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Lexical Borrowing: A Documentation of Gichuka Loanwords

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Abstract:

The commonest way in which words are added into a language is through borrowing. Borrowing occurs when one language adds a word or a morpheme from another language to its own lexicon. There are sociolinguistic motivations for borrowing such as need (where there exists a lexical gap in the receptor language), prestige and language contact. Gichuka language has come into contact with English and Kiswahili before and after the establishment of the colonial government in Chuka in 1913. However, Gichuka has not been investigated to find out the lexical changes that have occurred as a result of this contact. This paper is a collection of lexical items that Gichuka has borrowed from English and Kiwsahili. Purposive sampling was used to collect data on twelve domains. These domains are education, health, administration, agriculture, electrical goods and technology, household goods, food, religion, clothing, animals, trade and industry. Interviews and focuses group discussions were used to collect qualitative data. The results of this study indicated that Gichuka has borrowed words in all the twelve domains to cater for modern communicative needs.

Keywords: Lexical borrowing, gichuka, loanwords, english, kswahili

1. Lexical Borrowing

Most of the new lexical items in a language are acquired through borrowing. Borrowing is a usual term for the process by which a language (or variety) takes on new linguistic material from another language (variety) (Haspelmath, 2003). There are several different types of lexical borrowing. Scholars have classified lexical borrowings differently (Ross, 1991; Haugen 1950; Myers - Scotton, 2002). Haugen's taxonomy of borrowed items is the most preferred because of its practical approach. Haugen (1950) came up with a typology where he identified four types of borrowed words. Borrowed words can be either loan words, loan shifts, loan translations or loan blends.

Haugen (1950) distinguishes between loanwords (where form and meaning are copied completely) from loan blends (words consisting of a copied part and a native part) and also loan shifts (where only the meaning is copied). The Chinese word baibai is a loanword borrowed from English 'bye-bye' and is used in the same context and with the same meaning (Hall-Lew, 2002). The word 'monolingual' is a loan blend because it has a Greek prefix and a Latin root. Loan shifts can be either translations or semantic borrowings. Loan translations show replication of the structure of a foreign language, word or expression by one of the synonymous word(s) from the borrowing language. For example, in German fern sehen literally means 'far seeing'. It is borrowed from translated elements of television in English and television in French, the first element from Greek telos 'far' and the second from Latin visio 'sight'. Semantic loans (semantic broadening) show extension of meaning of a word as a result of association with the meaning of a partly synonymous word in another language.

Concerning lexical borrow ability, nouns are borrowed more easily than other parts of speech (Moravcsik, 1978). The explanations for this are that nouns are referential and one of the motivating factors for borrowing is to extend the referential potential of a language (Van Hout & Muysken, 1994). Secondly, the insertion of nouns in another language is less disruptive of the predicate argument structure. Verbs are the next to be borrowed in the borrow ability scale. It has been argued that verbs are difficult to borrow because of their difficult inflection. If they are borrowed, they seem to be borrowed as nouns. The receptor language employs its own denominal verbalization to turn them into verbs before using them as loanwords Moravcsik (1975; 2003). For example in this study, Gichuka has borrowed the noun 'retire' from English and the verb is 'kuretire' meaning 'to retire'. The prefixation of the prefix ku- turns the word into a verb. Ku-- is the prefix for verbs in Gichuka. Adjectives and adverbs are in third and fourth position respectively in respect to borrow ability. Field (2002) observes that agglutinative affixes are borrowed more easily than fusional affixes.

Lexical scales showing the borrow ability of lexical items have been developed (Van Hout and Muysken, 1994; Field, 2002). Field (2002) includes affixes in his scale. Van Hout and Muysken's scale (1994) is presented below:

Lexical Borrowing>Prepositions>CoordinatingConjunctions>Quantifier>Determiner>Pronoun>Critic Pronoun>SubordinatingConjunctions

Conjunctions

Van Hout and Muysken's scale includes all lexical categories which make it a better scale than the others. The continuum shows that lexical borrowing comes before grammatical borrowing (Haspelmath, 2003). According to Moravcsik (1978) the fact that languages borrow lexical items before grammatical items is a language universal.

Borrow ability scales have certain implications in lexical borrowing. The first implication as stated earlier is that lexical borrowing occurs before grammatical borrowing. Secondly, they imply that a language that contains borrowed grammatical elements also contains borrowed lexical elements. Thirdly, quantitatively, a language borrows more of lexical items than grammatical items and fourthly, elements belonging to the lexical items are more likely to be borrowed than grammatical elements (Haspelmath, 2003).

Need is one of the external factors that necessitates borrowing. Language changes as the needs of its users change. This viewpoint is sometimes referred to as functional view of language change (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, 2003). Language functions to meet the communicative needs of its users. Need is especially relevant at the level of vocabulary. Unneeded words drop out and new words are coined as they are required. Names of people and places are switched if the old seem inadequate (Aitchison, 1993). When a new thing or concept is encountered which already has a name in the donor language but not in the borrowing language the word used in the donor language is borrowed. In this case, there is usually a lexical gap that needs to be filled. Newly imported trade items, encountered products or features of the natural world, new scientific discoveries or intellectual concepts require names. The foreign-language name is likely to be borrowed as a loanword. (Fromkin *et al*, 2003). Gichuka has borrowed vocabulary from English and Kiswahili to meet the communicative needs of its users.

2. Direction of Borrowing

It is necessary to establish the general direction of borrowing in this study because more than one language is involved. The direction of borrowing can be traced through history. According to Mwaniki (2004) the Chuka were trading with the Kambas long before the white man came to Chuka and built his camp at Chuka town (then known as Gatumbi) in 1913. The Kambas battered livestock with ivory from the Chuka. From the Kamba the Chuka would buy swords, spearheads and arrowheads. The Kamba got their goods from the coast. The Arabs (whom the Chuka called Nthumba) later came selling red beads and white cloths. According to oral history (Mwaniki, 2004), the Chuka learnt that the white man was camping at Masaku (Machakos), from where he later went to camp at Mbiri and Murang'a. From Murang'a, he came to Embu (1906) and then to Chuka (1913).

Historical facts support Mwaniki's oral history texts. For example, Ochieng' (1993) records that initially the coastal Swahili and Arab traders got their commercial supplies from peoples of the interior (the Mijikenda, the Oromo and the Kamba) in regional trading who had long organised themselves in regional trading links. The Kamba and the Oromo supplied ivory. This is a confirmation of Mwaniki's historical texts that the Kamba came to trade with the Chuka before the Arabs and the Swahili traders and that they were interested in ivory. Imported goods found their way into the interior in the reverse process.

Later, and due to increased demand and competition for ivory, Swahili/ Arab traders from the coast were dominating the major trading routes between the coast and the interior (Shillington, 2005; Okoth, 2010). By the 1870s and 1880s, well-armed Swahili /Arab trading caravans penetrated beyond the Kikuyu country through the northern fringes of the Maasai territory to do business with pastoralists and ivory hunters of Lake Victoria. Ochieng' (1993) notes that caravan routes from Lamu Island passed through the highlands along the Tana River valley to the highlands of central Kenya. Iron workers among the Kamba and a number of other communities started to use imported copper as raw material for spears and hoes.

From the fore-going discussion, the direction of borrowing is from the coast through the Kamba and later through the Arabs/ Swahili and the Kikuyu and then to the Meru region.

3. Gichuka Language

Gichuka is a language spoken by Chuka people. The Chuka are one of the nine Meru sub-groups. The others are Igembe, Tigania, Imenti, Miutini, Igoji, Mwimbi, Muthambi and Tharaka (Bernadi, 1959). By the inception of colonial rule (1913) the Chuka had established themselves as a people different from those around them in terms of their cultural peculiarity, language and territorial boundaries. Their unity was focused on the Mugwe (spiritual leader) authority. The Chuka live on the South Eastern slopes of Mt. Kenya and cover an area between the Thuci River in the South and Nithi River in the North (Bernardi, 1959).

In his renowned classification on Bantu languages, Guthrie (1967) does not classify Gichuka in any of the groups. Heine and Mohlig (1980) separated Gichuka from other sub- Kimeru dialects and put it together with Kikuyu and Kikamba. Paul (2009) lists Gichuka as language No. 12 among Kenya's indigenous languages. It is classified as Central Bantu in Class E 20 together with Kikuyu, Kamba, Kiembu, Kimiiru, Kitharaka and Mwimbi-Muthambi. The status of Gichuka is described as vigorous (meaning it is in use among all generations) and unstandardized.

3.1. Gichuka Phoneme Inventory

Gichuka has seven (7) short vowels which have longer counterparts. It also has seventeen (17) consonants (Kanana, 2011). The vowels and consonants illustrated below are from Kanana (2011) but some of the examples given are my own because not all the Gichuka phonemes are illustrated in the document.

3.1.1. Gichuka Vowels

Tongue Height	Front					Back	
High	ii						uu
Mid		ee				00:	
			33		აა:		
Low				aa			

Table 1

Source: 'Dialect Convergence and Divergence: A Case of Chuka and Imenti by F. E. Kanana, 2011, P.191

- **Short Vowels**
- /i/ / keriko / 'cooking stove'
- /e/ /andeka / 'write'
- 3. $/\epsilon/-/\tan\epsilon/$ in the past '
- 4. /a/-/ona/ 'see'
- 5. /o/ / roga / jump'
- / ɔ / / ɔβa / 'tie' 6.
- /u/ / ruga / 'cook'
- Long Vowels
- /i / as in / βi:mba./ 'dead bodies'
- /e: / as in / e:ria / 'that one'
- 3. /ε:/ as in / le: ta / 'bring'
- / a: / as in / b a:ria / 'there
- 'smoke' / p:/ as in / nt2:y2 /
- /o:/ as in /nto:ra / 'village'
- /u:/ us in /mu:ro / 'heat wave'

3.1.2. Gichuka Consonants

	Bilabial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Plosives	b		t (d)	c (J)	k (g)
Trill			r		
Fricative	β	ð			γ
Semi Vowel	(w)		(j)		
Nasal	m		n	p	ŋ

Table 2

Source: 'Dialect Convergence and Divergence: A Case of Chuka and Imenti by F. E. Kanana, 2011, P.194

- **Plosives**
- 1. /b/ voiceless bilabial stop -/ ba / 'give'
- 2. /t/ voiceless alveolar stop -/ βata / 'sweep'
- 3. /d/ voiced alveolar stop- / mogonda / 'farm/garden'
- 4. /c/ voiceless palatal stop /oca / 'pick'
- 5. / f / voiced palatal stop /nfoke / 'bee'
- 6. /k/ voiceless velar stop -/ kaβio / knife
- 7. /g/ voiced velar stop -/ yaka / 'this one'
- Fricatives
- /β/- voiced bilabial fricative / βaβa/ 'father'
- 9. /ð / voiced dental fricative / ðoma / 'read' 'smoke
- 10. / y / voiceless velar fricative / ntoyo /

- Nasals
- 11. / m / bilabial nasal / mami / 'mother'
 12. / n / alveolar nasal / ona / see
 13. / n / palatal nasal / nua / 'drink'
 14. / n / velar nasal / nombe / 'cow
- Semi Vowels
- 15. / w / bilabial semi-vowel / waku/ 'yours'
- 16. / j / palatal semi-vowel –/ mbɔja / dry maize stalk
- Trill
- 17. / r / alveolar trill –' rima' ' dig'

The voiceless palatal stop /c/ is often phonetically realised as [ʃ, s, ç, tʃ.] intervocalically or word initially, for example, the word. /n̄fera / 'path' singular and diminutive can be/ yaçera, yaʃera, yasera /. The voiced palatal stop / ƒ / has one free variant [dʒ]. The liquid /r/ has an alveolar lateral [l] as a variant. The alveolar lateral [l] is environmentally conditioned and occurs before /e, ϵ , .a, o, σ / and never occurs before /i, u / (Kanana, 2011). These will be treated in this thesis as derived consonant phonemes in Gichuka. The presentation of Gichuka inventory is relevant in the phonetic transcription of Gichuka loanwords.

3.2. Gichuka Orthography

The representation of the following consonants in orthography is different from the phoneme symbol.

Phonetic symbol Orthography		Example	Gloss	
/ n / - ny		nyũmba	house	
/β/- b-		βαβα		father
/γ/- g	-	gũkũ		here
/] /- j-		njũkĩ		bee
/ ŋ / – ng-'		ng'ombe		COW
For vowels, in orthography, th	ney are rep	resented as follows:		
Phonetic Symbol Orthography		Example	Gloss	
/i//	i	indo		'things'
/e /	ĩ	kĩriko		'charcoal stove'
/ε/	е	tene		'in the past '
/a/	a	gaka		'this one'
/o/	ũ	rũga		ʻjump'
/ ɔ /	0	ona		'see'
/u /	u	ruga		'cook'

The nasal clusters in Gichuka are the following:

Nasal Consonant	Point of Homorganic Nasal Assimilation	Phonetic Symbol	Example	Gloss
mb	Bilabial	/ mb /	mbori	Goat
nd	Alveolar	/ nd /	ndeke	aeroplane
nj	Alveolar	/ nj /	njoka	Snake
nt	Alveolar	/ nt /	ntaka	Mud
nc	Palatal	/nc/	ncera	Jail
nth	Dental	/ nð /	nthaka	circumcised young man
nk	Velar	/ nk /	nkũnia	gunny bag
ng nw	Velar Bilabial	/ ng / / nw/	nguo nwabo	Clothes Still there

Table 3

4. Theoretical Framework

Functional theory informed this research. The Functional Theory of language change (Halliday, 1984; New Meyer, 2001; Ansley & Mackenzie, 2005) is borrowed from the functional approach to language study which holds that linguistic structures can only be understood and explained with reference to semantic and communicative functions of language. The primary function of language is to be a vehicle for social interactions among human beings. Functional theories of grammar

pay attention to the way the language is actually used in a communicative context and not just to the formal relations between linguistic elements.

A functional approach emphasizes on usage, communicative function and social context of language. The functional approach has also been applied in the study of Discourse Analysis (Hengeveld & Mackenzie, 2010; Dik, 1980). According to the Functional Theory, lexical change is a function of communicative choices. Language changes as the needs of its users change and this is especially relevant at the level of vocabulary. Words that are not needed drop out and new words are coined as they are required and names of people and things are switched if they seem inadequate (Aitchison, 1993).

The Functional Theory of language change is relevant for this study because it shows that it is the users of a language who change the language so that it can meet their communicative needs. This is especially so in the case of lexical changes which is the concern of this study. External factors often trigger language change and these are social factors arising from the use of language in society. The lexical changes that have occurred in Gichuka have been introduced by the native speakers of Gichuka in order to meet their communicative needs. There are lexical items that the community no longer uses in everyday speech and new ones have taken their place. The Functional Theory adequately explains why lexical changes take place from a communicative perspective and that is why it has been used in this research.

5. Research Design

Broadly, a qualitative research design was adopted in this study. 'Qualitative research includes designs, techniques and measures that do not produce discrete numerical data. More often the data is in the form of words rather than numbers and these words are often grouped into categories (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). A combination of two study approaches; a historical research method and a descriptive approach were used to collect qualitative data. Historical research involves studying, understanding and explaining past events. This is done in order to arrive at conclusions concerning causes, effects or trends of past occurrences which may help to explain present events and anticipate future events. Descriptive research determines and reports things the way they are (Gay, 1976; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). The historical approach is suitable for the study of obsolete words and to gather etymological information. The descriptive approach was used in loanwords and words that have come into the language through other avenues such as coinage and semantic broadening.

6. Population

The target population of this study was all borrowed lexical items in Gichuka.

7. Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Purposive sampling was used to get the sample for this study. The researcher selected social domains which were identified based on previous research, that naturally experience language change in cases of language contact (Mutua, 2013; Mwaniki, 2013) and also based on personal observation. These domains are representative of all lexical changes have that occurred in Gichuka and they include: education, health, administration, agriculture, electrical goods and technology, household goods, food, religion, clothing, animals, trade and industry. Naming, and kinship terms were also included in order to take care of lexical items that are in the domain of culture. The researcher targeted a total of two hundred and forty words, one hundred and twenty for each language; Kiswahili and English. A total of two hundred and eighty-five (285) words were collected; one hundred and forty-one (141) from English and one hundred and forty-four (144) from Kiswahili.

Purposive sampling was also used to select informants. The researcher identified native speakers who are aged seventy years and above and have lived /worked in the location of the study for most of their active life. Informants over seventy years are able to tell the lexical items that were not there in the Gichuka language but are now a part of the Gichuka lexicon and also identify and explain obsolete lexical items with ease. The people in this age bracket have experienced the changes that have occurred in the language as well as other social changes that may have impacted on lexical changes. This was supplemented with obsolete words gathered from Mwaniki (2004) as explained in Section 2.4. The informants used in the study were able to tell the meanings of obsolete words and they also generated others in their conversations.

Purposive sampling was further used to reduce the informants to seven who would become members of a focused group discussion; three from Magumoni Division and four from Chuka Division based on the population in the Divisions. Three informants (aged twenty nine, forty and fifty two years); one from Magumoni Division and two from Chuka Division were added to the remaining seven informants to form a focused group discussion. This is because focused group discussions are effective if they comprise 7-10 members (Kasomo, 2006). The younger members were added to take care of different age groups.

8. Research Instruments

The researcher collected data using guiding cards by engaging the respondents in a conversation.

9. Validity and Reliability

The informants who were used in the data collection were native speakers of Gichuka. The native speakers of a language have intuition about the well-formedness of language structures. (Radford, 1988). This means that a native speaker has the ability to make judgments about whether a structure is correct or incorrect. In phonology, native speakers have strong

intuitions about phonological structure and phonotactics, that is, intuitions about what are possible and impossible sound sequences in a language

10. Results and Discussion

The results are presented in two categories; English loanwords and Kiswahili loanwords.

10.1. English Loanwords

English loanwords are presented under the semantic fields of food, fruits, drinks, household items, trade /industry sports, education, clothing, administration, religion, health, electrical goods, agriculture, animals and kinship terms.

10.1.1. Food, Fruits and Drinks

English	Gichuka
Avocado / ævaka:dau /	Ĩkondobia/ĩkondi /ekɔndɔβia /
Melon / melən /	Meroni / mɛrɔni /
Carrot / kærat /	Karati / karati /
Sugar / ʃʊga(r) /	cukari / cukari /
Cream / kri:m /	Kĩrimũ / kerimo /
Hotel / hautel /	Ũtĩri / oteri /
Soup /su:p /	Thubu / ðuβu /
Soda /sauda /	Conda/ cɔnda /
Juice / ʤu:s /	Njuici / J uici/
Sweet /suit /	Thwiti/ ðwiti /
Cake / kaik /	Kĩki / keki /
Cabbage / kæbiʤ /	Kabĩnji / kaβenji /

Table 4

10.1.2. Household Items

English	Gichuka
thermos / θʒ:məs /	Thamoci / ðamɔci/
Tank /taeŋk/	Ĩtangi /etan̂gi/
Blanket /blaeŋkit/	Műrengeti /morengeti /
Cupboard /kʌbad/	Kabũndi /kaβondi/
Picture /pikʃəa(r) /	Mbicha /mbica /
Curtain / k3:tn /	Katîini / kateini /
Jug /ʤʌg /	Njagi / J ayi /
Carton /ka:tn /	Katoni / katoni /
Stool /stu:l /	Cituru / cituru /
Glass /gla:s /	Ngirathi / ngiraði /
Store / sto:(v) /	Citoo / cito:/
Dish /di∫/	Ndici / ndici /
Gallon /gælan /	Ngaraani / ngra:rani /
Candle /kændl /	Kando / kandɔ /
Stove /stauv /	Citũbu / citoβu /
Mat /mæt /	Mati / mati /
Calendar /kælində(r)	Karenda / Karenda /
Sofa / səufə /	Coba / coβa /
Drawer / dro:(r) /	Ndiro / ndiro /
Shelf / ſelf /	Ceobu/ cεɔβu / cεrɔβu /

Table 5

10.1.3. Trade, Industry and Sports

English	Gichuka
Metre /mitə(r)/	Mita /mita/
Kilometre / kiləm:itə(r) /	Kirũmita / kiromita /
Mile /mail /	Mairũ /mairo /
Machine /məʃ:in /	Macini /macini /
Town /taun /	Taũni /taoni /
Litre /litə(r) /	Rita /rita /
Bank / bæŋk /	Mbanki / mbanki /
Acre / eika(r) /	Ĩka /e:ka /
Kilo /ki:laʊ /	Kirũ /kiro /
Cement /siment/	Cimiti /cimiti /
Football / fʊ:tbɔ:l /	Mũbira /moβira /
Credit / kredit /	Kirīndīti / kirendeti /
Loan / loun /	Rũni / roni /
Canteen / kænt:n /	Gantini / ɣantini /
Society / səsarəti /	Cacayatî / cacayate /
Shiling /ʃɪlɪŋ /	Ciringi /ciringi /
Conductor /kəndʌktə(r)/	Kondakita / kɔndakita /
Kiosk / kipsk /	Gĩociki / yeɔciki /

Table 6

10.1.4. Education

English	Gichuka
Class / kla:s /	Kĩrathi / keraði /
Book / b ʊ k /	Mbuku / mbuku /
Chalk / ʧɔ:k //	Coka / coka /
School / sku:l /	cukuru / cukuru /
Ruler / ru:la(r) /	Rura / rura /
Standard / stænded /	Citandandi / citandandi /
Nursery / nʒ:sari /	Nacarī / nacare /
Number /namba(r) /	Namba / namba /
Pencil / pensl /	Bencũ / βεnco /
Biro / bairəu /	Mbirũ / mbiro /
Degree / digri: /	Ndingiri / ndingiri /

Table 7

10.1.5. Clothing

Gichuka
Cikati / cikati /
Caati / ca:ti /
Taĩ /tae /
Cogici / cɔɣici /
ĭgoti /eyɔti /
Mbagi / bayi /
Mburaŭci / mburaoci/
Minicikati / minicikati /
Mburibukĩci / m͡buriβukeci /
Bĩa /βea /

Table 8

10.1.6. Administration

English	Gichuka
Jail / J eil/	ncera / n̂cera /
Court /kɔ:t /	/ itck / itoX
District Commissioner (DC)	Nd:ici /ndi:ci /
License /laisns /	Raicenci /raicɛnisi /
Commander /kama:nda(r) /	Komanda /kɔmanda /
Chief / tʃi:f /	Cibu/ciβu/
Officer /fiser(r) /	Obica / ɔβisa/
Fine /fain /	Baĩni / βaeni /
Form /fo:m /	Bomu / βɔmu /
Governor /gʌvənə(r) /	Ngabana / ngaβana /
Police /pəli:s /	Borici / βɔrici /
Camp / kæmp /	Kambĩ / kambe /
Patrol / pətrəul /	Batiroo / βatirɔ /
Corporal / kɔ:pərəl /	Koburo / kɔβurɔ /
Council / kaunsl /	Kancũ / kanco /

Table 9

10.1.7. Religion

English	Gichuka
Preacher /pri:ʧa(r)	Mũbunjia /mũβu J ia/
Preach (v) /pri:tʃ/	Kũbunjia /koβunJia/
Sacrament /sækrament/	Thakaramenti / ðakaramenti/
Padre /pa:drei/	Batĩrĩ /βatere/
Choir /kwia(r)	Kwaya /kwaja/
Catechism class	Kĩrathi / keraði/
Catholic /kæθlik/	Kathoreki /kaðɔrεki/
Bible /Baibl/	Mbaibũ / mβaibo /
Sister / sista /	Cicita / cicita /
Deacon / di:kən /	Ndikoni / ndikoni /
Guild / gild /	Ngirundi / ngirundi /

Table 10

10.1.8. Health

English	Gichuka
Hospital /hpspitl /	Cibitarĩ / ciβitare /
Doctor /dpkta(r) /	Ndagitarĩ /ndayetare /
Pneumonia /nju:maunia /	Nimunia / nimunia /
Cholera / βlera /	Korera /kɔrera /
Clinic /klinik /	Kirinikĩ /kirineki /
Polio /pauliu /	Borio /βorio /
Nurse / na:s /	Naci / naci /
Cancer / kænsə(r) /	Kanca / kanca /
Menengitis / menindzaitis /	Menengaitia / menengaitia /
Maternity / /mətɜ:nəti /	Matanîtî / matanete /

Table 11

10.1.9. Electrical Goods and Technology

English	Gichuka
Bus / bas /	Mbaci / baci /
Socket / skit /	Coketi / cɔ:kɛti /
Torch / to:tʃ /	Toci / to:ci /
Garage / gæra:ʒ /	Ngaraci / ngaraci /
Brakes / breik /	Mburîki / mbureki /
Lorry / lɔri /	Rori / rori /
Tyre / taia(r) /	Taĩri /taeri /
Wire / waia(r) /	Waya / waja /
Battery / bætri /	Mbetiri / mbɛtiri /
TV / tivi/	Tibi / tiβi: /
\ lic \ liO	Oiro / oiro /
Gum / gʌm /	Ngamu /ngamu /
Tractor / trækta(r) /	Tiragita /tiragita /
Driver / draiva(r) /	Ndereba /ndεrεβa /
Bill / bil /	mbiirũ/mbiro/
Generator / ʤenareita(r) /	njenerator / J εnεreta /
Gate / geit /	ngĩti/nĝeti /
Bomb / bom /	/ Mbomu / bomu
Pipe / paip /	Mũbaibũ /moβaiβo /
Machine gun / məʃi:n gʌn /	Műcinga /mocinga /

Table 12

10.1.10. Agriculture

English	Gichuka
Fertilizer / fʒ:talaize(r) /	Bataraica / βataraica /
Acre	Ĩka /eka /
Quarter of an acre	Kwota / kwota /
Kinship Terms	Gichuka
English	
Uncle /ողkl /	Ang'ko /aŋ͡kɔ /
Aunt / a:nt /	Anti /anti /
Cousin /kʌzn /	Kacini /kacini /
Brother /brʌðə(r) /	Mburatha /mburaða /
Sister /sistə(r) /	Cicita /cicita /

Table 13

A summary of English loanwords according to domains is shown in Table 3. Verbs are not included.

10.1.11.Categorization of English Loanwords into Domains

Domain	Frequency	%
Food Fruits and Drinks	12	8.823 %
Household Items	20	14.70 %
Trade, Industry and Sports	18	13.23 %
Education	11	8.08 %
Clothing	10	7.35 %
Administration	15	11.02 %
Religion	11	8.08 %
Health	10	7.35 %
Elecrical Goods and Technology	21	15.44%
Agriculture	03	2.20 %
Kinship Terms	05	3.67%
Total	136	100 %

Table 14

Table 3 shows that English has contributed vocabulary in Gichuka in all the domains The domain of electrical goods and technology has the highest contribution (15.44 %) followed by the domain of household items (14.7 %) while the domain of trade, industry and sports comes third (13.23 %).

Languages borrow from the domain of technology out of need; to name new technological devices (Fromkin et al,2003). English is considered to be the language of technology especially in Anglophone Africa where the local languages have not been developed to adequately express technological and scientific ideas (Muthwi, 2002). Household items also recorded a high percentage probably because the contact with foreigners meant the introduction of new household items which the Chuka people did not have. Adapting to the use of these items meant borrowing the names of the items from the users.

10.1.12. Verbs Borrowed from English

English	Gichuka	Gloss
Retire /ritaiə /	Kũritaya / koritaa /	To retire
Shoot / ∫u:t /	Gũcuta /gocuta /	To shoot
Fine / faɪn /	Kũbaina / koβaina /	To fine
Surrender /sərendər /	Gũcarenda / gocarenda /	To surrender
Time /taɪm /	Gũtaima / gutaima /	To time

Table 15

The data in (L) above (on verbs borrowed from English) shows that verbs are less likely to be borrowed as compared to nouns and the receptor language employs its own denominal verbalization to turn them into verbs before using them. The lexical items retire, fine, and time are nouns and then the prefixes ku- or gu- (which are verbal prefixes in Gichuka) are prefixed to turn them into verbs. These items are also verbs in English but in Gichuka they are used only as verbs. The English verbs 'shoot' and 'surrender' also undergo prefixation to turn them into Gichuka verbs. This finding supports other research that has been done on loanwords.

10.2. Kiswahili Loanwords

Kiswahili loanwords are presented using similar domains as English with the addition of one domain: animals. The lack of a domain for animals in English is probably because the animals that are introduced were first introduced at the coast before being introduced to the interior according to the direction of borrowing. Gichuka then borrowed them indirectly from Kiswahili.

10.2.1. Food, Fruits and Drinks

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Mchele /mʧεlε /	Mûcere / mocere /	Rice
Chapati / ʧapati /	Cabati / caβati /	Chapati (EAE)
Embe / εmbε /	Ĩembe / eεmbe /	Mango
Mboga / mbɔga /	Mboka /m͡bɔka /	Any accompaniment to food
Kitunguu /kitungu:/	Gĩtũngũrũ /yétangoro /	Onion
Chumvi / ʧumvi /	Cumbĩ / cumbe /	Salt
Nyanya / ŋaŋa /	Nyanya / ŋaŋa /	Tomatoes
Majani / ma J ani /	Macani / macani /	Tea leaves
Sukuma wiki / Sukuma wiki /	Cukuma/ cukuma /	Kales
Nanasi / nanasi /	Ĩnanasi / enanaci /	Pineapple
Ndimu / ndimu/	Ĩrimũ / erimo /	Lemon
Kitoweo /kitoweo /	Gîtoero / yetɔɛrɔ /	Fried food with more than one ingredient
Samaki /samaki /	Camaki /samaki /	Fish
Sambusa / sambusa /	Ncambuca /ncambuca /	Samosa (EAE)
Mkate / mkate /	Mugate / moγatε /	Bread

Table 16

10.2.2. Household Items

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Kichana / kitʃanijɔ /	Gĩchanũri / yecanori /	Comb
Taulo / tawulɔ /	Taurũ / tauro /	Towel
Mkanda / mkanda /	Mũkanda /mokanda /	Rope
Mkebe / mkεbε /	Mũkebe /mokeβe /	Tin
Karai / karaji /	Kîraî / karaje /	Wash basin
Kikapu / kikapu /	Gikabũ / γikaβo /	Basket
Kiberiti / kibiriti /	Kĩbiriti / keβiriti /	Match box
Kijiko / ki J ikɔ /	Gĩciko / yeciko /	Spoon
Mlango / mlango /	Mũrango / morango /	Door
Dirisha / diriʃa /	Ndirica / ndirica /	Window
Sahani / sahani /	Thani / ðani /	Plate
Kiti / kiti /	Gĩti / yete /	Seat
Meza / mɛza /	Metha / meða /	Table
Ua / uwa /	Yuwa / eoa /	Flower
Nyumba / ŋumba /	Nyomba / ŋɔm͡ba /	House
Sufuria / sufuria /	Cuburia / cuβuria /	Saucepan
Mwiko / mwiko /	Mwinko / mwenko /	Cooking stick
Kufuli / kufuli /	Kubũrĩ / kuβure /	Padlock
Sanduku / sanduku /	Ĩthanthũkũ / eðanðoko /	Box
Mtungi / mtungi /	Műtűngi /motongi /	Water container
Kibuyu / kibuju /	Kĩbũyũ / keβojo /	Small plastic container
Sabuni / sabuni /	Thamuni / ða:muni /	Soap
Msumari / msumari /	Mũcumari / mucumare /	Nails
Birika / birika /	Mbirika / mbereka /	Kettle
Kisu / kisu /	Kabiũ / kaβio /	Knife
Kitanda / kitanda /	Gĩtanda / yetanda /	Bed
Kikombe / kikombe /	Gĩkombe / yekɔmbe /	Cup
Chupa / tſupa /	Mũcuba / mocuβa /	Bottle
Pasi / pasi /	Bathi / βaði /	Iron-box
Choo / tʃɔ: /	Kioro /keɔrɔ /	Latrine
Gunia / gunija /	Nkũnia / nk̃unia /	Gunny bag
Bakuli / bakuli /	Mbakũri / mbakori /	Bowl
Makaa / maka: /	Makara / makara /	Charcoal
Jiko / J ikɔ /	Kĩriko / kerikɔ /	Charcoal cooking stove
Kibeti / kibɛti /	Kĩbeti / kebɛti /	Purse
Mkeka / mkeka /	Mũgeka / mũγεka /	Carpet / Mat
Mwavuli / mwavuli /	Mîaburî / meaβure /	Umbrela
Taa / ta: /	Taa / ta: /	Kerosene lamp
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Table 17

10.2.3. Education

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Mwalimu / mwalimu /	Mwalimũ / mwarimo /	Teacher
Kalamu / kalamu /	Karamu / karamu /	Pen
Ruhusa / ruhusa /	Rũtha / roða /	Permission
Mpira / mpira /	Mũbira / moβira /	Ball
/ cmcsix / omosiX	Kĩthomo / ɣeðɔmɔ /	Education
Dakika / dakika /	Ndakinga / ndakinga /	Minutes
Barua / baruwa /	Barũa / βarowa /	Letter
Ngumbaru / ngumbaru /	Nkumbarũ / nkumbaro /	Adult education
Tarehe / tarεhε /	Tarîki / tareki /	Date
Mpango / mpango /	Mũbango / moβan͡gɔ /	Plan

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Mgomo / mgɔmɔ /	Mũgomo / mogomo /	Strike
Bahasha / bahasa /	Mbaaca / mba:ca /	Envelope
Hesabu / hɛsabu /	Mathaabu / maða:βu /	Mathematics

Table 18

10.2.4. Trade and Industry

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Barabara / bara'bara /	Barabara / βaraβara /	Road
Kahawa / kahawa /	Kaũwa / kaowa /	Coffee
Mshahara / mʃhara /	Mũcara / mocara /	Salary
Pikipiki / pikipiki /	Bikibiki / βikiβiki /	Motorcycle
Fundi / fundi /	Mũbundi /moβundi /	Plumber/mason
Duka /duka /	Nduka /nduka /	Shop
Ratili / ratili /	Ratiri / ratiri /	Weighing balance
Biashara / bijaʃara /	Mbiashara / mbiacara /	Business
Kibanda / kibanda /	Kĩbanda / keβanda /	Factory
Rangi /rangi /	Rangi / ra:ngi /	Colour
Randa / randa/	Randa / randa /	Plane
Soko / soko /	Thoko / ðɔkɔ /	Food market
Bao / mbao /	Mbaũ / mbao /	Timber
Mchanga / mtʃanga /	Mũthanga / moðanga /	Sand

Table 19

10.2.5. Clothing

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Kofia / kɔfija /	Nkobia / nk̄ɔβia /	Hat
Nguo / nguwɔ /	Nguo / nguo /	Clothes
Kiatu / kijatu /	Kiratũ / kerato /	Shoe
Rinda / rinda /	Ĩrinda / erinda /	Dress
Kitambaa / kitamba:/	Gĩtambaa / yetamba: /	Headscarf
Mshipi / mʃipi /	Mũcibi / mociβi /	Belt
Fulana / fulana /	βurana / βurana /	Sweater
Mfuto / mfuto /	Mũbuto / moβuto /	Trouser
Pete / pεtε /	Mbete / mbεtε /	Ring
Kabuti / kabuti /	Kabuti / kaβuti /	Cold weather coat
Kilemba / kilɛmba /	Kĩremba / kerɛmba /	Turban

Table 20

10.2.6. Administration

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Serikali / serikali /	Thirikari / ðirikari /	Government
Askari / askari /	Műthigari /moðigari /	Policeman
Jeshi / J εʃi /	Jeci / J ɛci /	Military
Kipande / kipandε / Ukoloni / ukoloni / Siasa / siasa /	Kĩbandĩ /keβande / Ũkoroni / okɔloni / Ciaca / ciaca /	Identity card Colonialism Politics

Table 21

10.2.7. Religion

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Kanisa / kanisa /	Kanitha / kaniða /	Church
Batizo / batizo /	Kĩbatithio / keβatiðiɔ /	Baptism
/idmcsm/ idmosM	Maboya /maβɔja /	Prayers
Msalaba /msalaba/	Mũtharaba /moðaraβa /	Cross
Sikukuu /siku ku:/	Thigũnkũ / ðigonko /	Christmas
Padre /padiri /	Batĩrĩ / βatere /	Catholic priest
Mkristo / mkristo /	Mukirisitű / mokirisito /	Christian

Table 23

10.2.8. Health

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Dawa / dawa /	Ndawa / ndawa /	Medicine
Kaswende / kaswεndε /	Gacwende/ yacwende /	Syphilis
Kisonono / kisənənə /	Gĩconono/ ɣicɔnɔnɔ /	Gonorrhea
Miwani / miwani /	Mĩwani / mewani /	Eye Glasses

Table 24

10.2.9. Animals

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Farasi /farasi/	Mbarathi / mbaraði /	Horse
Ngamia /ngamia /	Nkamĩra / nkamera /	Camel
Bata /bata /	Mbata / mbata /	Turkey
Punda / punda /	Mbunda / mbunda /	Donkey
Kanga /kanga /	Kanga / kanga /	Guinea fowl

Table 25

10.2.10. Electrical Goods and Technology

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Simu /simu/	Thimu / ðimo /	Phone
Ndege /ndege/	Ndeke /ndεkε /	Plane
Safari / safari /	Cabarĩ /caβare /	Journey/ Safari (EAE)
Mfereji / mfɛrɛfi /	Mũberethi /moβεreði /	Water pipe
Gari /gari /	Ngari / n̂gari /	Car
Chuma / tʃuma /	cuma / cuma /	Metal
Mabati / mabati /	Ĩbati / eβati /	Iron Sheet
Risasi / risasi /	Ricaci /ricaci /	Bullet
Hema / hεma /	Ĩgema / eγεma /	Tent
Makasi / makasi /	Makaci / makaci /	Scissors
Stima /stima /	Citima / citima /	Electricity
Saa /sa:/	Thaa / ða: /	Wallclock/time/wristwatch
Msingi / msingi /	Mũcingi /mocingi /	Foundation
Mnyororo / mnororo /	Nyororo / nororo /	Chain
Baiskeli / baiskεli /	Mũicikili / moicikili /	Bicycle
Mhuri / mhuri /	Mũ:ri / mo:ri /	Rubber Stamp

Table 26

10.2.11. Agriculture

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Jembe / Jembe/	Ĩcembe /ecεm͡bε /	Jembe (EAE)
Uma / uma /	Uma / oma /	Hoe
Panga / panga /	Kĩbanga /keβan̂ga /	Panga
L.Kinship Terms	Gichuka	Gloss
Kiswahili		
Mzee / mzε: /	Muthee /moðε: /	Elderly and respected male person

Table 27

A summary of Kiswahili loanwords according to domains is given in Table 28

10.2.12. Categorization of Kiswahili Loanwords into Domains

Domain	Frequency	Percentage
Food Fruits and Drinks	15	10.86%
Household Items	38	28.2 %
Trade, Idustry and Sports	13	10.1 %
Education	14	10.1 %
Clothing	11	7.97%
Administration	06	4.34 %
Religion	08	5.79 %
Health	04	2.89 %
Elecrical Goods and Technology	16	11.59 %
Agriculture	03	2.17%
Animals	05	3.62 %
Kinship terms	01	0.72%
TOTAL	137	100 %

Table 28

Table 28 shows that Gichuka has borrowed lexical items from Kiswahili in all the domains. The three top domains are household items (28.2 %), electrical goods and technology (10.86 %), food, fruits and drinks (10.1 %). Gichuka has borrowed most lexical items from the household domain because the items that were used as household items were all discarded in favour of modern items such as plates and spoons. Technology is also a domain with new items which are associated with modernity. Due to trade contacts with the coastal peoples, new foods, fruits and drinks were also introduced.

10.2.13. Verbs Borrowed from Kiswahili

Kiswahili	Gichuka	Gloss
Kusoma / kusoma /	Gũthoma /goðɔma /	To read
Kutoroka / kutoroka /	Gũtoroka / gotoroka /	To run away
Kugoma/ kugoma / Kuandika / kuandika / Kuteresa /kutɛrɛsa /	Kügoma / kogoma / Kwandîka /kuandika/ Güteresa / goteresa /	To go on strike To write To slide

Table 29

The data in (M) also shows that verbs are formed through prefixaton. Unlike the English data, lexical items from Kiswahili have a verbal prefix and in some lexical items it is changed to fit into the receptor language's verbal system for example, in the words 'gũthoma, gũtoroka and gũteresa.'

10.2.14. Others

Rahisi(Adj)/ rahisi /	Raici/ raici/	Cheap or easy
Ndani(Adv)/ ndani /	Ndaani/ nda:ni /	Inside

Table 30

The distribution of loanwords according to the languages is shown in Table5.

10.2.15. Borrowed Lexical Items

Donor Language	Frequency	%
Kiswahili	144	50.53 %
English	141	49. 47%
Total	285	100%

Table 31

Table 31 shows that Gichuka has borrowed almost equally from Kiswahili (50.52 %), and English (49.47%). Gichuka has borrowed almost equally from Kiswahili and English because the coatact with the two languages is equally strong. For Kiswahili, this contact came as result of the trade that was taking place between the coastal people and the people from the interior even before colonisation took place. The colonial contact led to borrowing from English.

The borrowed lexical items were also categorized according to parts of speech. The distribution of borrowed lexical items categorized according to parts of speech is shown in Table 32.

Categorization of Lexical Items into Parts of Speech

Part of Speech	Frequency	Percentage
Nouns	285	95.95 %
Verbs	10	3.36 %
Adjectives	1	0.34 %
Adverb	1	0.34 %
Total	297	100 %

Table 32

11. Conclusion

The findings of this research confirm that nouns are borrowed more than other parts of speech (95.95 %), followed by verbs (3.36 %) and the adverbs and adjectives account for 0.34 %) each. The disparity between nouns and other classes is quite big and this is attributed to the fact that nouns play a referential function in language and are usually borrowed more than other parts of speech.

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