

Original Paper

A Typological Sketch of Noun Class Structure in Awing

Akem Shedmankah Helen

English Modern Letters, The University of Bamenda, Bamenda, Cameroon

Abstract

The paper focuses on a description of noun class structure in Awing. From a structural linguistic perspective, the noun phrases in the Awing language are analysed. The structural approach enables us to identify the basic linguistic form which can eventually be analysed through other theoretical approaches like the generative and the minimalist. The research employed the quantitative and qualitative methods. The data for this research was collected based on sample questionnaire in English that enabled the researcher to collect both words, phrases and sentences from different categories of people. Discussions and interviews with both literacy teachers and students during literacy classes were equally held. This data was verified with the language committee and during different seminars organised on the language. The analytical procedure consisted in placing the singular and plural forms of nouns in order to identify their noun class markers. In analysing the nouns, emphasis was laid on noun morphology, noun classes and genders, noun agreement classes and agreement pattern. The various phrase types were identified and analysed structurally. Looking at the overall structure of a noun in Awing as demonstrated with examples in this paper, the Awing language and most grassfield Bantu languages as well as French and English share common characteristics.

Keywords

typological sketch, noun class structure, noun morphology, Awing

1. Introduction

The study of the grammar of a language is generally at the centre of understanding of that language. The grammars of foreign languages like English and French have been well documented and can hence be easily consulted for educational purposes. Unfortunately, a linguistics study on African languages generally focuses on portions of grammar without a comprehensive and unified document of the grammar. Hedinger, 2008, Nforbi and Ngum have provided such grammars for Akɔɔse and Oku respectively.

This study is concerned with, *A Typological Sketch of Noun Class Structure in Awing*, a Grassfield Bantu language spoken in Mezam Division, North West Region of Cameroon. A noun as defined by McDougal, (2001:1), is a word that names a person, place, thing or idea. Awing has noun classes, plural marking and complex noun phrase structure.

This research is centered on the Structural Theory which presents language in terms of its simple structure. In the Theory of Structuralism, Routledge, (1993: 262f), defines structuralism as “any approach to linguistic description which views the grammar of a language primarily as a system of relations:” Structuralism as stated by Routledge is drawn from the work of the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. He further states that virtually, all twentieth century linguistics are structuralism in this sense, in contrast to the predominantly automatic approach of nineteenth-century linguistics in which language was seen as a collection of individual elements. Lepschy (1982), as quoted by Routledge says Structuralism is marked by its emphasis on abstraction and generality, while pre-structuralist approaches were characterised by an emphasis on the concrete and the particular. He also makes mention of the American Structuralists who drew their inspiration from the work of Leonard Bloomfield. Nevertheless, he explains that the achievements of the American Structuralists were considerable. Unlike recent theoretical approaches initiated by Chomsky which are more focused on abstract theoretical considerations, structuralism provides the base for grammatical studies. The structural approach enables us to identify the basic linguistic form which can eventually be analyzed through other theoretical approaches like the generative and the minimalist.

The research employed the quantitative and qualitative methods. As a linguist in the language, I have provided most of the data used in this study. However, some resource persons have been consulted whenever and wherever I had doubts or could not come out with any relevant information. General knowledge on this research topic has been gotten through reading of books concerning the subject matter. The data for this research was collected based on sample questionnaire in English that enabled me to collect both words, phrases and sentences from different categories of people. This data was verified with the language committee and during different seminars organised on the language. The analytical procedure consisted in placing the singular and plural forms of nouns in order to identify their noun class markers.

I am going to look at the types of nouns and their structures, noun classes / gender, and noun phrase structure in Awing.

2. Method

As earlier mentioned, both quantitative and qualitative data are used to gather information for this study, which helps come up with a complete understanding of noun class structure in Awing. Below are types of nouns and their structures in the Awing language.

2.1 Types of Nouns and Their Structures

A typical noun in Awing has the following structure:

Noun class prefixes + stem

2.1.1 Count nouns

ø-ngo'	é	year	mə-ŋgo'	é	years
mə-ngyě	woman	pə-ngyě	women		

ø-səŋə	bird	pə-səŋə	birds
a-tūə	head	ə-tūə	heads
nə-ghö	grinding stone	mə-ghö	grinding stones

2.1.2 Mass Nouns

mə-jīə	food
mə-kwunə	rice
mə-ghólə	oil
n-gwájə	salt
n-kīə	water
n-dí'ə	smoke
n-disê	ground
n-kwájə	firewood

2.1.3 Abstract Nouns

a-pógə	fear
a-kəŋnə	love
a-pímnə	agreement
ə-ləŋə	laziness
ə-jīə	knowledge/intelligence
kə-peenó	hatred
m-bóomə	character
nə-pégə	incapability

Looking at the examples above, some count nouns in the singular form have prefixes, while others do not. All mass and abstract nouns take prefixes in their singular forms. Unlike the mass nouns, when the prefixes (a, ə, kə, m, mə, nə amongst others) are taken away from the abstract nouns, all the words automatically become verbs. Therefore, one can say that abstract nouns in Awing are somehow derived from verbs.

2.1.3.1 Derivational Morphology

Bybee, (1985: 88), remarks that, “One of the properties that characterises derivationally related pairs of words most conspicuously is their tendency to split up to move away from one another both in meaning and in form.”

This remark is similar to that made by Huddleston 1988: 18, as quoted by NFORBI 1993: 27, that, “Lexical processes yield a different lexical item from the source, a new item of vocabulary.”

These remarks show that derivational morphology is lexical in nature. This leads to the formation of the different lexical items from the stem. It is termed by some people, lexical morphology. However, in Awing, just as in English, there are some derivational morphemes that do not cause a change in the grammatical class. There are affixes that when added to the base, do not change the class. These are called class-maintaining derivational affixes. For instance:

tónǎ	digger (an instrument)
n-tónǎ	digger (person)
téenkǎ	temptation
n-téenkǎ	tempter
sénǎ	dark
a-senǎ	dark
fǎǎ	fat/big
a-fǎǎ	fat/big
kéǎ	cry
kéǎ-kǎ	cry
wenǎ	laugh
wen-kǎ	laugh
nyinǎ	walk
nyin-tǎ	walk

From the examples above, the first four words are all nouns; the other four are adjectives and the last six verbs. Therefore, in Awing, derivation occurs by adding an affix to the stem (affixation). As already mentioned, this affixation may not result to change of class. There are two kinds of affixes, those that occur at the beginning of the word (prefixes), and those that come at the end (suffixes). Some of the possible derivations that can exist in Awing are seen in the examples below.

2.1.3.2 Derived Nouns and Adjectives

In Awing, some nouns and adjectives are derived from verbs. For instance:

Verbs	Nouns		
pénǎ	a-pénǎ	dance	dance
wenǎ	nǎ-wenǎ	laugh	laughter
tǎǎ	n-tǎǎ	advise	advice
zé'kǎ	n-dzé'kǎ	teach	teacher
fǎǎ	ǎ-fǎǎ	read	reader
pyáabǎ	m-byáabǎ	wait	waiter
lónǎ	n-dónǎ	beg	beggar
loonǎ	n-doonǎ	search	searcher
tónǎ	tónǎ, n-tónǎ	dig	digger (instrument) (someone who digs)

Nouns in Awing are derived in two ways:

- by simply adding a prefix to the verb stem;
- by a change in tones- in some cases, a falling tone becomes low and a low tone changes to high as seen in the data above.

Verb	adjective
------	-----------

sánə	a-sánə	break	broken
fəmə	a-fəmə	ferment	fermented
sɛɛlə	a-sɛɛnə	tear	torn
swigə	a-swígnə	burst	burst

The data above indicate that there are some derivational morphemes that cause a change in the grammatical class. These are affixes that when added to the base, change the word class. These are called class-changing derivational affixes. We can see that a noun can be derived from a verb, an adjective from a verb and so on.

2.1.3.3 Derivational Morphology on Noun Roots (Reduplication)

Reduplication occurs whenever the initial consonant vowel syllable in a multi-syllabic word is repeated.

Examples:

kígháləghálə	butterfly
aləŋələŋənəfoonə	praying mantis
paŋpaŋə	red
atəmátámə	straight (a way of tying a buddle)
atoŋətóŋə	upside-down
kilələŋkaŋkaŋə	spider
káŋkáŋə	container (tin)
tátsətsə	a tiny fly that enters people's eyes
atseléndəŋndəŋə	a cricket-like insect
təsələsələ	ant

In the examples above, the first root is fully duplicated.

2.1.3.4 Inflectional Morphology on Nouns

Inflection is a grammatical process which combines words and affixes to form alternative grammatical forms of words.

The following are some of the nouns that are inflected from number.

ndê	house	mə- ndê	houses
nə- kəŋə	pot	mə- kəŋə	pots
ŋwunə	person	pəənə	persons
a- káŋə	dish	ə- káŋə	dishes
a- pô	hand	m- bô	hands
kwúncemə	pig	pə- kwúncemə	pigs
mbéŋə	goat	mə- mbéŋə	goats
ngólə	hole	mə- ngólə	holes

From the data above, words which have affixes such as, nə- and a- form their plurals with mə-, ə- and m-, depending on the noun class of each word. There are equally some irregular nouns like, 'ŋwunə'

whose form changes in the plural and takes no plural marker (noun class prefix).

2.1.4 Proper Nouns

These refer to names of people and places. Most proper nouns in Awing have no noun class prefix and cannot be pluralised.

Examples:

Names of places: Aflika (Africa), Kaməlúnə (Cameroon), Atósəŋə (Bamenda), Ndeemó (Mendankwe)

Days: Aləmə (1st weekday), Nkweeló (2nd weekday), Afédŋgónə (3rd weekday)

Festivals: Ndóŋəwiŋə (annual general gathering)

Some proper nouns do have a noun class prefix and can be pluralized.

Examples:

A-kwěsê	Name of a person	Pə-kwěse	name of person, (referring to more than one)
---------	------------------	----------	---

ə- Təpa'ə	Bali	Pə- təpa'ə	Bali people / language
-----------	------	------------	------------------------

ə- Fəələ	Bafut	Pə- fəələ	Bafut people / language
----------	-------	-----------	-------------------------

ə- Ndzoomó	Njom (quarter)	Mbê- ndzoomó	Njom people
------------	----------------	--------------	-------------

While noun prefixes carry information about the identity of the noun class, the main difference between noun classes is the agreement changes (consonant, tone) that happen to other words in the same noun phrase.

2.1.5 Compound Nouns

In Awing, compound nouns are formed in different ways as shown in the examples below. We notice that some tones of the individual words are not the same when they are in a compound noun construction.

Noun + Noun

alóəmə + **mógó** = **alóəmámógó**

tongue + fire = flame

acha'tə + **əsê** = **acha'təsê**

greetings + god = prayer

apĭə + **əpúmə** = **apĭəpúmə**

planting + things = planting

atûə + **ndê** = **atûndê**

head+house = roof

əfo+**aghəəmó** = **əfogəəmó**

chief+ditch = lake (Lake Awing)

afo'ə + **Əsê** = **afo'əsê**

rich + God = God's blessing

ntso + **məlo'ə** = **ntsoməlo'ə**

mouth +wine = an Awing name

atséebə + mə’ə	= atséebám’ə
speech + one	= agreement
ηwu + məsəηə	= ηwuməsəηə
man + teeth	= human being
móngá + Əsê	= móngásê
fortune telling + God	= scorpion
ntso + nkĩə	= ntsonkĩə
mouth + water	= river bank
aηwa’lə + Əsê	= aηwa’ləsê
book + God	= bible

Verb + Noun

Kóηə + əsê	= kóηəsê
roll + ground	= cripple
kwú + neemə	= kwúneemə
die + meat	= pig
cha’tə + əsê	= cha’təsê
greet + god	= pray
kwá + nkĩə	= kwánkĩə
take + water	= baptize

Verb + Noun + Noun

Kwú + neemə + afoonə	= kwúneeməfoonə
die + meat + farm	= hippopotamus

Adjective + Noun

fú + məlo’ə	= fúməlo’ə
white + wine	= white wine or palm wine
shí + sêntê	= shísêntê
black + pepper	= black pepper
apagə + aηwa’lə	= apagəηwa’lə
half + book	= paper

what or ? + verb

akə + kógə	= akəkógə
what(?) nurse	= foolish person
akə + ghə	= akəghə
what(?) + say	= foolish person

Noun + Noun + Noun

sáηə + apĩə + əpúmə	= sáηəpĩəpúmə
month + planting + things	= planting season

Compound nouns are formed by combining two words which are meaningful. The words can either be a noun and a noun, a verb and a noun, an adjective and a noun or a verb and a verb as shown in the examples above. Note: In the last example above, the medial noun is a nominal verb. In compound words, when two vowels occur side by side, only the first vowel is considered as seen in the examples above.

3. Result

The result obtained from this study is as follows:

3.1 Noun Classes and Genders

Nouns are divided into different groups based on the noun prefixes and the agreement between these nouns and the modifiers in the noun phrase. The combination of singular and plural classes is referred to as genders. All count nouns have a singular and a plural form while non-count nouns have just one form (and are referred to as "single-class genders"). The singular and plural noun classes form gender pairs as seen below.

3.1.1 List of Nouns both Singular and Plural

3.1.1.1 Count nouns

əfəgá	blind person (1)
pəfəgá	blind people (2)
ənoonə	crowd (3)
mənoonə	crowds (6)
nkĭə	water (3)
ménkĭə	waters/streams (6)
nələélə	soldier ant (5)
mələélə	soldier ants (6)
ajúmə	thing(7)
əpúmə	things (8)
ndoonə	curse (9)
məndoonə	curses (6)
əshûə	fish (9)
məshûə	fishes (6)
ako/akoolə	leg (7)
məko/məkoolə	legs (6)
akəd/akoolə	toilet (7)
əkəd/əkoolə	toilets (8)
məwúmá	hawk (1)
pəməwúmá	hawks (2)
məngyě	woman (1)

pəngyě	women (2)
mbeebə	wing (9)
mémbeebə	wings (6)
nətô	intestine (5)
mətô	intestines (6)

3.1.1.2 Non Count or Abstract Nouns

mbóomə	character (10)
nəpəgə	incapability(10)
nəkwa'ə	joke (10)
nələnə	(old) age (10)
əlɔŋə	laziness (10)
nəweŋə	laughter (10)
kəpeenə	hatred (10)
apəgə	fear (7)
mələ'ə	wine (6)
məghólə	oil (6)
njiə	hunger (10)
nkwəŋə	firewood (10)

The figures in brackets stand for the noun classes. Class one takes its plural in class two; classes three, five and nine take theirs in class six, while class seven takes its own in class eight and class ten is abstract nouns. Noun class four is absent in Awing.

3.2 Noun Agreement Classes and Agreement Pattern

Awing, like many other African languages, especially Bantu languages has a significant classification of nouns based on the agreement pattern phenomena (on adjectives, pronouns, among others, rather than just on the form of the affixes that occur on the nouns themselves. Some agreement classes have nouns with more than one possible prefix (which is not at all predictable). Therefore, it is more important to talk of classes based on agreement pattern than just on the form of a single affix. In this paper, when I speak of a noun as being in a certain agreement pattern, I will be referring to a group of nouns that all trigger the same agreement pattern.

The singular and corresponding plural of a noun are considered to be in different agreement patterns. This is because the singular of two nouns in one agreement pattern may form their plurals in two or more agreement patterns. For example, the corresponding plural of one word, say in agreement pattern 7 which is in singular, may form its plural in agreement pattern 6, while the corresponding plural of another word whose singular is still in agreement pattern 7, may be in agreement pattern 8, another plural pattern. This is illustrated in tables 1 and 2 below.

Table 1. Noun Agreement Classes

Ncl.	Noun	English Gloss	Dem.	poss	poss	quant.	Dem.	impers.	3 rd
			near 'this' 'these'	(sing) 'your'	'mine'	'all' or 'entire'	far 'that' 'those'	prn. 'it' 'they'	pers. 'theirs'
1	əfəgá	blind person	ghená	əgho	əgheemə	ntsəmə	yíə	wáələ	əghoobá
2	pəfəgá	blind people	pəəná	pəpo	pəpéemə	pətsəmə	píə	páələ	pəpóobá
3	ntó'ə	calabash	zəəná	əzo	əzeemə	ntsəmə	jíə	záələ	əzoobá
6	məntó'ə	calabashes	məəná	məmo	məmeemə	mətsəmə	míə	máələ	məməóobá
5	nələélə	soldier ant	zəəná	nəzô	nəzémə	nətsəmə	jíə	záələ	zóobá
6	mələélə	soldier ants	məəná	məmo	məméemə	mətsəmə	míə	máələ	məməóobá
7	apô	hand	zəəná	azô	azémə	atsəmə	jíə	záələ	azóobá
6	mbô	hands	məəná	məmo	məméemə	mətsəmə	míə	máələ	məməóobá
7	apo'ə	slave	zəəná	azô	azémə	atsəmə	jíə	záələ	azóobá
8	əpo'ə	slaves	pəəná	pəpô	əpéemə	ətsəmə	píə	páələ	əpóobá
9	o-mbê	tapping knife	zəəná	əzo	əzeemə	ntsəmə	jíə	záələ	əzoobá
6	məmbê	tapping knives	məəná	məməô	məméemə	mətsəmə	míə	máələ	məməóobá

The table above shows some nouns and their classes. Class 1 nouns form their plurals in class 2; classes 3, 5 and 9 form theirs in class 6, while class 7 takes its plural in classes 6 and 8. Mass nouns are found in class 6 and 10. Classes 3 and 5 nouns have some characteristics in common. For instance, they have the same homorganic nasal prefix and they take identical concord elements in many contexts.

3.3 Agreement pattern- Singular Plural Pairing or Genders

Van de Veld et al. (2006: p.183 ff) in their Multifunctional Agreement Pattern in Bantu and the Possibility of Genderless Nouns, bring out an agreement pattern which is similar to the pattern presented below.

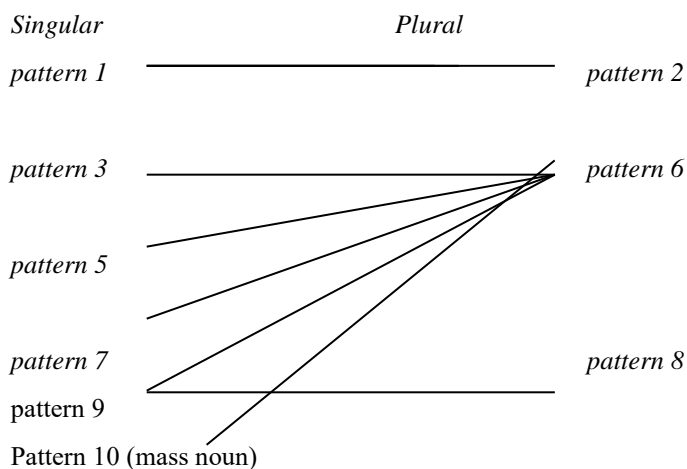


Figure 1. Agreement Pattern

Non-count nouns usually refer to masses, liquids and abstract concepts. Mass nouns are usually found in classes 6 or 10, as below.

Examples:

Gender/class 6

məghólə oil

o-məjíə food

o-mbóomə habit/character

Gender/class 10

nkwáŋə firewood

o-nkéebə money

3.3.1 Examples of Nouns by Gender

Gender 1 / 2

əfəfə pəfəgə blind

mbóomə pəpóomə builder

o-məwúmə pə-məwúmə hawk

móonə póonə child

Gender 3 / 6

o-ənoonə mə-noonə crowd

o-nkǐə mə-nkǐə water

Gender 5 / 6

nələélə mələélə soldier ant

nəpə mbe liver

Gender 7 / 6

Apô mbô hand

Gender 7 / 8

apo'ə əpo'ə slave

Gender 9 / 6

o-ndélə mə-ndélə time

o-əshûə mə-shûə fish

o-mbê mə-mbê tapping knife

3.3.2 Singular Class Gender Nouns

Gender 1

o-mbóomə character

o-nəpəgə incapability

o-nəkwa'ə joke

o-nələnə age

o-ələŋə laziness

o-nəweŋə laughter

o-kəpeenə́ hatred

Gender 6

məlo'ə wine

Gender 6

məghólə oil

Gender 7

apóŋə fear

Gender 10

njiə hunger

Looking at nouns by gender, the examples above indicate that most abstract nouns in Awing fall under the singular class gender nouns.

4. Discussion

This section discusses the findings.

4.1 Noun Phrase

While noun prefixes carry information about the identity of the noun class, the main difference between noun classes is the agreement changes (consonant, tone) that happen to other words in the same noun phrase. Within the noun phrase, modifiers occur before and / or after the head noun and must agree with the agreement class of the head noun. For instance:

1. Ló tá' mé paŋpaŋ ngə́bə mə.

It is one cl.big red fowl POSS

It is one big red fowl of mine.

4.2 Noun Phrase Structure

The following table shows the order of constituents in a noun phrase, with three possible sentences serving as examples.

Table 2. Noun Phrase Structure

HeadN	Poss	Attr	Dem	Quant	Num	Rel.Cl.
2. nəghǒ grinding stone	mə my	nəshí'nə good	ji this			pá' n jú nə REL I buy
<i>This nice grinding stone of mine which I just bought</i>						
3. ngə́bə fowl	mə my	əshí'nə good	ji this	ntsəm whole		pa' n kó'd nə REL I eat
<i>All this nice fowl of mine which I just ate.</i>						

4. məghǒ

	mə	məshí 'nə	mi	mətsəm	mén mbě	pá' n jú nə
grinding	my	good	these	all	two	REL I buy
stones						

All these two grinding stones of mine which I just bought.

The noun phrase rules below show the same constituent order as it is illustrated above, including information about which constituents are required and which ones are optional.

NP -> HeadN (Poss) (Attr) (Dem) (Quant) (Num) (RelCl)

Note that the head noun is the only obligatory element.

4.2.1 Focused Demonstratives

Demonstratives can occur before or after the head noun, depending on the focus. When the demonstrative follows the head noun, which is the normal order. When the demonstrative precedes the head noun, the noun phrase indicates contrastive focus (that is, correcting the false statement of someone else). The focused form is shown below.

Table 3. Focused Demonstratives

FOC. / Dem.	Head. N	POSS.	Rel. pronoun
5. Ji	nəghǒ	mə	pá' n jú nə
this	grinding stone	my	Rel.P I buy
<i><u>This grinding stone of mine which I just bought.</u></i>			

4.3 Associative Noun Phrases

Awing expresses association using the associative markers: *ná* and *má* meaning “of”. The relationship between two words in Awing may also be expressed by means of a zero marker, as in examples 1, 3, 4, 7, 13, 17 and 18 below.

Table 4. Associative Noun Phrases

No	NCl. of HN	Associative	Phrases	Gloss and relationship
1	7	HN AM	AN apéd yə hole deep shinó	deep hole thing-quality
2	3	HN AM	bamboo əkʷu ndəŋé bed	bamboo bed product-material
3	3	HN AM	AN	quarter in Awing

		Ntsoolá		atéemə	
		entrance		pit	part-whole
4	9	HN AM AN			palm wine drinker
		nnô		məlo'ə	
		drinker		palm wine	agent- object
5	9	HN AM AN			good time
		ndéd	yi	əshí'nə	
		time		goodness	thing-quality
6	6	HN AM AN			village head
		nətú	nə	alá'ə	
		head	of	village	part-whole
7	9	HN AM AN			chief's palace
		ntó'		əfo	
		palace	chief		owner-owned
8	9	HN AM AN			good meat
		na	yi	mbəŋnə	
		meat		goodness	thing-quality
9	5	HN AM AN			chameleon's pumpkin
		nəpə'	nə	kənánə	
				pumpkin	of owner-owned
		chameleon			
10	7	HN AM AN			house work
		afa'	yə	ndé	
		work		house	place-activity
11	1	HN AM AN			an important person
		ŋwu	yi	ngweŋə	
		man		big	agent-quality
12	7	HN AM AN			good thing
		ajú	yə	əshí'nə	
		thing		goodness	thing-quality
13	7	HN AM AN			a kind of snake
		ajúmə		əsê	
		thing	God		owner-owned
14	2	HN AM AN			village people
		pí	pə	alá'ə	
		people		village	place-occupants

15	2	HN	AM	AN	village fons
		pəfo	pə	ala'ə	
		fons		village	place-leader
16	2	HN	AM	AN	house rats
		pəfə	pə	ndê	
		rats		house	occupant-place
17	8	HN	AM	AN	hair thread
		ətəshia		atūə	
		threads		hair	material-use
18	8	HN	AM	AN	world countries
		ətú		mbiə	
		countries		world	

The associative noun phrase in Awing comprises the head noun, the associative marker and the associative noun. In some cases, the associative phrases do not have agreement markers as seen in the table above.

5. Conclusion

This paper describes the internal structure of a noun in Awing; noun class prefixes plus stem, noun agreement classes and gender and noun phrase structure. Under noun class prefixes, count nouns, non-count nouns, abstract nouns, derivational morphology, inflectional morphology, compound nouns and under classes and gender, associative noun phrases are brought out. Although this study has covered considerable grounds on the issue of nouns in Awing, there are still other aspects of nouns in the language to be elaborated on such as, plural formation strategies. I believe that this study would be used as a reference for any other linguistics study. Looking at the over view of this piece of work with all the illustrations and examples given, a conclusion can be drawn that the Awing language and other African languages as well as French and English share common characteristics.

List of Abbreviations

Dem- Demonstratives

Poss- Possessives

quant.- quantitative

Impers. prn- Impersonal pronoun

3rd- Third person

Cl.-Class

attr- attribute

Num- Number

Rel.Cl.- Relative Clause

HeadN- Head Noun

Foc. Dem- Focused Demonstratives

NCl of HN- Noun Class of Head Noun

HN- Head Noun

AM- Associative/Agreement Marker

AN- Associative Noun

Acknowledgements

My profound gratitude goes to the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL), Cameroon Association for Bible translation and Literacy (CABTAL), Awing Language Committee (ALC) and the Inter-Church Committee (ICC) for the knowledge they imparted in me for the past twelve years of working with them in developing the Awing Language and other languages in Cameroon.

My special thanks go to Dr. Hedinger Robert, Mrs. Truus Babila, Alomofor Christian and other co-workers in the field of linguistics who helped bring out grammar sketches in Awing which I consulted for the perfection of this paper.

I will not leave out the Awing literacy team and other consultants in and out of Awing who provided me with adequate information for the realisation of this paper. I appreciate you all.

References

- Akem S. H. (2020). The Clause Structure in Awing. *Epitome International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, VI(II).
- Akem S. H. (2024). The Use of Tones in Distinguishing Words and Sentence Structure in Awing. *INSTRUCTOR, A Multi-Disciplinary Journal of Pedagogy, Humanities and Social Studies*, 2(1), Higher Teacher Training College-Bambili, The University of Bamenda, Wisdom House Publications, USA.
- Akem S. H. (2024). A Comparative Analysis of the Structure of English and Awing. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Language, Literature and Media Studies (IJOLLiMS)*, 1(1), Department of English, Faculty of Arts, The University of Bamenda.
- Alomofor, C. et al. (2004). *Mǎg mǎ Aḡwa'la mǎ Mbǎwiḡa (The Awing Alphabet)*. Yaoundé: Awing Language Committee.
- Aḡwa'la Mǎg mǎ Aḡwa'la mǎ Mbǎwiḡa (Awing Alphabet Book)*. Yaoundé: SIL. (2005a).
- Alomofor, C., & Stephen C. A. (2005b). *Awing Orthography Guide*. Yaoundé: SIL.
- Alomofor, C. (2007a). *Zé'ǎ mǎ Fóḡ ná kí ḡwa'la Mbǎwiḡa*. CABTAL: B.P. 1299, Yaoundé. Republic of Cameroon.
- Awing English Dictionary and English-Awing Index*. CABTAL: B.P.16550, Yaoundé. Republic of Cameroon. (2007b).

- Hornby, A. S. (2006). Oxford *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. New 7th Edition: Oxford University Press.
- Breton, R., & Fohlung B. (1991). *Atlas Administrative des Langues Nationales du Cameroun*. CREA, CERDOTOLA: Yaoundé.
- Bybee, J. L. (1985). *Morphology: A Study of the Relation Between Meaning and Form*. John Benjamin's Publishing House: Amsterdam.
- Crystal, D. (2001). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Blackwell Publishers. 4th Edition.
- Emmanuel, N. Peter N. (2009). *Oku Grammar: A Grassfield Bantu Ring Language*. Dschang University Press.
- Foster, K. (1980). Pedagogical Grammar. *Notes on Linguistics*. Dallas, Texas. Vol. 14.
- Gordon, Raymond. G. (Ed.). (2005). *Ethnologue: Fifteenth Edition*. Dallas, Texas: SIL International.
- Gray, C. P. (2009). "An Overview of Foodo." A Linguistic Island in Benin. *Journal of West African Languages*.
- Grimes, Barbara F. (Ed.). (1996). *Ethnologue Languages of the World*. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. Thirteen Editions.
- Hornstein, N. (1990). *As time goes by, tense and universal grammar, A Bradford Book*. The MIT Press Cambridge: Massachusetts London, England.
- Lynn, P., & Gronemeyer, C. (1966). *A transformational grammar of Igbo*. B.A. M.A. Austin: Texas.
- McDougal, L. (2001). *Language Network: Grammar. Writing. Communication*. United States of America.
- PEC, Charles. (1995). *A Survey of Grammatical Structure*. Summer Institute of Linguistics. P 8ff .
- Pius, N. T. (2009). A Descriptive Grammar of Bafut. Volume/Band 35, Editors/Herausgeber, Wilhelm J. G. Möhlig and Bernd Heine, Cologne Germany.
- Robert, H. (2008). *A grammar of Akɔ̀sɛ: A North West Bantu Language*. SIL: International. The University of Texas at Arlington.
- Robert, H. et al. (2009). *Foundations for Grammar: Clause and Sentence*. Bamenda: SIL Cameroon.
- Routledge. (1993). *A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics*. R.L. TRASK: London and New York.
- Stephen, C. Anderson. (2008). *A Phonological Sketch of Ngiemboon-Bamileke*. SIL: Cameroon.
- Tadadjeu, M., & Sadembou E. (1984). *General Alphabet of Cameroon Languages*. PROPELCA Series. No 1, Bilingual Edition.
- Tom, Doris P. (2009). *Dictionary Grammar Sketch Workshop*. Yaoundé: Cameroon.
- Van de Veld, & Mark, L. O. (2006), Multifunctional Agreement Pattern in Bantu and the Possibility of Genderless Nouns, *Linguistic Typology*. 10: 183ff.