

A STUDY OF ENGLISH-DERIVED LOANWORDS IN

BEMBA

BY

KANGWA NJENJE KENNEDY

**A Dissertation Submitted to The University of Zambia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree
of Master of Arts in Linguistic Science**

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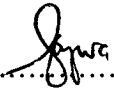
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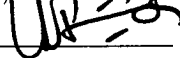
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APPROVAL

The dissertation of **Kangwa Njenje Kennedy** is approved as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Art in Linguistic Science of the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

This study is about the phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and some aspects of sociolinguistics of English-derived loanwords in Bemba. It is a corpus study of 900 items. Because the syllable structure of English differs from that of Bemba, the aim of this research was to collect and study more data on English – derived loanwords in Bemba.

This study comprises four chapters. Chapter One is the introduction to the study, Chapter Two presents the data, while Chapter Three discusses the findings of the research. The last chapter presents the conclusion.

It was discovered that Bemba has borrowed many words from English into Bemba language. Most of the borrowed words are nouns and verbs. It was also discovered that substitution and deletion are the major strategies employed to English borrowed words in Bemba in order to satisfy constraints on phonotactics and syllable structure in Bemba.

Further, it was established that the stressed syllables in English are realised in Bemba by high tone. Most of the borrowed words fall in class 1a/2a of Bemba class pair system. A full list of English-derived loanwords in Bemba is found in Chapter Two.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved wife Brenda and the children Chella, Eneya and Mutinta.

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This work would not have been a reality without the help of other people. That is why I feel the obligation and pleasure to thank all those who have helped me before, during and after the writing of this dissertation. To you all, I say thank you.

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ABBREVIATIONS, SYMBOLS AND CONVENTIONS

1. n ----- noun
2. v ----- verb
3. adj----- adjective
4. adv----- adverb
5. TB----- Town Bemba
6. RB-----Rural Bemba
7. Ø-----null
8. Representation of tones

(a) A high tone will be symbolised by the acute accent,

e.g. a' = short high toned a

a'a' = long high toned a

(b) A low tone will be symbolized by the absence of any symbol.

Thus, in ka'a'pu, a'a' is a long high toned a and u is a short low toned u.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 General introduction

Many linguists have noted that languages, like culture, are rarely sufficient in themselves. To reflect the changes in the habits and life of its speakers and thus keep pace linguistically with the different developments of modern life, it has become inevitable for any language to borrow words from other languages. The Bemba language, classified by Guthrie as M42 is one language that has borrowed words from other languages such as English, Swahili, Nyanja and Kabanga.

Loanwords are important to phonologists for at least two reasons. First, the manner in which the loanword is pronounced in the borrowing language is usually quite different from the pronunciation in the source language. This is usually because the word in the source language may contain sounds, which do not occur in the borrowing language. The way the loanword is actually pronounced in the borrowing language may provide insights into the phonology of that language which would not otherwise be apparent from the native words. The second reason is that in many languages, loanwords have particular phonological characteristics, which make them different from the native vocabulary. For instance, the English vocabulary in Bemba, the Chinese vocabulary in Japanese and many others, each either undergoes special phonological rules that the native vocabulary does not participate in.

1.1 Background to the Bemba language

Bemba, called by its native speakers as Icibemba is a Bantu language (Guthrie, M42). It is the principal language of the Northern and Luapula provinces of Zambia. It is also spoken in the Eastern Katanga region of the Democratic Republic of Congo. Although it is used in education in both provinces, there are a number of other languages that are spoken there. Bemba is also spoken on the Copperbelt and most areas along the line of rail. It should, however, be noted that the Bemba spoken on the Copperbelt and the line of rail, usually called Town Bemba (TB) differs in many respects from that spoken in the Northern and Luapula provinces. The latter is usually called Rural Bemba (RB). It should be mentioned here that the Bemba referred to in this dissertation is that of the rural towns of Northern Province (Kasama, Mporokoso, Mungwi, Chinsali, Luwingu and Mpika).

1.2 Statement of the problem

The syllable structures of some sounds in English are different from those found in Bemba. Because of this, words borrowed from English into Bemba are typically altered to conform to the phonological canons of the Bemba language. As noted above, although Richardson (1961,1963) and Kashoki (1977, 1990 and 1999) have written on loanwords in Bemba, they have not dealt with the phonological rules applicable to the loanwords. Richardson (1961) talks about some observations of the status of Town Bemba in Northern Rhodesia. In his later works, Richardson (1963) documents examples of deviations and innovations in Bemba. Unlike Richardson (1961), Kashoki (1977) discusses Town Bemba – a sketch of its main characteristics. Later, Kashoki (1990) wrote about loanwords in Bemba. In his later works, Kashoki (1999) expanded his

writings on loanwords to include loanwords in Silozi, Chinyanja and Chitonga. The problem, therefore, is the absence of literature on detailed rules of how English-derived loanwords are borrowed and modified so as to fit in the Bemba phonological system.

1.3 Objectives

Since there is very little literature on phonological rules of English-derived loanwords in Bemba, the aim of this study is to collect and study more data on English-derived loanwords in Bemba.

The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To classify the English – derived loanwords into Bemba parts of speech.
2. To show how English-derived loanwords in rural Bemba differ from those in town Bemba.
3. To show by using phonological rules how prothesis, anaptyxis, syncope and apocope are applied to English derived loanwords in Bemba.

1.4 Research questions

This study had the following research questions:

1. Into which Bemba word class are most English words borrowed?
2. How are the English-derived loanwords allocated to the above word class?
3. What happens to the English-derived loanwords when they are borrowed into Bemba?
4. Are there any regularities or irregularities in the patterns of loanwords allocation which would make it possible to predict future trends within the process of borrowing?

5. Are there any regularities or irregularities in the patterns of loanword insertion and deletion, which would make it possible to predict future trends within the process of borrowing?

1.5 Significance of the study

This study is important in several ways. For instance, it has provided reading material in the form of concrete, verifiable data for researchers who would like to use phonological rules on the same or similar topics in future. The findings of this can also be useful to linguists and other scholars interested not only in language use but also language change.

1.6 Review of related literature

Languages grow and change. The Bemba language, like any living language, is growing. One of the ways in which any change is manifested especially where speakers of a language have had political, religious, commercial and social intercourse with speakers of different languages is through borrowing of words. In fact, borrowing is the principal source of new words. Like any other living language, the Bemba language, has borrowed words from other languages such as Swahili, Nyanja and English. Owing to the introduction of Western education and the introduction of English following the colonisation of Zambia by Britain, more words have been borrowed from English than from these other languages. These different contacts have affected the social and cultural habits so much that English has now had a considerable influence on Bemba. The most important reason for Bembas borrowing words is the need to designate new things, new places and new concepts.

It should be noted that while there is a lot of literature on the phenomenon of borrowing in general, there is very little literature on loanword phonology.

Many scholars have written on loanwords in different languages. These include Whiteley (1963) who did a preliminary survey on loanwords in Kamba, Heine (1968), who allocated loanwords within the nominal class systems of some Togo remnant languages and Salami (1972) whose work was in the English –derived loanwords in Yoruba. Other notable scholars are Sanford (1973) who researched on insertion in Hanunoo and Latin languages and deletion in French and Hyman (1975) who worked on loanwords in Japanese.

The most extensive publications on loanwords in Zambian languages are Kashoki (1977, 1990, 1999) and Musonda and Kashoki (1982). Kashoki's works include the loanwords in Cibemba, Cinyanja Tonga and Silozi. It must be noted that although Kashoki has written on these languages, he has not discussed phonological rules applied to loanwords. This study goes a step further by analysing not only the nature and grammatical structure of loanwords but also the phonological rules that are relevant to their study such as prothesis and apocope using English-derived loanwords in Bemba as the corpus.

Languages, like continents have histories. Like human beings, languages can grow. The English language has a history that goes back hundreds of years. It is constantly changing. Mc Callum et al (1981) report that like a living thing, a language grows when new words are formed. Of the four sources of new words (compounding, blending,

clipping and borrowing) in the massive vocabulary of English, borrowing from other languages is the principal one. When people come into contact, they are likely to borrow some of the words used by others even if they speak different languages.

In about A.D 600, missionaries started a vigorous conversion of the English to Christianity. Besides introducing a new religion, the missionaries also introduced a new language. Educated people began to learn the language of the church-Latin. Many Latin words were borrowed and made part of English. Such words include *school*, *altar*, *candle* and *paper*.

Brown et al (1992) note that our oldest words were taken directly from Old English, which was the earliest form of English spoken before 1100. Examples are *heaven*, *star*, *sun*, *wind*, *moon* and *thunder*. In the Middle English period (1100-1500), many words were borrowed from other languages, mostly through French or Latin.

During the Modern English period, which is the period since 1500, English has borrowed words from hundreds of languages around the world. This period began to develop when the great age of European exploration and discovery began. "The English sailed the world and brought back not only material wealth and new experiences but also new words to describe them." James and Stewig (1990:210). The process has continued even today. Cars, ships, trains and planes make people travel easily from country to country. Radio, television, computer and records transmit language from place to place. As Sulzby et al (1990:56) say, "English words enter foreign languages, foreign words enter English."

It should be mentioned that not many of these loanwords came directly into English. In the majority of cases, a word passes from one language to another before entering English. Potts and Nicholas (1958) point out a saying that is often heard that, “Words have wings.” And the following example by Royster et al (1996:619) supports this view:

...banana began as an African word. The word was picked up in West Africa by traders from Portugal. Later, it was borrowed from Portuguese into Spanish. Then after bananas were brought into England, the English started using the word. It became part of the English language.

The English language is sometimes compared with a healthy oak tree, which expands with the years. Every new invention and discovery brings into the English language a whole new vocabulary.

It should also be mentioned that parts of words have also been borrowed. Royster (1996) reports that the word television, for example, comes from the Greek *tele* “far off” and the Latin *insio* “to see.”

English has many synonyms, partly because words with similar meanings have been borrowed from more than one language. Gray et al (1990) show that *funny* is an Old English word, *humorous* is from Latin and *comical* is from Greek.

It should be noted that some of our everyday words give clues to what English life was like after the Norman Conquest. For instance, *hog*, *calf* and *sheep* came to present day English from Old English; but *bacon*, *veal* and *mutton* were borrowed from French before

the Fifteenth Century. The social structure of the times is reflected by these word origins. "The English peasants raised the livestock while the French nobles got to feast (another French word!) on the meats" Kinneavy and Warriner (1993: 488).

The term "loanword" or "borrowed word" has been defined differently by different linguists. Yule (1985:52) defines it as; "...the taking over of words from other languages." Kashoki (1999:10) defines it as:

By "loanword," "loan," "borrowed word" or "adoptive" as used interchangeably in sociolinguistic literature) reference is here made to that (lexical) item borrowed from one language into another (whether similar or dissimilar) which has a reasonable degree of permanence in the recipient language, is familiar to a wide spectrum of its speakers and is in common or general currency.

Bright (1992: 197) defines borrowing as "...a general and traditional word used to describe the adoption into a language of a linguistic feature previously used in another."

Asher (1994:2273) defines loanword as referring "...to a word that enters a language through borrowing from some other language." Aitchison (1991) defines the term differently. She says:

Borrowing is somewhat a misleading word since it implies that the element in question is taken from the donor language for a limited amount of time and then returned, which is by no means the case. The item is actually copied, rather than borrowed in the strict sense of the term (p.113).

Haugen (1956,1959) distinguishes between two main types of borrowing: the loanword imported in part or whole from the other language and adapted phonetically into the base or recipient language (like *czar*, *croissant*, *pizza* and *chilli* in English) and the loanshift, in which the meaning of a word or group of words in the base language is extended to

cover a new concept. Thus, the French word "realiser" has not only retained its original meaning of bringing into concrete existence but it now has taken on the English meaning of being aware of something.

Loanwords can be further divided into pure loanwords and loanblends. In loanblends, one part is borrowed and the other belongs to the base language. For example, in Australian Germany *gumbaum* (gumtree) is a blend of English "gum" and German "baum" (tree). Clyne (1967) gives us other examples: *sidecafe*, *petrolpumpe* and *country platz*. Others found in Pennsylvania German are *bockabuck* (pocketbook) and *julekard* (Christmas card).

A loanshift, which is a second type of borrowing, consists in either taking a word in the base language and extending its meaning to correspond to that of a word in the receiving language or rearranging of words in a base language along the pattern provided by the other language and thus creating a new meaning (Haugen, 1956, 1969). The influence from the other language in either case is purely semantic and not phonetic as in the case of loanwords. The reason a bilingual chooses a loanshift in preference to a loanword is a complex one, but Haugen (1969:380) proposes this one: "If a native word is similar in sound to a desired foreign word, it is often given the meanings of the foreign word; if not, it is more common to borrow the word." A loanshift may also be used instead of a loanword because the community has a policy of language purity. Outright borrowing a word from the other language may be frowned upon, even by other bilinguals, and therefore, the bilingual changes the base language so that it can express the concept.

Loanshifts can be further divided into extensions and creations. Extensions, which have also been called semantic loans (Pap, 1949), usually consist in extending the meaning of a word in the base language so that it resembles the meaning of a word in the other language. In most cases, the words in the two languages resemble one another phonetically. Thus, in the United States, Portuguese- English bilinguals have taken the Portuguese word *humoroso* (meaning capricious) and have extended its meaning to cover that of English word *humorous*. *Grosseria* (meaning a rude mark) has also been taken and its meaning has been extended to *grocery*. German- English bilinguals in Australia have taken the German word *magasin* (meaning storeroom) and have extended its meaning to that of the English word *magazine* (Clyne, 1967).

The second type of loanshift, which is termed “creation”, involves rearranging words or morphemes in the base language so that they correspond to the pattern of the other language. Also called calques or loan translations, these creations are found at the level of compounds and idiomatic expressions. For example, the English word *skyscraper* has been borrowed into various languages, not as a loan but as a rearrangement of native morphemes. This gave the German *Wolkenkratzer* the Spanish *rascacielos* the French *gratteciel* the Russian *nebroskrjob*, and so on. In an appropriate environment, some bilinguals go a step further and coin new words. Weinreich (1968) cites the case of Yiddish *mitkind* (literally “fellow child”), created to match the English word *sibling*. In this case, one step is removed from the calque or loan translation.

Creations, like extensions, may slowly replace the original expression and after a while the bilingual may believe that the loanshift is in fact the norm and not the exception. Weinreich (1968) cites three reasons why languages borrow from one another. First, there are internal linguistic factors like homonym and word frequency. A language may borrow a word to replace one of a pair of homonyms to resolve the clash that results from words pronounced alike but which have different meanings. Also, words that are used less frequently are less stable and more subject to replacement. A second reason is that languages are in constant need of synonyms in domains such as food, communication and emotions. The old words lose their “power” and borrowings are gladly accepted.

However, these are minor reasons compared to Weinreich’s third reason and Bright’s (1992) most obvious reason: the need to designate new things, new places and new concepts. When one culture is influenced economically, technologically, politically and / or culturally by another, its language will soon reflect that influence. Although words or expressions can be coined to express new distinctions and new realities, very often words are borrowed from the language of the influencing group. This has happened with most languages throughout history. Thus, the spread of Christianity and, alongside it, of Latin resulted in the borrowing of many Latin words into European languages as did the influence of the Roman Empire earlier. The Norman invasion of Great Britain and the spread of Norman French culture resulted in the adoption of numerous French words into the English language in the domains of politics, literature, art, law and religion. The age of French chivalry and courtly love at the time of the crusades led to borrowing of French words into Italian and other European languages. Later, the Italian Renaissance spread

Italian throughout Europe and several European languages borrowed from it. In the Nineteenth Century, French, which was the language of diplomacy, had an impact on other languages and today the spread of American culture and technology can be seen in many American words being borrowed into the languages of the world.

Making reference to Africa, and Zambia in particular, Richardson (1968) notes that sometimes individual prestige demands that the self-respecting town Africans embellish their style with a super abundance of borrowings from other languages, which have great status. In most cases, English words are used because they come to the mind more readily than their Bemba equivalents. Sometimes the foreign word is preferred to the Bemba one because it has a wider currency in a multilingual society.

The prestige of one language group and / or the positive feelings that people may have towards it are important factors in language borrowing. For example, much to the displeasure of the older generations, American music, food, leisure, dress, and so on influence many young people in Europe. As a result, their speech is replete with American terms. Prestige, which is a powerful factor underlying the direction and extent of language borrowing, is not just a recent phenomenon. Concerning the influence of French on English in the Twelfth Century, Jespersen (1923: 91) writes: "As John of Salisbury...says expressly...it was the fashion to interlard one's speech with French words; they were thought modish."

It should be mentioned that different varieties of language borrow different words. Thus, Canadian French has borrowed words from English that are not found in Parisian French and vice versa. According to Mackey (1976), in the former variety but not in the latter, one finds *scarf*, *jello*, and *truck*, in Parisian French but rarely in Canadian French one finds *rugby*, *pullover*, *catch* and *scooter*. These words reflect, of course, the different aspects of Anglo-American culture that have influenced the two groups of French speakers.

Socio-cultural factors play a large role in the resistance to borrowing. If the recipient language is prestigious (like Russian, English, French, Spanish) and is the object of much loyalty, then borrowing will be reduced. For instance, The French are very proud of their language and feel that it can express certain ideas and concepts that other languages cannot verbalise as well. Because of such positive feelings, many French people reject borrowings and use the appropriate French terms.

Puristic attitudes towards language also minimise borrowing. Some French intellectuals complain of the vassalage of French to English. The French government, according to them, has resigned itself to the domination of Anglo-American culture in French and to the “elimination of the French language.” A well-known French intellectual, Etiemble (1964), in a book titled Parlez-vous Franglais? reacts to the mixture of English and French that he terms “Atlantic Pidgin.”

Some countries do have an official policy of language preservation. This can mean discouraging or even forbidding the use of loans in official meetings and documents, establishing an official language policy task force that coins new words and encouraging the spread of the country's language outside of the national borders. A country well-known for its official language policies is France. The Academic Francaise oversees the evolution of the French language by its work on the dictionary; the government has committees proposing French words in place of foreign words and laws prohibit the use of foreign terms in official documents and even in advertising. It should be noted that it is difficult to assess the impact of socio-cultural and official resistance to borrowing. It is the majority of the speakers "who make the law" in the end and despite official pressure to a native word, speakers may well continue to use the foreign term because they are accustomed to using it and no longer consider it foreign. Hence, the official French word *bouteur* will probably never replace the loan *bulldozer* nor *oleoduc* replace *pipeline*.

Factors such as word length that seem unimportant have been found to play a role in whether the native word is kept or the foreign word is adopted. When a foreign word and its newly coined equivalent are introduced into Japanese, the shorter of the two is usually adopted Higa (1979). For example, when *department store* was translated into Japanese as *hyakkaten* it was preferred to the English term; then when the English was shortened, to *depaato* it completely replaced the Japanese term.

Some languages manage to eliminate foreign terms. German is well known for having kept out many borrowings from Latin and some Native American languages have

managed to reduce loanwords to a small number. Haugen (1956) reports that Casagrande studied Comanche and found that the acculturation vocabulary from contact with Spanish and then American settlers was made up almost completely of loanshifts and coined words. The meaning of *arrow*, for instance, was extended to include *bullet*, the concept for *pump* was expressed by a word that meant “raise water forcefully with the hands,” and the concept for a bicycle became “makes one’s self go with the feet”.

The phonology, morphology and grammar of languages reflect the impact of bilinguals. Sounds can be imported into languages and new patterns of sounds can develop Weinreich (1968). The English /ʃ/ as in *rouge* comes from French; the final cluster /ng/ in French comes from English; Huave, an American Indian language, acquired a sixth vowel, /u/ through contact with Spanish, and also a new phoneme, /f/ as in *foto* Diebold (1961). Besides, through bilingualism, languages acquire new distinctions and patterns such as /g/ as distinct from /k/ in Czech; /o/ as distinct from /uo/ in Lettish Weinreich (1968); and /b/, /d/ and /g/ as word initial consonants in Huave Diebold (1961). Languages also influence one another at the level of morphology: thus, the Latin-French suffixes “-ible” and “-able” have been borrowed into English resulting in forms like *bearable* and *eatable* in which the underlying verb is Anglo-Saxon. Weinreich reports that in grammar, the influence of Middle Greek caused the disappearance of the infinitive in Balkan languages and that the influence of German led to the development of a passive voice in Estonian, Serbian and Slovenian. In American Sign Language, word order has been influenced by English: the subject-verb-object order is now much more frequent than it used to be.

It should be stressed however that it is in the domain of vocabulary that the long-term effect of bilingualism is felt the most. In the case of Albanian, the repeated domination by outside groups so swamped the language that it now contains only a few hundreds native words; all the rest are loans from Turkish, Slavic Greek, Roman and Latin. It is a simple matter in English to write a text in which every third or fourth word is a borrowing from another language, in this case French.

The importation of loanword may at first create confusion in usage but the end result is either the specialisation of the old and new words or the elimination of the old. Thus, in English, the old English *calf* refers to the animal and the Norman French loan *veal* to the meat; the same is true of *swine* and *pork* and *ox* and *beef*. Besides, many Old English words have been replaced by French counterparts that originally came from Latin: *run* was replaced by *secret*, *snell* was replaced by *active*, *lot* by *glory*, *gram* by *cruel* and so on. The same is even more true of immigrant languages like Australian German, Clyne (1967) and American Norwegian, Haugen (1953), where native words are rapidly replaced.

It is important to know what happens to the process of borrowing. Aitchison (1991) discusses four characteristics of borrowing. The first is that elements which are easily detached from the donor language and which do not affect the structure of the borrowing language, for instance, vocabulary, are the most easily and commonly taken over. The second characteristic is that adopted words tend to be changed to fit in with the structure

of the borrowing language. At the phonological level, Kashoki (1991) calls this process as panel beating foreign sounds in a manner as to be acceptable to speakers of the recipient language. The third characteristic is that a language tends to select, for borrowing, those aspects of the donor language which superficially correspond fairly closely to aspects already in its own. For example, in Bemba, the voiceless sibilant /s/ is readily borrowed and not the voiced one /z/ because this latter sound is not found in Bemba. A final characteristic, which is also called “minimal adjustment” tendency, is where the borrowing language only makes very small adjustments to the structure of its language at any one time. For example, the /dʒ/ sound was initially introduced in TB and is slowly moving to RB Bemba. For example, jaamu “jam” and ijaaketi “jacket.” In nature, there are no leaps.

Richardson (1963) also gave a small portion on assignment of loanwords to grammatical classes in Bemba. He dealt more on deviation and innovation in Bemba. From his research, it can be concluded that, to a certain extent, TB is a political symbol, a conscious reaction against the old way of life. Traditional modes of speech have been abandoned and a new inter-tribal language has been adopted.

Richardson (1963) and Heines (1968) have written on the morphology of loanwords. Richardson notes that the borrowed nouns in Nyangbo language are almost exclusively allocated to class 1 irrespective of their meaning. Heines’ work concerns the allocation of loanwords within the nominal class systems of some Togo remnant languages. He systematically used three different criteria in allocating Togo remnant languages:

automatic allocation in which nouns are allocated to a certain class because they share the characteristics of being loanwords; phonological allocation where a noun is allocated to a certain class because of the phonological resemblance of one of its segments to the nominal affix of that class and semantic allocation in which a noun is allocated to a certain class because its meaning shares some common characteristics with that of the other nouns of its class. It should be mentioned that this method of allocating loanwords will be used in this research.

A significant contribution to the understanding of loanword phonology has been made by Lass (1984) who categorised epenthesis into two types namely prothesis and anaptyxis. Prothesis is the insertion of an initial segment, normally a vowel-usually with a phonotactic motivation. For example, *ibuuku* (Bemba) *book*. Anaptyxis is the insertion of a vowel between two consonants, most usually sonorants, or an obs + son or son +obs cluster. For example, *suupuuni* (Bemba) *spoon*. Anaptyctic vowels are also called parasite vowels. Since all epenthesis can be interpreted as “replacement of zero” by something, he standardised the formulation as:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow x$$

Lass categorised deletion in three types: aphaeresis – initial deletion; syncope – formative-internal deletion and apocope – loss of final element. Like in epenthesis, there is also a standardised formulation for deletion:

$$x = \emptyset$$

The above phonological processes will be of great help in this research.

Another important phonologist's work is by Sanford (1973). He did his research on insertion in Hanunoo and Latin languages. He also looked at consonant deletion in French. Like Lass, Sanford's work will also be very helpful when it comes to analysis of English-derived loanwords in Bemba.

Hyman (1975) also came up with the following rule:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow v/c \text{ _____ } c \begin{pmatrix} \# \\ c \end{pmatrix}$$

This means that a vowel is inserted in order to break up sequences of cc# and ccc (that is, sequences of two consonants within the same syllable). For example, English-derived loanwords in Japanese are usually modified to fit in with the predominantly cv syllable structure of the language Katamba (1989):

English	Japanese
paprica	papurika
public	paburiki

The vowel [u] is generally inserted in Japanese when English words with unacceptable consonant sequences are borrowed. This rule also applies when the English word ends in a consonant since Japanese permits only vowels in final positions. It should be noted that Bemba also does not permit such combinations. In Bemba, just like in all "native" Japanese words, all words end with a vowel.

In Zambia, the earliest factor in the process of borrowing was trade, especially slave trade involving the Arabs and their agents. Apart from beads and other goods, the Arabs and their agents also introduced military equipment such as guns and gunpowder. Since these goods were new to the Bembas, they borrowed their Arabic and Swahili names. Some of these words are *icibiliiti kibiriti* (from Arabic through Swahiri) box of matches and *maluti* from *baruti* “gun powder” (originally Turkish but borrowed through Arabic and Swahili) (Kashoki, 1990).

The other factor was the missionary activities. In the Bemba-speaking areas of Northern Province, the Roman Catholic White Fathers did a lot of missionary activities. Through their evangelization, the Bembas borrowed a lot of church vocabulary such as *katoolika* “catholic” *ameni* “amen” and personal names from the Bible.

The other source of borrowing were the colonial administrators. These made English spread and a good number of words were adopted by the Bembas. The Bembas worked for the colonial administrators in the police, army, road construction projects and in the administrative centres.

The two world wars were also important forms of labour migration. A good number of young men were conscripted or voluntarily enrolled for service in the army as carriers or soldiers during these wars. These were also exposed to different languages and when they came back, they brought back different words that they had learnt, especially military terms, and diffused these into their villages.

Labour migration is probably the factor which has had the most far-reaching influence in the borrowing process in Bemba especially since the establishment of the copper mines. At its peak in the 1940s and 1950s, labour migration did not only take Bemba labour migrants to different distant places in search of paid employment, but it also exposed them to several different foreign languages. The countries to which many people migrated were Tanzania, where they used to go for gold fields and sisal plantations, Zimbabwe and South Africa for farms, coal, gold and diamond mines and Democratic Republic of Congo for copper industry and related secondary industrial activities. In these countries, the Bemba-speaking labour migrants came into contact with co-workers who spoke different foreign languages such as English, Kabanga, Zulu, Afrikaans (in South Africa) Swahili (in Democratic Republic of Congo and Tanzania) and Shona and Ndebele (in Zimbabwe). When these Bembas returned in their large numbers, they brought back new words that they had acquired from their places of work. These borrowed words were then diffused in the villages where these migrants came from.

It should be noted that some of the loanwords give clues to significant events at a particular time in the country's history. For example, during the Second World War, some Bembas looked up to the Germans so much that they even named their children as *Celemani* "German." When those who went to war came back, their speech was replete with borrowed military words such as *ibomba* "bomb" *peleeti* "parade," *laifo* "rifle" and many other words.

Prestige is a very powerful factor underlying the direction and extent of language borrowing. It is a very old phenomenon. When some Bembas started working for Europeans as houseboys, they borrowed European names and gave them to their children.

It should be mentioned that when English words are borrowed into Bemba, they normally retain their original classes, that is, when an English noun is borrowed, it will remain a noun in Bemba. It should also be mentioned that generally, nouns are borrowed from singular to plural but sometimes the opposite happens, thus *plurale tantum* nouns are borrowed from plural to singular.

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
a pair of trousers	itoloshi
a pair of scissors	shisala

To conclude this section, it should be mentioned that as long as languages continue to come into contact with one another, they will not fail to influence one another. Language borrowing is the legacy left behind by those who live with two or more languages.

1.7 Theoretical framework

This study identifies two categories of phonological theories: Autosegmental phonology and CV phonology.

Autosegmental approach sees phonology as consisting of several tiers. Each tier consists of a linear arrangement of segments linked to each other by association lines, which indicate how they are to be articulated. Originally devised to handle tonal phenomena, the approach has now been extended to deal with other features whose scope is more than one segment, especially vowel and consonant harmony.

CV phonological theory adds a consonant (C) and a vowel tier to the syllabic and segmental tiers previously recognised in autosegmental phonology. The addition of this tier removes the need for a feature [syllabic] at the skeletal tier.

1.8 Methodology

This research employed a qualitative approach to data collection and data analysis. Qualitative research is a descriptive, non-numerical way of collecting and interpreting information.

1.8.1 Data collection

1.8.1.1 Sources

The informants were senior secondary school pupils, students from the colleges and ordinary young and old people from all walks of life. Pupils involved were Grade elevens and twelves from Kasama Boys High School, Kasama Girls High School Mindolo High School and Chikola High School. From each school, one class was picked. Grade 11s and 12s were picked as they were thought to be knowledgeable enough to be able to distinguish between pure Bemba words and English-derived loanwords in Bemba. The

number of pupils per class varied. They ranged between twenty and thirty. Ten students from Kasama College of Education and ten from Nkrumah Teachers' College were picked as informants. These were students who had been learning Bemba from primary schools up to the colleges.

1.8.1.2 Methods of data collection

1.8.1.2.1 Primary data

The first method involved pupils and students who were learning Bemba as a subject in their institutions. These respondents were asked to list down words they suspected to be loanwords from English. It should be noted that three quarters of the loanwords were collected using this method.

The second method involved the researcher listening to the spoken discourse and then jotting down the suspected loanwords. Here data was collected from churches, rallies (political and religious), workshops/seminars, radio, television and even from different social contexts as people engaged in informal and formal conversations.

The third method required the researcher soliciting information mainly by means of asking ordinary Bemba individuals who were thought most likely to be aware of the differences between borrowed and indigenous words.

1.8.1.2.2 **Secondary data**

The last but not the least method involved the examination of different types of written discourse in Bemba with the aim of writing down the suspected English-derived loanwords.

1.8.2 Data analysis

Here, the following steps were taken:

1. The English- derived loanwords were listed down together with their English equivalents which were written in phonetic transcription.
2. All the listed loanwords were marked for tone.
3. The English-derived loanwords were allocated to relevant Bemba word classes.
4. The class to which English-derived loanwords fell was determined.
5. Using phonological rules the way in which insertion and deletion are applied to English-derived loanwords in Bemba was analysed.
6. The differences between English-derived loanwords in Rural Bemba and those in Town Bemba were established

1.9 Limitations of the study

The major problem encountered in this research was inadequate enough financial resources. Since my employer (Ministry of Education) did not sponsor me, I found it difficult to pay for all my school fees. It was even more difficult to meet the budgeted money for the research.

It should however be mentioned that despite the financial difficulties, I encountered, I was able to successfully carry out my research using my own resources.

1.10 Ethical considerations

In this research, only people who had voluntarily consented to participate in the study were involved. They were provided with enough information about the research in order for them to make an informed decision as whether to take part or not. People were not forced or persuaded to participate in this research. Participants chose for themselves to take part.

CHAPTER TWO

THE DATA

2.0 Introduction

This study is about the phonological, morphological, semantics and some aspects of sociolinguistics of English-derived loanwords in Bemba. There are nine hundred (900) items. The type of Bemba referred to here is "Central Bemba" also called standard variety (Kashoki, 1968). It is spoken in the rural areas of Kasama, Luwingu, Chinsali, Mporokoso and Mpika.

It is important to mention that all the loanwords in this paper have been written in the current orthography because (with a few exceptions) there is very little difference between the current orthography and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) spelling. Entries for Bemba are written in the singular form first followed by their plural forms in brackets. The numbers after the brackets show what type of Bemba class pair system the loanwords belong to. For English the entries are mostly represented in the singular form followed by their phonetic forms. Note the following about the IPA and the current orthography:

- a. A long vowel is represented by doubling the vowel e.g. aa = IPA [a:]
- b. is pronounced [b] after a nasal and [β] elsewhere.
- c. <c> = IPA [tʃ]
- d. <j> = IPA [dʒ]
- e. <y> = IPA [j]
- f. <sh> = IPA [ʃ]

Note that from *c* to *f*, we follow the Africa alphabet. The Africa alphabet is one of the names by which the orthography recommended by the International Institute for African Languages and Cultures is known. It is an attempt to standardise the orthography of African languages.

Verbs are written in the infinitive positive with no augment and prefix e.g. *washa* – to wash.

Below are the English-derived loanwords in Bemba:

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
1	áábatwa (baaáábatwa) 1a/2a	abattoir	abattoir [ˈæbətwa]
2	akishííleleta (baakishííleleta) 1a/2a	accelerator	accelerator [əkˈseləretə]
3	áákishitenti (baaáákishitenti) 1a/2a	accident	accident [ˈæksɪdnt]
4	akááunti (baaakááunti) 1a/2a	account	account [əˈkaʊnt]
5	ákááuntanti (baaakááuntanti) 1a/2a	accountant	accountant [əˈkaʊntənt]
6	ááshiti (baaááshiti) 1a/2a	acid	acid [ˈæsɪd]
7	ééka (baaéékà) 1a/2a	acre	acre [ˈeɪkə]
8	áákishoni (baaáákishoni) 1a/2a	action	action [ˈæksɪn]
9	akwííti (amaakwííti) 9a/6	acquit	acquit [əˈkwɪt]
10	Áátamu (baaáátamu) 1a/2a	Adam	Adam [ˈædəm]
11	atááputa (baaatááputa) 1a/2a	Adaptor	adaptor [əˈdæptə]
12	atééleshi (baaatééleshi) 1a/2a	Address	address [əˈdres]
13	éélyo (baaéélyo) 1a/2a	Aerial	aerial [ˈeəriəl]
14	Ááfilika (Ááfilika) 9	Africa	Africa [ˈæfrɪkə]
15	ekeshi (ekeshi) 9	Aids	Aids [eɪdz]
16	ééyakani (baaééyakani) 1a/2a	air gun	air gun [eəɡʌn]
17	ééyaloko (baaééyaloko) 1a/2a	air lock	air lock [ˈeələk]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
18	ééyapoti (baaééyapoti) 1a/2a	air port	air port [ˈeəpɔ:t]
19	aláámu (baaaláámu) 1a/2a	Alarm	alarm [əˈlɑm]
20	atááki (baaatááki) 1a/2a	Attack	attack [əˈtæk]
21	Áála (Áála) 9	Allah	Allah [ˈælə]
22	áálelúúya (baaáálúúya) 1a/2a	halleluia	halleluia [æliˈlujə]
23	olááiti adv	all right	all right [ɔ:lˈraɪt]
24	áálufa (baaáálufa) 1a/2a	alpha	alpha [ˈælfə]
25	óóto (baaóóto) 1a/2a	alto	alto [ˈæltəʊ]
26	ambáásata (baaambáásata) 1a/2a	ambassador	Ambassador [æmˈbæsədə]
27	ááambulanshi (baaááambulanshi) 1a/2a	ambulance	ambulance [ˈæmbjʊləns]
28	amééni int	amen	amen [eɪˈmen]
29	Améélíka (Améélíka) 9	America	America [əˈmerɪkə]
30	Áángílikani (baaáángílikani) 1a/2a	Anglican	Anglican [ˈæŋɡlɪkən]
31	áánsa (baaáánsa) 1a/2a	answer	answer [ˈɑ:nsə]
32	antinéento adj	antenatal	antenatal [æntɪˈneɪtl]
33	apóóshito (baaapóóshito) 1a/2a	apostle	apostle [əˈpɒsl]
34	éépo (baaéépo) 1a/2a	apple	apple [ˈæpl]
35	Éépulelo (baaéépulelo) 1a/2a	April	April [ˈeɪprɪl]
36	aposhitóólíki adj	apostolic	Apostolic [æpəˈstɒlɪk]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
37	áápoloni (baaáápoloni) 1a/2a	apron	apron [ˈeɪprən]
38	Áálabu (amaáálabu) 9a/6	Arab	Arab [ˈæɾəb]
39	akibíúshopu (baaakibíúshopu) 1a/2a	archbishop	archbishop [ˈatʃˈbiʃəp]
40	ááme (baaááme) 1a/2a	army	army [ˈɑ:mɪ]
41	áášipilini (baaáášipilini) 1a/2a	aspirin	aspirin [ˈæsprɪn]
42	asóóti (asóóti) 9	assault	assault [əˈsɔlt]
43	aséémbuli (baaaséémbuli) 1a/2a	assembly	assembly [əˈsembli]
44	ááshima (ááshima) 9	asthma	asthma [ˈæsmə]
45	Okááshiti (baaokááshiti) 1a/2a	August	August [ˈɔgəst]
46	otomáátiki adj	automatic	automatic [ˈɔtəˈmætik]
47	béébi (baabéébi) 1a/2a	baby	baby [ˈbeɪbi]
48	bááchi (baabááchi) 1a/2a	badge	badge [bædʒ]
49	bááki (baabááki) 1a/2a	bag	bag [bæg]
50	béékali (baabéékali) 1a/2a	bakery	bakery [ˈbeɪkəri]
51	bóóla (baabóóla) 1a/2a	ball	ball [bɔl]
52	éélya (baaéélya) 1a/2a	area	area [ˈeəriə]
53	balúúni (baabalúúni) 1a/2a	ballon	ballon [bəˈlu:n]
54	bóópointi (baabóópointi) 1a/2a	ballpoint	ballpoint [ˈbɔlpoɪnt]
55	banáána (amabanáána) 9a/6	banana	banana [bəˈnɑ:nə]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
56	bááandi (baabáandi) 1a/2a	band	band [bænd]
57	bááandeci (baaáandeci) 1a/2a	bandage	bandage [ˈbændɪdʒ]
58	báángo (baabáángo) 1a/2a	bangle	bangle [bæŋɡl]
59	báánjo (baabáánjo) 1a/2a	banjo	banjo [bænˈdʒəʊ]
60	báánki (baabáánki) 1a/2a	bank	bank [bæŋk]
61	ulubáátisho (imibáátisho) 3/4	baptism	baptism [ˈbæptɪzəm]
62	báábutishiti (baabáábutishiti) 1a/2a	Baptist	Baptist [ˈbæptɪst]
63	batiísha (v)	baptise	baptise [bæpˈtaɪz]
64	báá (baabáá) 1a/2a	bar	bar [ba]
65	babutiwááya (baababutiwááya) 1a/2a	barbed wire	barbed wire [ba:bdˈwəɪə]
66	báábashopu (baabáábashopu) 1a/2a	barbershop	barbershop [ˈbæbəʃ]
67	báámani (baabáámani) 1a/2a	barman	barman [ˈbæmən]
68	báálakishi (baabáálakishi) 1a/2a	barracks	barracks [ˈbærəks]
69	bééshiki (baabééshiki) 1a/2a	basic	basic [ˈbeɪsɪk]
70	ibééseni (baabééseni) 1a/2a	basin	basin [ˈbeɪsɪn]
71	bááshiketi (baabááshiketi) 1a/2a	basket	basket [ˈbɑːskɪt]
72	bááshi (baabááshi) 1a/2a	bass	bass [beɪs]
73	icibáála (ifibáála) 1a/2a	barrow	barrow [ˈbærəʊ]
74	bááshitati (baabááshitati) 1a/2a	bastard	bastard [ˈbæstəd]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
75	bááfwa (babááfwa) 1a/2a	bath	bath [baə]
76	bááfwalumu (baabááfwalumu) 1a/2a	bathroom	bathroom [ˈbaeru:m]
77	báátoni (baabáátoni) 1a/2a	baton	baton [ˈbæton]
78	báátìli (baabáátìli) 1a/2a	battery	battery [ˈbætri]
79	bííkoni (baabííkoni) 1a/2a	beacon	beacon [ˈbikən]
80	bééti (baabééti) 1a/2a	bed	bed [bed]
81	kafabééti (baakafabééti) 1a/2a	bed cover	bed cover [ˈbedkʌvə]
82	béétilumu (baabéétilumu) 1a/2a	bed room	bed room [ˈbedru:m]
83	bííya (bííya) 9	beer	beer [biə]
84	béélo (baabéélo) 1a/2a	bell	bell [bel]
85	béénci (baabéénci) 1a/2a	bench	bench [bentʃ]
86	bééndi (baabééndi) 1a/2a	bend	bend [bend]
87	Bááibele (baabááibele) 1a/2a	Bible	Bible [ˈbarbl]
88	biluáásha (biluáásha) 9	bilharzia	bilharzia [ˈbɪlˈhɑziə]
89	bííshikééti (baabííshikééti) 1a/2a	biscuit	biscuit [ˈbɪskɪt]
90	bííshopu (baabííshopu) 1a/2a	bishop	bishop [ˈbɪʃəp]
91	ubúúlangeti (amaáálangeti) 14/6	blanket	blanket [ˈblæŋkɪt]
92	ibulaushi (amabulaushi) 5/6	blouse	blouse [blaʊz]
93	ibóóti (amabóóti) 5/6	boat	boat [bəʊt]
94	bóótikati (baabóótikati) 1a/2a	bodyguard	Bodyguard [ˈbɒdɪɡɑd]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
95	umubunu (amabunu) 1/6	Boer	Boer [bɔ]
96	bóóila (baabóóila) 1a/2a	boiler	boiler [ˈbɔɪlə]
97	ibóómba (amabóómba) 5/6	bomb	bomb [bɒm]
98	bóóneti (baabóóneti) 1a/2a	bonnet	bonnet [ˈbɒnɪt]
99	ibúúku (amabúúku) 5/6	book	book [bʊk]
100	búúkukeshi (amabúúkukeshi) 91/6	bookcase	bookcase [ˈbʊkkeɪs]
101	bukiŋa (v)	booking	booking [ˈbʊkɪŋ]
102	búúkushóópu (amabúúkushóópu) 9a/6	bookshop	bookshop [ˈbʊkʃɒp]
103	búúmu (baabúúmu) 1a/2a	boom	boom [bʊm]
104	búúti (baabúúti) 1a/2a	boot	boot [buːt]
105	bóóta (baabóóta) 1a/2a	border	border [ˈbɔdə]
106	bóóshi (baabóóshi) 1a/2a	boss	boss [bɒs]
107	ibotóólo (amabotóólo) 5/6	bottle	bottle [ˈbɒtl]
108	bóó (baabóó) 1a/2a	bowl	bowl [bɔʊl]
109	botáái (baabotáái) 1a/2a	bow tie	bow tie [ˌbəʊˈtʰaɪ]
110	imbokoshi (imbokoshi) 9	box	box [bɒks]
111	bóókishiŋi (bóókishiŋi) 9	boxing	boxing [ˈbɒksɪŋ]
112	bóóyi (baabóóyi) 1a/2a	boy	boy [bɔɪ]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
113	bóóyifulendi (baabóóyifulendi) 1a/2a	boyfriend	boyfriend [ˈbɔɪfrend]
114	buláá (baabuláá) 1a/2a	bra	bra [brɑ]
115	buléeki (amabuléeki) 91/6	brake	brake [breɪk]
116	buláánci (baabuláánci) 1a/2a	branch	branch [brɑntʃ]
117	bulááandi (bulááandi) 9	brand	brand [brænd]
118	buleti (baabuleti) 1a/2a	bread	bread [bred]
119	buléeki (baabuléeki) 1a/2a	break	break [breɪk]
120	búúlekitauni (baabúúlekitauni) 1a/2a	breakdown	breakdown [breɪkdəʊn]
121	búúlekifashiti (búúlekifashiti) 1a/2a	breakfast	breakfast [ˈbrekfəst]
122	búúluwali [babúúluwali] 1a/2a	brewery	brewery [ˈbruəri]
123	ibulúiki (amabulúiki) 5/6	brick	brick [brɪk]
124	búúlikiléeya (baabúúlikiléeya) 1a/2a	bricklayer	bricklayer [ˈbrɪkleɪə]
125	bilici (baabilici) 1a/2a	Bridge	bridge [brɪdʒ]
126	bulúumu (baabulúumu) 1a/2a	Broom	broom [brʊm]
127	buláása (babuláása) 1a/2a	brother	brother [ˈbrʌðə]
128	Bulauni (bulauni) 9	Brown	Brown [braʊn]
129	buláásho (baabuláásho) 1a/2a	brush	brush [brʌʃ]
130	báábokamu (baabáábokamu) 1a/2a	Bubble gum	bubble gum [ˈbʌblɪɡʌm]

N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
31	imbééketi (imbééketi) 9	bucket	bucket [ˈbʌkɪt]
32	báálubu (amabáálubu) 9a/6	bulb	bulb [bʌlb]
33	búúleti (amabúúleti) 9a/6	Bullet	bullet [bʊlɪt]
34	búúlushiti (búúlushiti)	bull shit	bull shit [ˈbʊlʃɪt]
35	ibáámpu (amabáámpu) 5/6	Bump	bump [bʌmp]
36	ibáánsi (amabáánsi) 5/6	bun	bun [bʌn]
37	báándulo (baabáándulo) 1a/2a	bundle	bundle [ˈbʌndl]
38	bááshi (baabááshi) 1a/2a	bus	bus [bʌs]
39	búúshinesi (baabúúshinesi) 1a/2a	business	business [ˈbɪznəs]
140	bááshicitesheni (baabááshicitesheni) 1a/2a	bus station	bus station [ˈbʌs steɪʃn]
141	bááshishitopu (baabááshishitopu) 1a/2a	bus stop	bus stop [bʌs stɒp]
142	bííse adj	busy	busy [ˈbɪzi]
143	búúca (amabúúca) 9a/6	butchery	butchery [ˈbʊtʃəri]
144	bááta (bááta) 9	butter	butter [ˈbʌtə]
145	bati conj	but	but [bʌt]
146	ibáátani (amabáátani) 1a/2a	button	button [ˈbʌtn]
147	bááyí bayi (baabááyíbayi) 1a/2a	bye bye	bye bye [ˈbaɪ baɪ]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
148	káábeci (káábeci) 9	cabbage	cabbage [ˈkæbrɪdʒ]
149	káábini (baakáábini) 1a/2a	cabin	cabin [ˈkæbɪn]
150	kéébo (amakéébo) 9a/6	cable	cable [ˈkeɪbl]
151	katééti (baakatééti) 1a/2a	cadet	cadet [kəˈdet]
152	kééke (baakééke) 1a/2a	cake	cake [keɪk]
153	káálenda (baakáálenda) 1a/2a	calendar	calendar [ˈkælɪndə]
154	káámela (baakáámela) 1a/2a	camera	camera [ˈkæmrə]
155	akáámpu (utwáámpu) 1a/2a	camp	camp [kæmp]
156	kampéeni (baakampéeni) 1a/2a	campaign	campaign [kæmˈpeɪn]
157	bulúú (baabulúú) 1a/2a	bull	bull [bʊl]
158	kolauti (baakolauti) 1a/2a	call out	call out [kɔl ɒt]
159	káánsula (v)	cancel	cancel [ˈkænsəl]
160	káánsa (baakáánsa) 1a/2a	cancer	cancer [ˈkænsə]
161	káándulo (baakáándulo) 1a/2a	candle	candle [ˈkændl]
162	káánifashi (baakáánifashi) 1a/2a	canvas shoes	canvas shoes [ˈkænvʌs]
163	káápito (káápito) 9	capital	capital (money) [kæpɪtl]
164	káápisó (baakáápisó) 1a/2a	capsule	capsule [ˈkæpsjʊl]
165	káápiteni (baakáápiteni) 1a/2a	captain	captain [ˈkæptɪn]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
166	káá (baakáá) 1a/2a	car	car [kɑ]
167	kabyuléeta (baakabyuléeta) 1a/2a	carburettor	carburettor [kəbjʊ`retə]
168	kááti (baakááti) 1a/2a	card	card [kɑd]
169	akeyala (utweyala) 12/13	care off	care off [keə əv]
170	káápaki (baakáápaki) 1a/2a	car park	car park [kɑr pɑk]
171	káápenta (baakáápenta) 1a/2a	carpenter	carpenter [ˈkɑpɪntə]
172	káápeti (baakáápeti) 1a/2a	carpet	carpet [ˈkɑpɪt]
173	kééyashi (baakééyashi) 1a/2a	carrier	carrier [ˈkæriə]
174	kááloti (baakááloti) 1a/2a	carrot	carrot [ˈkærət]
175	káátoni (baakáátoni) 1a/2a	carton	carton [ˈkɑtn]
176	súúतिकéeshi (baasúúतिकéeshi) 1a/2a	suit case	suit case [sut keɪs]
177	kashíiya (baakashíiya) 1a/2a	cashier	cashier [kæ`ʃiə]
178	kaséeti (baakaséeti) 1a/2a	cassette	cassette [kə`set]
179	kááso (kaakááso) 1a/2a	castle	castle [ˈkɑsl]
180	káátukumene (baakáátukumene) 1a/2a	catechism	catechism [ˈkætɪkɪzəm]
181	kaféétulo (baakaféétulo) 1a/2a	cathedral	cathedral [kə`θɪdrəl]
182	káátolika (baakáátolika) 1a/2a	catholic	catholic [ˈkæθəlɪk]
183	shilɪŋi (shilɪŋi) 1a/2a	ceiling	ceiling [ˈsilɪŋ]
184	sééofoni (baasééofoni) 1a/2a	cell phone	cell phone [ˈselfəʊn]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
185	séelulafóoni (baaséelulafóoni) 1a/2a	cellular phone	Cellular phone [ˈseɪjʊlə fəʊn]
186	seméénti (seméénti) 1a/2a	cement	cement [sɪˈment]
187	séénta (baaséénta) 1a/2a	centre	centre [ˈsentə]
188	satífíketi (baasatífíketi) 1a/2a	certificate	certificate [səˈtɪfɪkət]
189	cééni (baacééni) 1a/2a	chain	chain [tʃeɪn]
190	cééyamani (baacééyamani) 1a/2a	chairman	chairman [ˈtʃeəmən]
191	cóóko (cóóko) 9	chalk	chalk [tʃɔk]
192	céémbala (baacéémbala) 1a/2a	chamber pot	chamber pot [ˈtʃeɪmbe]
193	cáámpyoni (baacáámpyoni) 1a/2a	champion	champion [ˈtʃæmpɪən]
194	cáánshi (baacáánshi) 1a/2a	chance	chance [tʃɑns]
195	céénji (céénji) 9	change	change [tʃeɪndʒ]
196	céénji (v)	change	change [tʃeɪndʒ]
197	cáápelo (baacáápelo) 1a/2a	chapel	chapel [ˈtʃæpl]
198	cáápuleni (baacáápuleni) 1a/2a	chaplain	chaplain [ˈtʃæplɪn]
199	cáápita (baacáápita) 1a/2a	chapter	chapter [ˈtʃæptə]
200	cááca (baacááca) 1a/2a	charger	charger [ˈtʃɑdʒə]
201	Cááliti (baaCááliti) 1a/2a	Charity	Charity [ˈtʃærəti]
202	cípa adj	cheap	cheap [tʃi:p]
203	céékiŋa (v)	checking	checking [tʃeɪkɪŋ]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
204	céékipointi (baacéékipointi) 1a/2a	checkpoint	checkpoint [ˈtʃekpɔɪnt]
205	céékapu (baacéékapu) 1a/2a	check up	check up [tʃekʌp]
206	cíiki adj	cheek	cheek [tʃɪk]
207	cíishi (cíishi) 9	cheese	cheese [tʃiːz]
208	cééki (baacééki) 1a/2a	cheque	cheque [tʃek]
209	shifóoni (shifóoni) 9	chiffon	Chiffon [ˈʃɪfɒn]
210	cíúmuni (baacíúmuni) 1a/2a	chimney	chimney [ˈtʃɪmni]
211	céésulo (baacéésulo) 1a/2a	chisel	chisel [ˈtʃɪzəl]
212	kóólolini (kóólolini) 9	chlorine	chlorine [ˈklɔːrɪn]
213	cóókoleti (baacóókoleti) 1a/2a	chocolate	chocolate [ˈtʃɒklət]
214	coishi (coishi) 1a/2a	choice soap	choice [tʃɔɪs]
215	kwááya (baakwááya) 1a/2a	choir	choir [ˈkwɑɪə]
216	kwááyamashita (baakwááyamashita) 1a/2a	choir master	choir master [ˈkwɑɪəməstə]
217	kóólela (kóólela) 9	cholera	cholera [ˈkɒləɹə]
218	kóólashi (baakóólashi) 1a/2a	chorus	chorus [ˈkɔːrəs]
219	kíúlishitu (kíúlishitu) 9	christ	christ [kraɪst]
220	kíúlishimashi (baakíúlishimashi) 1a/2a	christmas	christmas [ˈkrɪsməs]
221	cáálici (amacáálici) 9a/6	church	church [tʃɜːtʃ]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
222	shúiyití (baashíiyití) 1a/2a	CID	CID [, si:ət`di:]
223	shikáá (baashikáá) 1a/2a	cigar	cigar [si`gɑ]
224	shínema (baashínema) 1a/2a	cinema	cinema [`sinəmə]
225	kaláámpa (baakaláámpa) 1a/2a	clamp	clamp [klæmp]
226	kalááshi (amakalááshi) 9a/6	class	class [klas]
227	kalááshilúumu (amakalááshilúumu) 9a/6	classroom	classroom [`klasrum]
228	kilína (baakilína) 1a/2a	cleaner	cleaner [`klinə]
229	kilináapu (baakilináapu) 1a/2a	clean up	clean up [klin ʌp]
230	Kéélementi (baakéélementi) 1a/2a	Clement Proper Noun	Clement [`klemənt]
231	kaláálíki (baakaláálíki) 1a/2a	clerk	clerk [klək]
232	kilíníki (baakilíníki) 1a/2a	clinic	clinic [`klinik]
233	inkolóóko (inkolóóko) 9	clock	clock [klək]
234	kalaci (baakalaci) 1a/2a	clutch	clutch [klʌtʃ]
235	kóóci (baakóóci) 1a/2a	coach	coach [kəutʃ]
236	kóó (ko) 9	coal	coal [kəul]
237	ikóóti (amakóóti) 9a/6	coat	coat [kəut]
238	kóóbula (kóóbula) 9	cobra (polish)	cobra [`kəubrə]
239	kokokóóla (kokokóóla) 9	cocacola	cocacola [, kəukə`kəulə]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
240	kóóko (kóóko) 9	cocoa	cocoa [ˈkəʊkəʊ]
241	kóófi (kóófi) 9	coffee	coffee [ˈkɒfi]
242	kóóla (baakóóla) 1a/2a	collar	collar [ˈkɒlə]
243	kóóleci (baakóóleci) 1a/2a	college	college [ˈkɒlɪdʒ]
244	kolóónyo adj	colonial	colonial [kəˈləʊniəl]
245	káála (baakáála) 1a/2a	colour	colour [ˈkʌlə]
246	káálati (baakáálati) 1a/2a	coloured	coloured [ˈkʌləd]
247	kééshi (baakééshi) 1a/2a	case of box or bag	case [keɪs]
248	kamóóni int.	come on	come on [kʌmɒn]
249	komáánda (baakomáánda) 1a/2a	commander	commander [kəˈma:ndə]
250	komáándo (baakomáándo) 1a/2a	commando	commando [kəˈma:ndəʊ]
251	komííti (baakomííti) 1a/2a	committee	committee [kəˈmɪti]
252	akáámpani (utwáámpani) 1a/2a	company	company [ˈkʌmpəni]
253	kóómposhiti (kóómposhiti) 9	compost	compost [ˈkɒmpɒst]
254	kóómpaundi (baakóómpaundi) 1a/2a	compound	compound [ˈkɒmpaʊnd]
255	kompúúta (baakompyúúta) 1a/2a	computer	computer [kəmˈpjʊ:tə]
256	kóónsati (baakóónsati) 1a/2a	concert	concert [ˈkɒnsət]
257	kóónkili (kóónkili) 9	concrete	concrete [ˈkɒŋkri:t]

/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
258	kóóndomu (baakóóndomu) 1a/2a	condom	condom [ˈkɒndəm]
259	kondáákita (baakondáákita) 1a/2a	conductor	conductor [kənˈdʌktə]
260	kontééna (baakontééna) 1a/2a	container	container [kənˈteɪnə]
261	kóóntalakiti (baakóóntalakiti) 1a/2a	contract	contract [ˈkɒntrækt]
262	kontáálakita (baakontáálakita) 1a/2a	contractor	contractor [kənˈtræktə]
263	kontóólola (v)	control	control [kənˈtrəʊl]
264	kóónifenti (adj)	convent	convent [ˈkɒnvənt]
265	komféénshoni (baakomféénshoni) 1a/2a	convention	convention [kənˈvenʃn]
266	komfúina (baakomfúina) 1a/2a	convener	convener [kənˈvi:nə]
267	kúúki (baakúúki) 1a/2a	cook	cook [kʊk]
268	kúúka (baakúúka) 1a/2a	cooker	cooker [ˈkʊkə]
269	kúúla (baakúúla) 1a/2a	cooler	cooler [ˈku:lə]
270	kóópa (kóópa) 9	copper	copper [ˈkɒpə]
271	kopáá (v)	copy	copy [ˈkɒpi]
272	kóóna (baakóóna) 1a/2a	corner	corner [ˈkɔ:nə]
273	kóóneka (v)	making a turn	corner [ˈkɔ:nə]
274	kóópolo (baakóópolo) 1a/2a	corporal	corporal [ˈkɔ:pərəl]

N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
75	kolóóna (baakolóóna) 1a/2a	corona	corona [kə`rəʊnə]
76	kóólito (baakóólito) 1a/2a	corridor	corridor [ˈkɔːrɪdɔː]
77	koláápushoni (koláápushoni) 9	corruption	corruption [kə`rʌpʃn]
78	kóótoni (kóótoni) 9	cotton	cotton [ˈkɒtɒn]
79	káánso (baakáánso) 1a/2a	council	council [ˈkəʊnsɪ]
80	káánsela (baakáánsela) 1a/2a	councillor	councillor [ˈkəʊnsələ]
81	káánsela (baakáánsela) 1a/2a	counsellor	counsellor [ˈkəʊnsələ]
82	bííyaolo (baabííyaolo) 1a/2a	beer hall	beer hall [biə hɔːl]
83	kááunta (baakááunta) 1a/2a	counter	counter [ˈkəʊntə]
84	kúúponi (baakúúponi) 1a/2a	coupon	coupon [ˈkuːpɒn]
85	kóóshi (baakóóshi) 1a/2a	course	course [kɔːs]
86	kóóti (amakóóti) 9a/6	court	court [kɔːt]
87	kaláánka (v)	crank	crank [ˈkræŋk]
88	kaláánkashafuti (kaláánkashafuti) 1a/2a	crank shaft	crank shaft [ˈkræŋkʃaːft]
89	kelééyoni (baakelééyoni) 1a/2a	crayon	crayon [ˈkreɪən]
90	kilíímu (kilíímu) 9	cream	cream [kriːm]
91	kulúúku adj	crook	crook [krʊk]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
292	kapu (baakapu) 1a/2a	cup	cup [kʌp]
293	káábati (baakáábati) 1a/2a	cupboard	cupboard [ˈkʌpəd]
294	kééfyu (baakééfyu) 1a/2a	curfew	curfew [ˈkɜːfju]
295	káálée (káálée) 9	curry powder	curry [ˈkʌri]
296	ikáátani (amaikáátani) 1a/2a	curtain	curtain [ˈkɜːtn]
297	kwíshoni (baakwíshoni) 1a/2a	cushion	cushion [ˈkʊʃn]
298	kááshitati (kááshitati) 9	custard	custard [ˈkʌstəd]
299	kááshitoti (amakááshitoti) 9a/6	custody	custody [ˈkʌstədi]
300	kááshitomu adj	custom	custom [ˈkʌstəm]
301	kááshitoma (baakááshitoma) 1a/2a	customer	customer [ˈkʌstəmə]
302	shíílinda (baashíílinda) 1a/2a	cylinder	cylinder [ˈsɪlɪndə]
303	tááti (baatááti) 1a/2a	daddy	daddy [ˈdædi]
304	táámu (baatáámu) 1a/2a	dam	dam [dæm]
305	táámeci (táámeci) 9	damage	damage [ˈdæmɪdʒ]
306	tanshi (baatanshi) 1a/2a	dance	dance [daːns]
307	tííkoni (baatííkoni) 1a/2a	deacon	deacon [ˈdiːkən]
308	tííshíi (baatííshíi) 1a/2a	District Commissioner	DC [ˌdiːˈsi]
309	Tííni (baaTííni) 1a/2a	Dean Proper Noun	Dean [diːn]
310	tiya adj	dear	dear [diə]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
311	Tiséмба (baatiséмба) 1a/2a	December	December [dɪˈsembə]
312	téépoti (baatéépoti) 1a/2a	depot	depot [ˈdepəʊ]
313	itééshiki (amatééshiki) 9a/6	desk	desk [desk]
314	tááimondi (tááimondi) 9	diamond	diamond [daɪəˈmɑːnd]
315	tailiyáá (tailiyáá) 9	diarrhoea	diarrhoea [daɪəˈrɪə]
316	tííselo (tííselo) 9	diesel	diesel [ˈdiːzl]
317	tíímu (baatíímu) 9	dim	dim [dɪm]
318	tailéékita (baatíléékita) 1a/2a	director	director [dɪˈrektə]
319	tííshiko (baatííshiko) 1a/2a	disco	disco [ˈdɪskəʊ]
320	ítííshi (amatííshi) 5/6	dish	dish [dɪʃ]
321	ndóókotala (baandóókotala)	doctor	doctor [ˈdɒktə]
322	túúmu (túúmu) 9	doom	doom [duːm]
323	tááseni (baatááseni) 1a/2a	dozen	dozen [ˈdɒzn]
324	indeleshi (indeleshi) 9	dress	dress [dres]
325	tilíípu (baatííípu) 1a/2a	drip	drip [drɪp]
326	talááifa (baatalááifa) 1a/2a	driver	driver [ˈdrɑɪvə]
327	taláámu (baataláámu) 1a/2a	drum	drum [drʌm]
328	túúfe (baatúúfe) 1a/2a	duvet	duvet [ˈduːvet]
329	cúúti (baacúúti) 1a/2a	duty	duty [ˈdjuːti]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
330	tááinamo (tááinamo) 1a/2a	dynamo	dynamo [ˈdaɪnəməʊ]
331	tíísentili (tíísentili) 9	dysentry	dysentry [ˈdɪsəntri]
332	Ééten (Ééten) 9	Eden	Eden [ˈi:dn]
333	eiti (baaeiti) 1a/2a	eight	eight [eɪt]
334	lááshitiki (baalááshitiki) 1a/2a	elastic	elastic [ɪˈlæstɪk]
335	ééota (baaééota) 1a/2a	elder	elder [ˈeldə]
336	Lisabééti (baalisabééti) 1a/2a	Elizabeth	Elizabeth [ɪ,lɪzəˈbi:ə]
337	ééempti (baaééempti) 9a/6	empties of bottles	empty [ˈemptɪz]
338	íínjini (baaíínjini) 1a/2a	engine	engine [ˈendʒɪn]
339	éénifulupu (baaéénifulupu) 1a/2a	envelope	envelope [ˈenvələʊp]
340	eshúteti (baaeshúteti) 1a/2a	estate	estate [ɪˈsteɪt]
341	yúúkalishitiya (yúúkalishitiya) 9	eucharist	eucharist [ˈju:kərist]
342	ekishúpuleshi (ekishúpuleshi) 9	express	express [ɪkˈspres]
343	éékishitila (éékishitila) 9	extra	extra [ˈekstrə]
344	imfééshi (imfééshi) 9	face	face [feɪs]
345	fáákitole (baafáákitole) 1a/2a	factory	factory [ˈfæktəri]
346	feluka (v)	fail	fail [feɪl]
347	fenta (v)	faint	faint [feɪnt]
348	fááni (baafááni) 1a/2a	fan	fan [fæn]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
349	fwáámu (baafwáámu) 1a/2a	farm	farm [fɑ:m]
350	fááshoni (baafááshoni) 1a/2a	fashion	fashion [ˈfæʃn]
351	fáása (baafáása) 1a/2a	father of Catholic Church	father [ˈfɑ:ðə]
352	Féébuluwale (baaFéébuluwale) 1a/2a	February	February [ˈfebruəri]
353	féétulo (féétulo) 9	federal	federal [fedərəl]
354	féénshi (baaféénshi) 1a/2a	fence	fence [fens]
355	fááilo (baafááilo) 1a/2a	file	file [faɪl]
356	ifúlimu (amafúlimu) 5/6	film	film [fɪlm]
357	fwaifi (baafwaifi) 1a/2a	five	five [faɪv]
358	fulááki (baafulááki) 1a/2a	flag	flag [flæg]
359	fulashiki (baafulashiki) 1a/2a	flask	flask [flɑ:sk]
360	fulááwa (fulááwa) 9	flour	flour [ˈflaʊə]
361	fóóleshiti (baafóóleshiti) 1a/2a	forest	forest [ˈfɒrɪst]
362	fóóloko (baafóóloko) 1a/2a	fork	fork [fɔ:k]
363	fóómu (baafóómu) 1a/2a	form	form [fɔ:m]
364	fuséeki (v)	forsake	forsake [fəˈseɪk]
365	fóóte (baafóóte) 1a/2a	forty	forty [ˈfɔ:tɪ]
366	fwaundéeshoni (baafwaundéeshoni) 1a/2a	foundation	foundation [faʊnˈdeɪʃn]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
367	fuléemu (baafuléemu) 1a/2a	frame	frame [freim]
368	Fulanki (baaFulanki) 1a/2a	Frank Proper Noun	Frank [fræŋk]
369	fuléeshi (fuléeshi) 9	fresh	fresh [freʃ]
370	Fúúlaite (baaFúúlaite) 1a/2a	Friday	Friday [ˈfraɪdeɪ]
371	filici (baafilici) 1a/2a	fridge	fridge [frɪdʒ]
372	fúúlu adj	full	full [fʊl]
373	umufóólo (imifóólo) 3/4	furrow	furrow [ˈfʌrəʊ]
374	kááloni (baakááloni) 1a/2a	metal container	gallon [ˈgælən]
375	kéému adj	game park/reserve	game [geɪm]
376	káálaci (baakáálaci) 1a/2a	garage	garage [ˈgærɑːʒ]
377	káálateni (baakáálateni) 1a/2a	garden	garden [ˈgɑːdn]
378	káálíki (káálíki) 9	garlic	garlic [ˈgɑːlɪk]
379	kééti (baakééti) 1a/2a	gate	gate [geɪt]
380	kííya (baakííya) 1a/2a	gear	gear [gɪə]
381	céénelééta (baacéénelééta) 1a/2a	generator	generator [ˈdʒenəreɪtə]
382	cééntelemani (baacééntelemani) 1a/2a	gentleman	gentleman [ˈdʒentlmən]
383	Cééleman (Cééleman) 9	Germany	Germany [ˈdʒɜːmən]
384	Coci (baaCoci) 1a/2a	George	George [dʒɔːdʒ]
385	Kíífuti (baaKíífuti) 1a/2a	Gift Proper Noun	Gift [grɪft]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
386	ikalááshi (amakalááshi) 5/6	glass	glass [glɑ:s]
387	kulúú (kulúú) 9	glue	glue [glu]
388	kíílísálíni (kíílísálíni) 9	glycerine	glycerine [ˈglɪsəˈrɪn]
389	kolo (baakolo) 1a/2a	goal	goal [gəʊl]
390	koti (koti) 9	gold	gold [gəʊld]
391	kofu (kofu) 9	golf	golf [gɒlf]
392	káámfulumende (baakáámfulumende) 1a/2a	government	government [ˈgʌvnmənt]
393	kááfana (baakááfana) 1a/2a	governor	governor [ˈgʌvnə]
394	Kilééshi (baaKilééshi) 1a/2a	Grace Proper Noun	Grace [greɪs]
395	kelééti (baakelééti) 1a/2a	grade	grade [greɪd]
396	kiléé (kiléé) 9	gray	gray [greɪ]
397	Kilííni (baakilííni) 1a/2a	Green Proper Noun	Green [grɪ:n]
398	kitáá (baakitáá) 1a/2a	guitar	guitar [gɪˈtɑ]
399	kwááfa (amakwááfa) 9a/6	guava	guava [ˈgwavə]
400	akaláábu (utuláábu) 12/13	club	club [klʌb]
401	alóó int.	hallo	hallo [həˈləʊ]
402	andibááki (baaandibááki) 1a/2a	hand bag	hand bag [hænd bæɡ]
403	áába (baaáába) 1a/2a	harbour	harbour [ˈhɑbə]
404	Éébele (baaÉébele) 1a/2a	Hebrew	Hebrew [ˈhibru]

N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
05	éékita (baaéékita) 1a/2a	hectare	hectare [ˈhekteə]
06	éélikopita (baaéélikopita) 1a/2a	helicopter	helicopter [ˈhelikɒptə]
07	íipushita (baaíipushita) 1a/2a	hipster	hipster [ˈhɪpstəz]
08	Íílali (baaÍílali) 1a/2a	Hilary	Hilary [ˈhɪləri]
09	óólite (baaóólite) 1a/2a	holiday	holiday [ˈhɒlədeɪ]
10	úúta (baaúúta) 1a/2a	hooter	hooter [hʊtə]
11	ioshi (amaoshi) 5/6	horse	horse [hɔːs]
12	óóshipito (baaóóshipito) 1a/2a	hospital	hospital [ˈhɒspɪtl]
13	iotééla (amaotééla) 5/6	hotel	hotel [həʊˈtel]
14	ááwa (baaááwa) 1a/2a	hour	hour [aʊə]
15	áábu (baaáábu) 1a/2a	hub	hub [hʌb]
16	áándeleti (baaáándeleti) 1a/2a	hundred	hundred [ˈhʌndrəd]
17	imu (baaimu) 1a/2a	hymn	hymn [hɪm]
18	Óóneshiti (baaÓóneshiti) 1a/2a	Honest Proper Noun	Honest [ˈɒnɪst]
19	aishi (aishi) 9	ice	ice [aɪs]
20	imfóóma (baaimfóóma) 1a/2a	informer	informer [ɪnˈfɔːmə]
21	íínki (íínki) 9	ink	ink [ɪŋk]
22	inshíipekita (baainshíipekita) 1a/2a	inspector	inspector [ɪnˈspektə]
23	ííntafyu (amaííntafyu) 9a/6	interview	interview [ˈɪntəvju]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
424	Caki (baaCaki) 1a/2a	Jack Proper Noun	Jack [dʒæk]
425	cééke (baacééke) 1a/2a	jack	jack [dʒæk]
426	icééketi (amaicééketi) 5/6	jacket	jacket [ˈdʒækɪt]
427	cini (cini) 9	gin	gin [dʒɪn]
428	kéélufulendi (baakéélufulendi) 1a/2a	girlfriend	girlfriend [ˈdʒɜːlfrend]
429	kóólokipa (baakóólokipa) 1a/2a	goal keeper	goal keeper [ˈgəʊlki:pə]
430	kilíshi (kilíshi) 9	grease	grease [ɡriːs]
431	ikulúúpu (amakulúúpu) 5/6	group	group [ɡru:p]
432	kááti (baakááti) 1a/2a	guard	guard [ɡɑ:d]
433	áándibo (baaáándibo) 1a/2a	hand ball	hand ball [ˈhænd bɔl]
434	áándibashi (baaáándibashi) 1a/2a	handle bar	handle bar [ˈhændbɑ]
435	etimááshita (baaetimááshita) 1a/2a	headmaster	headmaster [hedˈmaːstə]
436	Ééleni (baaÉéleni) 1a/2a	Hellen	Hellen [ˈheli:n]
437	éélementi (baaéélementi) 1a/2a	helmet	helmet [ˈhelmɪt]
438	útyoti (baaútyoti) 1a/2a	idiot	idiot [ˈɪdiət]
439	mikééleshoni (baamikééleshoni) 1a/2a	immigration officers	immigration [ˌɪmɪˈɡreɪʃn]
440	ínci (baaínci) 1a/2a	inch	inch [ɪntʃ]
441	indipééndenshi (indipééndenshi) 9	independence	independence [ˌɪndɪˈpendəns]

/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
442	índikéeta (baaíndikéeta) 1a/2a	indicator	indicator [ˈɪndɪkɛɪtə]
443	Ínosenti (baaÍnosenti) 1a/2a	Innocent Proper Noun	Innocent [ˈɪnəsnt]
444	intashíiti (baaintashíiti) 1a/2a	intercity	intercity [ɪntəˈsɪti]
445	cáákipóoti (baacáákipóoti) 1a/2a	jackpot	jackpot [ˈdʒækpɒt]
446	Cáákobo (baaCáákobo) 1a/2a	Jacob Proper Noun	Jacob [ˈdʒækəb]
447	icééle (ifyééle) 7/8	jail	jail [dʒeɪl]
448	cáámu (cáámu) 9	jam	jam [dʒæm]
449	cáá (baacáá) 1a/2a	jar	jar [dʒɑ:]
450	Cáánuwale (baaCáánuwale) 1a/2a	January	January [ˈdʒænjuəri]
451	céélashi (céélashi) 9	jealousy	jealousy [ˈdʒeləsi]
452	cinishi (cinishi) 9	jean cloth	jean [dʒi:nz]
453	Ceóófa (Ceóófa) 9	Jehovah	Jehovah [dʒɪˈhəʊvə]
454	cekiŋa (v)	jerking	jerking [dʒɜ:kɪŋ]
455	icééshi (amacééshi) 5/6	jersey	jersey [ˈdʒɜ:zi]
456	Yéésu (Yéésu) 9	Jesus	Jesus [ˈdʒi:zəs]
457	Yúúta (baaYúúta) 1a/2a	Jew	Jew [dʒu:]
458	coini (baacoini) 1a/2a	join	join [dʒɔɪn]
459	coina (v)	join	join [dʒɔɪn]



S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
460	cááci (baacááci) 1a/2a	judge	judge [dʒʌdʒ]
461	cúúto (cúúto) 9	judo	judo [dʒuːdəʊ]
462	caki (baacaki) 1a/2a	jug	jug [dʒʌg]
463	Culááyi (baaCulááyi) 1a/2a	July	July [dʒuˈlaɪ]
464	cúúnya (baacúúnya) 1a/2a	junior	junior [ˈdʒuːniə]
465	kalééti (kalééti) 9	karate	karate [kəˈrɑːti]
456	Kééofini (baaKééofini) 1a/2a	Kelvin Proper Noun	Kelvin [ˈkelvɪn]
457	akéétulo (utwéétulo) 12/13	kettle	kettle [ˈketl]
458	Kéén (baaKéén) 1a/2a	Ken	Ken [ken]
459	kíi (baakíi) 1a/2a	key	key [ki]
460	kíiboti (baakíiboti) 1a/2a	key board	key board [ˈkiːbɔːd]
461	kááki (kááki) 9	khaki	khaki [ˈkɑːki]
462	kíilo (baakíilo) 1a/2a	kilo	kilo [ˈkiːləʊ]
463	kishi (baakishi) 1a/2a	kiss	kiss [kɪs]
464	cúíkini (ifúíkini) 7/8	kitchen	kitchen [ˈkɪtʃɪn]
465	kaiti (baakaiti) 1a/2a	kite	kite [kaɪt]
466	núika (baaníika) 1a/2a	knickers	knickers [ˈnɪkəz]
467	naifi (baanaifi) 1a/2a	knife	knife [naɪf]
468	léébala (baaléébala) 1a/2a	labourer	labourer [ˈleɪbərə]

N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
59	iláámpi (baaláámpi) 1a/2a	lamp	lamp [læmp]
70	lóóndili (baalóóndili) 1a/2a	laundry	laundry [ˈlɔːndri]
71	lóóni (baalóóni) 1a/2a	lawn	lawn [lɔːn]
72	lóóya (baalóóya) 1a/2a	lawyer	lawyer [ˈlɔːjə]
73	léébayi (baaléébayi) 1a/2a	lay-by	lay-by [ˈleɪbɔɪ]
74	iléémoni (amailéémoni) 5/6	lemon	lemon [ˈlemən]
75	léépoloshi (léépoloshi) 9	leprosy	leprosy [ˈleprəsi]
76	lééfo (baalééfo) 1a/2a	instrument used to level	level [ˈlevl]
77	Yobo (baaYobo) 1a/2a	Job	Job [dʒɒb]
78	lééfi (baalééfi) 1a/2a	levy	levy [ˈlevi]
79	lááibulale (baalááibulale) 1a/2a	library	library [ˈlaɪbrəri]
80	lááisenshi (baalááisenshi) 1a/2a	licence	licence [ˈləɪsɪns]
81	liti (baaliti) 1a/2a	lid	lid [lɪd]
82	lááifibo (baalááifibo) 1a/2a	lifebuoy	lifebuoy [ˈleɪfbɔɪ]
83	ilifiti (amalifiti) 5/6	lift	lift [lɪft]
84	ilaiti (amalaiti) 5/6	light	light [laɪt]
85	laimu (laimu) 9	lime	lime [laɪm]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
486	umulaini (imilaini) 3/4	line	line [laɪn]
487	líta (baalíta) 1a/2a	litre	litre [ˈli:tə]
488	ilóófwa (amailóófwa) 5/6	loafer	loafer [ˈləʊfə]
489	lóóni (baalóóni) 1a/2a	loan	loan [ləʊn]
490	lóóko (baalóóko) 1a/2a	lock	lock [lɒk]
491	lóóle (baalóóle) 1a/2a	lorry	lorry [ˈlɒri]
492	lúúsa (v)	lose	lose [lu:z]
493	lautishipíika (baalautishipíika) 1a/2a	loud speaker	loud speaker [ləʊdˈspɪ:kə]
494	lóówa adj	lower	lower [ˈləʊə]
495	láánci (láánci) 9	lunch	lunch [lʌntʃ]
496	mashíini (baamashíini) 1a/2a	machine	machine [məˈʃɪ:n]
497	máátamu (baamáátamu) 1a/2a	madam	madam [ˈmædəm]
498	mááciki (mááciki) 9	magic	magic [ˈmædʒɪk]
499	méécashitiliti (baaméécashitiliti) 1a/2a	magistrate	magistrate [ˈmædʒɪstreɪt]
500	máákineti (baamáákineti) 1a/2a	magnet	magnet [ˈmæɡnət]
501	maléélya (maléélya) 9	malaria	malaria [məˈleəriə]
502	mááneca (baamááneca) 1a/2a	manager	manager [ˈmænɪdʒə]
502	manyúúwa (manyúúwa) 9	manure	manure [məˈnjuə]
503	Mááci (baaMááci) 1a/2a	March	March [mɑ:tʃ]

/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
504	macalíni (macalíni) 9	margarine	margarine [mɑ:dʒə`ri:n]
505	mááliketi (baamááliketi)	market	market [ˈmɑ:kɪt]
506	mááti (baamááti) 1a/2a	mat	mat [mæt]
507	máácisa (baamáácisa) 1a/2a	piece of wood for lighting	match [mætʃ]
508	Mááko (baaMááko) 1a/2a	Mark	Mark [mɑ:k]
509	Máátini (baaMáátini)	Martin	Martin [ˈmɑtɪn]
510	máátuloni (baamáátuloni) 1a/2a	matron	matron [ˈmeɪtrən]
511	mateleshi (baamateleshi) 1a/2a	mattress	mattress [mætrəs]
512	Mee (baaMee) 1a/2a	May	May [meɪ]
513	mééya (baamééya) 1a/2a	mayor	mayor [meə]
514	makáánika (baamakáánika) 1a/2a	mechanic	mechanic [mɑ`kænik]
515	míítiji (baamíítiji) 1a/2a	meeting	meeting [ˈmi:tɪŋ]
516	mééloni (baamééloni) 1a/2a	water melon	water melon [ˈmelən]
517	méémba (baaméémba) 1a/2a	member	member [ˈmembə]
518	menda (v)	mend	mend [mend]
519	mesááya (mesááya) 9	Messiah	Messiah [mə`saɪə]
520	mííta (baamííta) 1a/2a	metre	metre [ˈmi:tə]
521	mailoshi (baamailoshi) 1a/2a	mile	mile [maɪl]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
522	myuku (myuku) 9	milk	milk [mɪlk]
523	maini (baamaini) 1a/2a	mine	mine [maɪn]
524	míni (baamíni) 1a/2a	mini skirt	mini- [ˈmɪni]
525	mínibáashi (baamínibáashi) 1a/2a	mini bus	mini bus [ˈmɪnɪbʌs]
526	mínishita (baamínishita) 1a/2a	minister	minister [ˈmɪnɪstə]
527	míila (baamíila) 1a/2a	mirror	mirror [ˈmɪrə]
528	mishishi (baamishishi) 1a/2a	miss	miss [mɪs]
529	múnshoni (baamúnshoni) 1a/2a	missionary	missionary [ˈmɪʃənri]
530	múshitileshi (baamúshitileshi) 1a/2a	mistress	mistress [ˈmɪstrəs]
531	Máánde (baaMáánde) 1a/2a	Monday	Monday [ˈmʌndeɪ]
532	móocali (baamóocali) 1a/2a	mortuary	mortuary [ˈmɔ:tʃəri]
533	móóshilemu (baamóóshilemu) 1a/2a	moslem	moslem [ˈmɒzləm]
534	moshikító (baamoshikító) 1a/2a	mosquito	mosquito [məˈski:təʊ]
535	móótoka (baamóótoka) 1a/2a	motor car	motor car [ˈməʊtə ka:]
536	máami (baamáami) 1a/2a	mummy	mummy [ˈmʌmi]
537	nééba (baanééba) 1a/2a	neighbour	neighbour [ˈneɪbə]
538	nyúú adj	new	new [nju:]
539	inyúúnshi (inyúúnshi) 9	newspaper	newspaper [ˈnju:zpeɪpə]

LOANWORD

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
540	nyuyéé (baanyuyéé) 1a/2a	new year	new year [nju:jiə]
541	naeni (baanaeni) 1a/2a	nine	nine [nam]
542	Noféém̄ba (baaNoféém̄ba) 1a/2a	November	November [nəu`vembə]
543	náám̄ba (baanáám̄ba) 1a/2a	number	number [ˈnʌmbə]
544	nááshi (baanááshi) 1a/2a	nurse	nurse [nɜ:s]
545	náásali (baanáásali) 1a/2a	nursery	nursery [ˈnɜ:səri]
546	kóólóko (particle)	o' clock	o' clock [ə`klɒk]
547	Okotóóba (baaOkotóóba) 1a/2a	October	October [ɒk`təʊbə]
548	of úú (adverbial)	off	off [ɒf]
549	óófeshi (baaóófeshi) 1a/2a	office	office [ˈɒfɪs]
550	oilo (oilo) 9	oil	oil [ɔɪl]
551	oilopenti (oilopenti) 9	oil paint	oil paint [ɔɪl peɪnt]
552	okéé (adj) / (adv)	okay	okay [əʊ`keɪ]
553	wanu (baawanu) 1a/2a	one	one [wʌn]
554	óóp̄ena (baaóóp̄ena) 1a/2a	opener	opener [ˈəʊpnə]
556	opalééshoni (baaopalééshoni) 1a/2a	operation	operation [ɒpə`reɪʃn]
557	óóc̄ati (baaóóc̄ati) 1a/2a	orchard	orchard [ˈɔ:tʃəd]
558	óóta (v)	order	order [ˈɔ:də]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
559	óótinali (adj)	ordinary train	ordinary train [ˈɔːdnri]
560	úúfuni (baaúúfuni) 1a/2a	oven	oven [ˈʌvn]
561	ofolóóshi (baaofolóóshi) 1a/2a	overall	overall [əʊvərˈɔːl]
562	óófataimu (baaóófataimu) 1a/2a	overtime	overtime [əʊvətáim]
563	pakiŋa (v)	packing	packing [pækɪŋ]
564	pááketi (baapááketi) 1a/2a	packet	packet [ˈpækɪt]
565	peci (baapeci) 1a/2a	page	page [peɪdʒ]
566	péénti (péénti) 9	paint	paint [peɪnt]
567	péénta (baapéénta) 1a/2a	painter	painter [peɪntə]
568	pááni (baapááni) 1a/2a	pan	pan [pæn]
569	páántili (baapáántili) 1a/2a	pantry	pantry [ˈpæntri]
570	ipéépala (amaipéépala) 5/6	paper	paper [ˈpeɪpə]
571	papulíka (papulíka) 9	paprika	paprika [pəˈpriːkə]
572	pelééti (v)	parade	parade [pəˈreɪd]
573	páálataise (páálataise) 9/19	paradise	paradise [ˈpærədəɪs]
574	páálafini (páálafini) 1a/2a	paraffin	paraffin [ˈpærəfɪn]
575	palamílitali (baapalamílitali) 1a/2a	paramilitary	paramilitary [pærəˈmɪlətri]
576	pááselo (baapááselo) 1a/2a	parcel	parcel [ˈpɑːsl]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
577	pakiṅa (v)	parking	parking [pɑ:kɪŋ]
578	ipááso (amapááso) 5/6	pass	pass [pɑ:s]
579	páása (v)	pass	pass [pɑ:s]
580	pááshipoti (baapááshipoti) 1a/2a	passport	passport [ˈpɑ:spɔ:t]
581	pááshita (baapááshita) 1a/2a	pastor	pastor [ˈpɑ:stə]
582	pashiti (prep)	past	past [pɑ:st]
583	pááte (baapááte) 1a/2a	party	party [ˈpɑ:ti]
584	póópo (baapóópo) 1a/2a	pawpaw	pawpaw [ˈpɔ:pɔ:]
585	péémashita (baapéémashita) 1a/2a	paymaster	paymaster [ˈpeɪma:stə]
586	ipekishi (amapekishi) 5/6	peg	peg [peg]
587	pééni (baapééni) 1a/2a	pen	pen [pen]
588	péénoti (baapéénoti) 1a/2a	penalty	penalty [ˈpenəlti]
589	péénsulo (baapéénsulo) 1a/2a	pencil	pencil [ˈpensl]
590	penishíílíni (penishíílíni) 9	penicillin	penicillin [penɪˈsɪlɪn]
591	pééni (baapééni) 1a/2a	penny	penny [ˈpeni]
592	péénshoni (baapéénshoni) 1a/2a	pension	pension [ˈpenʃn]
593	péépa (péépa) 9	pepper	pepper [ˈpepə]
594	pééfýumu (pééfýumu) 9	perfume	perfume [ˈpɜ:fju:m]
595	péému (baapéému) 1a/2a	perm	perm [pɜ:m]
596	péétulo (péétulo) 9	petrol	petrol [ˈpetrəl]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
597	pítikóoti (baapítikóoti) 1a/2a	petticoat	petticoat [ˈpetikəʊt]
598	Fáálah (Fáálah) 9	Pharaoh	Pharaoh [ˈfeərəʊ]
599	umufáálishi (amafáálishi) 3/6	Pharisee	Pharisee [ˈfærɪsi]
600	fóónikishi (fóónikishi) 9	phoenix	phoenix [ˈfiːnɪks]
601	fóóni (baafóóni) 1a/2a	phone	phone [fəʊn]
602	piááno (baapiano) 1a/2a	piano	piano [piˈænəʊ]
603	piki (baapiki) 1a/2a	pick	pick [pɪk]
604	píkaku (baapíkaku) 1a/2a	pick up	pick up [ˈpɪkʌp]
605	píkika (baapíkika) 1a/2a	picture	picture [ˈpɪktʃə]
606	pai (baapai) 1a/2a	pie	pie [paɪ]
607	píshiweki (baapíshiweki) 1a/2a	piecework	piecework [ˈpiːswɜːk]
608	piu (baapiu) 1a/2a	pill	pill [pɪl]
609	píla (baapíla) 1a/2a	pillar	pillar [ˈpɪlə]
610	pílo (baapílo) 1a/2a	pillow	pillow [ˈpɪləʊ]
611	pílokeshi (baapílokeshi) 1a/2a	pillowcase	pillowcase [ˈpɪləʊkeɪs]
612	ipúmpo (amapúmpo) 5/6	pimple	pimple [ˈpɪmpl]
613	napíni (baanapíni) 1a/2a	pin	pin [pɪn]
614	ipainti (amaipainti) 5/6	pint	pint [paɪnt]
615	umupaipi (imipaipi) 3/4	pipe	pipe [paɪp]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
616	pítshito (baapítshito) 1a/2a	pistol	pistol [ˈpɪstl]
617	píshitoni (baapíshitoni) 1a/2a	piston	piston [ˈpɪstən]
618	pulááni (baapulááni) 1a/2a	plan	plan [plæn]
619	impaipi (impaipi) 9	smoking pipe	pipe [paɪp]
620	pulena (v)	plane	plane [pleɪn]
621	ipuláanga (amapuláanga) 5/6	plank	plank [plæŋk]
622	púúlashita (púúlashita) 9	plaster	plaster [ˈplɑːstə]
623	púúlashitiki (baapúúlashitiki) 1a/2a	plastic	plastic [ˈplæstɪk]
624	púúlatifomu (baapúúlatifomu) 1a/2a	platform	platform [ˈplætfɔːm]
625	púúlayashi (baapúúlayashi) 1a/2a	pliers	pliers [ˈplaɪəz]
626	puóóti (baapuóóti) 1a/2a	plot	plot [plɒt]
627	pulááwo (baapulááwo) 1a/2a	plough	plough [plau]
628	pulashi (baapulashi) 1a/2a	plus	plus [plʌs]
629	ipóóketi (amapóóketi) 5/6	pocket	pocket [ˈpɒkɪt]
630	ipointi (amapointi) 5/6	point	point [pɔɪnt]
631	póóisoni (póóisoni) 9	poison	poison [ˈpɔɪzn]
632	umupóó (imipóó) 3/4	pole	pole [pəʊl]
633	polítshi (baa polítshi) 1a/2a	police officer	police [pəˈliːs]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
634	póólyo (póólyo) 9	polio	polio [ˈpəʊliəʊ]
635	póólíshí (póólíshí) 9	polish	polish [ˈpɒlɪʃ]
636	pontúúni (baapontúúni) 1a/2a	pontoon	pontoon [pɒnˈtuːn]
637	púú (púú) 9	pool	pool [pu:l]
638	póópokóóni (póópokóóni) 9	popcorn	popcorn [ˈpɒpkɔːn]
639	Páápa (Páápa) 9	Pope	Pope [pəʊp]
640	póóleci (póóleci) 9	porridge	porridge [ˈpɒrɪdʒ]
641	ipóóso (ipóóso) 9	portion	portion [ˈpɔːʃn]
642	poshita (v)	post	to post [pəʊst]
643	impóoto (impóoto) 9	pot	pot [pɒt]
644	pááuta (pááuta) 9	powder	powder [ˈpaʊdə]
645	púúlakatíshí (baapúúlakatíshí) 1a/2a	practice	practice [ˈpræktɪs]
646	púúleshítenti (baapúúleshítenti) 1a/2a	president	president [ˈprezɪdənt]
467	púúlaímale (baapúúlaímale) 1a/2a	primary school pupils	primary [ˈpraɪməri]
648	púúlinshípo (baapúúlinshípo) 1a/2a	principal	principal [ˈprɪnsəpl]
649	pulínta (v)	print	to print [prɪnt]
650	pulínta (baapulínta) 1a/2a	printer	printer [ˈprɪntə]
651	púúlísoni (baapúúlísoni) 1a/2a	prison	prison [ˈprɪzn]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
652	púúlaifeti adj	private school or clinic	private [ˈpraɪvat]
653	póólobulemu baapóólobulemu) 1a/2a	problem	problem [ˈprɒbləm]
654	póólofiti (baapóólofiti) 1a/2a	profit	profit [ˈprɒfɪt]
655	póólokalamu (baapóólokalamu) 1a/2a	programme	programme [ˈprəʊgræm]
656	polomóóshoni (baapolomóóshoni) 1a/2a	promotion	promotion [prəˈməʊʃn]
657	polomóóta (v)	promote	promote [prəˈməʊt]
658	polopééla (baapolopééla) 1a/2a	helicopter	propeller [prəˈpelə]
659	Pitiéé (baaPitiéé) 1a/2a	Parent-Teacher Association	PTA [pi:ti: `ei]
660	pompi (baapompi) 1a/2a	pump	pump [pʌmp]
661	pompa (v)	pump	pump [pʌmp]
662	páánca (v)	puncture	puncture [ˈpʌŋktʃə]
663	páánika (v)	punish	punish [ˈpʌnɪʃ]
664	páánishimenti (baapáánishimenti) 1a/2a	punishment	punishment [ˈpʌnɪʃmənt]
665	pééshi (baapééshi) 1a/2a	purse	purse [pɜ:s]
666	kóóta (baakóóta) 1a/2a	quarter of time	quarter [ˈkwɔ:tə]
667	kwíni (baakwíni) 1a/2a	queen	queen [kwi:n]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
668	kwníni (kwníni) 9	quinine	quinine [kwɪˈni:m]
669	léétiyo (baaléétiyo) 1a/2a	radio	radio [ˈreɪdiəʊ]
670	láálwe (baaláálwe) 1a/2a	rialway line	railway [ˈreɪlweɪ]
671	léénikoti (baaléénikoti) 1a/2a	raincoat	raincoat [ˈreɪnkəʊt]
672	lééki (baalééki) 1a/2a	rake	rake [reɪk]
673	láále (baaláále) 1a/2a	rally	rally [ˈræli]
674	léépu (léépu) 9	rape	rape [reɪp]
675	lááshoni (baalááshoni) 1a/2a	ration	ration [ˈræʃn]
676	akanéésala (utunéésala) 12/13	razor blade	razor blade [ˈreɪzə bleɪd]
677	iléékoti (amaléékoti) 5/6	record	record [ˈrekɔ:d]
678	likulúúti (baalikulúúti) 1a/2a	recruit	recruit [rɪˈkru:t]
679	lifalí (baalifalí) 1a/2a	referee	referee [refəˈri]
680	limááandi (limááandi) 9	remand prison	remand [rɪˈma:nd]
681	limóóti (baalimóóti) 1a/2a	remote control	remote [rɪˈməʊt]
682	lentiṅa (v)	renting	renting [rentɪŋ]
683	lenti (baalenti) 1a/2a	rent	rent [rent]
684	lipééya (baalipééya) 1a/2a	repair	repair [rɪˈpeə]
685	lipóóti (baalipóóti) 1a/2a	report	report [rɪˈpɔ:t]
686	lipóóta (v)	report	to report [rɪˈpɔ:t]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
687	lisééfu (baalisééfu) 1a/2a	police reserve	reserve [rɪˈzɜ:v]
688	lééshítílanti (baalééshítílanti) 1a/2a	restaurant	restaurant [ˈrestrɒnt]
689	litááya (v)	retire	retire [rɪˈtaɪə]
690	litítíliti (baalitítíliti) 1a/2a	retreat of player	retreat [rɪˈtri:t]
691	litéélenci (v)	retrench	retrench [rɪˈtrentʃ]
692	lifééshi (adv)	reverse	reverse [rɪˈvɜ:s]
693	lifiyúú (baalifyúú) 1a/2a	medical review	review [rɪˈvjʊ:]
694	lifóófa (baalifóófa) 1a/2a	revolver	revolver [rɪˈvɒlvə]
695	laishi (laishi) 9	rice	rice [raɪs]
696	lááifo (baalááifo) 1a/2a	riffle	riffle [ˈraɪfl]
697	líumu (baalíumu) 1a/2a	rim	rim [rɪm]
698	líji (baalíji) 1a/2a	ring	ring [rɪŋ]
699	lááyoti (baalááyoti) 1a/2a	riot	riot [ˈraɪət]
700	lóótíbuloko (baalóótíbuloko) 1a/2a	roadblock	roadblock [ˈrəʊdb্লɒk]
701	ilóóboti (amalóóboti) 5/6	robot	robot [ˈrəʊbɒt]
702	lúumu (baalúumu) 1a/2a	room	room [ru:m]
703	láába (baaláába) 1a/2a	rubber	rubber [ˈrʌbə]
704	iláábishi (amaláábishi) 5/6	rubbish	rubbish [ˈrʌbɪʃ]
705	lúúla (baalúúla) 1a/2a	ruler	ruler [ˈru:lə]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
706	isáábata (amasáábata) 5/6	sabbath	sabbath [ˈsæbəθ]
707	isááka (amasááka) 5/6	sack	sack [sæk]
708	icisáátulo (ifisáátulo) 7/8	saddle	saddle [ˈsædl]
709	sééfu (baasééfu) 1a/2a	safe	safe [seɪf]
710	sáálati (sáálati) 9	salad (cooking oil)	salad [ˈsæləd]
711	sáálale (baasáálale) 1a/2a	salary	salary [ˈsæləri]
712	selu (selu) 9	sale	sale [seɪl]
713	sááluni (baasááluni) 1a/2a	salon	salon [ˈsælən]
714	sauti (sauti) 9	salt	salt [sɔːlt]
715	salyúúti (v)	salute	salute [səˈluːt]
716	sáánda (baasáánda) 1a/2a	sandal	sandal [ˈsændl]
717	sáándipepa (sáándipepa) 9	sandpaper	sandpaper [ˈsænd peɪpə]
718	sáátana (sáátana) 9	satan	satan [ˈseɪtn]
719	soseci (baasoseci) 1a/2a	sausage	sausage [ˈsɔːsɪdʒ]
720	isukulu (amasukulu) 5/6	school	school [sku:l]
721	shíúsala (baashíúsala) 1a/2a	scissors	scissors [ˈsɪzəz]
722	ishikóono (amashikóono) 5/6	scone	scone [skɒn]
723	súúkulutalaifa (baasúúkulutalaifa) 1a/2a	screw driver	Screw driver [ˈskruːdrɪvə]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
724	sééca (v)	search	search [sɜ:tʃ]
725	séékondale (baaséékondale) 1a/2a	seconadry	secondary [ˈsekəndri]
726	séékilitale (baaséékilitale) 1a/2a	secretary	secretary [ˈsekrətri]
727	séékishoni (baaséékishoni) 1a/2a	section	section [ˈsekʃn]
728	séémina (baaséémina) 1a/2a	seminar	seminar [ˈsemɪnɑ]
729	sééminali (baasééminali) 1a/2a	seminary	seminary [ˈsemɪnəri]
730	séécenti (baaséécenti) 1a/2a	sergant	sergant [ˈsɑ:dʒənt]
731	setíí (baasetíí) 1a/2a	settee	settee [seˈti:]
732	shampóó (shampóó) 9	shampoo	shampoo [ʃæmˈpu:]
733	sháánti adj	shanty	shanty [ˈʃænti]
734	shifuti amashifuti) 9a/6	shift	shift [ʃɪft]
735	shaina (v)	shine	shine [ʃaɪn]
736	ishááti (amashááti) 5/6	shirt	shirt [ʃɜ:t]
737	shóóko (baashóóko) 1a/2a	shock absorber	shock [ʃɒk]
738	shóópu (amashóópu) 9a/6	shop	shop [ʃɒp]
739	shóótikani (baashóótikani) 1a/2a	shot gun	short gun [ˈʃɒtɡʌn]
740	fóósholo (baafóósholo) 1a/2a	shovel	shovel [ˈʃʌvl]
741	shóó (baashóó) 1a/2a	show (agriculture)	show [ʃəʊ]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
742	shiki adj	diarrhoea	sick [sɪk]
743	sééfa (v)	sieve	sieve [sɪv]
744	saini (v)	sign	sign [saɪn]
745	shíúfa (shíúfa) 9	silver	silver [ˈsɪlvə]
746	shink (baashinki) 1a/2a	sink	sink [sɪŋk]
747	sáá (baasáá) 1a/2a	sir	sir [sɜː]
748	sááilini (baasááilini) 1a/2a	siren	siren [ˈsaɪrən]
749	shíúshita (baashíúshita) 1a/2a	sister	sister [ˈsɪstə]
750	shikishi (baashikishi) 1a/2a	six	six [sɪks]
751	saishi (baasaishi) 1a/2a	size	size [saɪz]
752	shikéeti (baashikéeti) 1a/2a	skirt	skirt [skɜːt]
753	sóó (adv)	so	so [səʊ]
754	shilítí (baashilítí) 1a/2a	slit	slit [slɪt]
755	isopo (amasopo) 5/6	soap	soap [səʊp]
756	insokoshi (insokoshi) 9	sock	sock [sɒk]
757	sóóta (sóóta) 9	soda	soda [ˈsəʊdə]
758	umusóoca (amasóoca) 3/6	soldier	soldier [ˈsəʊldʒə]
759	sapulááno (baasapulááno) 1a/2a	soprano	soprano [səˈprɑːnəʊ]
760	shíúpana (baashíúpana) 1a/2a	spanner	spanner [ˈspænə]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
779	shíícupiti (baashíícupiti) 1a/2a	stupid	stupid [ˈstju:pid]
780	shitaelo (baashitaelo) 1a/2a	style	style [staɪl]
781	shúúka (shúúka) 9	sugar	sugar [ˈʃʊgə]
782	súúti (baasúúti) 1a/2a	suit	suit [su:t]
783	súútikeshi (baasúútikeshi) 1a/2a	suitcase	suitcase [ˈsu:tkeɪs]
784	ulusamushi (insamushi) 11/10	sum	sum [sʌm]
785	sááimoni (baasááimoni) 1a/2a	summons	summons [ˈsʌmənz]
786	Sáánde (baaSáánde) 1a/2a	Sunday	Sunday [ˈsʌndeɪ]
787	sáánifulawa (sáánifulawa) 9	sunflower	sunflower [ˈsʌnflaʊə]
788	sapulááya (baasapulááya) 1a/2a	supplier	supplier [səˈplaɪə]
789	sapóóta (v)	support	support [səˈpɔ:t]
790	sapóóta (baasapóóta) 1a/2a	supporter	supporter [səˈpɔ:tə]
791	sááfu (sááfu) 9	surf (washing powder)	surf [sɜ:f]
792	saléénda (v)	surrender	surrender [səˈrendə]
793	swééta (baaswééta) 1a/2a	sweater	sweater [ˈswetə]
794	swíiti (baaswíiti) 1a/2a	sweet	sweet [swi:t]
795	swíici (baaswíici) 1a/2a	switch	switch [swɪtʃ]
796	shíínoti (baashíínoti) 1a/2a	synod	synod [ˈsɪnəd]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
797	itéébulo (amatéébulo) 5/6	table	table [ˈteɪbl]
798	táábuleti (baatáábuleti) 9a/6	tablet	tablet [ˈtæblət]
799	tééla (baatééla) 1a/2a	tailor	tailor [ˈteɪlə]
800	itáánki (amatáánki) 5/6	tank	tank [tæŋk]
801	táánka (baatáánka) 1a/2a	tanker	tanker [ˈtæŋkə]
802	táápu (baatáápu) 1a/2a	tap	tap [tæp]
803	téépu (baatéépu) 1a/2a	tape	tape [teɪp]
804	táála adj	tar road	tar [tɑ:]
805	tááfeni (baatááfeni) 1a/2a	tarven	tarven [ˈtævən]
806	táákishi (baatáákishi) 1a/2a	taxi	taxi [ˈtæks]
807	tibú (tibí) 9	TB	TB [tiːbi:]
808	tííca (baatííca) 1a/2a	teacher	teacher [ˈti:tʃə]
809	itíímu (amatíímu) 5/6	team	team [ti:m]
810	itíípoti (amatíípoti) 5/6	teapot	teapot [ˈti:pət]
811	tííyakashi (baa tííyakashi) 9a/6	teargas	teargas [ˈtrə gæs]
812	tilumu (baatilumu) 1a/2a	tearoom	tearoom [ti:ru:m]
813	téélekalamu (baatéélekalamu) 1a/2a	telegram	telegram [ˈtelɪgræm]
814	téélefoni (baatéélefoni) 1a/2a	telephone	telephone [ˈtelɪfəʊn]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
815	téélefishoni (baatééfifishoni) 1a/2a	television	television [ˈtelɪvɪʒn]
816	téém (baatéému) 1a/2a	term	term [tɜ:m]
817	itéénti (amatéénti) 5/6	tent	tent [tent]
818	fyéeta (baafyéeta) 1a/2a	theatre	theatre [ˈθiətə]
819	sáate (baasáate) 1a/2a	thirty	thirty [ˈθɜ:ti]
820	itíketi (amatíketi) 5/6	ticket	ticket [ˈtɪkɪt]
821	tai (baatai) 1a/2a	tie	tie [taɪ]
822	tíimba (baatíimba) 1a/2a	timber	timber [ˈtɪmbə]
823	icintíini (ifintíini) 7/8	tin	tin [tɪn]
824	tóóileti (baatóóileti) 1a/2a	toilet	toilet [ˈtɔɪlət]
825	tomááto (baatomááto) 1a/2a	tomato	tomato [təˈmɑ:təʊ]
826	tóóci (baatóóci) 1a/2a	torch	torch [tɔ:tʃ]
827	itááulo (amatááulo) 5/6	towel	towel [ˈtaʊəl]
828	itauni (amatauni) 5/6	town	town [taʊn]
829	táálakita (baatáálakita) 1a/2a	tractor	tractor [ˈtræktə]
830	táálafiki (baatáálafiki) 1a/2a	traffic police	traffic [ˈtræfɪk]
831	téélela (baatéélela) 1a/2a	trailer	trailer [ˈtreɪlə]
832	teléeni (baateléeni) 1a/2a	train	train [treɪn]
833	talanshifáá (baatalanshifáá) 1a/2a	transfer	transfer [trænsˈfɜ:]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
834	tééleshala (baatéleshala) 1a/2a	treasurer	treasurer [ˈtreʒərə]
835	telée (baatelée) 1a/2a	tray	tray [treɪ]
836	tóóloli (baatóóloli) 1a/2a	trolley	trolley [ˈtrɒli]
837	itóóloshi (amatóóloshi) 5/6	trousers	trousers [ˈtraʊzəz]
838	talááki (baatalááki) 1a/2a	truck	truck [trʌk]
839	cúúbu (baacúúbu) 1a/2a	tube	tube [tju:b]
840	itáámbula (amatáámbula) 5/6	tumbler	tumbler [ˈtʌmblə]
841	cúúni (baacúúni) 1a/2a	tune	tune [tju:n]
842	tifí (baatifí) 1a/2a	TV	TV [ti:ˈvi:]
843	taipa (v)	type	type [taɪp]
844	itááyala (amatááyala) 5/6	tyre	tyre [ˈtaɪə]
845	ambulééla (baaambulééla) 1a/2a	umbrella	umbrella [ʌmˈbrelə]
846	áándapanti (baaandapanti) 1a/2a	underpants	underpants [ˈʌndəpænts]
847	yúúnifomu (baayúúnifomu) 1a/2a	uniform	uniform [ˈju:nifɔ:m]
848	yúúnyoni (baayúúnyoni) 1a/2a	union	union [ˈju:niən]
849	yúúniiti (baayúúniiti) 1a/2a	unit	unit [ˈju:nɪt]
850	yuniféeshiti (baayuniféeshiti) 1a/2a	university	university [ju:nɪˈvɜ:səti]
851	áápa (baaáápa) 1a/2a	upper school pupils	upper [ˈʌpə]
852	fáálufu (baafáálufu) 1a/2a	valve	valve [vælv]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
852	fáánishi (fáánishi) 9	varnish	varnish [ˈvɑ:nɪʃ]
853	fáásalini (fáásalini) 9	vaseline	vaseline [ˈvæsəli:n]
854	fééshi (baafééshi) 1a/2a	verse	verse [vɜ:s]
855	feshiti (baafeshiti) 1a/2a	vest	vest [vest]
856	fóóta (v)	vote	vote [vəʊt]
857	wéételeshi (baawéételeshi) 1a/2a	waitress	waitress [ˈweɪtrəs]
858	wááti (baawááti) 1a/2a	ward	ward [wɔ:d]
859	washa (v)	wash	wash [wɒʃ]
860	wóócitawala (baawóócitawala) 1a/2a	watchtower	watchtower [ˈwɒtʃtaʊə]
861	wíísulo (baawíísulo) 1a/2a	whistle	whistle [ˈwɪsl]
862	iule (amaule) 5/6	whore	whore [hɔ:]
863	wína (v)	win	win [wɪn]
864	wíiki (baawíiki) 1a/2a	wig	wig [wɪɡ]
865	wíítineshi (baawíítineshi) 1a/2a	witness	witness [ˈwɪtnəs]
866	wéékishopu (baawéékishopu) 1a/2a	workshop	workshop [ˈwɜ:kʃɒp]
867	yááti (baayááti) 1a/2a	yard	yard [jɑ:d]
868	iyoko (amayoko) 5/6	yoke	yoke [jəʊk]
869	shíilo (baashíilo) 1a/2a	zero	zero [ˈzɪərəʊ]
870	iwíindo (amawíindo) 5/6	window	window [ˈwɪndəʊ]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
871	wááya (baawááya) 1a/2a	wire	wire [ˈwaɪə]
872	shipu (baashipu) 1a/2a	zip	zip [zɪp]
873	shitaci (shitaci) 9	starch	starch [stɑ:tʃ]
874	shítata (baashítata) 1a/2a	starter	starter [ˈstɑ:tə]
875	shitéétimenti (baashitéétimenti) 1a/2a	statement	statement [ˈsteɪtmənt]
876	wíndo shikilini (baawíndo shikilini) 1a/2a	wind screen	wind screen [ˈwɪndskri:n]
877	sóóni (baasóóni) 1a/2a	zone	zone [zəʊn]
878	shiti (baashiti) 1a/2a	shit	shit [ʃɪt]
879	kóólokotailo (baakóólokotailo) 1a/2a	crocodile	crocodile [ˈkrɒkədɪl]
880	tóónki (baatóónki) 1a/2a	donkey	donkey [ˈdɒŋki]
881	icitakishi (ifitakishi) 7/8	duck	duck [dʌk]
882	Sepetéémba (baaSepetéémba) 1a/2a	September	September [sepˈtembə]
883	báashikopo (baabáashikopo) 1a/2a	bioscope	bioscope [ˈbaɪəskəʊp]
884	itéémpéle (amatéémpéle) 5/6	temple	temple [ˈtempl]
885	káálakaca (baakáálakaca) 1a/2a	agriculture	agriculture [ˈægrɪkʌltʃə]
886	tífútífi (baatífútífi) 1a/2a	detective	detective [dɪˈtektɪv]
887	ifíika (amafíika) 5/6	figure	figure [ˈfɪgər]
888	líifi (líifi) 9	leave	leave [liv]

S/N	LOANWORD		ETYMON
	FORM	GLOSS	
889	lokéeshoni (baalokéeshoni) 1a/2a	location	location [ləu`keɪʃn]
890	shóóti adj	short	short [ʃɔt]
891	Bulaki (bulaki) 9	Black Proper Noun	Black [blæk]
892	shikwéeya (baashikwéeya) 1a/2a	square	square [skweər]
893	shíítandati (baashíítandati) 1a/2a	standard (of education)	standard [ˈstændəd]
894	shitéépu (baashitéépu) 1a/2a	step	step [step]
895	iseléeti (amaseléeti) 5/6	slate	slate [sleɪt]
896	fóoka (baafóoka) 1a/2a	fork	fork [fɔ:k]
897	shiláabu (shiláabu) 9	slab	slab [slæb]
898	áándalaweya (baaáándalaweya) 1a/2a	underwear	underwear [ˈʌndəweər]
899	áásha (baaáásha) 1a/2a	usher	usher [ˈʌʃər]
900	fááni (baafááni) 1a/2a	van	van [væn]

CHAPTER THREE

FINDINGS

3.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with phonology, morphology, semantics and syntax of English-derived loanwords in Bemba. It also discusses the differences between Rural Bemba and Town Bemba.

3.1 Phonology of Rural Bemba

3.1.1 General

Under this section, what will be discussed are the phonological incorporation processes evident in loanwords derived from English into Bemba.

3.1.2 English phonemes

3.1.2.1 Consonants

The English consonant sounds can be summarized in the following chart:

	Bilabial	Labial-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Alveolar-palatal	Velar	Glottal
	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +
Stops	p b			t d		k g	ʔ
Fricatives		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		
Affricates					tʃ dʒ		
Nasals	m			n		ŋ	
Liquids				r l,			
Glides	w					y	h

3.1.2.2 Vowels

There are twelve distinctive vowels in English as can be seen from the following:

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
	ɪ		ʊ
Mid	e	ə	o
	ɛ		ɔ
Low		æ	ʌ
			ɑ

3.1.3 Bemba phonemes

3.1.3.1 Consonants

Phonetic chart

	Bilabial	Labial dental	Alveolar	Post alveolar	Palatal	Velar
	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +
Nasal	m		n		ny	ŋ
Stop	p mp mb		t nt nd			k ŋk ŋg
Fricative	β	f mf	s ns/nsh			
Affricate				c nc	j nj	
Lateral			l			
Approximants					y	w

Phonemic chart

	Bilabial	Labial dental	Alveolar	Post alveolar	Palatal	Velar
	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +
Nasal	m		n		ny	y
Stop	p mp		t nt			k ŋk ng
Fricative	β	f mf	s ns			
Affricate				c nc nj		
Lateral			l nl			
Approximants					y	w

3.1.3.2. Vowels

There are five “basic” vowels in Bemba:

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid		e	o
Low		a	

3.2 Phonological rules

3.2.1 General

As can be seen above, the type and number of phonemes in a phonetic inventory of Bemba differ from that of English. Because of this, borrowing requires that Bemba should use a strategy to deal with foreign (English) phonemes that are not present in its phonemic inventory. In this case, Bemba replaces the English phonemes with one of its own that are phonetically similar. It should be noted that the loanword is usually completely nativised so that the speakers of Bemba may not be aware that the word is borrowed from English. Furthermore, it can be said that all these rules apply in almost all environments.

It should be mentioned that the rules discussed in this chapter represent regularities. The existence of exceptions has been accounted for. It is noteworthy to state that a number of borrowings have not been made straight forward from English. However, the phonological rules are represented as if all the loanwords have been taken straight-forward from English.

There are three main types of rules in the phonology of English-derived loanwords in Bemba. These are: feature changing rules, vowel insertion rules, and tone formation rules.

3.2.2 Feature changing rules

3.2.2.1 Consonants

- (i) **d – devoicing:** This rule states that English /d/ which is not followed by a nasal is realised as /t/ in Bemba:

d→t

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
A <u>d</u> am	A <u>t</u> aamu
<u>d</u> amage	<u>t</u> aameci
<u>d</u> ance	<u>t</u> aansi
<u>d</u> eacon	<u>t</u> iikoni
<u>d</u> ear	<u>t</u> iiya
<u>D</u> C	<u>t</u> iishi
<u>d</u> esk	<u>t</u> eshiki

Note that there are a few exceptions where /d/ is preceded by a nasal:

do <u>d</u> or	<u>nd</u> okotala
Dia <u>n</u> a	<u>Nd</u> aina

(ii) **s + i insertion:** This rule states that English /s/ followed by /i/ or any other consonant is realised by /sh/ in Bemba:

s + i/c → sh

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
<u>s</u> cone	<u>sh</u> ikoono
<u>s</u> panner	<u>sh</u> ipaana

<u>s</u> pare	sh <u>i</u> peeya
ba <u>s</u> ket	ba <u>sh</u> ikeeti
<u>s</u> teak	sh <u>i</u> teeki
pa <u>s</u> tor	pa <u>sh</u> ita
<u>s</u> ink	sh <u>i</u> inki

(iii) **g – devoicing:** This rule states that English /g/ is realised as /k/ in Bemba:

$g \rightarrow k$

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
garage	ka <u>l</u> aci
garden	ka <u>l</u> atani
garlic	ka <u>l</u> iki
gate	ke <u>t</u> i
gear	ki <u>i</u> ya
gift	ki <u>i</u> futi
bag	ba <u>k</u> i

(iv) **v – devoicing:** This rule states that English /v/ is realised as /f/ in Bemba:

$v \rightarrow f$

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
<u>v</u> alve	fa <u>l</u> ufu
<u>v</u> est	fe <u>sh</u> iti

<u>v</u> aseline	<u>f</u> ashilini
<u>v</u> arnish	<u>f</u> anishi
<u>v</u> ote	<u>f</u> oota
<u>f</u> iye	<u>f</u> aifi

(v) **dʒ - devoicing:** This rule states that English /dʒ/ is realised as /c/:

$dʒ \rightarrow c$

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
<u>ch</u> arger	<u>c</u> aaca
<u>j</u> udge	<u>c</u> aaci
<u>j</u> udo	<u>c</u> uuto
<u>j</u> ag	<u>c</u> aaki
<u>j</u> ar	<u>c</u> aa
<u>J</u> uly	<u>C</u> ulai
<u>J</u> unior	<u>C</u> uunya

(vi) **r – lateralisation:** This rule states that English /r/ is realised as /l/ in Bemba:

$r \rightarrow l$

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
<u>r</u> adio	<u>l</u> eetiyo
<u>r</u> ape	<u>l</u> eepu

rake	leeki
veranda	fe aanda
re cord	i eekoti
re port	li pooti
br <u>a</u>	bu aa
br <u>a</u> ke	bu eeki

(vii) /θ/ and /ð/ - **devoicing**: This rule states that English /θ/ and /ð/ are realised as either /t/, /f/ or /s/ in Bemba:

$$\theta / \delta \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} t \\ f \\ s \end{pmatrix}$$

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
ba <u>th</u>	baaf <u>wa</u>
sabb <u>ath</u>	isaba <u>ta</u>
th <u>ir</u> ty	sa <u>ate</u>
th <u>ir</u> teen	sa <u>at</u> ini
th <u>an</u> k you	sa <u>n</u> co
fa <u>th</u> er	fa <u>aa</u> s
bro <u>th</u> er	bu a <u>aa</u> s

(viii) **z – devoicing:** This rule states that English /z/ is realised as /s/ in Bemba:

$z \rightarrow s$

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
<u>z</u> ero	sh <u>i</u> ilo
<u>z</u> one	so <u>o</u> ni
<u>z</u> ip	sh <u>i</u> ipu
si <u>z</u> e	sa <u>s</u> hi
<u>z</u> oom	su <u>s</u> umu

(viii) **b – fricatisation:** This rule states that English plosive /b/ is realised as fricative

/β/ in Bemba except before a nasal compound.

$b \rightarrow \beta$

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
<u>b</u> ag	βaaki
<u>b</u> all	βoola
<u>b</u> and	βaandi
<u>b</u> ar	βaa
<u>cl</u> ub	akalaaβu
<u>h</u> ub	aaβu

The above information can be summarised as follows:

English phoneme	Realization in Bemba
d	t
g	k
z	s
v	f
r	l
s	ʃ
h	Ø
θ / ð	t, f, s
dʒ	c
b	β

One may ask whether there is a predictable way of how Bemba actually selects the type or quality of vowel to assign to the syllables which replace the English clusters. It should be mentioned that there are no predictable rules to account for every word. However, it seems the general rule applied to break up such clusters by inserting vowels depends on the approximate phonetic quality of the consonants in question as they relate to each other in the particular cluster. For instance, b in bl in blouse is heard as possessing an [u] sound and so is realised as bulaushi. In the same way, s in sp in spanner is heard as possessing an [i] sound and so is realised as shipaana. It should be mentioned here that as already mentioned above, sj is automatically transformed into shi.

The principle above seems to apply also to most words containing final consonants in closed syllables. Thus, the final consonants /m/ in drum and /t/ in plot are realised as mu and ti respectively.

It is worth mentioning that for the few exceptions, one reason could be the possible intervention of Kabanga before these words were actually borrowed by Bemba.

3.2.2.2. Vowels

- (i) The two front high vowels in English i and ɪ are both realised by the only front high vowel in Bemba as ‘i’.

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
lift	[lɪft]	lifuti
minibus	[mɪnɪ bʌs]	mini bashi
pick	[pɪk]	piki
quinine	[kwɪˈni:n]	kwinini
referee	[refəˈri]	liifali

- (i) Similarly, the back high vowels in English, ʊ and u are realised as ‘u’ in Bemba.

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
pool	[pu:l]	puu
ruler	[ˈru:lə]	luula
sugar	[ˈʃʊgə]	shuuka
room	[ru:m]	luumu
full	[fʊl]	fuulu
cook	[kʊk]	kuuki

- (ii) The two front mid-vowels in English e and ɜ are both realized by the only front mid-vowel in Bemba as ‘e’.

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
mayor	[meə]	meeya
reverse	[rɪˈvɜ:s]	lifeeshi
rent	[rent]	leenti
search	[sɜ:tʃ]	seeca
tent	[tent]	iteenti
term	[tɜ:m]	teemu

- (iii) In the same way, the two back mid-vowels in English ɔ and ɒ are both realised as ‘o’ in Bemba.

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
record	[ˈrekɔ:d]	ileekoti
form	[fɔ:m]	foomu
order	[ˈɔ:də]	oota
off	[ɔf]	oofu
office	[ˈɒfis]	iofeshi
plot	[plɒt]	puloti

- (iv) The three English low vowels æ, ʌ, ɑ and the central mid-vowel ‘ə’ are all realised by the only low vowel in Bemba ‘a’.

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
alpha	[ælfə]	aaufa
amen	[ɑ:ˈmen]	aameni
bar	[bɑ:]	baa
bump	[bæmp]	ibaampu
captain	[kæptɪn]	kapiteni
bus	[bʌs]	baashi

It should be pointed out that vowel sequence in Bemba occurs frequently and in many cases, the English diphthongs are realised by such sequences. It should, however, be mentioned that in ei, it is only the first element that is realised.

Something should be said about the modifications pertaining to the realizations of vowels. The way a particular vowel was modified in the process of borrowing to suit the sound system of the Bemba language perhaps depended mostly on the type of English dialect from which it was originally copied. As Wendland (1968) puts it, “In any examination of the word changes that take place when a word of one language is borrowed into another, it is important to take into consideration any dialect peculiarities with regard to the donor language.” The other reason could be the influence of Kabanga. A good number of English-derived loanwords into Bemba were initially adopted into Kabanga and by the time they were brought into Bemba, some sound changes had already taken place. It can therefore be said that the sounds at this point were not, strictly speaking, English sounds but those close to the phonological system of Kabanga. They were then borrowed into Bemba and among such words are *imbokoshi* “box” (Kabanga “ bokis,” English “box”) and *-ola* “hole” (Kabanga “hola” English “hole”) Kashoki (1990).

3.3 Insertion

Bemba differs from English in terms of phonotactic patterning. Unlike English, Bemba has a strict CV syllable structure. Because of this, when Bemba borrows words from English, the loanwords that contain sequences of sounds that are not otherwise attested in

Bemba are modified to fit the phonotactic patterning of Bemba. Consonant sequence is always realised in Bemba with an anaptyctic vowel except in cases of nasal sequences.

All the five vowels can occur as epenthetic vowels. Epenthesis can be categorised into three types: prothesis, anaptyxis and paragoge.

Prothesis is the insertion of an initial segment, normally a vowel with a phonotactic motivation. It should be mentioned that many words in Bemba begin with a vowel:

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
company	<u>a</u> kaampani
cupboard	<u>a</u> kaabati
jail	<u>i</u> ceele
slate	<u>i</u> seleeti
book	<u>i</u> buuku
talent	<u>i</u> talaanta
sums	<u>i</u> nsaamushi

Anaptyxis is the insertion of a vowel between two consonants:

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
brake	b <u>u</u> leki
captain	kap <u>i</u> teni

kettle	akeet <u>u</u> lo
lift	iliif <u>i</u> ti
flag	f <u>u</u> laaki
chlorine	k <u>o</u> l <u>o</u> ol <u>i</u> ni
saddle	icisa <u>a</u> <u>u</u> l <u>o</u>

The third type, paragoge, is the insertion of a vowel at the end of a word. All words in

Bemba end with a vowel. Examples:

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
ball	bool <u>a</u>
cup	kaap <u>u</u>
paper	ipepal <u>a</u>
spoon	supuun <u>i</u>
pan	paan <u>i</u>
bank	baank <u>i</u>
farm	fwaam <u>u</u>

In a rule for insertion, the null symbol appears to the left of the arrow and the segment to be inserted appears to the right.

Since all epenthesis can be interpreted as replacement of zero by something, the formula can be standardised as:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow X$$

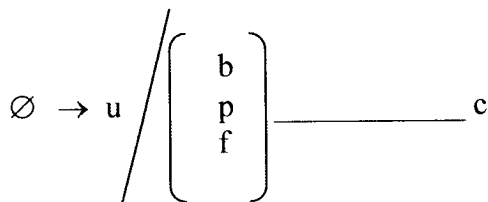
3.3.1. Consonant Cluster in English

- (i) After the initial labial consonants /b, p /and /f/ the anaptyctic vowel is /u/ except that in the case of /b/, the resultant sound is the fricative bilabial /β /. Note that /r/ is realised as /l/ in Bemba:

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
<u>b</u> louse	ib <u>u</u> laaushi
<u>b</u> rake	b <u>u</u> leeki
<u>b</u> read	b <u>u</u> leeti
<u>f</u> lag	f <u>u</u> laaki
<u>f</u> rame	f <u>u</u> leemu
<u>f</u> lour	f <u>u</u> laawa
<u>p</u> lot	p <u>u</u> looti
<u>p</u> lank	ip <u>u</u> laanga
<u>p</u> lan	p <u>u</u> laani

This can be formulated as:



- (ii) The clusters /s + c/ in English are resolved by the anaptyctic /i/. Note that /h/ is inserted between /s/ and /i/:

Examples:

English

skipper

skirt

scarf

vest

scone

spanner

basket

Bemba

shikiiiper

shikeeti

shikaaafu

ifeshiti

shikoona

shipaana

bashikeeti

This can be formulated as follows:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow i / \left[\begin{array}{c} / \\ s + c \end{array} \right]$$

(iii) **Mirror Vowel Epenthesis:** This rule states that in Bemba between any consonant and *s*, the same vowel which precedes the cluster is inserted between the consonant and *s* (except tone and length).

Examples:

English

eggs

box

six

socks

slit

Bemba

iekeshi

imbokoshi

shikishi

insokoshi

shiliiti

(iv) **Mirror Vowel Epenthesis (gl, gr, kl, and kr):** This rule states that in Bemba the same vowel that follows the reflex of the English consonant cluster *gl*, *gr*, *kl*, or *kr* is also inserted between the consonants of the cluster (except tone and length).

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
club	[kɫʌb]	akalaabu
glass	[glɑ:s]	ikalaashi
crank	[ˈkæŋk]	kalaanka
clinic	[ˈkɫɪnɪk]	kililiki
grade	[greɪd]	keleeti
christmas	[ˈkrɪsməs]	kilishimashi
clock	[klok]	inkoloko

(v) **u-Epenthesis (pl or bl):** This rule states that in Bemba between *p* or *b* and *l* normally *u* is inserted if the cluster is followed by *e* or *a*.

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
plastic	[plæstɪk]	pulaashitiki
brake	[breɪk]	buleeki

black	[blæk]	bulaaki
umbrella	[ʌm`brelə]	ambuleela
plane	[plein]	pulena
plaster	[plɑ:stə]	pulaashita
brown	[brʌʊn]	bulauni

(vi) **Mirror Vowel Epenthesis (dl, dr, tl and tr):** This rule states that in Bemba normally between *d* or *t* and *l* the same vowel which follows the cluster in Bemba is also inserted (except tone and length).

Examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Bemba</u>
dress	[dres]	indeleeshi
bottle	[`botl]	ibotoolo
truck	[trʌk]	talaaki
driver	[`drəivə]	talaifa
drum	[drʌm]	talaamu
train	[tren]	teleeni
drip	[drɪp]	tiliipu

3.3.2. Final Vowel Epenthesis

When an English word ends in a consonant in Bemba a vowel is always suffixed because no word ends in a consonant in Bemba.

- (i) **i – Epenthesis (after *n*):** This rule states that after *n* in word final position normally *i* is inserted.

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
button	ibataani̲
garden	kalateeni̲
pan	paani̲
pin	napiini̲
paraffin	palafiini̲
action	aakishoni̲
queen	kwiini̲

- (ii) **u – Epenthesis (after *m*):** This rule states that after *m* in word final position normally *u* is inserted.

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
room	luumu̲
boom	buumu̲
condom	kondoomu̲
cream	kiliimu̲
dam	taamu̲
farm	fwaamu̲
drum	talaamu̲

- (iii) **u – Epenthesis (after *f* and *v*):** This rule states that after *f* or *v* in word final position normally *u* is inserted.

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
off	oof <u>u</u>
twelve	tweluf <u>u</u>
valve	faaluf <u>u</u>

- (iv) **i – Epenthesis (after *t*, *d*, *nd* or *affricate*):** This rule states that after *t*, *nd*, or *d* or *affricate* in word final position normally *i* is inserted.

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
pound	paund <u>i</u>
slate	iseleet <u>i</u>
pint	ipaint <u>i</u>
coat	ikoot <u>i</u>
church	icalic <u>i</u>
clutch	kalaac <u>i</u>
salad	salaat <u>i</u>
switch	swiic <u>i</u>

This can be put in a formula as follows:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow i \left[\begin{array}{c} nd \\ d \\ t \end{array} \right] \text{---} \#$$

3.3.3. Consonant epenthesis

Consonant epenthesis is not a common feature in English-derived loanwords in Bemba. There are very few examples and in each case, a nasal is inserted before a consonant, usually a plosive:

Examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Bemba</u>
antenatal	antine <u>en</u> to
clock	inkolooko
dress	<u>in</u> deleeshi
pot	<u>im</u> pooto

Vowel insertion (VI) rules induce resylladication, i.e. the syllable structure of the source word is changed. Resyllabification occurs when a vowel is inserted so that the loan words conforms, at least partially to the structure of the host language.

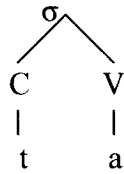
3.4. Resyllabification

Resyllabification will be dealt with within a framework of CV Phonology in which syllable structure comprises three ‘tiers’, namely syllable tier, CV tier (C= constant, V= vowel) and segmental tier, as illustrated below:

(1) Syllable tier

CV tier

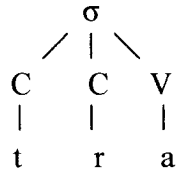
Segmental tier



(2) Syllable tier

CV tier

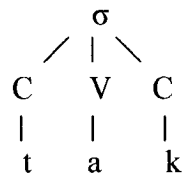
Segmental tier



(3) Syllable tier

CV tier

Segmental tier



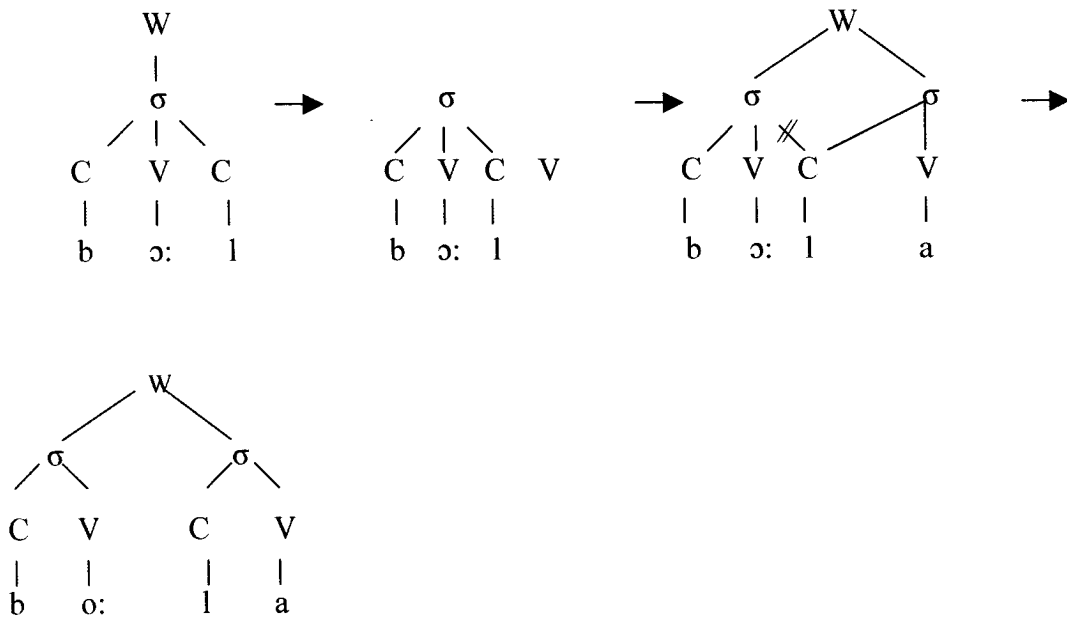
As stated above, resyllabification occurs when a vowel is inserted so that the loanwords conforms, at least partially, to the syllable structure of the host language. What happens is as follows:

(a) In most cases V is added to (i) a word-final C and between two consecutive C's where the first C is non-nasal:

(b) When a V is added, according to (a above), resyllabification takes place as follows:

- The preceding C is delinked from its dominating σ ; and
- A new σ node is created to which the C and the inserted V are linked.

Example:



Finally a phonological rule will realize the V by a (in Bemba):

$\emptyset \rightarrow a / \text{ɔ:l} - \#$

3.5 Deletion

Deletion in English-derived loanwords in Bemba is not as common as epenthesis.

Deletion is indicated by the null symbol, \emptyset . The segment that undergoes deletion appears to the left of the arrow and the \emptyset to the right. The standard format for deletion is:

$x = \emptyset$

Like epenthesis, deletion can be categorised into three types: aphaeresis, syncope and apocope. Aphaeresis is the deletion of an initial segment.

Syncope is formative-internal deletion. It should be noted that in most cases, even in this dissertation, the term is used for vowel loss.

Apocope is loss of a final element. Here the most common is the apocope of consonants since, as already stated above, Bemba has a strict CV syllable structure. It should however be mentioned that apocope is not as common as paragoge.

3.6 Tonal realisation

Languages make some syllables of words more prominent than others in three ways – a syllable may be said louder, it may take longer to say or it may be said on a higher note. English uses stress, that is, it makes one syllable in each word especially prominent by saying it louder and a little longer and higher. On the other hand, Bemba does not use stress but uses tone – using length and musical note. It should be mentioned that in tone, it is not just one syllable in each word that may be made long or high, it may be any number or none at all.

When English words are borrowed into Bemba, the stressed syllables are realised by high tone and lengthened vowel. It should be mentioned that a syllable before a nasal compound is always long; so is a syllable containing semi – vowels *y* or *w* (e.g. ukupyana) ‘to succeed’ except at the end of the word. There is no need to write the vowel double before a nasal compound or after a *y* or *w* because the syllable is long anyway, Kashoki (1968).

The majority of English words have only one stress. A few others have two stresses- secondary and main stress. It should be mentioned that in cases where there are two stresses, only the main stress is realized in Bemba as high tone.

- (i) **Stress → high tone:** This rule stipulates that a stress syllable in English is realised as high tone in Bemba.
- (ii) **Lengthening:** This rule stipulates that stress syllables in English are realised as long in Bemba.

$$+ \text{ Stress} \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{c} + \text{ Long} \\ + \text{ Bemba} \end{array} \right)$$

3.7 Morphology

Like in any language, nouns are by far the commonest word class borrowed into Bemba. They are then followed by verbs. Of the 900 words collected, 824 are nouns. The most important point to consider here is the extent at which English-derived loanwords are allocated to Bemba noun class.

It is important to mention that every noun in Bemba belongs to a class. For example, “umuntu” “person” belongs to class 1 whereas the plural “abantu” “people” belongs to class 2. In Bemba, there are eighteen classes – fifteen noun classes and three locative classes. The noun classes are arranged in pairs of singular and plural. For instance, umuntu/abantu 1/2 “person/people.” There should be an agreement between the singular

and the plural. Some writers call these class pairs as gender. Since most of the laonwords are nouns, it is important to look at their structure: augument + prefix + stem

e.g. $a + ka + mpani$

akampani – company

Below is a class-pair agreement class:

Class- Pair Agreement in Bemba

1	Mu	umuntu (u-mu-ntu) person.
1a	∅	kolwe (∅ - kolwe) monkey
2	A	abantu (a-ba-ntu) people
2a	baa	baa kolwe (baa-kolwe) monkeys
3	Mu	umuti (u-mu-ti) tree
4	Mi	imiti (i-mi-ti) trees
5	i/li	iilinso (i-i-nso) eye ilini (i-li-ni) egg
5a	lii	liiBanda (lii-Banda) the special thing about Banda
6	Ma	amafupa (a- ma- fupa) bones
7	Ci	icitele(i-ci-tele) chicken house
7a	cii	ciikolwe (cii-kolwe) ugly monkey
8	Fi	ifitele(i-fi-tele) chicken houses
8a	fii	fiikolwe (fii-kolwe) ugly monkeys
9	N	inkonko (i-n-koko) chicken

9a	∅	kaapu (in-kaapu) cups
10	N	inkombo (i-n-kombo) drinking vessel
11	Lu	ulukasa (u-lu-kasa) foot
12	ka	akanwa (a-ka-nwa) mouth
12a	kaa	kaaBanda (kaa-Banda) small Banda
13	Tu	tukolwe (tu-kolwe) small monkeys
13a	tuu	tuukolwe (tuu-kolwe) small monkeys
14	Bu	butiica (bu-tiica) being a teacher
14a	buu	buutiica (buu-tiica) being a teacher
15	Ku	ukulya, ukuboko (u- <u>ku</u> -lya, u- <u>ku</u> -boko) to eat ,arm
16	pa/pali	pang'anda - at the house
17	ku/kuli	kukalale - to town
18	mu/muli	mung'anda - in the house

As can be seen above, the prefixes in most nouns distinguish the noun class. The singular / plural distinction is marked by a change in affixes within the class. For example, umuntu/abantu 1/2.

It was discovered that most of the English loans borrowed in Bemba are allocated to a subsidiary class of 1 and 2 or 1a/2a class regardless of their meaning. Thus, in the singular, they have a zero prefix and in the plural they have baa.

It should however be noted that some loans which begin with sounds which resemble the prefixes of other classes are allocated to these classes. This is referred to as phonological allocation:

akaabati	utwaabati	12/13	'cupboard'
iciikini	ifiikini	7/8	'kitchen'
ubulangeti	amalangeti	14/6	'blanket'

3.8. Semantics

This section will deal with extensions and restrictions.

3.8.1. Extensions

Extension in this case refers to the meaning of the English loan compared to the meaning in Bemba but extending the meaning to other related things. Below are some examples:

saalati 'salad' (name of cooking oil) but also used for any type of cooking oil.

ndokotala 'doctor' In Rural Bemba, the word is also used to refer to any person connected with hospitals or clinics, for example, clinical officers, medical assistants, male nurses, e.t.c.

saafu 'surf' (name of washing powder) but also used for any detergent paste or powder.

mootoka 'motor car' but also used to refer to any wheeled vehicle.

oonda 'honda' (name of motor bike) but also used for any motor bike.

tii 'tea' (drink made by boiling water on dried leaves of evergreen shrub of Eastern Asia

but also used for coffee, cocoa, e.t.c.

saaca 'thatcher' (from Thatcher and Hopson Bus Company) name of the first bus

company to run in Northern Rhodesia but also used for any bus.

The other type of extension is where a word is borrowed together with the concept and then the concept is extended to mean something related to the concept. For instance, boola 'ball' was borrowed into Bemba together with the concept that 'a ball' is something round. This concept was extended to a Sexually Transmitted Disease in which round swellings like a ball develop around the genitals, hence giving it the name "boola boola", literally, ball ball.

3.8.2. Restrictions

When homographs (words that have the same spelling but different meanings and origins) are borrowed into Bemba, usually only one meaning is taken:

Word	Meanings
keeshi "case"	- instance or example of the occurrence of something. - box or container
kompaundi "compound"	- made up of two or more parts.

baanki 'bank'

- enclosed area with buildings, etc

The second meaning was the one taken.

- establishment for keeping money and
valuables safely, for lending and
exchanging money.

- land along each side of a river, canal, etc

-sloping land or earth, strip of raised land often a
division between fields.

The meaning taken was the first one.

Perhaps the reason why usually only one meaning is taken is that other meanings of the objects or concepts they refer to are unfamiliar or do not exist in the environment of the Bemba or that the Bemba have a term, which they find easy to use.

It should also be mentioned that some kind of metonymy is applied to some English words when they are borrowed into Bemba. A metonym is a figure of speech and it is the substitution of the name of one thing for that of another closely associated with it. A very good example is the word tempulica "temperature." In Bemba temperature is used to mean thermometer.

3.9 Syntax

3.9.1 General

Under this section, we will consider parts of speech or word classes for both English and Bemba. It is important to state here that for English, the traditional definitions of word classes will be used.

3.9.2. English word classes

- a. A noun is a part of speech naming a person, a thing or concept (e.g. child, ball, hunger).
- b. An adjective is a part of speech describing or qualifying a noun (e.g. tall, sad).
- c. An adverb is a part of speech describing or qualifying a verb, an adjective, or another adverb (e.g. slowly, very).
- d. A verb is a part of speech traditionally defined as a doing word (e.g. come, jump).
- e. An article is a word used before a noun to modify it or limit its meaning (e.g. a, the).
- g. A pronoun is a part of speech which can be used instead of a noun or noun phrase (e.g. he, it).
- h. A preposition is a part of speech used together with a noun or noun phrase to indicate some relationship that exists between the noun or noun phrase with another word or phrase (e.g. *with* in Come with me.).
- i. A conjunction is a part of speech used to link together words (e.g. if, because).
- j. An interjection is a part of speech used in exclamation (e.g. hey!).

3.9.3 Bemba word classes

We assume that the following is a near full list of parts of speech in Bemba:

- a. Nouns (e.g. umuntu – person).
- b. Personal Pronouns (ine – I).
- c. Adjective (umutali – tall).
- d. Demonstratives (uyu – this).
- e. Possessive (candi – mine).
- f. Genitive pronouns (umwana wa ndi – my child).
- g. Numerals (umo –one)
- h. Question words (kwisa – where)
- i. Quantifiers (abantu bonse – all the people)
- j. Adverbs (panono – slowly)
- k. Prepositions (isa naine – come with me)
- l. Conjunctions (na – and)
- m. Interjections (oo! – oh!)
- n. Verbs (enda – walk)
- o. Onomatopoeia (mpumpumpu – sound made by motor bikes)
- p. Ideophones (fititi – darkness)
- r. Particles (nibani? – who are they?)

As can be seen from the data in Chapter Two, most of the words borrowed from English to Bemba are nouns. As already stated above, out of the 900 loanwords collected, 824 are nouns. Next to nouns are verbs at 42. It should also be mentioned that in most cases the

word class does not change when it is borrowed into Bemba, that is when a verb is borrowed from English into Bemba it will remain a verb in Bemba. There are however some words that change the word class. For example the adjective *secondary* is treated like a noun in Bemba (Ba sekondale baisa – the secondary school pupils have come).

Damage, although a verb in English, is treated like a noun in Bemba (ukulipila tameci – to pay damage fee).

Although there are many verb forms in English, basically there are only two forms in English from which verbs are borrowed into Bemba:

- -ing form in which case *a* is suffixed at the end
- -infinitive form (bare and to infinitive).

3.10 Differences between Rural Bemba and Town Bemba

3.10.1 General

Town Bemba (TB) is an urbanised lingua franca variant of the Rural Bemba (RB) of Northern Province of Zambia. It is spoken in the townships of all the Copperbelt towns. This is why it is sometimes called Cikopabeeluti Richardson (1961). It is also spoken in Kabwe, Kapiri, and even in Lusaka. It should be noted that these days, TB is being spoken in rural areas as well.

TB began to develop from Cibemba when large-scale recruiting of the Bemba mine labour first started close to hundred years ago. Its sphere of influence may have been limited in the early days by the presence of Cikabanga which, from the beginning, was the recognized lingua franca between all races on the Copperbelt. However, since World War Two, TB has rapidly increased in importance so much that Cikabanga is no longer heard on the Copperbelt or in the country.

Speakers of TB are either those born in Town Bemba speaking areas or those who migrated to the Town Bemba speaking areas (either native Bemba speakers or non-native Bemba speakers).

3.10.2 Phonology

RB has fifteen consonants: /p b t f nj k ng f s sh m n ny lŋ/ two semi-vowels / w y / and five vowels /a e i o u /.

TB has the same phonemes but in addition to the above phonemes it has included phonemes which are foreign to RB: / b d v ə r z h ð z j g /. The semi-vowels and the vowels are the same.

As can be seen above, TB contains sounds, which are considered to be foreign in RB. Because of these differences, there are different pronunciations of many loanwords from English:

TB	RB	Meaning
daamu	taamu	dam
dokota	ndokotala	doctor
Jooni	cooni	John
zipu	shipu	zip
igalaasi	ikalaashi	glass
rimu	limu	rim
hoosi	ooshi	horse
veranda	felanda	veranda

The /d/ sound in RB does not occur on its own. It is a variant of /l/ when it is preceded by the nasal /n/. The other sounds which do not occur on their own but preceded by a nasal /n/ are /g/ and /j/. When they are not preceded by a nasal, then it qualifies to be put in TB. It should be noted that in RB /d/ is assimilated into the language as either t or nd, for instance, beeti ‘bed’, ndokotaala ‘doctor’ and many other words.

Something should also be mentioned about the combination of sounds. The combination of s and i is not found in RB. In RB, such combination is always realised as sh + i. This is why words such as “mister,” “sick,” “taxi,” and many others are borrowed as mishita, shiki and takishi. It should however be noted that some Bemba related languages especially those from Luapula Province have this combination of s + i (misita, siki and takisi).

Another combination which was not found in RB was that of f + a. In RB, f was intervened or was followed by a semi-vowel w when words of f + a combination are borrowed from English. For example, 'loafer' was borrowed into Rural Bemba as ilofwa, 'fanta' as fwanta, 'farm' as fwaamu. It should be noted however that f could be followed by the other four vowels: fe, fi, fo and fu. In TB, this restriction was not found: 'fanta' was borrowed as fanta and 'farm' as faamu. It should be emphasised here that TB is slowly but surely spreading into RB. This can be confirmed by the fact that nowadays, the restriction of the combination of f + a is only found in very few old people. It is very common to hear words starting with fa- without an intervening semi vowel.

There was another sound combination that was found in TB but in RB as a word initial syllable - ki. This sound in RB was only found in medial or final positions of words. Thus, 'kitchen' was borrowed in RB as iciikini. In place of /k/, /c/ was used and vice versa. This is called metathesis. Another reason why there is metathesis here could be that the Bemba prefix for class 7 is not iki but ici.

3.10.2.1. Insertion

Unlike RB, TB allows the CC structure combinations. Because of this, there are very few cases where insertion is applied. The most common type of insertion is paragoge - word final insertion of vowel:

TB	RB	Meaning
spaan	shipaana	'spanner'
breedi	buleeti	'bread'

matroni	matuloni	‘matron’
pasta	pashita	‘pastor’
fremu	fulemu	‘frame’

3.10.2.2. Deletion

Here the most important thing to discuss is aphaeresis. While aphaeresis is common in RB to some words, this is not so in TB. Examples:

TB	RB	Meaning
haaba	aaba	‘habour’
hipusita	ipushita	‘hip star’
Heleni	Eleni	‘Hellen’
hekita	ekita	‘hectare’

3.10.3. Morphology

In this section, what will be discussed are nouns and verbs since these are the mostly borrowed words.

3.10.3.1. Nouns

As stated above, every noun in Bemba belongs to a class. Most nouns show what class they belong to by a prefix, that is, by the way they begin. Nouns that reflect singular and plural make their plural by changing to another class. This usually means change in their prefix. For instance, umwaice / abaice 1/2 (youngster/ youngsters).

The class pair 1/2 has a subsidiary category 1a / 2a (zero/ baa- class). In RB, most borrowed words are allocated to this category:

Singular	Plural	Meaning
paani	baapaani	‘pan’
luula	baaluula	‘ruler’
boola	baaboola	‘ball’
ambulela	baaambulela	‘umbrella’
fooni	baafooni	‘phone (cell phone)’

In TB however, English-derived loanwords are in most cases allocated to class 9/6a (zero/ama-class):

Singular	Plural	Meaning
paani	amapaani	‘pan’
ruula	amaruula	‘ruler’
boola	amaboola	‘ball’
fooni	amafooni	‘cell phone’

It should be noted that under normal circumstances the prefix of the noun must agree with either the adjective, verb or any word in a sentence. This is what RB follows:

<u>ba</u> amotoka <u>ba</u> isa	‘the vehicles have come’
<u>ba</u> aluula <u>ba</u> bili	‘two rulers’

But TB does not follow this pattern of agreement:

<u>amamootoka</u> <u>yaisa</u>	‘the vehicles have come’
<u>amaluula</u> <u>yabili</u>	‘two rulers’

It should be mentioned that a different kind of plural formation which was common to school going children and the educated class is slowly becoming common to all TB speakers. This type of plural formation involves the use of a prefix ama- to the borrowed English noun stem and the adding of English plural suffix -s. In other words, this is called double plural formation. Examples:

TB	RB	English
amataizi	baatai	‘ties’
amakaatons	baakaatoni	‘cartons’
amakaits	baakaiti	‘kites’
amaepozi	baaepo	‘apples’

3.10.3.2. Verbs

It has already been stated above that the most type of word class borrowed from English into Bemba are the nouns. The second are the verbs. It should be mentioned that more verbs have been borrowed in TB than in RB.

One common characteristic of TB is the suffixing of the English participle -ing to English verbs and then adding the Bemba suffix -a to form verbs in the progressive aspect.

Examples:

TB	Meaning
-kocing'a	'to coach'
-fooning'a	'to phone'
-biping'a	'to bip'
-cajing'a	'to charge'
-mising'a	'to miss'

In Rural Bemba however, the common characteristic is the addition of the suffix –a to the English verb as shown below:

ukukopa	'to copy'
ukuwasha	'to wash'
ukushaina	'to shine'
ukuseeca	'to search'
ukupaasa	'to pass'

It should be mentioned that previously, the increasing use of -ing in TB was done deliberate to signify a marked difference between RB and TB. This however, is not the case nowadays. The suffix has just become part of TB language and people using TB just find themselves using it. It should also be mentioned that this type of suffixing is slowly going into RB.

Although both RB and TB have borrowed words from English, it is important to mention that TB has and is still borrowing more words. As discussed above, for any living language to keep pace with modernity, it has to borrow words from other languages.

One reason why TB has borrowed English words more than rural Bemba is that TB is in constant contact with European culture. Borrowings originate from towns and then slowly spread to rural areas. The other reason is that since colonial rule, the medium of instruction in schools and the languages in government institutions has been English

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUSION

4.0 Introduction

It should be mentioned that all languages are subject to borrowing from other languages. When words are borrowed from one language to another, various strategies are employed to nativise unnatural and non-canonic syllable structures of the donor language to fit in the recipient language.

4.1 Conclusion

The study of the phonology of English-derived loanwords in Bemba has shown that loanwords, with a few exceptions, are fully naturalised into Bemba. As can be seen in the appendix, Bemba has borrowed many words from English. When these words are borrowed into Bemba, several methods are used to nativise unnatural and non-canonic syllable structures.

One of the strategies Bemba employs is substitution, that is, a successfully transmitted foreign sound is altered to conform with the resources of Bemba. It has been observed that phoneme substitution subjects the English-derived loanwords to Bemba's restrictions on possible phonemes and their distribution. The choice of a replacement phoneme is determined by phonetic similarity.

Other strategies that are employed are epenthetic vowel insertion, extrasyllabic consonant or vowel deletion, addition of a final vowel and in some cases devocalization of unnatural vowel sequences. It should be mentioned that vowel insertion is a more

common process than deletion in loanword adaptation to satisfy constraints on phonotactics and syllable structure in Bemba. All the five vowels are used for insertion.

It has also been observed that usually when an English loan contains the environment for a phonological rule in Bemba, that phonological rule would apply to the loanword.

Most of the English loanwords in Bemba are nouns. Like the other nouns (non-borrowed nouns), borrowed nouns are affected by the Bantu class system. Most loanwords (nouns) have a prefix \emptyset in singular. Another point worth mentioning is that there are no regularities in the patterns of loanword allocation into Bemba noun classes except that most loans are allocated to class 1a/2a regardless of their meanings. Some few loans however, follow phonological allocation, that is, allocation of English loanword to a Bemba noun class because of the phonological resemblance of one of its segments to the nominal affix of that class.

The English stress is changed to high tone while unstressed syllables receive a low tone in the loanwords. In insertion, the high vowels (i and u) play a predominant role. In most cases where they do not occur, the vowel is the same as that which follows or precedes the cluster (mirror vowel rules). Most nouns in RB are in 1a/2a. Most nouns in TB are in 9a/6.

Considering the number of English loans that have been borrowed, one might expect that the grammatical structure of Bemba would have been affected by this process. This

however, is not the case. It has remained almost unchanged. In TB however this process has affected its morphology which has in turn affected the syntax.

It should be mentioned that because of constant contact with the European type of life and the use of English in many spheres of life, more English words have been borrowed in TB. This could be the reason TB has some sounds which are found in English but not in Bemba. It is also worth mentioning that English loans are first borrowed in TB and then eventually into RB.

Finally, it should be mentioned that as long as Zambia continues to use English as the official language, Bemba will continue borrowing English words.

4.2 Recommendations

It should be recommended that similar studies should be carried out in other Zambian languages because the way the loanword is actually pronounced in the recipient language may provide insights into the phonology of that language, which would not otherwise be apparent from native words.

The study of loanwords can also benefit the teaching of L1 to students whose first language is L2 as has been shown in this dissertation. There are some regularities in the phonological changes of loanwords. Beginners in L1 are likely to apply to items of L1 the same transformations, which have affected loanwords of the same types. For this reason, the teacher who is aware of the regularities in the phonological changes in loanwords can adopt a strategy, which would help them prevent acquiring pronunciation errors.

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