

5 Grammatical Sketch (translated from Aperçu Grammatical by Etienne Lonfo)

Ngiemboon words exhibit very diversified structural patterns. While some are rather simple, others are quite complex. When mastering the complete range of these word forms which are focused on roots, learning the prefixes, suffixes and nominal classes sheds light on these patterns, giving us additional understanding which allows us to read and write Ngiemboon more easily.

5.1 The structure of words and syntagms

Words are comprised of basic elemental units: consonants, vowels and tones. It is helpful to differentiate simple words from complex ones such as compound words. While simple words consist of a single root, compound words are formed of more than one root such that the meaning of the compound word is unique, and therefore not just comprised of the meaning of their individual roots.

5.1.1 Simple words

Simple words are comprised of either a solitary root (**má** *mother*, **tá** *father*, **nɔ'** *chieftainship*, **kũ** *bed*); or a root combined with one or more prefixes (**ndá** *house*, **mbab** *meat* sg., **membab** *meat* pl.), or a root combined with one or more prefixes and a suffix (**mbànte** *confection*, **nzsòte** *last*), or a root combined with just a single suffix (**fá'tè** *cold* sg., **cú'tè** *meeting*).

Note: In the examples above, the roots are underlined.

5.1.2 Compound words

Compound words are the result of fusing together two roots:

tákwi' = **tá** + **kwi'** *father-in-law*; **tánkáb** = **tá** + **nkáb** *ancestor*

5.1.3 Phrases

Phrases consist of at least two words: **tá lepfó**: *chief of the neighborhood*. This dictionary will include many phrases because Ngiemboon often uses phrases to indicate specialized meanings where French uses single words.

Admittedly, we do not yet have sufficient understanding of Ngiemboon to distinguish compound words from nominal phrases. Unfortunately, we have not found the underlying rules that would enable us to decide this difficult issue. In the future, we hope to be able to uncover these rules, and when we do, we expect that a few cases we have treated as noun phrases (written as two words) will become compound words (written as one word), and vice versa.

5.2 Grammatical categories

5.2.1 Nouns

In Ngiemboon, the noun category is very significant due to its internal structure as well as its influence on other categories (pronouns, adjectives, etc.).

5.2.1.1 The internal structure of nouns

Nouns are formed from a simple root with no affix: **tá** *father*; or by a root with a prefix: **ndá** *house*; or by a root with a suffix: **cú'tè** *meeting*; or by a root with a prefix and a suffix: **mbite** *narrator*.

Ngiemboon nouns, including those borrowed from other languages, are divided into ten nominal classes. This classification is due to the structure of each word (the accompanying prefix) but even more so to the agreement of the word with other parts of speech. By these means, the language shows ten noun classes divided into two major groups, five singular classes (marked by odd numbered classes) and five plural classes (marked by even numbered classes).

The class of a noun is found by examining the following indicators: class prefix, agreement consonant, agreement vowel and agreement tone. It should be noted at the outset that nouns with the prefix “le-” belong to class 5 and nouns with the prefix “a-” belong to class 7.

One may wrongly assume that the class prefix plays the same role as articles do in French or in English. But, this is not the case. Ngiemboon does not have an “article” category. In French and in English, we talk about definite and indefinite articles. But in Ngiemboon, like in many other Cameroonian languages, there is no consistent particle that expresses the meaning of definite or indefinite.

In Ngiemboon, each singular noun corresponds to one or two plural noun classes. The grouping formed from one singular class and one corresponding plural class constitutes a “gender”. In this language, we find the following principle genders: 1/2, 3/4, 5/6, 7/6, 7/8, 9/4, 1/10. There are, however, certain words that do not follow these normal groupings. This results in special genders numbered 1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, etc. set up for the invariable nouns and genders 1/4, 1/6, 7/4, etc. for nouns arising from dialectal differences or for rarely used words.

Table 1: Noun Classes

Class	Class prefix	Examples	Agreement		
			Consonant	Vowel	Tone
1	Ø-, (a)N-, mêN-, máN-	kàŋ <i>squirrel</i> nzwě <i>female</i>	w	a	L
2	me-, pa-	mekàŋ <i>squirrels</i> pazwě <i>females</i>	p	e	H
3	N-	nká' <i>field</i>	w	e	H
4	meN-	menká <i>fields</i>	m	e	H
5	le-	letuŋó <i>ear</i>	s	e	H
6	me-	metuŋó <i>ears</i>	m	e	H
7	(a)-	apòŋ <i>bag</i>	y	a	H
8	(e)-	epòŋ <i>bags</i>	s	e	H
9	N-	ndá <i>house</i>	y	e	L
10	N-	nkò' <i>roosters</i>	y	e	H

Note: In the table, parentheses around the prefixes mark those prefixes which always occur after a pause.

Regarding the table above, in the second column of class 1, there are several class prefixes, as displayed in the following concrete examples: “Ø-” (zero prefix, i.e., nouns with no prefix): **kàŋ** *squirrel*; “N-” (nasal prefix): **ndúm** *husband*; “aN-” (pre-prefix “a-” before the prefix “N-”): **ampfó** *death*; “mêN-” (pre-prefix “mê-” before the prefix “N-”): **mêngáb** *chicken*; “máN-” (pre-prefix “má-” before the prefix “N-”): **mámbàŋa** *man*.

Notice that there are also two variants for the class 2 prefix. The oldest but least frequently used present-day prefix is “**pa-**”. In Ngiemboon, this “**pa-**” is generally used for the plural of roots which originated from verbs. Furthermore, there is a change of tone on these roots when they are pluralized. Examples: **nnùŋe pwo’** *sacrificer*, **panuŋe pwo’** *sacrificers*.

The much more frequently used class 2 prefix, “**me-**”, does not cause such changes of tone. This prefix is never used for roots that originated from verbs. Some examples are: **ngù** *foreigner*, **megù** *foreigners*.

Note that there is also a particle “**pà**” that is most certainly linked historically to the class 2 prefix “**pa-**”, and another particle “**mbe**” that resembles it. Either one of these two particles can precede proper nouns of location when these nouns refer to the inhabitants of these places. Examples: **pà Tsóon** *people of Batcham*; **pà Leshún** *people of Balessing*; **mbè Mbÿë** *people of Bamboué* and **mbè Ndóon** *people of Ndaa*.

In addition, this same **pà** particle is also used before a proper noun referring to human beings. For example: **pà Cÿó’fùo** *people having the name Tchofo* and **pà Nkúnè** *people having the name Kenne*.

5.2.1.2 Verbal Nouns

by Stephen C. Anderson and Prosper DJIAFEUA

Ngiemboon verb roots can be used to generate two categories of nouns by adding noun class prefixes instead of the normal verb prefixes. These two types of derived nouns are gerands and actor nouns.

5.2.1.2.1 Gerands “le-”

Gerands are verb roots that become nouns by adding a noun class prefix from class 1 or 5 “**le-**”. This form is used when talking about an action. In Ngiemboon, gerands are almost always subjects and are never objects of a clause. In addition, gerands are almost always head nouns and almost never modifying nouns in a noun phrase.

Examples:

Letă manzwě, à zéte nkáb. *Paying the brideprice for (cl. 5) a wife, that costs money.*

Lecŭa múo, à te poŋ. *Hitting (cl. 5) a child, that's not good.*

It seems that there is a special case where gerands do not serve as head nouns of a noun phrase, namely when it follows the head noun “**ntí**” *manner*, as in the following example:

Ntí lepfě mmó yê cúa wóon.

This (cl. 9) manner (cl. 9) of eating (cl. 5) a thing (cl. 7) is beyond me.

This uncommon case where the gerand occurs in second position in a noun phrase is important in that it indicates that the gerand is included inside a large group of nouns. Thus, it shows clearly the nominal character of gerands.

5.2.1.2.2 Actor nouns “aN-” and “pa-”

Actor nouns are verb roots that can become nouns by adding noun prefixes of classes 1 or 2: “aN-” or “pa-”.

Examples (Note the tone changes between the singular and plural):

ankò'w and pakó'w *cutter (cl. 1) and cutters (cl. 2)*
ankò'w gù and pakó'w pù *your (cl. 1) cutter and your (cl. 2) cutters*

Note: The previous examples clearly show the nominal quality of these actor nouns since they can be modified by possessive adjectives which vary according to their noun classes.

5.2.1.3 The influence of nouns on other categories

Nouns cause other categories such as adjectives and pronouns to change their form according to their classification in the noun class table. These morphological changes are called “class agreement”. The table below shows a striking illustration because it presents the different noun classes with their class prefixes and some of their agreement modifications.

Table 2: Noun agreement

Class	Prefixes	Class agreement			
		poss. adj.	interr. adj.	rel. pron.	poss. pron.
1 (sg.)	Ø-, (a)N-, mēN-, máN-	wòw	wě	gwie	(a)wòw
2 (pl.)	me-, pa-	pów	pě	pie	(e)pów
3 (sg.)	N-	wów	wě	gwie	(e)wów
4 (pl.)	meN-	mów	mě	mie	(e)mów
5 (sg.)	le-	sów	sě	sie	(e)sów
6 (pl.)	me-	mów	mě	mie	(e)mów
7 (sg.)	(a)-	yów	yě	gie	(a)yów
8 (pl.)	(e)-	sów	sě	sie	(e)sów
9 (sg.)	N-	yów	yě	gie	(e)yów
10 (pl.)	N-	yów	yě	gie	(e)yów

Note: In the table, the parentheses on the prefixes indicate which vowels only manifest themselves after a pause.

Recall that when certain Ngiemboon nouns are in the direct object position, they cause modifications on the morphology of the verb they accompany with regard to the presence or absence of the “echo vowel”, as illustrated below:

À kò'ş tÿð. *He cut the tree. (cl. 7).*
 À kş' nkŵín. *He cut the wood. (cl. 3).*

In these two phrases, kò'ş and kş' each represent the verb **ńkş'** to cut as well as the same verb tense (P1) and the same aspect (perfective).

As a general rule, the “echo vowel” which is found in kò'ş only occurs in clauses with imperfective aspect, but now we find that the echo vowel attaches to a verb in perfective aspect when it is followed by a direct object noun from class 1 or 7.

5.2.2 Verbs

As with nouns, verbs constitute a basic grammatical category in Ngiemboon. Verbs can be quite complex in the language. However, if one can master their groups, modes, tenses,

aspects, etc., verbs are manageable. We present here the basic verb structures that will allow us to better understand these characteristics.

5.2.2.1 Verb groups

All verb roots in Ngiemboon can be classified into two tonal groups: high tone verbs and mid tone verbs. The membership of individual roots in each group can be identified by their tonal behavior in two contexts: the infinitive and the second person imperative forms.

5.2.2.2 High tone verbs

In the infinitive, high tone verb roots are preceded by high tone nasal prefixes and also carry a high tone. Examples: **ńńá** to give; **ńbá'** to weave; **éshúate** to crush and **ńzá'te** to carve up.

In the second person imperative form, these roots also carry high tones: Examples: **tóo** come; **ńáa** give; **pá'a** weave; **zá'te** carve up and **shúate** crush.

5.2.2.3 Mid tone verbs

In the infinitive, mid tone verb roots are preceded by a high tone nasal prefix and carry mid tones. Examples: **éfa** to blow; **ńbu'** to perforate and **ńcuŋte** to spoil.

In the second person imperative form, these roots also carry mid tones. Examples: **faa** blow; **pu'u** perforate and **cuŋte** spoil.

5.2.3 Verb prefixes

There are several verb prefixes:

- Infinitive or consecutive prefix (a homorganic nasal prefix “**ń-**” with high tone), especially used when a verb that carries this prefix follows another verb. Example: **Á tǒ ńkǎ' nkǔńj**. *He came and cut the wood.* It is precisely this form that is used as the base form for all verbs in this dictionary.
- Intentional prefix (with the prefix “**lé-**” with a high tone). Examples: **Á tǒ lépfé mmó**. *He came to eat.* **Á zyě lékǔo**. *He began to run.*
- Progressive realis prefix (with nasal prefix “**ń-**” on the verb; see section 5.2.7 below).

5.2.4 Verb suffixes

There are only two verb suffixes in Ngiemboon:

- Imperfective suffix (with a prolonged vowel or an “echo vowel”). Examples: **pfé** becomes **pféé** and **kǎ'** becomes **kǎ'ǔ** in certain imperfective clauses (including progressive and habitual clauses).
- “**-te**” suffix (This suffix was historically grammatical, but now is mostly “lexicalized”; it no longer has the role of adding a single additional meaning to many verbs, but it is frozen onto certain lexical noun and verb roots.) Examples: **ńzete** to ask for (“lexicalized” here because this verb never occurs without its suffix “**-te**”); **ńkǎ'** to cut; **ńkǎ'te** to carve (where the suffix “**-te**” shows some of its former iterative function).

Note: The Ngiemboon **-te** is the only frequent suffix from the ancient Bantoid extensions while other Grassfields languages have kept more of them. For more information regarding the relationship between modern verbal suffixes and archaic Bantoid extensions, see Mba and Djiafeua (2003) and Blench and Martin (in progress).

5.2.5 Verb Tenses

In French, we have the present, simple future, prior future, imperfect, regular past, simple past, etc. However, verb tenses in Ngiemboon do not function in the same way. In addition, Ngiemboon conjugated verb forms do not change with different referents.

For the verb **íná** *to give*, for example, when you conjugate it into the present progressive, for all persons the verb result is **ne ínáa**. Only the personal pronoun changes. That is why we have not charted any conjugations according to person.

To distinguish the tenses in Ngiemboon, we use the present tense as a departure point, so the past is considered being before the present, and the future after the present.

Diagram of past and future tenses

P5	P4	P3	P2	P1	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
la lá'	la	ka	ně	˘	ge	ge piŋ	ge gŷo ge lu	ge tó táa ge táa	ge lá'

Note : The analysis shown here is slightly different from that of Anderson (1983).

5.2.5.1 Present tense

There are three present tenses in Ngiemboon:

- Simple present. Example: **À gŷo kó?** **À pfée mmó.** *What is he doing? He is eating something.*
- Progressive present. Example: **À ne ípfée mmó.** *He is in the process of eating.*
- Habitual present. Example: **Aa ípfée mmó.** *He habitually eats.*

Note: Note that the subject is always lengthened in the habitual present tense, even if the elision is not apparent, like in other cases that we will describe in section 5.2.10.2 below.

5.2.5.2 Past tense

We have found five past tenses in Ngiemboon. Each of these five tenses has a marker or a particle that we have underlined below:

- Recent or immediate past (labeled “P1”). It is recognized by a rising tone on the roots of verbs or a high tone marked on their suffixes. Examples: **À lǎ'**. *He just refused.* **À zeté.** *He just asked.* **À kǎ'ǎ.** *He just cut (something).*
- Today past (labeled “P2”). It is used for actions that occurred earlier today and is marked by the particle “**ně**” with a nasal prefix “**ń-**” on the verb. Examples: **À ně ńdú'**. *He refused (earlier today).* **À ně ńzété.** *He asked (earlier today).* **À ně ńkó'**. *He cut (earlier today).*
- Yesterday past (labeled “P3”). This tense is used for actions that happened yesterday and is marked by the particle “**ka**”. Examples: **À ka lǎ'**. *He refused (yesterday).* **À ka zeté.** *He asked (yesterday).* **À ka kǎ'**. *He cut (yesterday).*
- Distant past (labeled “P4”). It is used for actions that occurred before yesterday and is marked by the particle “**la**”. Examples: **À la lǎ' tá mènŋ n gua.** *He refused (earlier) before my departure.* **À la zété tá mènŋ n gua.** *He asked (earlier) before my departure.* **À la kó' tá mènŋ n gua.** *He cut (earlier) before my departure.*
- Long ago past (labeled “P5”). It is used for actions in the very distant past and marked by the two particles “**la lá'**” with the nasal prefix “**ń-**” on the verb. Examples: **À la lá' ńdú' tá mènŋ n gua.** *He refused (long ago) before my departure.* **À la lá' ńzété tá mènŋ n gua.** *He asked (long ago) before my departure.* **À la lá' ńkó' tá mènŋ n gua.** *He cut (long ago) before my departure.*

Note: Note that the status of P5 as “pure time” is questionable because the auxiliary verbs **ńdǎ'**/**lá'** *since* can be used together with three other markers of past time (“**ně**”, “**ka**”, and “**la**”).

5.2.5.3 Future tense

Ngiemboon has five future tenses, all indicated by auxiliary verbs:

- Near future (labeled “F1”) is used for actions that happen in the next few minutes and is marked by an auxiliary verb “ge”. Example: **Mèn n ge pfé.** *I am going to eat (right away).*
- Today future (labeled “F2”) is used for actions that will take place later but not later than today and is marked by auxiliary verbs “ge” and “piŋ”. Example: **Mèn n ge piŋ pfé.** *I will eat (later today).*
- Tomorrow future (labeled “F3”) is used for actions that will happen the following day and is marked by auxiliary verbs “ge” and “gÿo”. Example: **Mèn n ge gÿo pfé.** *I will eat (tomorrow).* In addition, certain speakers may use the auxiliary verbs “ge” and “lu” or “ge” and “tó” rather than “ge” and “gÿo”. Examples: **Mèn n ge lu pfé.** *I will eat (tomorrow).* **Mèn n ge tó pfé.** *I will eat (tomorrow).*
- Distant future (labeled “F4”) is used for actions which occur in the distant future and is marked by the auxiliary verbs “ge” and “táa”. Example: **Mèn n ge táa pfé.** *I will eat (in the distant future).*
- Very distant future (labeled “F5”) is used for actions that occur in the very distant future and is marked by the auxiliary verbs “ge” and “lá’”. Example: **Mèn n ge lá’ pfé.** *I will eat (in the very distant future).*

Note: Note that in all the future tenses, the marker “ge” can be omitted in speech and the subject is automatically lengthened (see section 5.2.10.2 below).

5.2.5.4 Auxiliary verbs

In addition to the markers of future tenses mentioned above, there are other words which serve as auxiliary verbs. These auxiliary verbs are placed before the verb and can undergo certain changes that affect verbs. These auxiliary verbs often serve an adverbial function (that is, when translated into official languages, they function as adverbs). In this dictionary, they are labeled “v.aux.” (auxiliary verb). Some examples are **mbú** *all*, **ngíŋe** *again*, **ngwaa** *before*. Example: **Pó pŭ mbí.** *They took everything.*

In addition, there is an auxiliary verb “**ndá’**” *already, since*, used for prior past tenses, as shown in the following examples:

N gwaa tó, mbà à ka lá’ fa’a fà’. *Before I arrive, he will have already worked.*

Mèn n ge gwaa tó, mbà à ně ndá’ ngua. *Before I arrive, he will have already left.*

5.2.6 Verb aspects

There are four verb aspects that can occur with all the tense markings.

- Perfective aspect (no marker). Example: **À ză’ mbab.** *He just finished cutting the meat.*
- Imperfective aspect (with the long vowel or an “echo vowel”). Example: **À zá’a mbab.** *He cuts the meat.*
- Habitual aspect (with a long vowel on the pronoun and an “echo vowel”). Example: **Aa ízá’a mbab.** *He habitually cuts meat.*
- Progressive aspect (with “ne” and an “echo vowel”). Example: **À ne ízá’a mbab.** *He is in the process of cutting the meat.*

5.2.7 Complex markers

There are certain grammatical markers in Ngiemboon that indicate several verb categories at once:

- P3 past habitual “**kǝn**”. Example: **À kǝn íkǝ’ mbab.** *He had the habit of cutting meat.*

- P3 past perfective emphatic counter expectation “**kéen**”. Example: **À kéen ígua**. *He left (contrary to our expectations).*
- P4 past habitual “**lǝn**”. Example: **À lǝn íkó’w mbab**. *He had the habit of cutting meat.*
- P4 past perfective emphatic counter expectation “**léen**”. Example: **À léen ígua**. *He left (contrary to our expectations).*
- Progressive realis (“**ne**” with a nasal prefix “**ń-**” on the verb, with the past and present tense markings, although never future ones). Example: **À ka ne íkó’w mbab**, ... *He is in the process of cutting the meat.*
- Emphatic progressive realis (“**ssé**” with a nasal prefix “**ń-**” on the verb, with past and present markings, although never future ones). Example: **À kaa ssé íkó’w mbab**, ... *He is really in the process of cutting the meat...*

Note: Note that the nasal prefix “**ń-**” at the beginning of the verb can have several meanings: imperfective realis (as in the case here); today past (P2); same subject; etc.

5.2.8 Verb moods

5.2.8.1 Infinitive (or “consecutive”) mood

The infinitive is the impersonal form of the verb, often used in Ngiemboon to express actions that follow others. It is characterized by a nasal prefix with high tone joined to the root of the verb. This form is the citation form for all verbs in the dictionary. This form (also called “consecutive”) is used when a verb immediately follows another verb (even after an auxiliary verb). Example: **ńkaa** to carry. **À tǝ ńkaa kán**. *He came and carried the plate.*

5.2.8.2 Indicative mood or “real” mood

It expresses actions that are:

- Completed. Examples: **À tǝ**. *He came.* **À kaa tǝo**. *He did not come.*
- Becoming realized. Examples: **À ne ńpfée?** *Is he in the process of eating?* **À te ne ńpfée wó**. *He is not in the process of eating.*
- Future happening. Examples: **À ge tǝ?** *Is he going to come?* **À te tǝ wó**. *He will not come.* **À cu’ú ńtǝo tǝ**. *He is arriving soon.* **À cu’ú ne ńtǝo wó**. *He will not be coming again.*

5.2.8.3 Imperative mood

The imperative mood has several characteristics:

1. the subject of the clause must always be in the second person;
2. the vowel of the verb is always lengthened;
3. its function is to express a strong necessity or a command;
4. this mood only occurs in main clauses.

There are two variants of this mood according to the number of persons. If there is only one person, the clause exists without any subject marking; if there are several persons in the clause, the normal subject **pi** is present, as in the following examples:

Example in the singular: **Kúu ndá!** *Enter into the house!*

Example in the plural: **Pi kúu ndá!** *Enter (plural) into the house!*

Note: Note that this conjugation never occurs with first or third person pronouns.

5.2.8.4 Subjunctive mood

Although the subjunctive mode resembles the imperative by the fact that the vowel of the verb is always lengthened, this mood contrasts with the imperative by the following characteristics:

1. the subject of the clause can be any person;
2. its function is to express a mild necessity (with politeness);
3. this mood can only occur in subordinate clauses.

See the following examples:

!Ngie à kúu ndá! *May he enter into the house!*

!Ngwó ò kúu ndá! *You may (please) enter into the house!*

Note: Note that all subjunctive phrases are marked with two points of exclamation, one at the beginning and the other at the end (see section 4.6.3 above).

5.2.8.5 Conditional mood

A conditional clause expresses contingency. This type of clause is always followed by a second clause that introduces the result (with **mbà**). There are two different forms:

- in the past (with “**gwe’e**”). Example: **À gwe’e ntó, mbà mèn e shwóno yé.** *If he had come, I would have said it.*
- in the future or the present (with “**lɔɔn**”). Examples: **À lɔɔn ntó, mbà peg yé gua.** *If he comes, I will go with him.* **À lɔɔn ngýo ntó, mbà mèn n ge shwóno gú.** *In the case that he comes, I will (then) tell you.*

5.2.9 Adjectives

Among adjectives, one must distinguish between qualifiers, possessives, interrogatives, demonstratives, and numbers.

5.2.9.1 Qualifiers

Qualifiers appear in three forms: simple, reduplicated before nouns, and reduplicated after nouns. When the qualifier occurs before a noun, the emphasis is put on the adjective (with more emphasis on the reduplicated form). The reduplicated form after the noun is used to put more emphasis on the noun; the emphasis is therefore always on the first word of the noun phrase. In the examples below, the reduplicated adjectives which carry the emphasis are underlined:

Simple form:

fógo pòon *white sack*
nkò’ò pòon *small sack*
pàn nzsö *red outfit*

Reduplicated form:

féfógo pòon *white sack*
tùtù’u nyìŋ *short person*
pepàn nzsö *red outfit*

5.2.9.2 Possessives

Possessive forms vary according to their nominal class. With nouns, the possessive generally occurs afterwards. When occurring before nouns, the possessive is prefixed with “**a-**” with class 1 and 7 nouns, and with “**e-**” for the remaining classes. In their position before nouns, the emphasis is always on the adjective. In the examples below, the adjectives are underlined:

Fòŋ wòon *my cow (cl. 1, normal adj. poss.)*
Awòon fòŋ *it is mine, this cow (cl. 1, emph. adj. poss.)*
Metóon pú *your rocks (cl. 2, normal adj. poss.)*
Epú metóon *it is yours, these rocks (cl. 2, emph. adj. poss.)*

Possessive adjectives, besides varying according to their noun class, also vary according to their identity as personal pronouns. This comes from the variations in the two tables below:

Table 3: Singular possessives

Class	Singular		
	1s <i>my</i>	2s <i>your</i>	3s <i>his/her/its</i>
1	wḁḁn	gù	we
2	pḁḁn	pú	pé
3	wḁḁn	gú	wé
4	mḁḁn	mú	mé
5	sḁḁn	shú	sé
6	mḁḁn	mú	mé
7	yḁḁn	jú	yé
8	sḁḁn	shú	sé
9	yḁḁn	jù	ye
10	yḁḁn	jú	yé

Note: Note that the possessives modifying noun classes 1 and 9 always carry a low tone, except in the third person where the tone is always mid.

Table 4: Plural possessives

Class	Plural				
	1s + 2s the two of our	1p + 2 our inclusive	1p our exclusive	2p your	3p their
1	wḁḁḁ	wege	weg	gḁí	wḁb
2	pḁḁḁ	pégè	pég	pí	pḁb
3	wḁḁḁ	wégè	wég	gḁí	wḁb
4	mḁḁḁ	mégè	még	mí	mḁb
5	sḁḁḁ	ségè	ség	sí	sḁb
6	mḁḁḁ	mégè	még	mí	mḁb
7	yḁḁḁ	yégè	yég	gí	yḁb
8	sḁḁḁ	ségè	ség	sí	sḁb
9	yḁḁḁ	yege	yeg	gi	yḁb
10	yḁḁḁ	yégè	yég	gí	yḁb

Note: Remember that the plural possessives modifying nouns of classes 1 and 9 do not carry a tone mark.

Note: If it turns out that the adjectival and pronominal forms of the possessives are identical and that their only difference is the fact that one modifies a noun and the other does not, it would eventually be helpful to use the umbrella term “possessive” as their unique grammatical category having “adjectival” or “pronominal” uses according to their grammatical context.

5.2.9.3 Demonstratives

Like possessive adjectives, demonstratives, in addition to a variation according to their noun class, undergo variation related to the distance of the object from the speakers. We thus speak of near, middle, and long distance demonstratives.

Keep in mind that the near and far demonstratives do not have tone marks. The table below illustrates this phenomena:

Tableau 5: Demonstratifs

Class	Near	Middle	Far
1	wɔɔn	wê	gwi
2	pɔɔn	pê	pi
3	wɔɔn	wê	gwi
4	mɔɔn	mê	mi
5	sɔɔn	sê	si
6	mɔɔn	mê	mi
7	yɔɔn	yê	gi
8	sɔɔn	sê	si
9	yɔɔn	yê	gi
10	yɔɔn	yê	gi

Near (dem.1) = close to the speaker

Middle (dem.2) = close to the hearer

Far (dem.3) = far from both the speaker and hearer

Note: If it turns out that the adjectival and pronominal forms are identical and that they only differ in that one modifies a noun and the other does not, it will eventually be helpful to use the umbrella term “demonstrative” as their unique grammatical category having “adjectival” or “pronominal” uses according to their grammatical context.

The following examples illustrate some contexts of demonstrative adjectives placed both before and after the noun:

Normal adj. dem.

pwó yɔɔn *this hand*
kwɔ̀'ɔ sê *those chairs*
nká' gwi *that field over there*

Emphatic adj. dem.

ayɔɔn pwó *this very hand here*
esê kwɔ̀'ɔ *those very chairs there*
egwi nká' *that very field over there*

5.2.9.4 Interrogatives

Like the possessive and demonstrative adjectives, the form of the interrogative adjectives “which?” and its derived forms vary according to the nominal class; but regardless of the class, they always carry a rising tone. As for their position with respect to nouns, they always occur before the noun.

Table 6: Interrogative adjectives

Class	“Which?”
1	wě
2	pě
3	wě
4	mě
5	sě
6	mě
7	yě
8	sě
9	yě
10	yě

Examples:

Wě nyìŋ? *Which person (cl. 1)?*
Á wě nyìŋ? *Which person?*
Sě lejýǝg ne ńgyáŋa? *Which eye (cl. 5) is sore?*

5.2.9.5 Cardinal numbers

Numbers always occur after the nouns except “tà” *one* which occurs before the noun. Most numbers do not agree with the nouns; only numbers “one” to “five” and the interrogative adjective “*how many of?*” agree with them. This is illustrated in the table below:

Table 7: Cardinal numbers

Class	<i>one</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>four</i>	<i>Five</i>	<i>How many?</i>
1	wémɔ́ʔ					
2		pépúá	pétá	pélékùá	pétúá	péshyǎʔ
3	wémɔ́ʔ					
4		mémábúá	méntá	mélékùá	méntúá	méshyǎʔ
5	séléɔ́ʔ					
6		mémábúá	méntá	mélékùá	méntúá	méshyǎʔ
7	yémɔ́ʔ					
8		sépúá	sétá	sélékùá	sétúá	séshyǎʔ
9	yémɔ́ʔ					
10		yépúá	yétá	yélékùá	yétúá	yéshyǎʔ

Examples:

tǎy̌ yémɔ́ʔ	<i>one tree (cl. 7)</i>
tǎy̌ sépúá	<i>two trees (cl. 8)</i>
ntú' yémɔ́ʔ	<i>one calabash (cl. 9)</i>
mentú' méntúá	<i>five calabashes (cl. 4)</i>
Mekwòʔ méshyǎʔ?	<i>How many stools (cl. 6)?</i>

5.2.9.6 Participle “N̄-”

The participle is a verb root that becomes an adjective by adding a nasal prefix with low tone “/N̄-/”. (Note that this prefix directly contrasts with the infinitive form of the verb where the tone of the nasal prefix is instead high “/N̄-/”). Even though the adjective status is not well established, the participle is almost always used in Ngiemboon with an “adjectival” function (i.e., a function modifying the sense of another noun, in positions where certain languages use adjectives). We can therefore find it as the second word in the noun phrase, as in the following examples:

A ma' nzsǎ ntēm. *He is wearing a tailored outfit.*

Pó jũ mbab mpfě. *They bought edible (able to be eaten) meat.*

In addition, participles have forms in which they add an agreement pre-prefix to mark emphasis, as in the following examples:

A ma' menzsǎ mentēm. *He is wearing tailored (emphatic cl. 4) clothing (cl. 4).*

Anò gwó pó ngie nzsǎ yòon gwó yentēm.
Provided that my clothing (cl. 9) be tailored (emphatic cl. 9).

5.2.10 Pronouns

5.2.10.1 Personal

The following table displays the personal pronouns:

Table 8: Personal pronouns

		exclusive	inclusive (2nd singular)	inclusive (2nd plural)
Singular	1st pers.	n, m, e, mènɛ	pògɔ ¹	
	2nd pers.	à, gù		
	3rd pers.	à, á, yé, mé		
Plural	1st pers.	peg		pege
	2nd pers.	pi		
	3rd pers.	pó		

¹ This pronoun pògɔ may only be used in reference to one human in first person and one other in second person, in French *toi and moi*.

5.2.10.2 General subjects

The general subject pronouns always agree with the nouns that they replace. They always occur before the verb.

Table 9: General subject pronouns

Class	Anaph. pron.	Class	Anaph. pron.
1	à / aa	6	é / ée
2	é / ée	7	á / áa
3	é / ée	8	é / ée
4	é / ée	9	è / ee
5	é / ée	10	é / ée

In Ngiemboon, when subject pronouns are lengthened, it is generally due to elision of the verb “**ńgwó/gé**” *to be*. The following examples illustrate the short pronouns in the table:

Acÿð', á gwě ssé. *The hat (cl. 7), it (cl. 7) fell.*

Á gwě nzǎ? *It's fallen where?*

À tǒ ńtsó' ncwò ndá, é cunpte.

(While) opening the door (cl. 3), it (cl. 3) was ruined.

Note: These general subject pronouns often replace the locution “it's” in English, as in the second example above.

For lengthened pronouns, note that in all the various future tenses (see section 5.2.5.3 above), the marker “**ge**” may be omitted in the formulation of the clause and automatically the subject is lengthened. This happens very often in spoken Ngiemboon. We advise not using lengthening of these pronouns in formal writing, even if it is accepted in a very informal style. See the following examples:

À ge pǎé. or informal: Aa pǎé.

He is going to eat.

Mènǎ, n ge pǎé. or informal: Mènǎe pǎé.

Myself, I am going to eat.

Another case of lengthened subject pronouns occurs when the verb **ńgwǎ** *to be* is elided between a subject pronoun and a complement, as in the following examples:

À gwǎ mámbàǎa. or informal: Aa mámbàǎa. *It is a man.*

À gwǎ mbàa. or informal: Aa mbàa. *It is a compound.*

5.2.10.3 Possessives

Possessive pronouns **awe**, **aweg**, **agwǐ** and **awǎb** for class 1 and **eye**, **eyeg**, **egi** and **eyǎb** for class 9 have a mid tone, that is, an unmarked tone as you will notice in the following table.

Table 10: Possessive pronouns

Class	Singular			Plural		
	1st pers.	2nd pers.	3rd pers.	1st pers.	2nd pers.	3rd pers.
1	(a)wǎǎn	(a)gǔ	(a)we	(a)weg	(a)gǔwǐ	(a)wǎb
2	(e)pǎǎn	(e)pǔ	(e)pé	(e)pég	(e)pǐ	(e)pǎb
3	(e)wǎǎn	(e)gǔ	(e)wé	(e)wég	(e)gǔwǐ	(e)wǎb
4	(e)mǎǎn	(e)mǔ	(e)mé	(e)még	(e)mǐ	(e)mǎb
5	(e)sǎǎn	(e)shǔ	(e)sé	(e)ség	(e)sǐ	(e)sǎb
6	(e)mǎǎn	(e)mǔ	(e)mé	(e)még	(e)mǐ	(e)mǎb
7	(a)yǎǎn	(a)jǔ	(a)yé	(a)yég	(a)gǐ	(a)yǎb
8	(e)sǎǎn	(e)shǔ	(e)sé	(e)ség	(e)sǐ	(e)sǎb
9	(e)yǎǎn	(e)jǔ	(e)ye	(e)yeg	(e)gi	(e)yǎb
10	(e)yǎǎn	(e)jǔ	(e)yé	(e)yég	(e)gǐ	(e)yǎb

Note: In the table, the parentheses around the prefixes signify that these prefixes are always present after a pause.

Note: If it turns out that the adjectival and pronominal forms are identical and that they only differ in that one modifies a noun and the other does not, it will eventually be helpful to use the umbrella term “demonstrative” as their unique grammatical category having “adjectival” or “pronominal” uses according to their grammatical context.

To avoid ambiguity between the possessive pronoun **wǎǎn** *mine* and the demonstrative pronoun **wǎǎn** *this/this here*, it was decided to add a grave accent on the former, even though the two words are pronounced exactly the same.

Example:

Awǎǎn wǎ mǔ? **Awǎǎn** kǎg tǎ’.

This one here is which child? Mine is very small.

In this phrase, “**Awǎǎn**” is the demonstrative pronoun while “**Awǎǎn**” is the possessive pronoun.

5.2.10.4 Demonstratives

Demonstrative pronouns do not have a tone mark except the one for middle distance which carries a falling tone, as illustrated in the following table:

Tableau 12 Demonstrative pronouns

Classe	Near	Middle	Far
1	(a)wɔɔn	(a)wê	(a)gwi
2	(e)pɔɔn	(e)pê	(e)pi
3	(e)wɔɔn	(e)wê	(e)gwi
4	(e)mɔɔn	(e)mê	(e)mi
5	(e)sɔɔn	(e)sê	(e)si
6	(e)mɔɔn	(e)mê	(e)mi
7	(a)yɔɔn	(a)yê	(a)gi
8	(e)sɔɔn	(e)sê	(e)si
9	(e)yɔɔn	(e)yê	(e)gi
10	(e)yɔɔn	(e)yê	(e)gi

Note: In the table, the parentheses on the prefix indicates that the prefixes are always present after a pause.

Note: If it turns out that the adjectival and pronominal forms are identical and that they only differ in that one modifies a noun and the other does not, it will eventually be helpful to use the umbrella term “demonstrative” as the unique grammatical category having “adjectival” or “pronominal” uses according to their grammatical context.

Example: Apɔɔn yɔɔn, gua nkaa gi.

Here is the sack (cl. 7), go carry that one there (cl. 7).

5.2.10.5 Relatives and interrogatives

In the table below, we see that all relative pronouns carry a mid tone while interrogative pronouns carry a rising tone.

Table 11: Relative and interrogatives pronouns

Class	Rel. pron.	Interr. pron.
1	gwie	(a)wě
2	pie	(e)pě
3	gwie	(e)wě
4	mie	(e)mě
5	sie	(e)sě
6	mie	(e)mě
7	gie	(e)yě
8	sie	(e)sě
9	gie	(e)yě
10	gie	(e)yě

Note: In the table, the parentheses around certain vowels indicate that those prefixes occur only after a pause.

Examples:

Tsɔ' lesɔŋ sie é ne ngyáŋa! Take out the tooth (cl. 5) that (cl. 5) is hurting!

Gua nkaa tétɔ' gwi! Á wě? Go carry that bottle. Which one is it?

Mé pfě ngesán. Awě nyiŋ pfě ngesán?

We ate the corn. Which (cl. 1) person (cl. 1) ate the corn?

5.2.10.6 Indefinite pronouns

The indefinite subject pronoun “**mé**” is the only pronoun that does not show agreement. Example: **Mé tǒ ndá.** *Someone came to the house.*

Nevertheless, the pronoun “**tsǒ**” *certain/other* agrees with the nominal class, but only with its tone. Examples:

À gyǎ tsǒ. *He saw the other thing* (something belonging to class 1 or 9).

À gyǎ tsó. *He saw the other thing* (something belonging to one of the other classes).

Note: Note that the two pronouns just mentioned can function as adjectives when they occur next to a noun.

5.2.11 Prepositions

Like certain indefinite pronouns, prepositions do not agree in class, tense or person. This grammatical category consists of words such as: “**á**” *at, in*; “**né**” *at, in, for*; “**lé**” *at, with, in, for*; “**ngwaa**” *before*; “**lâ**” *with*; “**pâ**” *with*; “**lê**” *with*; “**nê**” *with*; “**mbɔɔ**” *even, with, and*; “**tà**” *until*; “**ndùm**” *above*; “**tsèè**” *in*; “**tsije**” *below*; “**tsetsèè**” *in the midst of, between*; “**nzèm**” *behind*; “**mvfò**” *in front of*; “**gwǒŋ**” *next to*; etc. In the examples below, the prepositions are underlined:

À ně ígua nzǒ? Á metúa. *Where is he leaving for? To the market.*

À tǒ tà ítyé ncwò ndá. *He came all the way to stand at the door.*

5.2.12 Adverbs

5.2.12.1 Quantity, place, time, manner, etc.

There are actual adverbs in Ngiemboon that occur for the most part immediately following verbs. Example:

Mèn n ge náa méju’. *I will give a little of it.*

Here is a list of some adverbs: “**te**” *too much, very*; “**ndà**” *only*; “**mbòŋ**” *well*; “**mbonó**” *well*; “**tèpòŋ**” *badly*; “**ntsèm ntsèm**” *all, equally*; “**fù’wɔn**” *now*; “**nzǒ?**” *where?*; “**lyě’wɔn**” *today*; “**lyě**” *ntsèm*” *daily*; “**mega’á**” *a little*; “**ígyóɔn**” *many*; “**íkáɔg**” *little*; etc.

There are also certain adverbs that only occur at the end of clauses, such as “**lee**” (*far from the speaker*) and “**lêe**” (*a longtime ago*) in the following examples:

N tsye’té lee! *I greet you (you, over there)!*

À ně ídá’ ígua lêe. *He left a long time ago.*

In addition to the true adverbs shown in this section, there are other constructions that are not adverbs grammatically but which convey an adverbial idea. We mentioned this already in the section on auxiliary verbs (see section 5.2.5.4 above).

There are also certain verb constructions (where the verb is doubled) that convey an adverbial idea, as in the following examples:

A tǒ ju’wɔn tǒ ngua ntá. *He came here (impatiently) three times.*

Mèn ge tó ná ná. *I will give at any cost.*

In addition, there is a particle “**mé**” (*in the distant past*) that has a time function and that shows a degree of distance in the past, as in the examples below:

Á la gwó tsǒ fù’, ... *At a certain moment (in the past), ...*

Á la mé ígwó tsǒ fù’, ... *At a certain moment (in the distant past), ...*

Á la mé ígwó tsǒ fù’ lêe, ... *At a certain moment (further in the past), ...*

5.2.12.2 Adverbs of negation

Negative clauses are formed by adding certain particles before the verb. Here are the eight negative particles the most used in Ngiemboon:

- “kaa”: À kaa mmó pfée. *He has not eaten.*
- “tè”: À tè ju’wón wó. *He is not here.*
- “té”: Ì lóon nyé té pfé, mbà á ge pág. *If you leave it uneaten, it is going to spoil.*
- “tëen”: À tëen ngee mpfée wó. *He will not eat.*
- “lê”: À lóon ntóño yé, á lê zwín. *If he calls her, she will not accept.*
- “laa”: À laa ju’wón too. *He never came here.*
- “mžon”: Ì jũ’ nge à mžon ntó ka. *So far, he has not come.*
- “tà”: Tà pi gíne ncúa mú. *Do not touch the child again.*

Note that after the particles “tè” and “tëen”, there is an additional negative particle “wó” or “mž” at the end of the clause in order to close the negative clause. Examples:

Mèn n tëen nge mpfée wó. *I will not eat.*

Sžon té shúm sžon mž. *These things here do not belong to me.*

5.2.12.3 Ideophone adverbs

The Ngiemboon language has a class of ideophones which have three characteristics:

1. They are always preceded by a conjunction “complementer” “lê” (see section 5.2.12.6.1 below);
2. The two words together always directly follow the verb;
3. Their function is to intensify the verb phrase.

For example:

Azoon cžóg lê cún. *The safou is very acidic.*

Matúa của lê fím. *The car takes off very fast.*

5.2.12.4 Conjunctions

Conjunctions in Ngiemboon are divided into two subgroups: the sub-group of coordination and that of subordination.

5.2.12.5 Coordination

These are words such as: “tá” *but*; “kà” *or*; “pž” *and*; “pú’u la” *so that*; “tà” *or*; “tá mbà” *even though, so that*; “tá” *but*; etc. In the examples that follow, the coordinating conjunctions are underlined:

Efyág ne nkúu te’, tá, à tè zžg mmžg wó. *It is very cold out, but it will not heat up.*

Mèn n nă, à tè kwé, tá mbà á kž’ó ne ndú. *I gave, he did not take it even though he had asked.*

5.2.12.6 Subordination

In Ngiemboon, subordinate conjunctions are divided into two subgroups: the subgroup of complementizers and that of other conjunctions.

5.2.12.6.1 Complementizers

par Stephen C. Anderson et Prosper DJIAFEUA

There are two “complementizer” conjunctions in Ngiemboon, “**ngie**” *that, this* and “**lê**” *that, by*. These two small conjunctions have the role of introducing special things: “**ngie**” introduces direct or indirect speech and “**lê**” introduces the sounds of things, either the sound of a word or of a person, or by the means of ideophones (see section 5.2.12.3 above), as in the examples below:

À gǝn **ngie**: “Tóo ípfée mmó!” He said this: “Come eat!”

Mǝnfũ ka gǝn **ngie** à te tó wǝ. Manfo said that he ought not to come.

Mé tǝn yé **lê** Ngú’fǝon. We call him by (saying) Ngouffo.

À gǝ sǝíntè tà ícúme **lê** aameen. He prayed until closing by (saying) “amen”.

Andũm tǝn **lê** gǝííííí. The owl hooted by (hooting sound)

À kǝ’ǝ tǝǝ, á gwe **lê** bíb. The tree that he cut fell with the noise “bíb”.

5.2.12.6.2 Other subordinate conjunctions

There are also other subordinate conjunctions such as: “**pá**” *as*; “**mélà’mie**” *because*; “**ńtí pá**” *because*; etc. Examples:

Mèñ m pfée mmó **mélà’mie** nzyè ne ígyáña wǝn. I eat because I am hungry.

Sǝnkwe jũ kán **pá**’ yǝn. Sonkwe bought a plate like mine.

5.3 Conclusion

This section concludes the grammatical sketch of Ngiemboon without claiming that it is exhaustive. There are always more details yet to discover, but we hope that this document has helped you understand the most fundamental aspects of the language.

We hope that with the presentation of the background through to the introduction, the phonological sketch, the guide to the Ngiemboon orthography and this grammar sketch, those who use this dictionary will be well outfitted to make good use of the dictionary. May your research be fruitful!

Bibliography

General documents:

- Anderson, Stephen C. 1976a. A Phonology of Ngyemboon-Bamileke. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1976b. Ngyembɔɔn Orthography. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1978. Mapping and Tone Rules in Ngyembɔɔn-Bamileke. Los Angeles: University of Southern California.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1980a. The Noun Classes of Ngyembɔɔn-Bamileke, in Larry M. Hyman (ed.), *Noun Classes in the Grassfields Bantu Borderland*, Southern California Occasional Papers in Linguistics, Volume 8, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, pp. 37-56.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1980b. *Lexique Français-Ngyembɔɔn*. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1980c. Tense/Aspect in Ngyembɔɔn-Bemileke. Paper presented at the 14th annual W.A.L.S. Conference in Cotonou, Benin.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1981. An Autosegmental Account of Bamileke-Dschang Tonology. *Journal of Linguistic Research*, 1,4: 74-94. Indiana University Linguistics Club.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1982. From Semivowels to Aspiration to Long Consonants in Ngyembɔɔn-Bamileke. *Journal of West African Languages*, 12,2: 58-68.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1983. Tone and Morpheme Rules in Ngyemboon-Bamileke. Doctoral Dissertation: University of Southern California.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1985. Animate and Inanimate Pronominal Systems in Ngyembɔɔn-Bamileke. *Journal of West African Languages*, 15,2: 61-74.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1987. Orthography Statement – Ngyembɔɔn language. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 2001. Phonological Characteristics of Eastern Grassfields Languages. In Nguessimo M. Mutaka and Sammy B. Chumbow, ed. *Research Mate in African Linguistics: Focus on Cameroon*, 33-54. Köln: Rüdiger Köppe Verlag.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 2007, révisé 2014a. Précis d'orthographe pour la langue ngiemboon. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 2008, revised 2014b. Phonological Sketch of Ngiemboon. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.

- BLENCH, ROGER AND MARIEKE MARTIN. (2014, In preparation). NGIEMBOON VERBAL EXTENSIONS: A NEW ANALYSIS.
- Bird, Steven et Maurice TADADJEU (eds.). 1997. Petit dictionnaire yémbo-français. Yaoundé: NACALCO.
- Handbook of the International Phonetics Association: a Guide to the Use of the International Phonetic Alphabet. 1999. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyman, Larry M. and Maurice TADADJEU. 1976. Floating tones in Mbam-Nkam. In Larry M. Hyman, ed. *Studies in Bantu Tonology. Southern California Occasional Papers in Linguistics (SCOPIL)*, Volume 3: 57-111. Los Angeles: University of Southern California.
- Hyman, Larry M. (ed.) 1980. *Noun classes in the Grassfields Bantu borderland*, Southern California Occasional Papers in Linguistics, Volume 8. Los Angeles: University of Southern California.
- Lewis, M. Paul, Gary F. Simons, and Charles D. Fennig (eds.). 2013. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World, Seventeenth edition*. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. Online version: <http://www.ethnologue.com>
- LONFO, Etienne. 2003. Grammaire orthographique ngiemboon. (unpublished manuscript, 28 pp.).
- Mba, Gabriel & Prosper Djiafeua. 2003. Les extensions verbales en Ngiembɔɔn. In: Idiata, D.F. & G. Mba eds. 2003. *Studies on voice through verbal extensions in nine Bantu languages spoken in Cameroon, Gabon, DRC and Rwanda*. 113-166. München: Lincom Europa.
- Mutaka, Ngessimo M. and Chumbow, Sammy B. 2001. (eds.) *Research Mate in African Linguistics: Focus on Cameroun*. Köln: Rüdiger Köppe Verlag.
- NDIOLA TSUATA, Laurence. 2008. La syntaxe du ɲgɛmbɔɔɲ: Étude fonctionnelle des types de questions. Mémoire du diplôme du D.E.A. Yaoundé: Université de Yaounde I.
- NGOUANE TAMENKEM, Michel A. 1979. La relation de l'homme ngyemba avec Dieu (Sse). Dissertation présentée sur la philosophie de religion, Bambui, Cameroon: Regional Major Seminary.
- NGOUANE, Michel. 1976. Idiomes en Ngyembɔɔn. Yaoundé: SIL Cameroun. ms.
- NJOYA, Ibrahīm. 2007. Identificational vs. Informational Focus in Makaa and Ngiemboon: Interaction between Syntax and Semantics. MA thesis. Yaounde: University of Yaounde I.
- Roberts, James. 2002. Élaboration d'un dictionnaire. (unpublished manuscript).
- SA'A TANGWA, Elvis, Martin TATIODJIO et Zacharie SAHO. 2008. *Royauté guerrière et féodalité démocratique bamiléké: la prospective Batcham*. Mbouda, Cameroun: Knowledge for all (KRA).

- TADADJEU, Maurice et SADEMBOUO, Etienne (éds.). 1979. *Alphabet Général des Langues Camerounaises*. PROPELCA 1. Yaoundé: Université de Yaoundé.
- TADADJEU, Maurice. 1974. Floating tones, shifting rules, and downstep in Dschang-Bamileke. *Studies in African Linguistics*, Supplement 5: 282-290.
- TANTANT, Robert. 2000. Les classes nominales ngiemboon (traduction en français de Anderson, 1980). (unpublished manuscript).
- Voorhoeve, Jan. 1971. Tonology of the Bamileke noun. *Journal of African Languages*. 10: 44-53.

Documents in Ngiemboon:

- Anderson, Stephen C.. 1976 et 1982. *Manuel pour lire et écrire la langue ngyembɔɔn*. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1977 et 1982. **Esag-legya Ngyembɔɔn** (Ngiemboon proverbes). Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1984. *Mères saines et enfants heureux*. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. 1986. *Contes ngyembɔɔn*. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. et Juliette H. Anderson. 1987a. **Pége zí'í létoŋ ngyembɔɔn: 1** (Learn to read and write Ngiemboon: Volume 1). Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anderson, Stephen C. et Juliette H. Anderson. 1987b. **Pége zí'í létoŋ ngyembɔɔn: 2** (Learn to read and write Ngiemboon: Volume 2). Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- Anò Káŋndè ɲwà'ne ngàŋa sekúd** (Kande Story: HIV/SIDA). 2007. CABTAL.
- Bulletin d'information en langue ngiemboon, No 1 à 5. 1998. Yaoundé, Cameroun: CLN-CABTAL.
- Evangile de Luc en langue ngiemboon. 2000. Yaoundé, Cameroun: CABTAL.
- Evangile de Marc en langue ngiemboon. 1999. Yaoundé, Cameroun: CABTAL.
- Evangile de Matthieu en langue ngiemboon. 2002. Yaoundé, Cameroun: CABTAL.
- (Jesus Film in Ngiemboon). 2003. Campus pour Christ, Cameroun.
- Jag, I-II Pie** (James and I-II Peter in Ngiemboon). 1984. Yaoundé, Cameroun: Comité de traduction biblique en langue ngyembɔɔn.
- Kantig ngyembɔɔn** (Protestant songs). 1998. Yaoundé, Cameroun: CABTAL.
- KENNE, FOUAFANG David. 1981. **Menyɔɔg ɲwa'ne Ngyembɔɔn** (Ngiemboon alphabet book). Bamboutos, Cameroun.

- Kùà Sŵé** (Ngiemboon New Testament). 2007. Yaoundé, Cameroun: Alliance Biblique du Cameroun.
- Leswè ñgwa' Kamalûm** (Fish farming in Cameroun). 2005. CABTAL.
- LONFO, Etienne. 1999. Le paresseux et le marabout. Mbouda, Cameroun, Etienne Lonfo.
- LONFO, Etienne. 1999. Recueil des poèmes. (unpublished manuscript).
- Mezɔɔ Ntse Pàa Kristo** (Protestant Songs). 2002 et 2005. Yaoundé, Cameroun: CABTAL.
- NGONDA, Frédéric. 1976. **Shwoŋe Ngyembɔɔn: Kwa lyu'u, Pu'kwɔb, Saglegyua**. Yaoundé, Cameroun: SIL.
- NGOUANE, Michel, YATABON Albert, SAHATSOP Isidore (eds.). 1981. **Azɔɔ-ntse puɔ Sse ne shwoŋe ngyembɔɔn** (Catholic songs in Ngiemboon). Batcham: Mission Catholique de Bangang.
- Ŋwa'ne Sŵi nte** (Eucharistic prayers, II, III et IV). 1981. Mbouda, Cameroun: Diocèse de Bafoussam.
- Nzɔɔ-ntse ngyembɔɔn** (Protestant songs in Ngiemboon). 1980.
- SANDUO, Lazare, DONFACK Jean, YONTA Moïse, TCHOUBOU Emmanuel. 2005. Chants des enfants de Christ (Protestant). Yaoundé, Cameroun: CABTAL.
- Wɔɔn aa pá' ñgwó ò lá' ñkwé á gwó!** (Your life film). Traduit par CABTAL. 2007. Chick Publications, USA.