

## 5 Grammatical structures

The focus of the present work is the lexicon of Kenyang. However, it is impossible to discuss the lexicon without looking at some of the morphosyntactic structures.

### 5.1 Syntactic structures

Kenyang is a noun class language with a subject, verb and object (SVO) word order. Simple sentence structures are shown below:

(4) Ató           mmo       annywóp  
he send child to house

*'He sent the child to the house'*

Mmá           ākò           nnye  
mother       she climb hill

*'Mother is climbing a hill'*

The noun phrase may consist of a noun as head, followed by modifiers such as adjectives and/or determiners. Adjectives in Kenyang are relatively few in number; most are realised in Kenyang with a separate stative clause (e.g. 'the stone is hard' or 'the stone which is hard', as opposed to the hard stone'). Nevertheless, there are true adjectives for the semantic fields of numbers and colours (see 5.5). Noun phrases may also consist of NP-NP constructions in which the first NP 'possesses' the second NP. In Kenyang just as in many Niger-Congo languages, this construction is marked by an associative marker (often only tonal) between the possessor and the possessed. The tone may be H or L. Typical noun phrases are as follows:

(5)

N	+	adj
bətək		bépay
villages	AM	two
<i>'two villages'</i>		

N	+	N
ete	é	nnok
pot	AM	soup
<i>'a pot of soup'</i>		

## 5.2 Noun

### 5.2.1 Noun classes

Nouns can be divided into several groups or 'classes' which are distinguished by their prefixes. These classes are numbered according to the system used in all studies of Bantu languages. The class of each Kenyang noun with its corresponding plural

is shown in the lexicon, for example **aŋwa** 'cat' belongs to class 3 and its plural form **baŋwa** belongs to class 6. This is indicated by (n 3/6) after the noun. Some nouns belong to the plural class only. In the lexicon, a noun will be found in the lexicon under its singular form with its appropriate prefix [e.g. the word for chief is listed under **mfɔ** and not under **fɔ** (the noun root) and not under **bafɔ** (plural form)].

Here is a list of noun classes with their prefixes and examples:

(6)

Singular		Plural	
class 1 N-		class 2 ba-	
<b>mfɔ</b>	'chief'	<b>bafɔ</b>	'chiefs'
<b>nnɔ</b>	'mother'	<b>manɔ</b>	'mothers'

(7)

class 3 a-		class 6 ba-	
<b>aŋwa</b>	'cat'	<b>baŋwa</b>	'cats'
<b>atá</b>	'cheek'	<b>batá</b>	'cheeks'

(8)

class 5 nɛ- n-		class 6 ba-	
<b>nepém</b>	'life'	<b>bapém</b>	'lives'
<b>ntɔŋ</b>	'teacher'	<b>batɔŋ</b>	'teachers'

(9)

class 6a ma-  
**manoŋ** 'blood'  
**manyep** 'water'

10)

class 7 ɛ-  
**etək** 'village'  
**ɛswə** 'ant'

class 8 be-  
**bətək** 'villages'  
**bəswə** 'ants'

(11)

class 9 N-  
**nkək** 'fowl'  
**mmén** 'goat'

class 10 N-  
**nkək** 'fowls'  
**mmén** 'goats'

(12)

class 19 se-  
**sək wəp** 'spoon'  
**sənəŋ** 'iron'

class 13 ke-  
**kək wəp** 'spoons'  
**kənəŋ** 'irons'

There is a morphophonemic alternation between the stop /b/ and the nasal /m/. When prefixes having the form /ba-/ or /be-/ precede a morpheme that begins with a nasal consonant, the prefixes become nasalised. Here are a few examples below:

(13)

**bawet** 'oil' (cl.6a)

**batɨ** 'friends' (cl.6)

**betɨk** 'villages' (cl.8)

**maɥyep** 'water' (cl.6a)

**maɥém** 'husbands' (cl.6)

**mɛɥək** 'sticks' (cl.8)

The merger between formerly distinct mV- and bV- prefixes by a general phonological rule makes it difficult to know the original shape of the nominal prefix of class 6. Vowel-initial stems show, however, irregularities which strongly suggest a nasal noun prefix in class 6:

(14)

**awó / amó** 'hand, arm' (cl.3/6)

**nnyésé / amɨk** 'eye' (cl.5/6)

**nényén / ámén** 'tooth' (cl.5/6)

**nébhɨ / ámɨ** 'breast' (cl.5/6)

### **5.3 Derived nouns**

Derivational processes are limited in Kenyang. The formation of a gerund-type verbal noun are from the verb and the formation of an agent are also from the verb. The gerund is formed by adjoining to almost any verb stem - transitive or intransitive - the noun class class prefix **ne-**. Thus, we derive forms such as the following:

(15)

<b>diŋ</b>	'pound'	<b>nediŋ</b>	'pounding'
<b>tóŋ</b>	'teach'	<b>netóŋ</b>	'teaching'
<b>rem</b>	'say'	<b>nerem</b>	'saying'
<b>dók</b>	'jump'	<b>nedók</b>	'jumping'

## 5.4 Pronouns

Kenyang has two types of pronouns which are worthy of note: independent and possessive pronouns. Independent pronouns are those which may stand alone (e.g. in answer to a question such as what? or who?). Possessive pronouns are those which make reference to nouns that 'possess' other (following) nouns. The following chart sets out these pronouns:

(16)

	SING.		PLURAL	
	Indep.	Poss.	Indep.	Poss.
1st person	mme	eya	besé	eyesé
2nd person	wɔ	eye	beka	eyeka
3rd person	yí/yó	eyi	bó	eyap

## 5.5 Adjectives

Almost all adjectives in Kenyang are derived forms. Most of them are derived from verbs. Adjectives are marked by a prefix which is governed by the noun class of the noun it qualifies. Adjectives are very few in Kenyang. In the lexicon they are represented with the prefix *ε-*

(17)

cl 7	erítí beautiful	eket house	'a beautiful house'
cl 8	berítí beautiful	beket houses	'beautiful houses'
cl 7	ebéptí bad	epiŋ habit	'a bad habit'
cl 8	bebéptí bad	bepiŋ habits	'bad habits'
cl 7	esaptí long	enək stick	'a long stick'
cl 8	besaptí long	menək sticks	'long sticks'

## 6 Word Division

Articles, negation, tense markers, and modal auxiliaries were written separately in the 1990 orthography as they are in English and no attempt was made to determine the orthographic word in Kenyang from the native speakers point of view. Certain problems arose as to whether particular word-like units had the status of a word or not.

Linguists such as Robins (1980), Lyons (1968), and Mathews (1974) as discussed in Roberts (1991/92), have distinguished three main senses of the term ‘word’. Firstly, there is the phonological word also called the “word form.” The boundaries of the phonological word are based on the phonological criteria like stress placement, etc. Roberts (1991/92) went further to say that these linguists would identify the orthographic word with the phonological word since both are physical objective realisations. Secondly, there is the grammatical or morphosyntactic word. Thirdly, there is the lexeme. The lexeme is an abstract unit which refers to the common or base form of the word. Those word definitions that rely on non-formal extragrammatical criteria such as ‘possessing a single meaning’ or ‘conveying a single idea’ are of little value. In the case of deciding the orthographic word in Kenyang, we discovered that where the phonological and morphosyntactic criteria all converged, there was no difficulty in defining the orthographic word, but where these criteria did not converge, it was normally the semantic criteria that defined the orthographic word. In the old orthography, the subject prefix, the future tense marker, the hortative mood and the negative marker were written separately. In the new orthography, “clitic type” words are written together with the word they are attached to. Compare the following examples in the new and old orthography.

(18)

Old orthography	New orthography	Gloss
Ǻ chŋ twó	Achŋ twó	‘he will come’



Má ní nê mmɔ	Mánne mmɔ	‘let them feed the child’
Bá bhíkí twó éyú	Bábhíkí twó éyú	‘they did not come yesterday’
Sé ní dók ɛɔk	Séndók ɛɔk	‘let us go to the village’
Mankɔ bá pú fâ	Mankɔ bápú fa	‘There are no strangers here’

## **6.1 Compound Nouns**

In compound nouns, syntactic criteria determine whether or not certain stem sequences in a noun phrase function as a unit. In some compound nouns, all the morphemes are identifiable while in others, one or more of the morphemes is not identifiable.

Examples are illustrated in §4.1.1 and 4.1.2. In the orthography, the components of all compound nouns are separated by hyphens. We now look at several types:

### **6.1.1 Noun Noun Sequences**

The second major type of compound nouns we will look at are noun noun sequences, in which the second noun is attributive.

The following syntactic criteria helps to identify the noun noun construction in Kenyang:

- the absence of an associative marker,
- the presence of an unusual associative (genitive) marker between the two nouns.

In the orthography, those that do not take an associative marker are separated by a hyphen between the two nouns. Here are some examples:

(19)

<b>ebhá</b> 'fence'	<b>manyé</b> 'case'	<b>ebhá-manyé</b>	'courtyard'
<b>ebháǵá</b> 'sacrifice'	<b>nkək</b> 'fowl'	<b>ebháǵá-nkək</b>	'rooster'
<b>nchye</b> 'giver'	<b>esəŋəri</b> 'trouble'	<b>nchye-esəŋəri</b>	'nuisance'
<b>emi</b> 'neck'	<b>awó</b> 'hand'	<b>emi-awó</b>	'wrist'

Compound nouns that take an associative marker in the orthography are as follows:

(20)

<b>enək</b> 'stick'	<b>kefə</b> 'chiefdom'	<b>enəkó-kefə</b>	'throne'
<b>mpəŋ</b> 'cow'	<b>ndfɪk</b> 'whiteman'	<b>mpəŋə-ndfɪk</b>	'horse'
<b>nden</b> 'cloth'	<b>bəkók</b> 'bed'	<b>ndené-bəkók</b>	'sheet'
<b>amaŋ</b> 'kernel'	<b>nebu</b> 'sky'	<b>amaŋá-nebu</b>	'hail stone'

### 6.1.2 Non-identifiable Forms

There are a number of compound nouns for which one of the roots is not identifiable in isolation. It is possible that some of these forms are borrowed from neighbouring languages. In the orthography, the identifiable nouns and those not identifiable are separated by hyphens.

(21)

<b>ághónɔ</b> 'meaningless'	<b>mmén</b> 'goat'	<b>ághónɔ-mmén</b>	'sheep'
<b>amaŋ</b> 'kernel'	<b>kárará</b> 'meaningless'	<b>amaŋ-kárará</b>	'coconut'
<b>ékwá</b> 'plantain'	<b>nsuré</b> 'meaningless'	<b>ékwá-nsuré</b>	'banana'

For environments in which there is an associative marker, the associative marker is written together with the first noun and a hyphen appears between the associative marker and the second noun. Here are some examples:

(22)

<b>bhák</b> 'to be'	<b>menwɔp</b> 'heavy'	<b>bháká-menwɔp</b>	'important'
<b>enyiŋ</b> 'thing'	<b>bet</b> 'meaningless'	<b>enyiŋí-bet</b>	'weapon'

<b>mbok</b> 'hole'	<b>bache</b> 'urine'	<b>mbokó-bache</b>	'seminal canal'
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### 6.1.3 Reduplication

Reduplication has a range of forms and functions in Kenyang. There are situations where reduplication is derivational and in that case, a new word is formed. In the orthography, reduplicated words are separated by a hyphen:

(23)

<b>áyák</b>	'quick'	<b>áyák-áyák</b>	'very quickly'
<b>bíńfírí</b>	'round'	<b>bíńfírí-bíńfírí</b>	'become round'
<b>chu</b>	'red'	<b>chu-chu</b>	'flower'
<b>esa</b>	'twenty'	<b>esa-esa</b>	'four hundred'
<b>peti</b>	'soft'	<b>peti-peti</b>	'very soft'
<b>ntí</b>	'head'	<b>ntí-ntí</b>	'bony'
<b>mme</b>	'I'	<b>mme-mme</b>	'alone'
<b>ngó</b>	'fire'	<b>ngó-ngó</b>	'full of fire'

## 6.2 Verb Phrase

In Kenyang, the most free form of the verb is the imperative. The imperative is thus taken as the citation form of the verb in this study. The verb in Kenyang does not have a prefix or a suffix in its citation or basic form. The verb root in Kenyang is either monosyllabic, disyllabic or trisyllabic.

Kenyang distinguishes four tenses, namely, near past, far past, future certain and future uncertain and four aspect markers, namely, present perfective, present imperfective, present habitual, and the progressive. In the orthography, if the tense and aspect markers occur after the verb, they are written as separate words, but if they occur before the verb, they are written together with the subject prefix.

### 6.2.1 Tenses

The verb *twə* 'come' is used to illustrate the tense system. The various tenses are used for illustration as seen below:

(24)

Near past	<b>atwə mbú</b>	'He came (before two days ago.)
Far past	<b>atwə nyáká</b>	'He came' (a long time ago.)

Future (certainty)	<b>ǎchɔŋ twó</b>	'He will come'
Future (uncertainty)	<b>amay twó</b>	'He may come.'

### 6.2.1 Aspect

There follows a list of aspects with the present tense of the verb **twə** 'come' which are demonstrated below:

(25)

Present perfective:	<b>atwɔ</b>	'He has come'
Present imperfective:	<b>atwó</b>	'He came'
Present habitual:	<b>ǎtwə nɔkɔ</b>	'He usually comes'
Present continuous:	<b>ǎtwə̀</b>	'He is coming'

### 6.3 Infinitive

Kenyang has two main prefixes, **bé-** or **mé-** attached to the verb root. In the orthography, they are written as a single word:

(26)

Linguistic Forms	Orthography Forms	Gloss
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mé-nísi	<b>ménísi</b>	‘to refuse’
bé-‘pá	<b>bépá</b>	‘to spit’
bé-tô	<b>béto</b>	‘to throw’
mé-nyókoti	<b>ményókoti</b>	‘to gather’

### 6.3.1 Negation

There are three types of negation in Kenyang. *Pú* marks negation in the present and future tenses, *ke* marks negation in the hortative mood, and *bhíkí* marks negation in the past tense. In the orthography, both the negative marker and the subject are represented as one word. Here are some examples:

(27)

Linguistic Forms	Orthography Forms	Gloss
à-pú-‘twó he neg. come	<b>Apú twó</b>	‘he is not coming’
à-pú-chòŋ-twó he neg. fut. come	<b>Apú chòŋ twó</b>	‘he will not come’

**Bhíkí** marks negation in the past tense. Here are some examples:

(28)

Linguistic Forms	Orthography Forms	Gloss
à-bhíkí-nyé he neg. eat	<b>Abhíkí nyé</b>	'he did not eat'
bá-bhíkí-nyé they neg. walk	<b>Bábhíkí kə</b>	'they did not walk'

*Kɛ* marks negation in the hortative mood. Some examples exemplify this:

(29)

Linguistic Forms	Orthography Forms	Gloss
á-ké-twó he neg. come	<b>Áké twó</b>	'he should not come'
bá-ké-mò they neg. try	<b>Báké mɔ</b>	'they should not try'

#### **6.4 Conjunctions and Subordinators**

The conjunctions *nɛ* and *kɛ* join equivalent structures. In the orthography, they are written as separate words.

(30)

Linguistic Forms	Orthography Forms	Gloss
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<b>ne</b>	ɲkɔk nè ñsi fowl and fish	<b>nkɔk ne nsi</b>	'fowl and fish'
	ntà nè èkàtì cap and book	<b>nta ne ekàti</b>	'cap and book'
<b>ke</b>	à-twó kè à-nyé he came then he ate	<b>Atwó ke anyé</b>	'he came then he ate'

Subordinators link dependent and independent clauses. There are two types of subordinators, namely, subordinating conjunctions and subordinating adverbs. The subordinating conjunctions in Kenyang are: *mpok* 'when', *mbák* 'if', *kpáte* 'until, and *bé* 'that'.

Subordinating adverbs include: *Ke* 'however', *yenɔ* 'nevertheless'. Subordinating adverbs are always followed by a comma.

(31)

<b>Ke, bápú twó mbwóré</b>	'however, they will not come tomorrow.'
<b>Ye-nɔ, mfo áchɔɲ twó</b>	'Nevertheless, the chief will come'
<b>Achwe amem eket mpok bátwó</b>	'he entered the house when they came'.
<b>Arem bé mándók esyé</b>	'he says that they should go to the market'

**Mmeyáj riŋi mbák yí achí  
annywóp**

‘I want to know whether  
he is at home’

**Áchəŋ chəkə fa kpáte mántwó.**

‘he will be here until they  
come’.

## **6.5 Serial Verbs**

Like many African languages, Kenyang has what is often called a “serial verb construction.” Serial verbs are a complex verbal construction in which two or more independent constructions of the same type occur in special ways:

(32)

**Áchəŋ rəŋ esyé béku nnya** ‘He will go to the market to buy  
meat’

**Arək etək aku nta** ‘He went to town and bought a  
hat’

**Afyé nden béso amem erongá** ‘He put clothes to wash in the  
bucket’

## **7. Punctuation and Capitalisation**

All newly designed orthographies include punctuation marks. In most cases, no efforts have been made to teach the functions and significance of each punctuation mark. The reason is that they are regarded to be universal. Gleason (1955:432) remarks

that “people do not expect to find differences in punctuation from language to language.”

The aim of this section is to find out the relevant punctuation marks in Kenyang. Hockett (1958:548) and other orthography reformers have questioned the relevance of several punctuation marks and styling conventions in new orthographies. Attempts have been made for centuries by other reformers to change punctuation marks by orthography reformers. Editors of *Webster's American Style Manual* “do not share this view. According to them, “punctuation marks are used in English writing to help clarify the structure and meaning of sentences...to an even greater degree, however, punctuation marks serve to clarify structure and meaning by virtue of the fact that they conventionally accompany certain grammatical elements in a sentence, no matter how those elements might be spoken. In many cases, the relationship between punctuation and grammatical structure is such that the choice of which mark of punctuation to use in a sentence is clear and unambiguous.” (Morse 1985:1).

If punctuation is relevant in speech as suggested in the above quotation, and if some styling conventions are syntactically significant, it means that they must be represented in all orthographies. Mundhenk (1981:228) cautions that “we should not introduce punctuations that are not needed in a language.” Koffi (1995:3) argues that “for newly written languages, only six punctuation marks (the comma, the full stop, the colon, the quotation mark, and the exclamation mark) are really needed from the beginning.” According to him, the above six punctuatins are needed because they play important roles in written discourse. Moreover, they have semantic and syntactic correspondents with orality. If we could get Koffi right, it

means that there will be a time when other conventions will be introduced in the language as it develops. The question that one will definitely ask is when will other punctuation marks be introduced in our orthographies? The ultimate solution is that once a language is being developed, the first six punctuation marks should be introduced and the other ones be gradually introduced when a corpus of literature has been published in the language. It is not a matter of introducing the first six punctuation marks and allow the others to take care of themselves.

We now look at the conventions for sentence punctuation. The rules that govern sentence punctuation in Kenyang are the same as those for English. The punctuation marks used for Kenyang are as follows:

- 1) Full stop (.)
- 2) Question mark (?)
- 3) Exclamation mark (!)
- 4) Comma (,)
- 5) Colon (:)
- 6) Semicolon (;)
- 7) Quotation mark (“”)
- 8) Ellipsis (...)

## **7.1 Full Stop**

The full stop (.) in Kenyang marks the end of a declarative sentence:

(33)

**Arəŋ ɛsyé.**

he go market

*He has gone to the market.*

**Bákò ne beka**

they walk with foot

*They are walking on foot.*

**Tambe átwò mbwóré.**

Tambe he come tomorrow

*Tambe is coming tomorrow.*

## **7.2 Question Mark**

The use of question marks in newly designed orthographies is highly debated among specialists. Some advocate the use of question marks at the end of sentences as is the case in European languages. Others remark that for some languages, it is better to place the question mark at the beginning of interrogative sentences. Some others suggest that they should be placed at the beginning and end of interrogative sentences as is done in Spanish. In Spanish, the initial question mark is written upside down. Before we reject or accept these proposals, it is good to consider them more keenly. In **Kenyang**, however, the question mark (?) marks the end of an interrogative sentence. Here is an example:

(34)

**Báchwe fá?**  
they enter where  
*Where did they enter?*

**Mányi aku yi esyé?**  
Manyi she buy Pst what market  
*Manyi bought what in the market?*

**Abhíkí so ndene?**  
he/she not Pst wash clothes  
*He/She did not wash clothes?*

### 7.3 Exclamation Mark

The exclamation mark (!) appears, either at the end of a sentence as in (a) or following exclamatory words or phrases, as in (b).

(35)

**Dók!**  
go (imp.)  
*Go!*

**Aké twó!**  
he not come  
*He should not come!*

**Báké mɔ!**  
they not try  
*They should not try.*

(b) **Chá!** expresses negative surprise, especially when one is accused of doing something of which he is unaware. If there is an exclamation in the middle of a sentence, it note that the word which follows the exclamation sign begins with a capital letter.

(36)

**Nkwáne! Pú ngátí mbú wɔ?**  
Exc not I tell pst you  
*Nkwáne! (expresses a call to attention) Did I not tell you?*

## 7.4 Comma

Commas are used to indicate where a pause occurs naturally in speech. Even in oral communication, pauses occur in certain grammatical units such as conjunctive adverbs. The orthography should take note about such pauses in a written text and apply a coma. In Kenyang, the comma (,) serves several purposes:

### 7.4.1 Words and Phrases

Commas set off conjunctive adverbs that qualify or change the emphasis of a sentence.

(37)

**Ke, mfə apú chəŋ twó.**  
however chief he not fut. come  
*However, the chief will not come.*

**Ke, abhíkí fwét nemə.**  
yet he/she not Pst pass exam  
*Yet he/she did not pass her exams.*

Commas also set off contrasting words and phrases, no matter where they occur in a sentence.

(38)

**Tambi, pú Tambe, ke ágú annyén.**  
Tambi not Tambe that he die at water  
*It was Tambi, not Tambe, that died in the stream.*

#### 7.4.2 Clauses

Commas set off the following clauses:

- Co-ordinate clauses
- Relative clauses
- Adverbial clauses



## Commas in co-ordinate clauses:

-Commas set off co-ordinate clauses:

(39)

**Besépú chọkọ fa, séchọkọ chí awu.**  
we not stay here we stay focus there  
*We do not live here, we live over there.*

**Manyep ǎkwén echọ, ne amay kwén mbwóré.**  
water it fall today and it cond fall tomorrow  
*It is raining today, and it might rain tomorrow.*

-Commas set off co-ordinate adjectives:

(40)

**Acha mamýé esa, abhak chu, ne asap.**  
he surpass years twenty he be red and he tall  
*He is more than twenty years old, red in colour, and tall.*

## Commas in relative clauses:

Commas set off relative clauses:

(41)

**Mmu anẹ, átwó fa éyú, ǎmè.**  
person who he come here yesterday he sick  
*The man, who came here yesterday, is sick.*

**Bo abhén, básín ekáti eyo, bápú fa.**  
people who they write book that they not here  
*The people, who wrote that book, are not here.*

(42)

**Eket ené, ngó éri**  
house which I see pst it good  
*The house, which I saw, is good.*

**Etok ené, íchókó, chí Tali.**  
village where stay Pst Foc. Tali  
*The village, where I stayed, was Tali.*

### Commas in adverbial Clauses:

Opening adverbial clauses are set off by a comma:

(43)

**Mpok ségháká Ndekway, Tambi ne Tanyi**  
when we arrive Pst Ndekwai Tambi and Tanyi  
*When we arrived Ndekwai, Tambi and Tanyi*

**bárök annyén.**  
they go Pst to stream  
*went to the stream.*

b) After a spatio-temporal location *tentep nyáká* (formerly),

(44)

**Tentep nyáká, nnya échí nyáká kemwere.**  
formerly pst animals it foc pst friendship  
*Formerly, animals were friends.*

c) After *nkwó* (also) at the beginning of a sentence, and

(45)

**Nkwó, mpok básó nden, báchye bó nenyé**  
also when they wash pst clothes they give pst them food  
*Also, when they had finished washing clothes, they gave  
them food.*

d) After *nnywɔp enénfú* (one day).

(46)

**Nnywɔp enénfú, Tambe arɔk Kentémé.**  
day certain Tambe he go hunting  
*One day, Tambe went hunting.*

## 7.5 Colon and Semicolon

In *Webster's Standard American Style Manual*, it is argued that a colon (:) introduces clauses that explains, illustrates, or restates what has gone before. It is also used in dialogues or

follows a brief heading or an introductory term. In the following example, colons are used in conversations between Tambi and Tambe:

(47)

Tambi: ɔfu fa?	‘Where are you from?’
Tambe: Mfu etok.	‘I am from the town.’
Tambi: ɔku yi?	‘What did you buy?’
Tambe: Nku nsi, nnya ne báyá	‘I bought fish,beef,and pepper’

The semicolon, on the other hand, pulls related sentences together. Here are examples with a semicolon:

**When it pivots a contrast**

(47)

**Ku betik mpok betik; ntok mpok ntok**

do work time work play time play

*Work when it is time to work; play when it is time to play.*

**Between related independent clauses when the connection is omitted**

(48)

**Aná erítí nenyé éyú;**

**ené echon éri échá**

he cook pst good food yesterday one today it good it surpass

*He prepared a nice meal yesterday; the one today is better.*

Aku ékwá éyú; echọ́n aku menyaka.  
he/she plantain yesterday today he/she buy yams  
*He/she bought plantain yesterday; today he/she bought yams.*

## 7.6 Quotation Marks

Quotation marks (“”) occur at the beginning and end of quotations. It has been argued that quotation marks are not needed in African languages because some of them already have quotative markers. Though this is true, these quotations only introduce the piece of discourse that is being quoted. Koffi (1995:8) argues that there is no language where there is a lexical element which indicates the end of quotations. If one relies on quotation openers only, one will not know when a quotation ends in a language. To avoid such problems, it is better to use quotation mark conventions to mark off clearly the beginning and end of quoted discourse.

(49)

Abhép, “ Ɔfu fá?”  
he ask pst you come out where  
*He asked, “Where are you from?”*

If the quotation needs a punctuation mark (question mark, exclamation mark, etc), it occurs before the last quotation mark.

(50)

**Abik bé, "Twó fa!"**  
he scream pst that come here  
*He screamed, "Come here!"*

**Arem bé, "Mmeróη mbwóré."**  
he say Pst I go tomorrow  
*He said, "I am going tomorrow."*

Quotation marks set off special words such as those that are not part of the language.

(51)

**Enyiη ené barfk báhiηi bé, "rédyo."**  
thing that whitemen they call that radio  
*The thing that whitemen call, "radio."*

## 7.7 Ellipsis

An ellipsis is indicated by three full stops and shows the omission of words in a quotation:

(52)

**Mfo atwó betí ebhén arem bé, "Sénsó nden..."**  
Chief he come morning this he say Pst that we wash clothes  
*The chief came this morning and said, "we should wash clothes..."*

## 7.8 Capitalisation

The use of capital letters after a full stop or in proper names is under attack by orthography reformers especially from the Simplified Spelling Society. They argue that the use of upper and lower case is useless and constitutes a burden. According to Vallins (1973:139), “the beginner has to learn two or more different letters for each character in the alphabet.” This argument is very weak because if people can live in a complex society and can still go along with it, one wonders whether simple things such as upper and lower case cannot be remembered in a language. Secondly, the distinction between upper and lower case is a universal phenomenon. The upper and lower cases are represented in the orthography as follows:

correct: **Newen Newen akwen ndu nta.** ‘The trap has caught a tortoise.’

incorrect: **nEWen nEWen akwen ndu nta.** ‘The trap has caught a tortoise.’

Capital letters are applied:

- at the beginning of a sentence,
- at the beginning of a proper noun,
- after a colon.

The first word in a declarative, interrogative, or exclamatory sentence is always capitalised:

(53)

**Bárón ɛsɔ́é beku ɛbhen.**

they go market evening this

*They are going to the market this evening.*

**Achye ɛkáti ntá Tambe**

he give book to Tambe

*He gave the book to Tambe.*

**Tambi arək ɛkáti abhiṅi: Nsó, Ako, Nkwa, ne Tíku.**

Tambi he go school he call Pst Nso Ako Nkwa and Tiku

*Tambi went to school and called the following: Nso, Ako, Nkwa, and Tiku.*

### **Capitalisation in Quotations**

The first word in a quotation is always capitalised.

(54)

**Mfɔ achye ɛyɔŋ, “Ye-mmú áké fú neffí.”**

chief he give voice no person he neg. come out outside

*The chief commanded, “Nobody should go outside.”*

### **Capitalise names, titles, days of the week in Kenyang.**

Names, titles, days of the week, are capitalised in Kenyang as follows:



(55)

- a) **Afu Mámfé.**  
he/she come from Mamfe  
*He/She is from Mamfe.*
- b) **Nnyén eni chí Etá Tambe.**  
name his cop. Mr. Tambe  
*His name is Mr. Tambe.*
- c) **Átwò nnywəp Chókó-chókó**  
he come day Sunday  
*He is coming on Sunday.*

# **KENYANG LEXICON**

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