia. It is recommended that the study of borrowing be done in the other dialects too. This would give a clear picture of borrowing of words by Oluluyia from English. Olukabarasi alone cannot give a comprehensive representational picture of borrowing of words from English to Oluluyia.

This study looked only at the segmental changes that occur when Olukabarasi borrows words from English. It is also necessary to do a study on the suprasegmental changes that occur when the words get to Olukabarasi from English.

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# APPENDIX 1

# RESEARCH ON OLUKABARASI BORROWED WORDS FROM ENGLISH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Blanks to be filled in with spoken answers from the respondent by the researcher.

SE	CTION 1
1.	Age
2.	Place of Birth
3.	Occupation
4.	Number of languages spoken
5.	Name of the language(s), tick the appropriate language(s)
	Olukabarasi English Kiswahili
	Specify any other(s)
6.	Did you attend any school?
	Yes No
7.	If yes, which level?
	Lower Primary Upper Primary
	Secondary Post – Secondary
8.	Which Language do you speak most of the time?

9.	Why do you use the Language most? Give at least two reasons.			
	(i)			
	(ii)			
10.	Do you know that there are English words that are used in Olukabarasi. Tick the			
	appropriate  Yes No			
11.	If yes, give two examples in spoken			
	(i)			

ENGLISH	OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)
Mechanics (motor)		
Lorry		
Motorcar		
Battery		
Clutch		
Horn		
Steering Wheel		
Bolt		
Garage		

ENGLISH	OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)
Domestic		
Gas		
Zip		
Glass		
Cupboard		
Television		
Sofa – Set		
Gate		
Dairy		

ENGLISH	OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)	
Commerce			
Change			
Receipt			
Cheque			
Kiosk			
Kilogram			
Note			
Bank			
Shilling			

ENGLISH	OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)	
Building and Construction			
Spirit Level			
Plumb bob			
Grease			
Cement			
Clamp		***************************************	
Veranda	***************************************		
Chimney			
Corridor			

ENGLISH	OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)
5 Health		
Hospital		
Hospital Card		
Typhoid		
Clinic		
Liniment		
Plaster	***************************************	
Ward		

ENGLISH	OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)
6. Military		
Cell		
Policeman		•••••
Pistol		
Salute		
Jail		
Band		
Crown		
Bullet		

ENGLISH	OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)
7. Religion		
Baptism		
Pastor		
Deacon		
Sacrament		
Missal		
Bible	•	

ENGLISH		OLUKABARASI	ANY OTHER (S)	
8.	Education			
	School			
	Class			
	Biro pen			
	Piece of Chalk			
	Degree			
	Duster			
	College			
	Parade			

# APPENDIX 2 DATA TRANSCRIPTION

# a) Singular Forms

# 1. Mechanics

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
lori/	Lorry	[elori]	elori
/m∂ut∂ka:/	Motorcar	[omutuka]	omutuka
/bætari/	Battery	[epeteri]	epeteri
klnts/	Clutch	[ekilat∫i]	ekilachi
ho:n/	Hom	[eoni]	eoni
beult/	Bolt	[eporoti]	eporoti
Garæd3/	Garage	[ekaratʃi]	ekarachi

# 2. Domestic

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
gas/	Gas	[ekasi]	ekasi
zip/	Zip	[esiβu/esipu]	esibu/esipu
gla:s/	Glass	[eklasi]	eklasi
/knb&d/	Cupboard	[ekaβati]	ekabati
/talivi3@n/	Television	[eti:βi]	etiibi
/sauf@-set/	Sofa set	[esofaseti /esofa]	esofaseti/esofa
/geit/	Gate	[eketi]	eketi
/deiri/	Dairy	[endeeri]	endeeri

# 3. Commerce

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/t∫eind3/	Change	[et∫e∩dʒi]	echenji
/risi:t/	Receipt	[elisiti]	elisiti
t∫ek/	Cheque	[et∫eki]	echeki
/kijsk/	Kiosk	[e∫ioski]	eshioski
kilægræm/	Kilogram	[ekilo]	eikilo
nôt/	Note	[enoti]	enoti
bæŋk/	Bank	[eβaŋga]	ebanga
∫iliŋ/	Shilling	[eʃirindɜi]	eshirinji

#### 4. Building and construction

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
spiritlevl/	Spirit level	[espiriti]	espriti
plamb bob/	Plumb bob	[epulam^ba]	epulambu
gri:s/	Crease	[ekirisi]	ekirisi
siment/	Cement	[esimiti]	esimit
klæmp/	Clamp	[eklam^bu]	eklambu
v∂rænda/	Veranda	[evaranda]	evaranda
t∫imni/	Chimney	[et∫imoni]	echimoni
kÞrido:/	Corridor	[ekorito]	ekorito

#### 5. Health

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/h⊃spitl/	Hospital	[eosiβito]	eosibito
/h⊃spitl ka:d/	Hospital card	[ekati]	ekati
/taif⊃id/	Typhoid	[taifoti]	taifoti
/linim&nt/	Liniment	[elinimen^di]	eliniment
/pla:st <i>ĉ</i> /	Plaster	[eplasta]	eplasta
/wɔ:d/	Ward	[ewoti]	ewoti
/malearia/	Malaria	[amaleria]	amalaria

#### 6. Administration Police

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/se:l/	Cell	[ese:li]	eseeli
pôli:smôn/	Policeman	[omupolisi]	omupolisi
/pistl/	Pistol	[episto]	episto
/sclu:t/	Salute	[esaluti]	esaluti
/d3eil/	Jail	[et∫e]a]	echela
/bænd/	Band	[ependi]	ependi
/kra.n/	Crown	[eʃiraoni]	eshiraoni

# 7. Religion

Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
Baptism	[e∫iβatiso]	eshibatiso
Pastor	[pasta]	pasta
Deacon	[tikoni]	tikoni
Sacrament	[lisakramendo]	lisakramendo
Missal	[emi:sa]	emiisa
Bible	Epaibo	epaibo
	Baptism Pastor Deacon Sacrament Missal	Baptism [e∫iβatiso]  Pastor [pasta]  Deacon [tikoni]  Sacrament [lisakramendo]  Missal [emi:sa]

## 8. Education

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
sku:l/	School	[esukulu]	esukulu
kla:s/	Class	[ekilasi]	ekilasi
bairupen/	Biro pen	[epairo]	epairo
t∫⊃:k/	Chalk	[et∫oka]	echoka
/digri:/	Degree	[etikiri]	etikiri
d^stc/	Duster	[etasita]	etasita
/k⊃lid3/	College	[ekoletsi]	Ekolechi
/Pareid/	Parade	[epareti]	epareti

# 9. Others

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/g∂zet/	Gazette	[eliŋgase:ti]	elingaseeti
/hactel/	Hotel	[eoteri]	eoteri
/hændbrek/	Hand break	[eandißureki]	eandibureki
/sig@ret/	Cigarette	[esikara]	esikara
pikt∫∂/	Picture	[epi:t[a]	epiicha
/sainpasst/	Signpost	[esainipoti]	esainipoti
/dip/	Dip	[etiβu]	etibu
rpo:t/	Report	[eroβoti]	eroboti
vest/	Vest	[eßesiti]	ebesiti
ziorau/	Zero	[esi:ro]	esiiro
∂ezm∂/	Asthma	[asima]	asima
d3æm/	Jam	[et∫e:mu)	echeemu
d3Ag/	Jug	[et∫a:ka]	echaaka
/ d3æk/	Jack	[etfeki]	echeki
/reidiau/	Radio	(ere:tio]	ereetio
hæŋkêtsif/	Handkerchief	[e∫iaŋgat∫ifu]	eshiangachifu
to:ts/	Torch	[etot∫i]	etochi
/tæŋk/	Tank	[elita:ŋgi]	elitaangi
/plæstik/	Plastic	[eplastiki]	eplastiki
/rnbas/	Rubbers	[etsiraba]	etsiraba
/su:z/	Shoes	[e∫usi]	eshusi
/end3in/	Engine	[eind3ini]	einjini
/plot/	Plot	[eploti]	eploti
/skru:/	Screw	[esikuru]	esikuru -
/θ∂m⊃mit∂/	Thermometer	[etamometa]	etamometa
/θ∂:m∂s/	Thermos	[etamosi]	Etamosi

/spæna/	Spanner	[e∫ifana]	Eshifana
/fail/	File	[efairo]	efairo
/lerin/	Earring	[etsiiariŋgi]	etsiiaringi
/bæŋgl/	Bangle	[epangili]	epangili
/ju:mifɔ:m/	Uniform	[ejunifomu]	eyunifomu
/ʃɜ:t/	Shirt	[eli∫aati]	elishaati
blaz/	Blouse	[eplaosi]	eplaosi
/bu:t/	Boot	[etsiputi]	etsiputi
g∧mbu:t/	Gumboot	[elikambuti]	elikambuti
bo:lg/m/	Ball gum	[epolukamu]	epolukamu
sirind3/	Syringe	[esiriŋdɜi]	esirinji
/ d3u:s	Juice	[et∫uisi]	echuisi
stu:l/	Stool	[esitulu]	estulu
brns/	Brush	[eβura∫i]	eburashi
net/	Net	[ene:ti]	eneeti

#### b) Plural Forms

#### 1. Mechanics

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/lɔ:riz/	Lorries	[etsilori]	etsilori
/m∂ut∂ka:z/	Motorcars	[emituka]	emituka
/bætariz/	Batteries	[etsipeteri]	etsipeteri
/kl∧t∫iz/	Clutches	[etsikilat∫i]	etsikilachi
/h⊃:nz/	Horns	[etsioni]	etsioni
bêults/	Bolts	[etsiporoti]	etsiporoti
garæd3iz/	Garages	[etsikarat∫i]	etsikarachi
pikt_cs/	Pictures	[etsipitsa]	etsipicha

## 2. Domestic

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
gasiz/	Gases	[ekasi]	ekasi
zips/	Zips	[etsisiβu/etsipu]	etsisibu/etsipu
/gla:ses/	Glasses	[etsiklasi]	etsiklasi
/k∧b∂dz/	Cupboards	[ekaβati]	etsikabati
/tɛlivi3∂nz/	Televisions	[etsitiβi]	etsitibi
/saufô-sets/ .	Sofa sets	[etsisofaseti/etsisofa]	etsisofaseti/etsisofa
/geitz/	Gates	[etsiketi]	etsiketi
/deiri/	Dairy	[etsindeeri]	etsindeeri

#### 3. Commerce

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/t∫eind3/	Change	[et∫end3i]	echenji
/risi:ts/	Receipts	[amalisiti]	amalisiti
/t∫ek s/	Cheques	[etsitseki]	etsicheki
/ki⊃sks/	Kiosks	[ofuʃioski]	ofuoski
/kila græms/	Kilograms	[etsikilo]	etsiikilo
nats/	Notes	[etsinoti]	etsinoti
/bægks/	Banks	[etsiβaŋga]	etsibanga
/silins/	Shillings	[etsi ʃ irind3i]	etsishirinji

# 4. Building and Construction

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
spiritlevl/	Spirit level	[etsisipiriti]	etsisipriti
plamb bobz/	Plumb bob	[etsipulamba]	etsipulambu
gri:s/	Grease	[etsikirisi]	etsikirisi
/siments/	Cements	[etsisimiti]	etsisimiti
/klæmps/	Clamps	[etsiklambu]	etsiklambu
/v@rænda/	Veranda	[etsivaranda]	etsivaranda
/t∫imniz/	Chimneys	[etsitsimoni]	etsichimoni
/kÞridɔ:z/	Corridor	[etsikorito]	etsikorito

## 5. Health

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/hospitlz/	Hospitals	[etsiosiβito]	etsiosibito
/h⊃spitl ka:dz/	Hospital cards	[etsikati]	etsikati
/taif⊃id/	Typhoid	[taifoti]	taifoti
/linim@nts/	Liniments	[etsilinimendi]	etsilinimendi
/pla:st&z/	Plasters	[etsiplasta]	etsiplasta
/wɔ:dz/	Wards	[etsiwoti]	etsiwoti
/malearia/	Malaria	[amaleria]	amalaria

# 6. Administration Police

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/se:ls/	Cells	[etsise:li]	etsiseeli
p∂li:sm ∂n/	Policemen	[aβapolisi]	abapolisi
Pistls/	Pistols	[etsipisto]	etsipisto
/s∂lu:ts/	Salute	[etsisaluti]	etsisaluti
d3eilz/	Jails	[etsitsela]	etsichela
/bændz/	Bands	[etsipendi]	etsipendi
krams/	Crowns	[ofuraoni]	ofuraoni
/b lits/	Bullets	[etsipuleti]	etsipuleti

# 7. Religion

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/bæptiz@ms/	Baptisms	[ofuβatiso]	ofubatiso
/pa:st∂z/	Pastors	[aβapasta]	abapasta
/di:k∂ns/	Deacons	[aβatikoni]	abatikoni
/sækr∂m∂nts/	Sacraments	[amasakramendo]	amasakramendo
/misals/	Missals	[etsimisa]	etsimisa
/baibls/	Bibles	[etsipaibo]	etsipaibo

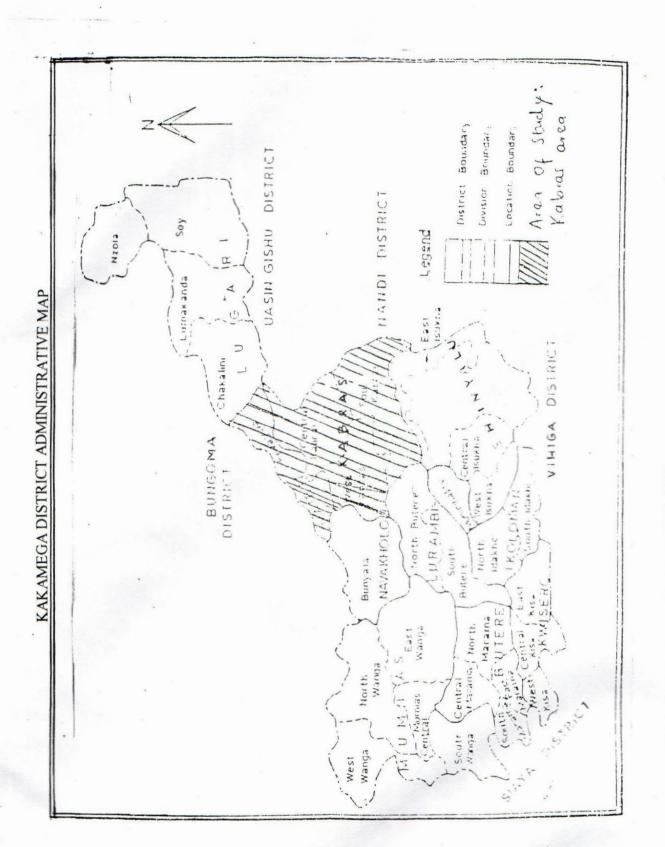
#### 8. Education

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/sku:ls/	Schools	[etsisukulu]	etsisukulu
kla:slz/	Classes	[etsikilasi]	etsikilasi
bair@upens/	Biro pens	[etsipairo]	etsipairo
/t∫⊃:ks/	Chalks	[etsi]oka]	etsichoka
digri:z/	Degrees	[etsitikiri]	etsitikiri
d∧st∂z/	Dusters	[etsitasita]	etsitasita
k⊃lid3lz/	Colleges	[etsikolet@i]	etsikolechi
/pareidz/	Parade	[etsipareti]	etsipareti

## 9. Others

English	Gloss	Olukabarasi	Gloss
/g∂zets/	Gazettes	[amaŋgase:ti]	amaangaseeti
/hautelz/	Hotels	[etsioteri]	etsioteri
/hændbreks/	Handbrakes	[etsiandiβureki]	etsiandibureki
/sig∂rets/	Cigarettes	[esikara]	etsisikara
/pikt∫az	Pictures	[etsipit∫a]	etsipiicha
Sainpasts/	Signposts	[etsisainiβoti]	etsisainipoti
/dips/	Dips	[etsitiβu]	etsitibu
/ripɔ:ts/	Reports	[etsiroßoti]	etsiroboti
/vests/	Vests	[etsiβesiti]	etsibestiti
/ziôrðuz/	Zeros	[etsisi:ro]	etsisiiro
/ @ezm@/	Asthma	[asima]	asima
/d3æm/	Jam	[etsit∫e:mu)	etsicheemu
d3Agz/	Jugs	[etsit∫a:ka]	etsichaaka
/ d3æks/	Jacks	[etsitʃeki]	etsicheki
/reidi∂uz/	Radios	(etsire:tio)	etsireetio
hæŋkætʃifs/	Handkerchiefs	[etsi∫iaŋgat∫ifu]	etsiangachifu
to:tsiz/	Torches	[etsitot[i]	etsitochi
/tæŋks/	Tanks	[amata:ŋgi]	amataangi
/plæstiks/	Plastics	[etsiplastiki]	etsiplastiki
/r∧b∂z/	Rubbers	[etsiraba]	etsiraba
/_`u:z/	Shoes	[etsiʃusi]	etsishusi
/ɛn d3inz/	Engines	[etsiind3ini]	etsiiŋjini
/plots/	Plots	[etsiploti]	etsiploti
/skru:s/	Screws	[etsisikuru]	etsisikuru
/θ ∂m⊃mit∂z/	Thermometers	[etsitamometa]	Etsitamometa

/θ3:m∂s/	Thermos	[etsitamosi]	etsitamosi
/spænaz/	Spanners	[ofufana]	ofufana
/fails/	Files	[etsifairo]	etsifairo
/iðriŋs/	Earrings	[etsiiariŋgi]	etsiiaringi
/bæŋgls/	Bangles	[etsipangili]	etsipangili
/ju:nifɔ:ms/	Uniforms	[etsijunifomu]	etsiyunifomu
/ʃ3:ts/	Shirts	[ama∫aati]	amashaati
/blasz/	Blouses	[etsiplaosi]	etsiplaosi
/bu:ts/	Boots	[etsiputi]	etsiputi
/g/mbu:ts/	Gumboots	[amakambuti]	amakambuti
bo:lg/ms/	Ball gums	[etsipolukamu]	etsipolukamu
/sirind3iz/	Syringes	[etsisiriŋd3i]	etsisirinji
/d3uisiz/	Juices	[etsit suisi]	etsichuisi
/stu:ls/	Stools	[etsisitulu]	etsisitulu
brnsiz/	Brushes	[etsiβura∫i]	etsiburashi
nets/	Nets	[etsine:ti]	etsineeti



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