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SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LINGUISTICS

MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURES AND CLASSIFICATION OF NEOLOGISMS IN
NGUGI WA THIONG’O’S MUROGI WA KAGOGO.

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DECLARATION

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

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my dear parents Mr. Elkana Mwaniki and Mrs. Jane Mwaniki for their struggle and selfless support towards my education. I can’t forget my dear siblings Irene, Henry and Emily for your encouragement and prayers. A special dedication goes to my son Earnest who has a special place in my heart. May God bless you all and see to it that you never lack.
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ABSTRACT

New technological advancements and innovations are a challenge to languages and especially so to African languages. New terminologies referred to as neologism thus become necessary. This research looks at the morphological structures and classification of neologisms in the Gĩkũyũ language. The study will show how innovatively languages deal with new terms and refute the argumentation that African languages are not developed enough to cater for these concepts. The study has focused its analysis on selected excerpts from Ngugi wa Thiong’o since he is well published and many of his literary texts are available in Gĩkũyũ as well as English and Kiswahili. The themes in his texts also cut across diverse times, ranging from the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial eras. The study has narrowed down to his novel, Murogi wa Kagogo(2004) as it contains some of the most recent neologisms. The study identified and categorised the neologisms introduced in a Gĩkũyũ text. The study also analysed the morphological structures of the neologisms. The study has also evaluated the Gikuyu speakers’ knowledge of these neologisms. This study is guided by Katamba’s (1993) theory of open-endedness of the lexicon. It adopted a non-experimental research design and opted for purposive sampling. It majorly dealt with qualitative data hence took a qualitative data analysis approach. The study identified 249 neologisms, classified them in their respective grammatical (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) and semantic fields (technology, education, politics, geographical terms, religion), identified various morphological structures (affixation, modification, vowel change) and finally evaluated the Gikuyu speakers’ knowledge of the neologisms. Tables and excerpts have been used in data presentation. The quantitative data analysis was also incorporated; hence, some numeric presentations have been made.
DEFINITION OF TERMS

LEXICOLOGY: a linguistic study of the form, meaning and behavior of words.

LEXICON: words and phrases used in a particular language or subject.

LEXEME: these are the vocabulary items that are listed in the dictionary e.g. apple, boy and learn.

LEXICAL MORPHEME: that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs which we think of as the words which carry the ‘content’ of the messages we convey. (Yule 1997:76)

LEXICAL MORPHOLOGY: is the branch of morphology that deals with the lexicon, which, morphologically conceived, is the collection of lexemes in a language. As such, it concerns itself primarily with word formation processes such as derivation, blending, compounding etc.

MORPHEME: is the minimal unit of grammatical analysis

MORPHOLOGY: a sub-branch of linguistics that deals with the internal structure of word-forms.

NEOLOGISM: a new word or expression or a new meaning of a word

STEM: the part of the word-form which remains when all the inflectional affixes are removed.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This section looks at the background to the study, the statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, research assumptions, justification and significance of the study, scope and limitations of the study.

1.1 The Background to the Study

Languages grow, advance and diversify with time. This is a prerequisite for their sustainability and survival. This is prompted by the need for language to be efficient, sufficient and effective for lucid communication to take place. Language also needs to keep the same pace with new technologies and inventions as well as being open to formation of new constructions. The failure of language to comply with these conditions will handicap the language, rendering it retrogressive, inefficient and devoid of sustainable communication (Liddicoat, 2007).

Languages innovatively deal with new terms. Whenever something new is created or discovered, a new term is created to refer to it. There are a number of strategies that languages employ in coming up with neologisms. However, all languages are not at par. Whereas some find it easy to come up with neologisms, others encounter numerous bottlenecks ranging from neglect to disproportional attitudes. Some languages get accorded more attention than others. A few get elevated to the level of lingua franca, official language or national language whereas others almost get forgotten (Haselmath & Tadmor, 2009).
Local African languages face an even bigger challenge in describing scientific and technological terms. To begin with, many countries in Africa were colonized. Kenya and Nigeria are some of them. As a result, in many countries, formal education is transmitted in their former coloniser’s language. In Kenya for instance, English is the medium of communication from upper primary to the tertiary level. This means that modern technological terms are communicated in their former coloniser’s languages. Seemingly, the indigenous African languages then lag behind in the comprehension and communication of modern technological concepts.

Secondly, as Mbaabu in Liddicoat (2007) explains, “At independence when the government took over the mandate to provide education, the strong rationalization that all learners needed to learn in English to produce a skilled labour force to run government and industry was already in place.” English was thus promoted at the expense of the local Kenyan languages.

Also, as Muthwii (2004) notes, The Ominde Commission of 1964 strengthened this position and instituted English as language of instruction (LOI) in all schools from class one. English was elevated to become the nation’s official language while Kiswahili was recommended only as a subject in primary schools. Both moves were choices that shunned the indigenous African languages by refusing to give them status in any public domain especially in education, government and commerce.

Adegbija (1994) provides reasons why there are disproportionate attitudes of superiority towards European languages in sub-Saharan Africa, while there are attitudes of low esteem and inferiority toward indigenous African languages. His explanation for this state of affairs is that European languages are generally accepted as the languages of the conquerors of Africa, and as such are accorded some aura of superiority. Moreover, the European masters always pursued
very aggressive language policies in their colonies, which left no doubts in the minds of the colonised peoples that European cultures and languages were superior to those of Africa. The aggressive colonial language policies are still observed in some schools in Kenya in that speaking in vernacular is categorized as a serious offence.

The devastating effect of these aggressive language policies according to Adegbija (1994) is that in most sub-Saharan African countries, the indigenous languages have been either underutilized or completely excluded from important spheres of public communication, such as being used as official or national languages, in the mass media, or as media of instruction in schools. He adds that, in the French and Portuguese territories, the use of African languages was proscribed in schools. Such policies created, in the minds of the students and in the general public, the impression that African languages were inferior and less suitable for use at higher levels of education. As a result, in not many sub-Saharan African countries is an indigenous language used as the medium of education at the university level.

Masaku and Owino in Liddicoat (2007) concur that the status of the first language is also affected by the practice of punishing children when they speak it at school, an act which is a grave violation of their rights.

There is also enormous pressure for youngsters in Kenya to learn English. According to Muthwii (2004) this is due to the high status English is given in schools as LOI, the language of examination and the ‘bottom of the pile’ status given to African’s first language in national/public matters. The first language is seen as inferior since it is not developed enough to handle discourse in most domains.
Such a language scenario clearly illustrates how neglected native languages have become over the years. Since their usage is so limited, then their vocabulary is supposedly weak with reference to technological advancement.

All is, however, not lost as a number of African languages are still in use. In Kenya, the local languages are mostly used for informal verbal communication. A more promising sign, though, is the recent proliferation of F.M. stations broadcasting in local languages. Some of them include: Cooro, Inooro, Kameme—which broadcast in Gĩkũyũ. Others include: Ramogi FM; Luo, Egesa FM; Ekegusii, Musyi FM; Kamba, Chamgei FM; Kalenjin.

The bigger challenge, however, lies in the written work. Speakers have more avenues to maneuver their way round in order to communicate through such methods as code-switching, code-mixing and even coining expressions on the spot. Also, speech is less scrutinized as compared to the written work. As Thiong’o (1993) proposes, the growth of writing in African languages will need a community of scholars and readers in those very languages who will bring into the languages the wealth of literature on modern technology, arts and science.

Few writers have, however, taken upon themselves the task of promoting their native languages. They strive to keep the languages not only alive but also relevant. Among these are writers who promote their native languages through writing in them. They single-handedly strive to bridge the big gaps between the native and the new technologies and inventions thus shining some much needed light in the looming linguistic darkness.

Neologisms are hence important as they not only make a language relevant in modern times but they also enable a language to survive. This study will thus concentrate on written work. It sets
out to explore the steps taken in making the native languages more relevant and efficient technologically. It will however limit itself to only one language, Gĩkũyũ, which is spoken predominantly in the Central Province of Kenya though the speakers are also found in many other parts of the country. The key interest will be classifying the neologisms and analyzing their morphological structures.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The usage of native languages in modern technological advancements in Kenya is faced by challenges. This can be attributed to the country’s language of education policy, which has laid more emphasis on English and Kiswahili and largely ignored local languages. Besides, there is the myth, which Okombo cited in Mutsasa and Ogutu (2008) refuting that African languages cannot be used to communicate scientific and technological concepts. The native languages have thus been denied a level playing ground. The local languages are equally important and deserve to be given adequate attention.

This study, therefore, wishes to investigate how the Gĩkũyũ language handles technical concepts. To achieve this, the study will analyse a specific text, Murogi wa Kagogo by Ngugi wa Thiong’o (2004) with a view to determining the linguistic strategies employed in dealing with scientific innovations and other modern concepts.

Thus, the study seeks to identify neologisms in Thiong’o’s (2004) text. In addition, it seeks to describe the morphological structure of these neologisms such as: root, base, stem, affixes. It will also analyse them into word classes as proposed by Katamba’s (1993) lexicon open-endedness theory and other grammatical theories.
1.3 This study has the following objectives:

1) To identify and classify neologisms in the Gĩkũyũ language.

2) To analyse and discuss the various morphological structures of the neologisms.

3) To evaluate Gĩkũyũ speakers knowledge of these neologisms.

1.4 Research Questions

1) Which neologisms have been introduced in the Gĩkũyũ language and which classes do they fall under?

2) Which are the morphological structures of the neologisms?

3) Do the speakers of Gĩkũyũ have knowledge of the neologisms?

1.5 Research Assumptions

1) There are neologisms in the Gĩkũyũ language and they fall in different classes.

2) The neologisms have diverse morphological structures.

3) The speakers of Gĩkũyũ have knowledge of the neologisms

1.6 Justification and Significance

Introduction of neologisms in a language is crucial for its relevance and efficiency in the communication of scientific and technological terminologies. The local languages are of importance and hence deserve to be elevated to standards similar to those of international languages. A study of the strategies employed in elevating the local languages is hence timely and instrumental in their promotion.
The Gĩkũyũ language provides an ideal starting point in the study of neologisms by virtue of being widely spoken. Out of the over forty indigenous languages spoken in Kenya, Gĩkũyũ has the highest number of speakers. The 2009 census results indicate that of the 38.6 million Kenyans, Gĩkũyũ speakers are 6.6 million. This then validates its being the focal point in this study.

Data obtained from this study may be useful to writers and especially those who write in African languages. The strategies that emerge from this study may offer insights to writers who would wish to write in the Gĩkũyũ language. Also, the information obtained in this study may be an eye opener to writers wishing to write in the Kenyan vernacular languages and any other African languages that are not yet adequately explored.

Translators and even interpreters may also benefit from data emanating this study especially when posed with a problem of terminologies that lack equivalents in the target language. This study may provide useful insights into the formation of neologisms. Similarly, the findings of this study will also be useful to curriculum developers, publishers and media houses that broadcast in vernacular languages.

There are numerous studies that have been carried out on the Gĩkũyũ language taking unique dimensions like social semantics (Wango; 1998), verbal affixes (Kamau; 2002), pragmatic analysis (Gachara; 2005), verb morphology (Mwangi; 2001), translation strategies (Wanjohi; 2005). However, there isn’t any study known to the researcher on neologisms in the Gĩkũyũ language and basing its focus on the strategies employed in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s texts.
1.7 Scope and Limitations

A study on neologisms is bound to be wide and extensive. It would thus be extremely difficult to make an exhaustive analysis. If so attempted, it would be very expensive and time consuming. This study has thus had to carry out some measures in limiting the scope in order to make it tenable. However, this has been done without compromising the set standards.

In order to make the research manageable in terms of time and resources, this study narrowed its focus in various dimensions. Though there are many areas of study in a language, this research has narrowed down to neologisms and further to the lexicon.

Neologisms are used both in speech and in writing; however, this study only focused on the written work. Written work has a greater preservative effect unlike speech where neologisms can be coined to serve a temporary need and never be referred to again. Also, obtaining the standard spelling of such neologisms may prove difficult since different speakers in different situations may coin different terminologies for the same concept.

There are many authors who have published in Gĩkũyũ but this study will only focus on one author: Ngugi wa Thiong’o. This author has been selected owing to his numerous publications. Also, his publications stretch across a long span of time and explore both historical and contemporary perspectives. The author has other publications in Gĩkũyũ but this study will only focus on: Murogi wa Kagogo by Thiong’o (2004) as it may contain some recent neologisms not found in his earlier texts.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Neologisms

A neologism (from Greek νέος (neos 'new') + λόγος (logos 'speech') is a newly coined word that may be in the process of entering common usage, but has not yet been accepted into mainstream language. Neologisms are often directly attributable to a specific person, publication, period, or event (Algeo 1991).

According to Oxford English Dictionary (2006) the term neologism refers to a new word or expression or a new meaning of a word.

Haspelmath (2002) views neologisms as attested novel lexemes that were not observed before in the language. He adds that neologisms that do not catch on and are restricted to occasional occurrences are called occasionalisms.

A neologism presumably represents a word newly formed. It can be examined for appropriate inflection independent of its semantic value. If, on some occasions, it is properly inflected, acceptable rules are apparently in action; if on other occasions inflection is incorrect, the rules- previously demonstrated to exist- are misapplied or not used at all (Singh & Starosta, 2003).

The term neologism is used in a number of contexts and fields. Wikipedia explores some of these fields and contexts.

In Psychiatry, the term neologism is used to describe the use of words that only have meaning to the person who uses them, independent of their common meaning. This is considered normal in
children, but a symptom of thought disorder (indicative of a psychotic mental illness, such as schizophrenia) in adults. People with autism also may create neologisms. (Berrios, 2009)

Use of neologisms may also be related to aphasia acquired after brain damage resulting from a stroke or head injury.

In theology, a neologism is a relatively new doctrine (for example, rationalism). In this sense, a neologist is one who proposes either a new doctrine or a new interpretation of source material such as religious texts. (Berrios, 2009)

This study will however restrict itself to the linguistic sense of the term neologism, which is the coinage of new words and the processes in which these new words enter a language.

Neologisms are often created by combining existing words or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes. Portmanteaux are combined words that begin to be used commonly. Neologisms also can be created through abbreviation or acronym, by intentionally rhyming with existing words or simply through playing with sounds. (Berrios, 2009)

Algeo (1991) explains that neologisms can become popular through mimetics (copying the behaviour or appearance of somebody or something), by way of mass media, the Internet, and word of mouth, including academic discourse in many fields renowned for their use of distinctive jargon, and often become accepted parts of the language. Other times, however, they disappear from common use just as readily as they appeared. Whether a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is acceptance by the public. It is unusual, however, for a word to enter common use if it does not resemble another word or words in an identifiable way. When a word or phrase is no longer
"new", it is no longer a neologism. Neologisms may take decades to become "old", however. Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to cease from being considered as a neologism.

Popular examples of neologism can be found in science, fiction, branding, literature, linguistics and popular culture. Examples include laser (1960) from Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation, robotics (1941), genocide (1943), and agitprop (1930s).

Many neologisms have come from popular literature and tend to appear in different forms. Most commonly, they are simply taken from a word used in the narrative of a book; a few representative examples from Wikipedia are: "grok" (to achieve complete intuitive understanding), from Stranger in a Strange Land by Robert A. Heinlein; "McJob", from Generation X: Tales for an Accelerated Culture by Douglas Coupland; "cyberspace", from Neuromancer by William Gibson; "nymphet" from Lolita by Vladimir Nabokov.

Sometimes the title of a book becomes the neologism, for instance, Catch-22 (from the title of Joseph Heller's novel). Alternately, the author's name may become the neologism, although the term is sometimes based on only one work of that author. This includes such words as "Orwellian" (from George Orwell, referring to his novel Nineteen Eighty-Four) and "Ballardesque" or "Ballardian" (from J.G. Ballard, author of Crash). The word "sadistic" is derived from the cruel sexual practices Marquis de Sade described in his novels. Kurt Vonnegut's Cat's Cradle was the container of the Bokononism family of nonce words (Algeo, J. 1991)

This study looks at neologisms from a holistic perspective. It looks at neologisms which have already entered the Gikuyu language and joined the mainstream vocabulary, the neologisms that
may seem freshly coined and even the neologisms that may seem as occasionalisms which may seem less likely to be accepted in the language. The study has not be judgemental but presents all the gathered data giving each item equal consideration.

2.1 What is a Word?

Todd (1987) acknowledges that it is not always easy to say what a word is and that there is no one totally satisfactory definition. He thus isolates four of the most frequently implied meanings: orthographical, morphological, lexical and semantic words.

Todd defines an **orthographic word** as one which has a space on either side of it. This definition however, only applies to the written medium because in normal speech we rarely pause between words.

He views a **morphological word** as a unique form since it considers form only and not meaning. He gives an example of the word ‘ball’ as one morphological word even though it can refer to both a bouncing object and a dance. However, ‘ball’ and ‘balls’ would be two morphological words because they are not identical in form.

He considers a **lexical word** as that which comprehends the various forms of items which are closely related by meaning. Thus, as he illustrates, ‘take’, ‘takes’, ‘taking’, ‘taken’ and ‘took’ are five morphological words but only one lexical word. He further explains that in linguistics, capital letters are used to imply a lexical word.
Finally, he looks at a semantic word as that which involves distinguishing between items which may be morphologically identical but differ in meaning. As illustrated earlier, ‘ball’ has two distinct meanings.

Bauer (2001) in Munat (2007) establishes three categories of words: existing words (which exist from the moment they are coined); item-familiar words (words that are familiar to individual speakers, without having become a part of the norm of the language); and established words (once a word is item-familiar to a large enough subset of the speech community to make it worth listing in reference works). Choosing the last option, that is, the class of established words to determine whether a coinage is an "existing" word, has a large pitfall: not all of the words of a language are listed in reference works. The class of item-familiar words exhibits a somewhat similar problem: just because a newly coined word is not as familiar as cat or mat, it does not directly follow that the word in question should not be considered as an existing word of a given language. A word should be taken as an existing word from the moment it is coined, whether or not it will become established later on. It is this liberal approach that is applied in this study.

This study will consider a word from all the above dimensions. The essence is to have a broad perspective and avoid being discriminative on any item that may pass as a word. It will consider the orthographic dimension, morphological and lexical properties and even the meaning of the neologisms. However, the study will not categorise the neologisms based on the criteria of existing word, item-familiar word or established word dimensions. Such a classification may seem biased and dismissive to some neologisms. All the neologisms will be accorded the same consideration.
2.2 Word Formation Processes

It has emerged that productivity is realized through word formation processes. Todd (1987) discusses several word-formation methods.

2.2.1 Affixation

To begin with, there is affixation which includes prefixation, suffixation and infixation. These word-formation methods are also techniques of derivation.

In an earlier discussion, we came across a number of suffixes namely: -er, -ist. Others include: -ly, -ing, -ed, -t. examples include: play-player, art – artist, shy-shyly, cook-cooking, point-pointed, creep-crept.

English also have a number of prefixes some of which include: un-, im-, pre-, anti-, tri-, homo-, in- etc. examples include: happy-unhappy, patient-impatient, wedding- pre-wedding, corruption-anticorruption, phone-homophone.

English is not considered a typically infixing language. It is debatable whether or not some illustrations given of words with multiple suffixes qualify to be infixes. Consider this illustration: passersby. It is normally debated that –er and –s are infixes since ‘passer’ or ‘passers’ are not used legitimately in English.

2.2.2 Compounding

This is another very common word-formation process and it involves joining two words together to form a third. For instance: sun + shine = sunshine. Cup + board = cupboard.
2.2.3 Coinage

Coinage is another word formation process discussed by Todd. It involves coining words from existing material to represent a new invention or development. Examples given include: wireless, television and hypermarket. He adds that often, when the coinages refer to trade names, untraditional spellings are used for instance: Kleenex (tissues), sqezy (washing-up liquid), and kooler (wine).

2.2.4 Backformation

As discussed in Todd (1987), it involves the use of analogy to create forms that are similar to ones already in existence in the language. Examples given include: gatecrash- from gatecrasher, globetrot- from globetrotter, pop- from popular. Wikipedia views backformation as a process in which a new word is created by removing an affix from an already existing word, as vacuum clean from vacuum cleaner, or by removing what is mistakenly thought to be an affix as pea from earlier English plural pease.

2.2.5 Blends

These involve joining two words together by taking parts of both words and welding the parts in a new whole. He gives the following examples:

Breakfast + lunch > brunch

Chuckle + snort > chortle

Motor + hotel > motel
Todd illustrated another technique which involves creating words out of the initials letters of well-known organizations:

UNESCO from United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation

Laser from Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission or Radiation

Such words according to Akamajian (1990) are referred to as acronyms.

2.2.6 Conversion

Katamba (1993) also explores conversion as a word formation strategy.

He explains that words may be formed without modifying the form of the input word that forms the base. An illustration is given of head which can be a noun or a verb. Consider the following sentences:

1. The head of the village school has arrived.
2. She will head the village school.

Conversion is also referred to as zero derivation and is subsumed under affixation, by analogy to zero affixation in inflection morphology. (Marchand 1969, Adams 1973 in Katamba 1993)

Katamba also explores another possible way of adding to the lexicon of a language indefinitely by pillaging the vocabulary of other languages. This is referred to as borrowing. The words borrowed are referred to as loanwords. He illustrates Latin loanwords like port (from portus ‘harbour’); French loanwords like omelette; Italian loanwords like fresco.


2.2.7 Reduplication

It is a word formed by or containing a reduplicated element or the added element in a word form that is reduplicated (Algeo, 1991).

2.2.8 Antomasia

Another word formation process is antomasia. This refers to the substitution of a title or epithet for a proper name as in calling a sovereign; “Your Majesty”. It may also involve the substitution of a personal name for a common noun to designate a member of a group or class, as in calling a traitor a “Benedict Arnold” (Berrios, 2009).

2.2.9 Folk etymology

It is the change in the form of a word or phrase resulting from a mistaken assumption about its composition or meaning, as in shamefaced for earlier shamfast, “bound by shame” or cutlet from French cotelette, “little rib”. ”(Berrios 2009).

2.2.10 Clipping

Another word formation process is clipping. This refers to the formation of a new word by shortening it e.g. ad from advertisement, bus from omnibus, phone from telephone. (Hadomod 1996)

2.2.11 Echoism

It is the formation of words in imitation of sounds. This is synonymous to onomatopoeia. (Berrios, 2009)
2.2.12 Invention

New words can also be formed through invention. This is the act of finding out or inventing; contrivance or construction of which has not before existed; as, the invention of logarithms, the invention of the art of printing. As invention is a new composition, it may be derived from a pre-existing model or idea, or it could be independently conceived in which cause it may be a radical breakthrough. (Crystal 1985)

2.2.13 Derivation

It is the process by which words are formed from existing words or bases by adding affixes, as singer from sing, or undo from do, by changing the shape of the word or base, as song from sing, or by adding an affix and changing the pronunciation of the word or base as electricity from electric. (Crystal 1985)

2.2.14 Aureation

Aureation ("to make golden", from Latin: aureus) is another process. It is a device in arts of rhetoric that involves the "gilding" (or supposed heightening) of diction in one language by the introduction of terms from another, typically a classical language considered to be more prestigious. In the context of language development, aureation can be seen as an extension of processes in which vernacular languages historically are expanded through loan words. (Safire, 2007).

2.2.15 Retronym

Fowler (1996) explores retronyms. A retronym is a word or phrase created because an existing term that was once used alone needs to be distinguished from a term referring to a new
development, as *acoustic guitar* in contrast to *electric guitar* or *analog watch* in contrast to *digital watch*.

### 2.2.16 Calque

Another neologism is Calque (borrowing a word or phrase from another language by literal, word-for-word or root-for-root translation; for example the English phrase *to lose face*, which is a calque from Chinese (Hadumond 1996)

This study will be guided by all word formation processes possible. In this light, the study does not have any pre-conceived particular word formation processes it will deal with. Thus, the study will be open-minded.

### 2.3 Motivations behind Creation of New Words

Hohenhaus in Munat (2007) looks at the motivations behind inventing new words (other than naming), such as hypostatisation (naming something that does not exist in reality) – used, for instance, in science fiction narratives – or attention seeking (such as wordplay in newspaper headlines). He brings forth examples from newspaper articles, contemporary fiction and television series, among other sources, to demonstrate that creative word formation is a routine process that permeates through various genres.

Munat (2007) looked at the motivations behind the creation of new words in science fiction on the one hand, and children's literature on the other, in order to uncover how style affects morphological creativity. Accordingly, science fiction uses mainly complex pseudo-scientific words that require considerable processing effort from the reader, as opposed to children's literature, where the motivation for novel words is based on phonological considerations (rhymes, alliterations, and phonaesthemes).
2.4.0 Constraints on Neologisms

Katamba (1993) observes that although there is no limit to the number of words that can be produced in a language, not every conceivable word that in theory could be formed is allowed. He thus examines the following factors that limit productivity. These factors frustrate the application of a word-formation process whose conditions of application appear to be met.

2.4.1 Blocking

According to Katamba, blocking may be due to prior existence of another word with the meaning that the putative word would have. Usually, perfect synonyms are avoided. He thus explains that it may be because *thief* already exists that suffixing the otherwise very productive agentive suffix –er to the verb steal in order to form *stealer* is blocked.

The concept of blocking is further influenced by the following factors: phonological, morphological or semantic.

2.4.2 Phonological Factors

Siegel and Halle in Katamba (1993) have observed that in English, the verbs with an inchoative meaning roughly interpretable as ‘to begin to x’ can usually be formed from adjectives by suffixing –en to an adjecival base provided it meets the following phonetic conditions:

i. The base must be monosyllabic;

ii. The base must end in an obstruent (i.e. stop, fricative or affricate), which may be optionally preceded by a sonorant (e.g. a nasal consonant or an approximant like /l/ or /r/).
Thus, emanating from these phonological constraints the following derived verbs: black-en, damp-en, quiet-en, tough-en, softe-en are allowed. However, the following are not allowed: *dry-en, *green-en, *dimm-en, *lax-en.

2.4.3 Morphological Factors

Katamba observes that morphological properties of a base may prevent the application of morphological rules. Often, native morphemes behave differently from foreign morphemes. Some affixes are typically added either to native bases or to bases of foreign origin. For instance, the suffix –ant (as in defendant) is suffixed to bases of French origin.

Similarly, the rule of velar softening which changes /k/ (usually spelled with letter c) to [s] is essentially restricted to words of Latin and French origin. The effects of velar softening can thus be seen as:

Cynic, cynical → cynicism

Critic, critical → criticism, criticize

Fanatic → fanaticism

It’s important to note that velar softening only affects words with Romance roots. Similarly, the suffix –hood (as in boy-hood, child-hood, priest-hood) co-occurs with native roots and is disallowed after Latinate roots as in (judge-hood, prisoner-hood, author-hood).
2.4.4 Semantic Factors

Katamba argues that semantic considerations too may impinge on the application of word-formation processes. This is seen in the way the otherwise general process of forming compounds from Adjective plus past participle (Ved) is blocked.

Short-sleeved (shirt), one-armed (bandit), three-legged (stool)

*two-careed(family) – for a family with two cars.

*big-Alsatianed (woman) – for a woman with a big Alsatian

The application is only permitted where the root to which –ed is added is inalienably possessed (i.e. obligatorily possessed). Someone’s eyes are an integral part of their body. The sleeves of a shirt, the legs of a stool, are an obligatorily possessed part of garment, furniture respectively.

Similarly, if there are two adjectives with opposite meanings, one of them has a more positive meaning (unmarked) than the other (marked). Normally, the negative prefix un-, attaches to the positive adjective but when attached to the negative member of the pair, the resulting word is usually ill-formed. Consider the following illustrations:

Unwell → *unill unhappy → *unsad

Unloved → *unhated unclean → *unfilthy, *undirty
2.4.5 Aesthetic Factors and the Adoption of Words

Katamba notes that there are words that are in principle, well-formed but whose adoption has nevertheless been resisted.

He gives an example of the word *stagflation*, coined in the 1970’s to refer to the combination of economic stagnation and a high level of inflation that afflicted the world economy at that time. Possibly due to aesthetic considerations, this word seems to have failed to get a foothold in the language. In fact, some commentators consider it ‘ugly’.

Other ‘ugly’ words that raise hackles include: *talkathon, swimathon, knitathon* etc. these are made up by analogy to marathon. The problem as explained by Katamba (1993, p79) is that erudite purists are outraged not only by at the sight of a combinations of a Greek pseudo-suffix with native Anglo-Saxon roots, but also by the misanalysis of –*athon* as a ‘suffix’ meaning ‘undertaking a strenuous prolonged activity (specified in the part of the word that precedes –*athon*) for the benefit of a good cause’. In Greek, -*athon* was not a morpheme. But the average speaker of English who is unaware of such niceties will probably contentedly coin more –*athon* words, regardless.

This study acknowledges the various challenges creation of neologisms may encounter. In this regard, it will aim at analyzing the neologisms encountered but not criticizing their efficacy.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided mainly by Katamba’s (1993) lexicon open-endedness theory. However, reference will also be made of some grammatical theories on word classes.
2.5.1 The Lexicon Open-endedness Theory

The lexicon open-endedness theory seeks to account for the ways in which speakers both understand and form not only ‘real’ words that occur in their languages, but also potential words which are not instantiated in use in utterances. Katamba argues that while it is true that a large percentage of ‘real’ words listed in dictionaries (such as pear and pair) are memorized, it is equally true, and of great theoretical interest, that countless words used in conversation (and to a lesser extent in writing) are new, made up on the spur of the moment. So, morphology has to throw light on not only the morphological structure of established words like pair, but also on that of freshly coined neologisms like snail-mail (meaning the postal service as opposed to modern electronic mail)

Katamba clarifies that whereas reasonably comprehensive dictionaries and word lists for dozens of languages exist, no dictionary, however large, can list every word in the language. Thus, the verdict on whether or not morphology and the lexicon deal with what is effectively a closed list of words will hinge, to some extent, on our attitude to nonce-words (like uncomplicatedness), created by an individual, which do not catch on in the speech community. The more such words we recognize as part of the language the bigger and more open-ended will our lexicon be. It is also possible to add to the lexicon of a language indefinitely by pillaging the vocabulary of other languages i.e. borrowing.

The theory thus asserts that morphology is productive and there is no limit to the number of potential words in a language.
This theory is thus in tandem with this study in that it will be a wholesome and unbiased analysis of neologisms. Thus, potential words will be acknowledged in the same light as those considered to be real words. This theory will be very useful in that; the neologisms will be analysed from the perspective of the native speakers of the Gikuyu language in terms of both the written and spoken form.

2.5.2 Theories on Word Classes

Since the study is on neologisms, it will be important that the study looks at the different classes the neologisms fall under. This will lay the framework for the classification of the neologisms.

2.5.2.1 Open and Closed Classes.

Huddleston (1988) argues that the parts of speech can be divided into two major sets commonly called open classes and closed classes. The open classes are verb, noun, adjective and adverb. The closed classes are the rest: preposition, determinative, co-coordinator and sub-coordinator.

The open classes have very large membership while the closed ones have relatively few members. A large grammar could be expected to list all members of the closed classes whereas for the open ones, we would be referred to the lexicon.

Open classes are so called because they accommodate the addition of new members as the vocabulary of the language adapts itself to the changing needs of its speakers. New members may arise through the application of various morphological processes to existing words. Such processes he explains include: affixation, borrowing or coinage.
Closed classes by contrast are highly resistant to the addition of new members though the term ‘closed’ he emphasizes, should not be taken to imply that such expansions are strictly impossible.

This study will thus restrict itself to the open classes since they are the ones that accommodate neologisms.

2.5.2.2 Theory on Nouns

Bolinger and Sears (1981) argue that a noun may be used as a subject, a predicate, nominative, an indirect object, a direct object or a prepositional and a few other things. They give the following illustration:

Mr. Whitmore is a peach because he gave Sally an A on the exam.

The above sentence is analysed as follows: Mr. Whitmore as the subject, a peach as the predicative nominative, Sally as the indirect object, A as the direct object and exam as the prepositional object.

Hatch and Brown (1995) explain that a noun refers to a person, place or thing. Nouns can be divided into subclasses. Proper nouns like Betsy, Ohio and The Mormon Tabernacle Choir which differ from common nouns like woman, state and choir. Abstract nouns like hope and love differ from such concrete nouns as dish, table and chair. Count nouns like books, birds and pianos differ from mass nouns like applesauce, gravy and rice which tend not to be so discrete. Group nouns like bank, government and board also differ from other nouns that refer to people because they refer to the group as a unit.
Huddleston (1988) adds that nouns characteristically function as head in NP structure. NPs in turn occur in a variety of functions notably subject, object, predicative (complement of verbs like be, seen, become, remain) and complement of a preposition.

The various perspectives will guide this study on nouns as they signal towards key aspects of nouns such as form, function and position.

2.5.2.3 Theory on Verbs

Hatch and Brown (1995) refer to verbs as words that denote action. They argue that verbs that denote states rather than actions seem less verb-like just like nouns that name states, processes and events are not as noun-like as physical objects that exist in time and space. They refer to Vendler (1967) who placed verbs in four classes namely: activities, accomplishments, achievements and states.

Activities: run, walk and write.

Accomplishments: paint a picture, draw a triangle, build, put, kill

Achievements: recognize, find, understand and see

States: know, love, have, desire.

2.5.2.4 Theory on Adjectives

Hatch and Brown (1995) explain that adjectives are used to highlight qualities or attributes. Certain adjectives are used to describe particular nouns. They give examples of light, dark, bright and dull as used with colour names. They argue that in some languages, adjectives are not
viewed as different from nouns. It is difficult to decide if red is a noun for colour or an attribute of something and therefore an adjective. Adjectives may also seem like verbs. Slow can be an adjective when we talk about “a slow race” but it could be a verb if we say, “The runner slowed after he cleared the last huddle.” Adjectives can also point out positive or negative qualities.

Huddleston (1988) explains that adjectives function as head in AdjP structure. The two main functions of AdjPs are predicative in VP structure and pre-head modifier in NP structure, the latter involving what is called the attributive use of adjectives. He observes that most adjectives are gradable. Semantically, this means that they denote properties that can be possessed in varying degrees. Semantically, it is reflected in the ability to take degree expressions as dependants. Examples include: too large, quite good, very young, rather doubtful. Many adjectives inflect for ‘grade’ with a three-term paradigm as illustrated for regular tall and irregular good and bad.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tall</th>
<th>good</th>
<th>bad</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute:</td>
<td>tall</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative:</td>
<td>taller</td>
<td>better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superlative:</td>
<td>taller</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.5.2.5 Theory on Adverbs

Huddleston (1988) argues that the adverb is a much less homogeneous part of speech than the other three open classes.
2.6 Relevance of Theories of Word Classes to this Study

The theories on word classes have guided this study during the classification of the neologisms into various word classes. The theories have also been a guide in the process of analysing the morphological structures of the neologisms.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter highlights methodological details appropriate for the study. It looks at the research design, categories of analysis, area of study, target population, sampling techniques, sample size, research instruments, data collection techniques and data analysis procedures.

3.1 Research Design

This study adopted both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches. According to Thompson (2007) a qualitative approach is a research involving detailed verbal descriptions of characteristics, cases, settings, people or systems obtained by interacting with, interviewing and observing the subjects. It typically starts with the use of a document review to collect data.’

A descriptive research design was used to establish the existence of phenomena by explicitly describing them. It utilizes already existing data and has a preconceived hypothesis (Seliger & Shohamy 1989, p117-125)

Within the qualitative design, the researcher conducted a content analysis, which is also referred to as textual analysis. Content analysis is ‘any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specific characteristics of message Creswell (2009). This type of analysis was suitable for this study since the researcher was required to read through the text under study and make inferences by identifying specific characteristics in the text. The study set out with the assumption that Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) Murogi wa Kagogo contains neologisms.
This study hence undertook a content analysis of the text under study; Ngugi wa Thion’o(2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. This was with a view to examining the intensity with which neologisms have been used.

Under the quantitative research design, the researcher tabulates frequencies and percentages of the findings from respondents of the questionnaires.

### 3.2 Categories of Analysis

This study has listed all the neologisms in the sample. It then categorised the neologisms into the various word classes such as nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. It also categorised the neologisms into the various relevant fields for instance: technological, educational, political, geographical and religious.

### 3.3 Area of Study

The study has been carried out within the Gikuyu speakers and literature. The Gikuyu speakers are predominantly found in a region previously known as the central province of the republic of Kenya. In the current constitutional dispensation, the area has now been subdivided into counties namely: Kiambu, Murang’, Nyeri, Nyandarua and Kirinyaga.

However, over the years, the Gikuyu have spread out especially in the neighbouring counties especially Kajiado, Nakuru and Laikipia. They are now actually found virtually in all parts of the republic of Kenya and even in other countries. The Gikuyu community is the largest in Kenya as earlier illustrated in section 1.7.
3.4 Target Population

The target population was Gikuyu speakers and their literature. Gikuyu literature is available in the form of books, texts, storybooks, manuscripts and the bible. Moreover, the study also targeted lecturers in the Department of Linguistics from Kenyatta University, University of Nairobi, Mount Kenya University and The Catholic University of Eastern Africa.

This study, however, did not manage to look into all the sources of Gikuyu literature but mainly focussed on Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo* which has been written in volumes.

3.5 Sampling Techniques

The study mainly used purposive and simple random sampling techniques. To begin with, the text was picked through purposive sampling due to a number of reasons. First, Ngugi is a prolific writer and he has numerous publications many of which are in the Gikuyu language. They include: *Ngaahika Ndeenda, Caiitani Mutharaba-ini, Matigari ma Njiruungi, Njamba Nene na Mbaathi I Mathagu, Bathitoora ya Njamba Nene, Njamba Nene na Cibu King’angi. Mutiiri Njaranda ya Miikarire* volumes 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Secondly, in his academic pursuits and occupation, Ngugi has been exposed a lot into modernity. He is currently a professor in Literature at the University of California in Irvine; USA. He has thus encountered numerous terminologies that have no equivalence in the Gikuyu language and which necessitate neologisms.
Thirdly, the text discusses modern issues. It is therefore not only relevant thematically but is also bound to be rich in data since the current political and modern trends are quite advanced as compared to the traditional Gikuyu way of life.

The purposive sampling technique was also used in determining the respondents of the questionnaires. The researcher has opted for purposive sampling since he was looking for respondents who are fluent speakers of the Gikuyu language, literate and also knowledgeable on the subject matter. The researcher hence settled on the lecturers in the Linguistics department from four universities who are native speakers of Gikuyu. The four universities were also selected through purposive sampling. Two are public universities namely: Kenyatta University and University of Nairobi. The other two namely: Mount Kenya University and The Catholic University of Eastern Africa are private universities. Since the study sought the views of professionals, the views of professionals from the four universities would represent the views of professionals from other universities.

The simple random sampling was used to determine the volume to be studied since studying all the volumes would be very dear in terms of time and resources. The researcher thus wrote the volume number of each volume on a separate piece of paper and folded all the papers. He then tossed the papers in a bowl. He then picked one paper and the number written on it was the volume to be studied. This method yielded volume 1. The researcher thus studied the entire volume 1 which has fifteen chapters (p 1 – 49).

The simple random sampling method was also used in identifying which words were to be used in the questionnaire. Words were picked from each of the classes identified by the study.
3.6 Sample Size

Gay (1981) in Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) suggests that for descriptive studies, ten percent of the accessible population is enough.

The sample size is volume 1 of Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. It contains fifteen chapters and is forty-nine pages long. The sample size was arrived at after conducting simple random sampling. Out of the five volumes, the researcher selected volume one. Studying one volume has even surpassed Gay’s suggestion, as it is actually twenty percent.

The study targeted twenty respondents of questionnaires. Due to the technical nature of the study, the targeted respondents were lecturers in the Linguistics department from four universities who are native speakers of the Gikuyu language. Questionnaires were distributed to all the twenty- targeted respondents. Fifteen respondents returned the filled questionnaires thus translating to 75% response rate from the targeted population.

3.7 Research Instruments

This study used two instruments; content analysis accompanied by questionnaires. Content analysis was used in identifying neologisms in volume 1 of Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. The questionnaire had a variety of questions namely: structured, open-ended and matrix questions.
3.8 Data Collection Procedures

Data was collected in the form of words. The primary data needed for this study was in the form of grammatical classes. The main data collection method used was a content analysis of the text under study. In this regard, the researcher read through the text. In the process of reading, he identified the neologisms and jotted them down.

Having made a list of the neologisms, the researcher then categorised them into their respective word classes and also into their respective themes/fields for example education, medicine, technology and politics. While doing so, the researcher looked at the morphological structures of the neologisms and noted down their patterns.

The study needed to evaluate Gikuyu speakers’ knowledge of these neologisms. In doing so, the researcher designed and circulated questionnaires. After analyzing the questionnaires, the researcher was in a position to establish which of the neologisms collected were in common use and which ones were occasionalisms.

3.9 Data Analysis Procedures

This study adopted both the qualitative and quantitative data analysis approaches.

In the qualitative data approach, non-numerical data was collected. The data was in the form of words. The neologisms identified by the researcher were listed down.

From the list of neologisms identified, the researcher then sorted and categorized the data in accordance to their respective word classes. The researcher also analysed and discussed the morphological patterns identified.
In the quantitative approach, the total number of neologisms listed was calculated. Percentages of the number of neologisms in each word class were calculated.

The researcher also analysed the responses from the questionnaires aimed at evaluating the Gikuyu speakers’ knowledge of the neologisms. Percentages were made based on the level of similarity of the responses to the neologisms gathered.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the presentation, analysis and discussion of data. It is guided by the objectives set in chapter one. The objectives are as follows:

1) To identify and classify neologisms in the Gĩkũyũ language.

2) To analyse and discuss the various morphological structures of the neologisms.

3) To evaluate Gikuyu speakers’ knowledge of these neologisms.

The main concern of this study was to identify neologisms in the Gikuyu language. Data is sourced from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s novel; *Murogi wa Kagogo*.

In line with the first objective, a list of the neologisms identified from the sampled volume (volume one) of Ngugi’s text is provided. The identification of the neologisms is guided by Katamba’s (1993) lexicon open-endedness theory which proposes that speakers both understand and form not only “real” words that occur in their languages but also potential words which are instantiated in use in utterances. The neologisms are then categorized according to the different grammatical classes.

The researcher read through the sampled volume (volume 1) of the text and listed the neologisms he identified. This was possible since the researcher is a native speaker of the Gikuyu language. Below are excerpts obtained from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s novel; Murogi wa Kagogo. The researcher illustrates how he read the text while underlining the words he perceived to be neologisms using his intuition as a native speaker of the Gikuyu language. This was the process the researcher followed in identifying neologisms as illustrated in the excerpts below.

EXCERPT 1

In excerpt 1 below the neologisms identified have been underlined

… Mwihoko wa ati muingi ni ukuhunio keki o na hatari thamaki niguo watumire mucemanio ucio ukwo uguo na makiria ni aria mari ahatiririe ni kwaciokoo. Mucemanio wambiriiriemiaraho. O na miarahuko, mucemanio no wathiyaga na mbere. Na rio riuariarite o kwara.

Mwathani, Mawathiri, anene a Kiama Kia Mwathani maari kiiruruini kia hema nan i maikaraga makihehagia tunua twa o na mai ma ndigithu. No muingi waikarite ung’arite o kug’arana njira iria andu meriganagiria cia riua nayo ni kurora, kubarania na kwiririria uria kurekika njukwaini. Tobiki iria ciari hiu ni ikonii mwihumbire na mukinyukirie wa nding’uri na nuu wakuhiriirie kana o kuraihiriria Giti Kia Unene.

Thutha wa Mwathani hari mundu umwe wari na Nutimbuku ndungu muno guokoini kwa umotho na kiramu kiigana muturiru guokoini kwa urio, na tondu aikaraga akiandikaga, andu magiciria ni wa ngathiti no ningi no ningi makarigwo aregete guikara hari andu aria ani a ngathiti niki! O hau hakuhi nake niho ihii iria inya cia Mwathani- Kucera, Moya, Soi na Runyenje maikarite,
manyuage thota na gutiri mundu utoi ati cubaini icio gwalkaragwo ino ingi nduranduru gukira *diet drinks*.

Ndokita Wilfred Kaboca, ndagitari wa Mwathani, arigainie na ihii icio na mwenaini wake haari na muiritu wakirite ki, ona ndaragia sake, na nowe mutumia tu waari njukwaaini. Andu meciragia ati nogukorwo ni mwari wa mwathani, no makarigwo, kai atararia na ariu a nyina kana na ithe niki? Angi mageciria ati ni mutumia wa Ndokita Kaboca, no ningi makiraniire uguo niki?

Mwena wa Mwathani wa urio haikarite Wathiri wa Maundu ma na Nja. Aari nathuuti njiru ci ya ngarara na tai ya ruuri rutune rwa Kiama Kia Mwathani na mbica ya Mwathani. Gutuikaga ati tene Wathiri aari mumbungewakawainda. No muthenya umwe akiumbuka ninya Randani Kwangeretha, kuria aingirire thbitari nene, ti undu wa kuruara, aca, ati, kuringananauria erire magathiti, ni getha maitho make mathinjwo manenehio matuike *macho kali* mahotage kuona thu cia Mwathani ona iri kuraya atia. Maitho make ni manenehirio, muigana wa ngirobu…

Adapted from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo* (page 14).

The English translation of the underlined words is in excerpt 1 is as follows:
Table 4.1: Neologisms in excerpt 1 from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism in Gikuyu</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keki</td>
<td>Cake</td>
<td>Cake/keki</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwaciokoo</td>
<td>Kwashiorkor</td>
<td>Kwashiorkor/kwashiakoo</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hema</td>
<td>Tent</td>
<td>Hema</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njukwaini</td>
<td>at the dais</td>
<td>Njukwaani</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobiki</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutimbuku</td>
<td>Notebook</td>
<td>Notebook</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiramu</td>
<td>Pen</td>
<td>Kalamu</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ngathiti</td>
<td>Gazette</td>
<td>Gazette/gazeti</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thota</td>
<td>Soda</td>
<td>Soda/soda</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>Bottle</td>
<td>Chupa</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndokita</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wathiri</td>
<td>Minister</td>
<td>Waziri</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thuuti</td>
<td>Suit</td>
<td>Suit/suti</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mumbunge</td>
<td>Parliamentarian</td>
<td>Mbunge</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.1 above contains the neologisms picked from excerpt 1 from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. The gloss presents the English version while the lexical item presents the origin of the neologism in the cases where borrowing has occurred. The donor language has also been indicated. However, in certain cases like in *keki* (cake) the English version and the Kiswahili version are so similar such that the probability that borrowing took place from either English or Kiswahili is very high. There are also cases of coinage like in the case of *ngirobu* (bulb) since the neologism couldn’t be attributed to any language known by the researcher.

**EXCERPT 2**

In excerpt 2 below the neologisms identified have been underlined.

…Yunice Immaculate Mgenzi, mutumia kiuga, muraihu na murungaru, akirugama.

The English translation of the underlined words is in excerpt 2 is as follows:


Ndgr. Yunice Immaculate Mgenzi agiikara thi, hi cia bongethi irirage kihaaroini ta ngwa.


Mwathani agikiuga ati ni undu wa bururi kwigita na akarangi a njuku a mithemba ya ta acio mareyita mahithituria na atungi a ng’ano Mwathani ni aracagurire mwandiki ucio kari muno, atuike mbayongiraba wake, na mbayongirabi yake no undu umwe na Mbayongirabi ya Aburiria…

Adapted from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) Murogi wa Kagogo (page 23).

The English translation of the underlined words is in excerpt 2 is as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism in Gikuyu</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roboriuconari</td>
<td>Revolutionary</td>
<td>Revolutionary</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reboriuconi</td>
<td>Revolution</td>
<td>Revolution</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minicitiri</td>
<td>Ministry</td>
<td>Ministry</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burumuconi</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndebiuti</td>
<td>Deputy</td>
<td>Deputy</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambacenda</td>
<td>Ambassadeur</td>
<td>Ambassadeur</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wothitoni</td>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bongethi</td>
<td>Congratulations</td>
<td>Pongezi</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Randiko</td>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothiko</td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njirimani</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Germany/ Ujeremani</td>
<td>English/ Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njirani</td>
<td>Neighbor</td>
<td>Jirani</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thothiarimu</td>
<td>Socialism</td>
<td>Socialism</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muabirika</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>African /Mwafrika</td>
<td>English /Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aburiria</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2: Neologisms in excerpt 2 from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*
Table 4.2 above follows the same criteria as the previous table I. there are also cases where the specific donor language couldn’t be candidly determined like in the cases of njirimani, muabirika, mahithituria.

4.1.1 Classification of neologisms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) Murogi wa Kagogo

In line with the second part of objective one, the neologisms have been categorized into their various word classes.

Quirk et al (1985) categorise words into two broad categories namely: closed classes and open classes. The closed class includes; prepositions, pronouns, determiners, conjunctions, modal verbs and primary verbs. The open class includes; nouns, adjectives, full verbs, adverbs.

This study concentrated on the open classes because they are the ones that yields neologisms.

4.1.2 Nouns

Hudlesston (1984) defines a noun as a word used as the name of a living being or lifeless being.
Lunani, Wayanzavuko and Kalu (2014) further sub-divide nouns into sub-classes. They include: proper nouns, common nouns, abstract nouns, concrete nouns, countable nouns, uncountable nouns, collective nouns and compound nouns. According to their categorization, we can posit that the Gikuyu language also has different categories of neologisms as discussed hereafter.

4.1.3 Common Nouns

Common nouns have been defined by Lunani, Wayanzavuko & Kalu (2014) as names given to words designating types of persons, places, everyday objects, things or ideas. Examples include: teacher, school, book and education respectively. Common nouns are further subdivided into concrete, abstract and compound nouns.

4.1.4 Proper Nouns

According to Lunani, Wayanzavuko and Kalu (2014) a proper noun has been defined as the name of an individual, specific place or thing that is one of a kind. Also, proper nouns usually begin with a capital letter. Examples include: John, Israel and The Alps respectively. Below are some illustrations of the neologisms identified under proper noun categories from Thiong’o (2004).
Table 4.3: proper nouns– names of people in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of people</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Rakeri</em></td>
<td>Rachael</td>
<td>Rakeri</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>Njícú</em></td>
<td>Jesus</td>
<td>Jesus</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <em>Kiricitú</em></td>
<td>Christ</td>
<td>Christ /Kristu</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>Ruthiba</em></td>
<td>Lucifer</td>
<td>Lucifer</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 above lists all the names of people obtained from the entire sample. In the table there is a case of variety since *Njícú* and *Kiricitú* are synonyms of one person: the son of God.

Table 4.4: proper nouns- names of places in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of places</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Nio Yoko</em></td>
<td>New York</td>
<td>New York</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>Karibonia</em></td>
<td>California</td>
<td>California</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <em>Amerika</em></td>
<td>America</td>
<td>America /Amerika</td>
<td>English /Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>Caina</em></td>
<td>China</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <em>Ithiraíri</em></td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.4 above lists the names of places under the category of proper nouns. Just like in the previous table, there are cases where the donor language isn’t definite as in the case of Amerika.

Table 4.5: proper nouns- months of the year\days of the week in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s

(2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months of the year</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Míí</em></td>
<td>May</td>
<td>May /Mei</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>Njanuarí</em></td>
<td>January</td>
<td>January /Januari</td>
<td>English/ Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 above presents the months of the year and days of the week obtained from the sample.

There is a case of co-borrowing as in the case of *Njumabiri* since the Gikuyu language has another name of Sunday which is; *Kiiumia*.

4.1.5 Concrete Nouns

Quirk et al (1985) states that concrete nouns are accessible to the senses, observable and measurable. Concrete nouns according to Lunani, Wayanzavuko & Kalu (2014) are nouns that name tangible things that can be perceived by one or more of the senses. Vikiru et al (2007) adds that they are nouns which can be touched, seen or felt. Concrete nouns are further subdivided into countable and uncountable nouns. Countable nouns are those that can form plurals and be counted as single units. Examples include: chair, dresses and rulers. Below are a few illustrations of neologisms under concrete nouns category.
Table 4.6: concrete nouns in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concrete nouns</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Mbuku</em></td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>Mbetiri</em></td>
<td>Battery</td>
<td>Battery</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <em>Nabukini</em></td>
<td>Napkin</td>
<td>Napkin</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <em>Burathiki</em></td>
<td>Plastic</td>
<td>Plastic/plastiki</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <em>Neti</em></td>
<td>Net</td>
<td>Net/neti</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <em>Kandi</em></td>
<td>Card</td>
<td>Card/kadi</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <em>Terebiconi</em></td>
<td>Television</td>
<td>Television/televisheni</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. <em>Mbica</em></td>
<td>Picture</td>
<td>Picture/picha</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 above lists the concrete nouns. Most of the concrete nouns have a close affinity to both the English and Kiswahili languages. In some cases like *Terebiconi* and *Rindio*, the similarities across the three languages are very high.
4.1.5 Uncountable Nouns

According to Lunani, Wayanzavuko & Kalu (2014) uncountable nouns refer to a group of nouns that cannot be counted as single units. Examples include: milk, blood and salt. Below are some illustrations of neologisms under uncountable nouns category.

Table 4.7: uncountable nouns in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uncountable nouns</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) <em>Kongirigi</em></td>
<td>Concrete</td>
<td>Concrete</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) <em>Betúrú</em></td>
<td>Petrol</td>
<td>Petrol</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) <em>Thota</em></td>
<td><em>Soda</em></td>
<td><em>Soda /soda</em></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) <em>Thumu</em></td>
<td>Poison</td>
<td>Sumu</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) <em>Thitima</em></td>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>Stima</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In view of table 4.7 above, the neologisms identified under uncountable nouns were very clear pertaining to the donor language apart from the case of *thota*.

4.1.6 Abstract Nouns

Abstract nouns according to Lunani, Wayanzavuko & Kalu (2014) refer to a quality, general idea or state that cannot be felt by the senses. Vikiru et al (2007) adds that they cannot be touched but exist only in the mind. Examples include: peace, faith and honesty. Below are some illustrations of neologisms under abstract nouns category.
Table 4.8: abstract nouns in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abstract nouns</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Thayathi</em></td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>Science /Sayansi</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>Kúmboeka</em></td>
<td>Boredom</td>
<td>Boredom</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <em>Pawa</em></td>
<td>Power</td>
<td>Power</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>Ronjiki</em></td>
<td>Logic</td>
<td>Logic</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <em>Ndigirii</em></td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <em>Utukubu</em></td>
<td>Majesty</td>
<td>Utukufu</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <em>Borojo</em></td>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>Porojo</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <em>Bikira</em></td>
<td>Thoughts</td>
<td>Fikira</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. <em>Hithituri</em></td>
<td>History</td>
<td>History /historia</td>
<td>English /Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. <em>Waning’i</em></td>
<td>Warning</td>
<td>Warning</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In view of table 4.8 above, the neologisms identified under abstract nouns didn’t have much controversy over the donor language apart from the cases of *thayathi* and *hithituri*. 
4.1.7 Compound Nouns

Lunani, Wayanzavuko & Kalu (2014) explain that compound nouns are made up of more than one word. They may be written as single words as is the case of dressmaker and classroom or be hyphenated as in the case of mother-in-law. Therefore, they are a combination of two or more different words to mean one person, things or idea. Examples include: dressmaker, mother-in-law and bank manager. The study did not yield any neologisms under compound nouns.

4.1.8 Collective nouns

Collective nouns according to Lunani, Wayanzavuko & Kalu (2014) are nouns which in their singular forms refer to a set or group of people or items. Although they refer to more than one item or thing, they are singular in form. Examples include: school, crowd, crew, bevy etc. Below is a table illustrating some collective nouns.

Table 4.9: collective nouns in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective nouns</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bamírí</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Manjeci</td>
<td>Army</td>
<td>Majeshi</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Borithi</td>
<td>Police</td>
<td>Police /polisi</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mbendi</td>
<td>Band</td>
<td>Band /bendi</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Miritari</td>
<td>Military</td>
<td>Military</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Thirikari</td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>Serekali</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In table 4.9 above, the neologisms identified under abstract nouns also didn’t have much controversy of donor language apart from the cases of *borithi* and *mbendi*.

### 4.1.9 Conclusion on Nouns

The class of nouns yielded the highest number of neologisms. The study identified neologisms from most of the sub-classes of nouns namely: proper nouns (names of peoples, places, months, days), concrete nouns, uncountable nouns, abstract nouns and collective nouns. The only sub-class of nouns that did not yield any neologism from the sample is compound nouns.

### 4.2.0 Adjectives

#### 4.2.1 Introduction

In this section, the study focuses on adjectives. As discussed earlier, adjectives are words that are used to highlight qualities or attributes. They are majorly used to describe nouns. Quirk et al (1985) has analysed four criteria for adjectives. Firstly, they occur in attributive functions. Secondly, they can freely occur in predicative functions. Thirdly, they can be pre-modified by the intensifier; very. Fourthly, they can take comparative and superlative forms.

Lunani, Wayanzuko & Kalu (2014) further explain that adjectives answer the questions; Which one? What kind? How many? Or How much? about nouns and pronouns. They also categorise adjectives as pertaining to: colour, number, size, value, texture, opinion and shape. They further analyse other attributes of adjectives. These include: comparative and superlative, regular and irregular, gradable and non-gradable, attributive and predicative as well as the proper order of adjectives in a sentence.
The table presented hereafter illustrates some adjectives.

Table 4.10: adjectives in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Baní</td>
<td>Funny</td>
<td>Funny</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ngirini</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Colour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Kíndayamondi</td>
<td>Diamond-like</td>
<td>Diamond-like</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Thibeco</td>
<td>Special</td>
<td>Special</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Otomatiki</td>
<td>Automatic</td>
<td>Automatic</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Buraimari</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Thekondari</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>/sekondari</td>
<td>/Kiswahili</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Rathimi</td>
<td>Official</td>
<td>Rasmi</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Reboriuconari</td>
<td>Revolutionary</td>
<td>Revolutionary</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Randiko</td>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Opinion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In view of table above 4.10, the neologisms identified mainly fall under quality and opinion. There wasn’t much controversy over the donor language apart from the case of thekondari.
4.2.2 Conclusion on Adjectives

The word class of adjectives didn’t yield as many neologisms as nouns. Only one example was obtained in the sub-category of colour but none on quantity, size, shape, weight, origin and material.

4.3 Verbs

4.3.1 Introduction

From the earlier discussion on word classes, verbs are words that denote actions/activities, accomplishments, achievements and states. Huddleston (1984) describe a verb as that part of speech that predicates, assists in predications, asks questions or expresses a command. Quirk et al (1985) divides verbs into three major categories namely; the open class of full verbs or lexical verbs (leave, go, jump), the closed class of primary verbs (have, be & do) and the modal auxiliary verbs (will, might, can). Below is a table of some of the neologisms under lexical verbs.

Table 4.11: verbs in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical verb</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Athimairîte</td>
<td>While smiling</td>
<td>Smiling</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Túimanjini</td>
<td>Let’s imagine</td>
<td>Imagine</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Yaribotaga</td>
<td>Was reporting</td>
<td>Reporting</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Macarenjwo</td>
<td>Got challenged</td>
<td>Challenged</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Matiatharendaga</td>
<td>Were not surrendering</td>
<td>Surrender</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Akiburithi</strong></td>
<td>He/she froze</td>
<td>Froze</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7. Akiburithi</strong></td>
<td>He/she froze</td>
<td>Froze</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8. Kūungamūkono</strong></td>
<td>To support</td>
<td>kuunga mkono</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>9. Wathitimwo</strong></td>
<td>Has been electrocuted</td>
<td>Stima</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10. Mabumbura</strong></td>
<td>Discovered</td>
<td>Fumbua</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>11. Makiyibaa</strong></td>
<td>Dressed</td>
<td>Wakavaa</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In view of table 4.11 above, the verb emerged to be more complex than other word classes. This is due to the fact that the verbs are also marked for number, time and negation. Most of the verbs also carry the subject and hence are more of clauses than single verbs.

**4.3.2 Conclusion on Verbs**

In the process of the study, it emerged that the Gikuyu, being an agglutinating language, the subject, lexical and auxiliary verbs are joined into one word. Infact, some of the verb phrases function as sentences. For instance, in the term ‘Athimairíte’ (while he/she was smiling), the actual verb is ‘thimair’ (smile). The prefix ‘A’ marks the singular whereas the suffix ‘ite’ marks the progressive.

Just like English, Gikuyu also marks number and tense in the verbs as is highlighted in the table below.
Table 4.12: marking of number and time in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With singular subject</th>
<th>With plural subject</th>
<th>Simple past tense</th>
<th>Past progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Athimairîte</em> (while he/she was smiling)</td>
<td><em>Makîyîbaa</em> (They put on)</td>
<td><em>Macarenjìwo</em> (They were challenged)</td>
<td><em>Matiaharenda</em> (They were not surrendering)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Akiburîthi</em> (He/she froze)</td>
<td><em>Macarenjìwo</em> (They were challenged)</td>
<td><em>Akiburîthi</em> (He/she froze)</td>
<td><em>Yarîbotâga</em> (It was reporting)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Simple present**

*Tuîmanjìni* (Lets imagine)

In table 4.12 above, the underlined part is the stem. The rest are markers for different aspects.

For instance, ‘*a*’ is the marker for a singular subject as in the case ‘*Akiburîthi*’ and ‘*Athimairîte*’ whereas the plural marker is ‘*ma*’ as in the case for ‘*Macarenjìwo*’ and ‘*Makîyîbaa*’.

The past progressive tense is marked by the suffix ‘*ga*’ as seen in ‘*Matiatharendaga*’ and ‘*Yarîbotâga*’. Another past tense marker is ‘*o*’ as seen in words such as ‘*Macarenjìwo*’ and ‘*Wathîtimwò*’. The ‘*o*’ is similar to the perfective aspect in English. The past tense can also be marked by the prefix ‘*ki*’ as seen in words such as ‘*Makîyîbaa*’ and ‘*Akiburîthi*’. The suffix ‘*i*’ in words such as ‘*Akiburîthi*’ and ‘*Tuîmanjìni*’ is also attributed to the past tense and more so the simple past tense.
There wasn’t enough data to show how other tenses are formed. Also, the main focus of the study is to identify neologisms in Gikuyu. A more thorough grammatical analysis can thus be a basis for another study.

4.4 Adverbs

4.4.1 Introduction

Quirk et al (1985) explain that the adverb functions as the head of an adverb phrase, with or without modification. They identify two types of adverbs namely; the closed class simple and compound adverbs and the open class which contains the derivational adverbs.

Lunani, Wayanzavuko & Kalu (2014) describe an adverb as a word that modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb. They categorise adverbs into various types: manner, time, frequency, place and degree. Adverbs like verbs also have comparative and superlative forms. From the theory on word classes, they are perceived to be a much less homogeneous part of speech than the nouns, verbs and adjectives. The study yielded very few neologisms under adverbs. Below is a table of adverbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverb</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Gíthayathiini</em></td>
<td>Scientifically</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>Gítekinoronjíí</em></td>
<td>Technologically</td>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <em>Binabuthi</em></td>
<td>Personally</td>
<td>Personally</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Manner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In view of table 4.13 above, adverbs provided the least neologisms. Unlike in other word classes, there wasn’t any controversy over the donor language.

4.4.2 Conclusion on Adverbs

The word class of adverbs yielded the least number of neologisms. Of the five examples identified, four are in the category of manner and only one on time. No neologism under place, degree or frequency was identified from the sample.

4.5 Classification of Neologisms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo* Based on Different Fields

Still in line with the first objective of the study of identification and classification of neologisms, the researcher found that the neologisms cut across various fields. Below are some of the main categories that the researcher identified.
4.5.1 Technology:

Table 4.14: Neologisms on Technology in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Gitékinoronjíiní</em></td>
<td>Technologically</td>
<td><em>technology</em></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>Gíthayathiiní</em></td>
<td>Scientifically</td>
<td><em>science</em></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <em>Raúndithibika</em></td>
<td>Loudspeaker</td>
<td>Loudspeaker</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>Thenema</em></td>
<td>Cinema</td>
<td>Cinema</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <em>Kamemeiní</em></td>
<td>Over the radio</td>
<td>Radio</td>
<td><em>coinage</em></td>
<td>Technology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 4.14 above, the researcher considered the neologisms that are related to any form of new technology, science and equipment/gadgets.

4.5.2 Education

Table 4.15: Neologisms on Education in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) <em>Yunibathítí</em></td>
<td>University</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) <em>Bithi</em></td>
<td>Fees</td>
<td>Fees</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In table 4.15 above, the researcher considered any neologisms pertaining to any education discipline, educational institutions, qualifications and professions.

4.5.3 Politics

Table 4.16: Neologisms on Politics in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Útukubu</td>
<td>Majesty</td>
<td><em>utukufu</em></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Boronjo</td>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td><em>porojo</em></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Making’i</td>
<td>Kings</td>
<td><em>king</em></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Thothiarimu</td>
<td>Socialism</td>
<td>Socialism</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Raici</td>
<td>President</td>
<td><em>rais</em></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 4.16 above, the researcher considered terminologies that were mentioned in the context of leadership and politics.
4.5.4 Geographical terms

Table 4.17: Neologisms on Geographical Terms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Njiongirabí</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nio Yoko</td>
<td>New York</td>
<td>New York</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ngeretha</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Uingereza</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wothitoní</td>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothiko</td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Geography</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 4.17 above, the researcher considered neologisms pertaining to names of places and geographical features.
4.5.5 Religion

Table 4.18: Neologisms on Religious Terms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) <em>Mtukatibu</em></td>
<td>Holy</td>
<td><em>mtukatifu</em></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) <em>Kanithainí</em></td>
<td>In the church</td>
<td><em>kanisani</em></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>Religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) <em>Gategethimo</em></td>
<td>Catechism</td>
<td>Catechism</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) <em>Mamothikiiní</em></td>
<td>In mosques</td>
<td>Mosque</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) <em>Njícú</em></td>
<td>Jesus</td>
<td>Jesus</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Religion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 4.18 above, the researcher considered neologisms pertaining to religious beliefs, places of worship and religious figures.

4.5.6 Conclusion

The neologisms identified in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo* cut across various fields and disciplines. The classification provided above has only captured broad categories.
4.6 Morphological Structures on Neologisms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

**4.6.1 Introduction**

In line with the second objective, the researcher hereby analyzes and discusses the various morphological structures of the neologisms identified. This study was guided by Matthew’s (1974) morphological processes. Matthew’s (1974) identifies the following morphological processes: affixation; prefixation, suffixation, infixation; reduplication; modification; vowel change; directionality of processes; suppletion; ‘discontinuous morphs’, ‘suprafixes’, ‘subphonemic affixes’; substraction.

**4.6.2 Affixation**

This refers to the addition of a letter or group of letters to a word. When an affix is added at the beginning of the word, it is referred to as a prefix; when added at the end of a word, it is referred to as a suffix; when added in between a word it is referred to as an infix. This study identified both prefixes and suffixes.

**4.6.2.1 Prefixation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mumbunge</td>
<td>Parliamentarian</td>
<td><em>Mu-</em></td>
<td><em>Mbunge</em></td>
<td>Inflection-number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Kwangeretha</td>
<td>England</td>
<td><em>Kwa-</em></td>
<td><em>Ngeretha</em></td>
<td>Inflection – position</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. *Magathiti* newspapers *Ma-* -*gathiti* Inflection-number

4. *Mahithituria* historians *Ma-* *Hithituria* Inflection-number

5. *Making’i* Kings *Ma-* *King’i* Inflection-number

6. *Kindayamondi* Diamond-like *Ki-* *Ndayamondi* Comparison

Table 4.19 above has analysed the prefixes identified from the excerpts from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. The prefix *ma-* in all the words in the table above is a plural marker whereas *mu-* in *mubunge* is a singular marker. The prefix *kwa-* is a near equivalent of the preposition ‘of’ in English. Prefix *ki-* shows comparison just like the word *like* in English.

### 4.6.2.2 Suffixation

**Table 4.20: Suffixation in Neologisms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Gategithimo</td>
<td>Catechism</td>
<td>Gategithim-</td>
<td>-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Thothiarimu</td>
<td>Socialism</td>
<td>Thothiarim-</td>
<td>-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Mbuku</td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>Mbuk-</td>
<td>-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Mithiamu</td>
<td>Museum</td>
<td>Mithiam-</td>
<td>-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Randani</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>Randan-</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Waning’i</td>
<td>Warning</td>
<td>Waning-</td>
<td>-‘i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Otomatiki</td>
<td>Automatic</td>
<td>Otomatik-</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Kongirigiti</td>
<td>Concrete</td>
<td>Kongirigit-</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Bithi</td>
<td>Fees</td>
<td>Bith-</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) Raici</td>
<td>Rais</td>
<td>Raic-</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) Wonthitoni</td>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>Wonthitoni-</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) Githayathiini</td>
<td>Kisayansi</td>
<td>Githayathi-</td>
<td>-ini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13) Gitekinoronjiini</td>
<td>Tekinorjia</td>
<td>-tekinoronji-</td>
<td>-ini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14) Kameraini</td>
<td>Camera</td>
<td>Kamera-</td>
<td>-ini</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.20 above analyses the suffixes identified in the excerpts from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. The suffixes –i, -u, and –o have been added to complete the syllable structure of the Gikuyu language since syllables in the Gikuyu language cannot end with a consonant. The suffix –ini, functions more like the preposition ‘in’ in English such that a neologism like *githayathiini* then means; in science/ scientifically.
4.6.2.3 Infixation

Table 4.21: Infixation in Neologisms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Infix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) <em>Ngirini</em></td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>-i-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) <em>Ndigirii</em></td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>-i-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) <em>Hithitori</em></td>
<td>History</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>-i-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) <em>Mothiko</em></td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>-i-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) <em>Ndokita</em></td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>-i-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) <em>Buraimari</em></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) <em>Binabuthi</em></td>
<td>Personally</td>
<td>Binafsi</td>
<td>-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) <em>Burobetha</em></td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) <em>Nabukini</em></td>
<td>Napkin</td>
<td>Napkin</td>
<td>-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) <em>Beturu</em></td>
<td>Petrol</td>
<td>Petrol</td>
<td>-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) <em>Mubunge</em></td>
<td>Parliamentarian</td>
<td>M bunge</td>
<td>-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) <em>Mutagatibu</em></td>
<td>Holy</td>
<td>Mtakatifu</td>
<td>-u-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.21 above analyses the infixes identified in the excerpts from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. The infixes have been used to complete the syllable structure of Gikuyu which comprises a consonant and vowel. Thus where there are syllables comprising only
a consonant, then a vowel is inserted. Here a certain pattern was noted. Infix \(-i-\) seems to be added after consonants ‘g’, ‘k’ and ‘th’ whereas infix \(-u-\) comes after consonants ‘r’, ‘b’ and ‘t’.

4.6.3 Modification

4.6.3.1 Introduction.
Matthew’s (1974) explores both partial and total modification.

4.6.3.2 Partial Modification
Matthew’s (1974) gives the example: man to men as partial modification. He recognizes the fact that the possible subdivisions of partial modification are very numerous and can be profitably distinguished by phonetic as well as purely logical criteria. Matthew’s (1974) explores vowel change under partial modification.

4.6.3.3 Vowel Change
Matthew’s (1974) explains that the case of vowel change may be illustrated with a plethora of processes. These vary according to phonological features such as: short vowels, long vowels, front vowels, back vowels, diphthongs.

Table 4.22: Vowel Change in Neologisms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Lexical item</th>
<th>Donor language</th>
<th>Change from</th>
<th>Change to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tobîki</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Topîc</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ngathîti</td>
<td>Gazette</td>
<td>Gazette</td>
<td>English /Kiswahili</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4.22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kiswahili</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Thibitari</td>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Njirimani</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>u &amp; e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Mahithitria</td>
<td>Historians</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.22 above illustrates vowel change in neologisms identified from the excerpts from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. There aren’t much patterns apart from change of [e] to [í] in the words *Njirimani* and *Ngathiti*.

### 4.6.5 Conclusion On Morphological Structures

Guided by Matthew’s (1974) morphological processes, the study identified prefixation, suffixation, infixation, modification and vowel change. No cases of reduplication or suppletion were identified from the sample.

### 4.7 Evaluation of Gikuyu speakers’ knowledge of the neologisms

#### 4.7.1 Introduction

In line with the third objective, the study sought to evaluate the knowledge of the Gikuyu speakers’ with regard to the neologisms in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. This was done by use of questionnaires that were self-administered. The respondents were drawn from four universities namely: Kenyatta University, University of Nairobi, Mount Kenya University and Catholic University of Eastern Africa. The first two mentioned are public universities while the third and fourth are private universities. The respondents were lecturers in the linguistics department who are native speakers of Gikuyu language.
4.7.2 Response Rate

The study targeted a sample size of 20 key respondents. Out of the targeted 20 respondents, 15 responses were received. This represents a response rate of 75 percent that was adequate to yield reliable results.

4.7.3 Demographic Information

The demographic information of the respondents is considered very important because it gives an insight into the profile of the respondents. This section, presents information about the relevant respondents’ demographics.

Table 4.23 Demographic Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kenyatta University</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Nairobi</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mount Kenya University</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic University of Eastern Africa</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.23 above, 47% of the respondents were drawn from the public universities while 53% were drawn from private universities.
The study sought to establish the gender of the respondents. The study established that 53 percent of the respondents were female, while 47 percent were male.

The research found out that 7% of the respondents were aged between 20 -29 years, 40% aged between 30 -39 years, 33% aged between 40 -49 years, 13% aged between 50 – 59 years and 7% aged between 60 – 69 years. No respondent was above 70 years.

The research found that all the respondents grew up in a rural setup. 20% came from Murang’a county, 13% from Nyeri county,13% from Kirinyaga county, 7% from Nyandarua county and 7% from Laikipia county. 40% indicated Kenya as the county yet Kenya is a country but not a county.

53% of the respondents indicated that they are very fluent speakers of the Gikuyu language and 47% indicated that they were fluent. On the question on the perception of the level of relevance of Gikuyu language in view of communication in the modern times, 46.7% of the respondents indicated that it is very relevant, 46.75 indicated that it is fairly relevant and 7% felt that it is not relevant.

4.7.4 Opinions Of Speakers

Here, the study sought the opinions of the speakers as to whether some sampled neologisms from Ngugi wa Thion’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*, have become part of the Gikuyu vocabulary. The opinions were made with reference to a given scale. Out of the 15 respondents, percentages were calculated as illustrated in the table 4.24.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Mbuku</td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Yunibathiti</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Karibonia</td>
<td>California</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Mbetiri</td>
<td>Battery</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Múkingo</td>
<td>Aids</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Útukubu</td>
<td>Majesty</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Marubuku</td>
<td>Banned</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Matiatharendaga</td>
<td>Not surrendering</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 4.24 above, in eight of the words provided namely: mbuku, yunibathiti, mbetiri, mukingo, marubuku, matiatharendaga, karendaini and haithuru over 80% of the respondents agreed that the above named neologisms have become part of the Gikuyu language. For Karibonia, it registered 67%. Utukubu scored the least at 27%. This therefore indicates that the speakers do agree that most of the neologisms have become part of the Gikuyu language.

4.7.5 Supply Of The English Version Of Sampled Neologisms

The questionnaire contained a section with ten neologisms sampled from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. The respondents were supposed to supply the English version. The table below analyses the correct responses.

**Table 4.25 Supply Of The English Version Of Sampled Neologisms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bamírí</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Rayithi</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Arabu</td>
<td>Arabs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Thitima</td>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 4.25 above, 80% of the words had their English versions correctly supplied by numerous respondents. One of them, *rayithi*, scored a low percentage of 20%. Numerous respondents indicated that it meant ‘cheap’. There are more common terms that are near equivalents of the term president such as *muthamaki and mutongoria*, so Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) engages in co-borrowing and thus the confusion. As for the neologism, *Arabu*, many respondents mistook it for its homonym; anyway.

### 4.7.6 Writing Of Words In Gikuyu Language

This part tested the ability of the respondents to write in Gikuyu language. The study provided the gloss of sampled neologism and asked respondents to provide the Gikuyu version. The purpose was to find out whether the respondents would spell the words the way they have been spelt in Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*. 

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Kibindi</td>
<td>Programme</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Buraimari</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Bongethi</td>
<td>Congratulations</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Ngirini</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Gitekinironjiini</td>
<td>In technology</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Yaribotaga</td>
<td>Was reporting</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.26 spelling of neologisms by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Spelling</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>Thukuru</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Thekondari</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinema</td>
<td>Thenema</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stadium</td>
<td>Thitendiamu</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>Burobetha</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boredom</td>
<td>Kumboeka</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special</td>
<td>Thibethio</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagine</td>
<td>Imanjini</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientifically</td>
<td>Gicayanciini</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over the radio</td>
<td>Kamemeini</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.26 above shows how respondents scored in terms of spelling. Spelling was quite a challenge to many respondents. For instance, in the word professor, numerous respondents spelt the Gikuyu version as ‘profesa’. The Gikuyu language doesn’t use letters ‘p’, ‘f’ and ‘s’. As for scientifically, which scored the lowest, apart from gross spelling errors, many respondents had a different version from Ngugi wa Thiong’o’s (2004). 13% spelt it as ‘sayantifikari,’ 33% spelt it as ‘gisayanisi’, 20% spelt as ‘thayatificari’ while 27% didn’t attempt it.
4.7.7 Donor Language

The study sought the opinions of the respondents as to which was the donor language of the neologisms sampled. The table below summarizes the respondents’ opinions.

**Table 4.27 Donor Language**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>English %</th>
<th>Kiswahili %</th>
<th>Other language (specify) %</th>
<th>Coined %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Njicu</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7 (Hebrew)</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njanuari</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burathiki</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thota</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borithi</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terebiconi</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gitekinoronjiini</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thekondari</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mangabana</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njiongirabi</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.27 above, most of the respondents indicated English as the donor language. Kiswahili also got quite a number whereas coinage had few. There were a few instances where the respondents ticked both in the column of English and Kiswahili for the same neologism. The neologisms that registered that anomaly include: Njicu (1 respondent), Njanuari (1 respondent) and borithi (1 respondent). The three were separate respondents. The study interpreted that as a demonstration that each of the two languages had very high propabilitie of being the donor language. One respondent indicated Hebrew as the donor language for the neologism *Njicu*. This therefore shows that Gikuyu has borrowed widely from different languages but it has borrowed more from the English language.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This final chapter of the study presents an overview of the study, looks at the implications, makes conclusions, gives recommendations and suggests areas for further research.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The first objective of this study was to identify and classify neologisms in the Gikuyu language with reference to Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi Wa Kagogo*. From the sampled text, a total of 249 neologisms were identified. Nouns were 217 accounting for 87%, adjectives were 16 accounting for 6%, verbs were 11 accounting for 4% and adverbs were 5 accounting for 2%. Nouns were further classified into sub-classes namely: proper nouns eg. *Kiricitu* (Christ), *Karibonia* (California) *Njanuari* (January); concrete nouns eg *mbuku* (book) *kandi* (card); uncountable nouns eg *beturu* (petrol); abstract nouns eg *ronjiki* (logic) and collective nouns eg *mbendi* (band). Adjectives were categorized into various types namely: opinion, colour and quality. Verbs were analysed further and it was seen that they were marked for number and time. The few adverbs identified were under the types of manner and time. The study also identified other categories under different fields namely: technology eg *gütekinoronjiini* (technologically); education eg *yunibathiti* (university); politics eg *boronjo* (propaganda); geography eg *Wothitoni* (Washington) and religion eg *gategithimo* (catechism).

The second objective of this study was to analyse and discuss the morphological structures of the neologisms. The study, guided by Matthew’s (1974) morphological structures, identified the following morphological structures: affixation (prefixation, suffixation and infixation) and modification (partial modification and vowel change).
The third objective of the study was to evaluate the Gikuyu language speakers’ knowledge of the neologisms collected from Thiong’o’s (2004) *Murogi Wa Kagogo*. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to native Gikuyu speakers from four universities namely: Kenyatta University, University of Nairobi, Mount Kenya University and The Catholic University of Eastern Africa. Out of the targeted 20 respondents, 15 respondents returned the filled questionnaires. This accounted for 75% response rate deeming the study a success. Some neologisms eg *mbetiri* (battery) and *mukingo* (Aids) scored very high approval ratings both scoring 93%. *Utukubu* (majesty) scored the lowest at 27%. Respondents were also tested on the spelling of the neologisms. 100% of the respondents were able to spell *thukuru* (school) and *thenema* (cinema) the way Thiong’o does but only 7% could spell *gicayanciini* (scientifically). On the question of donor language, 100% of the respondents said that *thekondari* (secondary) has been borrowed from English and 93% respectively for *terebiconi* (television). *Njicu* (Jesus) had the highest mixed reactions with 33% saying the donor language is English, 33% saying it has been borrowed from Kiswahili, 27% saying it has been coined and 7% saying it has been borrowed from another language (Hebrew).

### 5.3 Implications

In the course of the study, various things were observed. To begin with, the main donor languages were English and Kiswahili.

For most neologisms, the respondents clearly identified which the donor language was but for others, the respondents were not clear whether the donor language was English or Kiswahili. Some respondents indicated the donor language to be both English and Kiswahili. This is most likely because Kiswahili has also borrowed a lot from English. Hence, in some cases, it was not easy to tell whether Gikuyu has borrowed from the English language directly or whether it is
Kiswahili which had initially borrowed from English and then Gikuyu later borrows from Kiswahili. It is, however, important to note that Gikuyu is a Bantu language and Kiswahili was formed from both Arabic and Bantu languages. This is why it was thus difficult for the researcher to precisely identify the origin of some of the words shared between Kiswahili and English.

All the neologisms had unique spellings though they retained close similarities to the donor languages. When asked to write in Gikuyu, the respondents had varying spelling. Some even used letters not found in the Gikuyu language. This shows that some speakers of Gikuyu are out of touch with written Gikuyu literature.

There were also words which seemed to have been coined since there was no resemblance to English, Kiswahili or any other language known to the speaker e.g. Múkingo (Aids)Ngirobu (bulb)Nduthi (motorbike)Túmeme (radios).

An interesting observation is that Thiong’o (2004) has engaged in core-borrowing. Some neologisms he uses already have equivalents in the Gikuyu language. These include words such as Mwarimú (teacher), Útukubu (majesty) Making’I (kings) Yuthi (youth). They have equivalents in the Gikuyu language namely: - múrutani, únene, athamaki and andú ethí respectively.

Thiong’o(2004) has engaged in provision of variety. There were instances where he provides two neologisms for the same concept for instance:Rayithi (president) / Raici (president),Njera (jail) / Korokoro (jail),Ríndio (radio) / Kameme (radio),Tereiní (over the telly) / Terebiconiiní (over the television),Meamubii (Mps) / Membambunge (Mps)ie members of parliament.

Respondents also had varying opinions as to whether the Gikuyu language is relevant to communication in the modern times. 46.7% indicated that it is very relevant, 46.7% indicated
that the Gikuyu language is fairly relevant and 7% felt it is irrelevant. This shows speakers have disproportionate attitudes towards the indigenous languages.

5.4 Conclusion

The study yielded two hundred and forty nine neologisms. Nouns were the majority accounting for 87%. The main donor languages are English and Kiswahili. Most of the neologisms were acquired through borrowing and a few through coinage. Various morphological structures were identified from the neologisms. It is therefore evident that Gikuyu language is productive hence depicting that the indigenous languages are growing language.

5.5 Recommendations

The researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. That more studies on neologisms be conducted not only in Gikuyu but also in other African languages.
2. That introduction of neologisms be harmonized.
3. That writers be encouraged to write more in their native languages.
4. That speakers be encouraged to read literature in their indigenous languages.
5. That neologisms be encouraged in the native African languages.

5.6 Areas for Further Study

The study of neologisms emerged to be very wide and thus too extensive if all the dimensions were to be captured. This study only focused on the morphological dimension. Therefore other areas like the phonological, syntactical and semantic dimensions would give more insights when
studied. A more detailed survey of the speakers’ perceptions and attitudes towards the neologisms would also be useful.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


MÜROGI WA KAGO

Itano tene yenyūrangirwo kiriñdi ní njicú hubururúiní cia Gariri na ikihúnia andú makiri na makiri. Mwihoko wa atí múngi ní ukuhunio keki o na hatarí thamaki ní guo watümire múcemanio úcio úkwo úguo na makiri ní arià maari ahatúririe ní kwaciokoo.

Múcemanio wambiriírie miarahe o na miaraheko, múcemanio no wathiyaga na mbere. Na río riú riari o kwara. Mwathani, Mawathiri, anene a Kíama Kíà Mwathani maari kíruruinií kíà hema, na ní maaikaráaga makiheha gia tànuwà twa o na maí ma ndigithú. No múngi waikarire ung’aríte o kung’ara na njíra írìa andú meriganagíría cia riú na yo ní kúrorà, kúbarána na kwáririríria ùrià kúrekika njúkwaíi. Tobikí iríria ciarí hiú ní ikonií mwihumbíre na múkinyúkíríre wa ndig’úri na nùú wakuhírirírie kana o kúriáhiríría Giti Kíà Únene.

Thutha wa Mwathani haari múndú úmwe wari na nútimbuko ndungu múno guokoinií kwa úmothe na kíramu kígana múturírii guokoinií kwa úrió, na tondú aaikarága akúndíkaka, andú magicíria ní wa ngathíi ho ningi makarígwó ari gegete gúkara harí andú arià aní a ngathíi ní kí! O hau hákúhe nake ní ho iní iríia iní cia Mwathani – Kucera, Moya, Soi na Rúnyenje – maíkaríte, manyuage thota no gúíri múndú útoí atí cúbainí cíó gwakoragwó na inó iní ndúrandúrus gúkíra diee drinks.

Ndokita, Wilfred Kaboca, ndágítarí wa Mwathani, aarigainíe na iní cíó na mwenainí wake haari múiritu wakíríte kí, o na ndaarágíia nake, na o wó mútúma tu wari njúkwainí. Andú meecírigíia atí no gúkòrwó ní mwarí wa Mwathani, no ningí makarígwo, kaí atararía na ariú na níina kana na ithe ní kí? Angí magecíria atí ní mútúma wa Ndokita Kaboca, no ningí makíraníire úguo ní kí?

Mwena wa Mwathani wa úríó haikare Wathíri wa Mauíí dú ma na Nja. Aari na thútú njirú ci ya ngarára na tóí ya rúúri rútune rwa Kíama Kíà Mwathani na mbica ya Mwathani. Gútiíkaka atí tene Wathíri aari múmbunge wa kawínda. No múthenyá umwe akúmbúka ngínya Randaní, Kwangerêtha, kújíia aingíírii thibííaríi nene, ti èndú wa kúwará, aca, atí, kúringa na úríía eeríre magathíí, ní getha maíthé make mathííujwo mañehiho matúuíke macho kali mahotage kuona thú cia Mwathani o na irí kúraya atíí. Maíthé make ní maanénehírio, múígana wa ngirowú
APPENDIX 2: excerpt from Thiong’o’s (2006) Murogi wa Kagogo

Ngoma cia ūnene

Yunice Immaculate Mgenzi, mútumia kīuga, mūraine na mūrūngarū, akirügama.

Ndgr tr. Yunice Immaculate Mgenzi ağiikara thī, hi cia bongethi īrīgā kīhāroininī ta ngwa.

Mwatthani aģīkūga atī nī īndū wa būrūrī kwigīta harī arakari ngōjukū a mīthēmba ya ta acio māreyīa mahīthūriya na atungi a ng’anō. Mwatthani nī aracāgūre mwaṅdīki ūcīo kari mūno, atūke mbayongiraba yake na mbayongirabi yake no īndū ümwe na Mbayongirabī ya Abūrīra. Rīu ngwenda randīko cīote būrūrīini ihingūre māitho cione njīra ya ūhōnokio.

Mūhīthūriya wakwa mwende na mwīhokēku,‘ Mwatthani akiūga. ‘Ta rūgama othe makuone mathiwrō nī ngānja.’

Mbayongiraba, Ndgr tr. Luminous Karamu-Mbu, akirügama kitāināinī kibuku na kīramu rīerāinī, aģīcōka kitāināmia mwiṁī
APPENDIX 3

List of Neologisms

Nouns

The following is a list of all the nouns identified.

1) *Míí* (month of May)
2) *Yunibathútí* (university)
3) *Nio Yoko* (New York)
4) *Karibonia* (California)
5) *Chennai* (Shanghai)
6) *Thayathi* (science)
7) *Njongirabí* (geography)
8) *Hititúrí* (history)
9) *Bamírí* (family)
10) *Njanuarí* (January)
11) *Miríniamu* (millennium)
12) *Thiorí* (theory)
13) *Mútagatibu* (holy)
14) *Rayithi* (president)
15) *Njamuhuri* (state)
16) *Mbetiri* (battery)
17) *Amerika* (America)
18) *Kúmboeka* (boredom)
19) *Timbii* (T.B.)
20) *Múkingo* (Aids)

21) *Kanja* (cancer)

22) *Baconi* (fashion)

23) *Aganga* (witch doctors)

24) *Mangavana* (governors)

25) *Mathurutani* (Sultans)

26) *Arabu* (Arabs)

27) *Aturuki* (Turkish)

28) *Matariani* (Italians)

29) *Ngeretha* (England)

30) *Múkoronia* (colonizer)

31) *Rakeri* (Rachael)

32) *Making'I* (kings)

33) *Marondi* (Lords)

34) *Ruraya* (abroad)

35) *Neti* (net)

36) *Thitima* (electricity)

37) *Nabukini* (napkin)

38) *Pawa* (power)

39) *Thukuru* (school)

40) *Karendra* (calendar)

41) *Kandi* (card)

42) *Terebíconi* (television)
43) Ríndio (radio)
44) Kíbindi (programme)
45) Mbica (picture)
46) Rumu (room)
47) Kínanda (record player)
48) Raúndithibika (loud-speaker)
49) Tiuni (tune)
50) Buremu (flame\reel)
51) Thenema (cinema)
52) Mwarimú (teacher)
53) Kingeretha (English)
54) Bathi (pass)
55) Manjeci (army)
56) Ngáthí (ladder)
57) Njenúrá (general)
58) Kabuteni (captain)
59) Makambuni (companies)
60) Betúrú (petrol)
61) Kabiacara (small business)
62) Raithenithi (licence)
63) Riyunioni (re-union)
64) Thimú (telephone)
65) Taimu (time)
66) *Mundi* (mood)
67) *Thirikari* (government)
68) *Taiba* (nation)
69) *Gathigathini* (north)
70) *Guthini* (south)
71) *Thiring'i* (ceiling)
72) *Mithiamu* (museum)
73) *Riburinji* (refrigerator)
74) *Kirauni* (crown)
75) *Ronjiki* (logic)
76) *Mbunge* (parliament)
77) *Nuguta* (second)
78) *Mbucara* (integrity)
79) *Ndithemba* (December)
80) *Njura* (July)
81) *King'i* (king)
82) *Ronjiki* (logic)
83) *Raiya* (civilians)
84) *Thitündiamu* (stadium)
85) *Njícú* (Jesus)
86) *Kwaciokoo* (kwashiorkor)
87) *Mawathiri* (ministers)
88) *Hema* (tent)
89) Tobiki (topic)
90) Nútimbuku (notebook)
91) Ngathíti (gazette)
92) Thota (soda)
93) Ndokita (doctor)
94) Thuuti (suit)
95) Tai (tie)
96) Randani (London)
97) Ngirobu (bulb)
98) Kagooti (small coat)
99) Baríthi (palace)
100) Borithi (police)
101) Maemubii (Mps)
102) Mbarini (Berlin)
103) Miritarí (military)
104) Mbendi (band)
105) Njera (jail)
106) Memba (member)
107) Ngoroba (storey)
108) Kobí (copy)
109) Bathitora (pistol)
110) Mining'I (meaning)
111) Raici (president)
112) *Ithiraíri* (Israel)
113) *Mbamberi* (Babel)
114) *Mbinandamu* (human being)
115) *Membambunge* (Members of parliament)
116) *Ngirabu* (graph)
117) *Hotumba* (speech)
118) *Mbambíroni* (Babylon)
119) *Bíramíndi* (pyramid)
120) *Mithiri* (Egypt)
121) *Caina* (China)
122) *Thubawanda* (superwonder)
123) *Mamboreo* (current affairs)
124) *Thigari* (police officers)
125) *Gíthwaíri* (Kiswahili)
126) *Burani* (plan)
127) *Ngúrúndi* (gold)
128) *Ndayamondi* (diamond)
129) *Míceni* (mission)
130) *Bengi* (bank)
131) *Ngirúmbu* (globe)
132) *Minícitírí* (ministry)
133) *Ngubu* (power)
134) *Taiga* (tiger)
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<td>Abiya</td>
<td>health</td>
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<td>137</td>
<td>Múhithitúria</td>
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<td>Njírímani</td>
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<td>(neighbor)</td>
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<td>Thumu</td>
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<td>153</td>
<td>Bindio</td>
<td>(video)</td>
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<td>154</td>
<td>Thekiuríti</td>
<td>(security)</td>
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<td>155</td>
<td>Terí</td>
<td>(telly; television)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>156</td>
<td>Ndurama</td>
<td>(drama)</td>
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<tr>
<td>157</td>
<td>Boronjo</td>
<td>(propaganda)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
158) Yuthi (youth)
159) Yuthiw'ing'a (youth-winger)
160) Wanjimbu (obligation)
161) Gategethimo (catechism)
162) Waning'i (warning)
163) Burathiki (plastic)
164) Tibii (television)
165) Njumabiri (Sunday)
166) Gathindúrú (cathedral)
167) Mbangiraúndi (background)
168) Terebíconi (television)
169) Mbicobu (bishop)
170) Gathoro (problem)
171) Thengiú (thank you)
172) Maribota (reporters)
173) Túmeme (radios)
174) Maiki (mic; microphone)
175) Múrorongo (queue)
176) Nduthi (motorbike)
177) Mítoka (motorcars)
178) Hithitúrí (history)
179) Rüithirúithi (Rolls Royce)
180) Múthitari (line)
181) Mathindithi (Mercedes)
182) Kamera (camera)
183) Rumu (room)
184) Hothana (hosanna)
185) Muthimamo (stand; principles)
186) Mbahati (luck)
187) Kanjú (council)
188) Riboti (report)
189) Korathi (chorus)
190) Mbicobu (bishop)
191) Cabuta (chapter)
192) Kiricitú (Christ)
193) Atarii (tourists)
194) Túmacacari (mischevious people)
195) Ruthiba (Lucifer)
196) Njenúrá (general)
197) Ndígirii (degree)
198) Makatoni (cartons)
199) Makiothiki (kiosks)
200) Mathubamaketi (supermarkets)
201) Kamera (camera)
202) Mbaimbú (bible)
203) Bikira (thoughts)
204) Mataúni (towns)
205) Mathikirebu (scrap)
206) Kongírigiti (concrete)
207) Mabagitorí (factories)
208) Mburaríbuu (bloody fool)
209) Bithi (fees)
210) Korenji (college)
211) Tiriki (trick)
212) Boronjo (propaganda)
213) Mwínjoyo (enjoyment)
214) Bongethi (congratulations)
215) Útukubu (majesty)
216) Húmwaka (homework)
217) Mbuku (book)

**Adjectives**

The following is a list of the neologisms identified that fall under the word class of adjectives.

1. *Hurú* (free)
2. *Kíndayamondi* (diamond-like)
3. *Únjiniaciíní* (in a genius manner)
4. *Otomatíki* (automatic)
5. *Buraimarí* (primary)
6. *Thibecó* (special)
7. *Thekondarí* (secondary)

8. *Rathimi* (formal)

9. *Abiya* (healthy)

10. *Reboriuconarí* (revolutionary)

11. *Bongethi* (congratulations)

12. *Randiko* (radical)

13. *Thubanathura* (supernatural)

14. *Útukubu* (majesty)

15. *Baní* (funny)

16. *Ngirini* (green)

**Prepositional phrases**

The following is a list of the neologisms identified as prepositional phrases:

1. *Konainí* (at the corner)

2. *Kíbindiiní* (in the programme)

3. *Terebiconiiní* (over the television)

4. *Notiiní* (in the currency note)

5. *Nugutainí* (in a second)

6. *Tereiní* (over the telly)

7. *Kamerainí* (in the camera)

8. *Kamemeiní* (over the radio)

9. *Mbúndiiní* (in the board)

10. *Cambainí* (in the shamba{garden}
11. Hekarúiní (in the temple)
12. Korokoroiní (in jail)
13. Karendainí (in the calendar)
14. Njukwainí (at the dais/platform)
15. Wabiciiní (in the office)
16. Kwabaranja (at France)
17. Gicukainí (in the sheet of cloth)
18. Hititúrinií (in history)
19. Úrimwenguinií (in the world)
20. Bínjiiní (in the page)
21. Mbanjiiní (in the badge)
22. Kanithainí (in the church)
23. Thikiriniinií (in the screen)
24. Mamothikiiní (in mosques)
25. Thunagogiiní (in synagogues)
26. Ngurundwarainicamakarathing’a (in Hindu temples)
27. Macambainí (in gardens)
28. Magotiní (in courts)
29. Momborethiiní (in condolence gatherings)
30. Barandainí (in the verandah)

Verbs

The following is a list of the neologisms identified that fall under the word class of verbs:

1. Athimairité (while smiling)
2. *Túmanjini* (lets imagine)
3. *Wathitimwo* (has been electrocuted)
4. *Yaribotaga* (was reporting)
5. *Marubuku* (banned)
6. *Kúngamúkono* (support)
7. *Mabumbúra* (realized)
8. *Matiatharendaga* (were not surrendering)
9. *Macarenjwo* (got challenged)
10. *Makiyíbaa* (they put on)
11. *Akíburithi* (froze)

**Adverbs**

The following is a list of the neologism identified that fall under the word class of adverbs.

1. *Ndaimanamírere* (forever and ever)
2. *Haíthuru* (anyway)
3. *Binabuthi* (personally)
4. *Gítekinoronjíiní* (technologically)
5. *Gíthayathiintí* (scientifically)
APPENDIX 4: Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE


The aim of this study is to evaluate whether the native speakers of Gikuyu are familiar with the neologisms that have been picked from Ngugi Wa Thiongo’s’ (2004) *Murogi wa Kagogo*

THIS IS IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

RESEARCHER: MWANIKI ALVIN

C50/CE/11119/06

Please attempt all the questions to the best of your ability.

PART A

Name: (optional)……………………………

Please tick in the relevant blank space.

1. Sex: male…………. Female………………..

2. Age bracket: below 20 years……………
   a) Between 20 – 29 years……………
   b) Between 30 -39 years………………
   c) Between 40 -49 years………………
   d) Between 50 – 59 years………………
   e) Between 60 -69 years………………
   f) Above 70 years………………………
PART B

3. Which setup did you grow up in? Rural [ ] urban [ ]

4. Which county did you grow up in………………………………………..

5. How do you rate your fluency of the Gikuyu language?
   Very fluent [ ]
   Fluent [ ]
   Not fluent [ ]

6. How do you perceive the Gikuyu language with regard to relevance to communication in the modern times?
   Very relevant [ ]
   Fairy relevant [ ]
   Irrelevant [ ]

7. Please tick against the box that best describes your feelings as to whether the following words have become part of the Gikuyu language vocabulary.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Neologism</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k) Mbuku</td>
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<td>l) Yunibathiti</td>
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<td>m) Karibonia</td>
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<td>n) Mbetiri</td>
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<td>o) Múkingo</td>
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<td>p) Útukubu</td>
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<td>q) Marubuku</td>
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<td>r) Matiatharendaga</td>
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<td>s) Karendainí</td>
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<td>t) Haithuru</td>
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</table>

8. In the words below, please supply the English version

- a) Bamírí………………………………………
- b) Rayithi………………………………………
- c) Arabu………………………………………
- d) Thitima……………………………………
- e) Kíbindi……………………………………
- f) Buraimarí…………………………………
- g) Bongethi…………………………………
- h) Ngirini……………………………………
- i) Gitekinorinjiiní……………………………
j) Yaribotaga ……………………………………………..

9. How would you write the following words in Gikuyu language

a) School…………………………………………………………

b) Secondary ……………………………………………………..

c) Cinema………………………………………………………

d) Stadium……………………………………………………

e) Professor………………………………………………………

f) Boredom……………………………………………………

g) Special………………………………………………………

h) Imagine……………………………………………………

i) Scientifically………………………………………………

j) Over the radio………………………………………………..

10. In your opinion, please indicate whether the following words have been borrowed from English, Kiswahili, any other language or coined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kiswahili</th>
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<td>Thota</td>
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<td>Terebiconi</td>
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<td>Njiongirabi</td>
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Thank you for your participation.