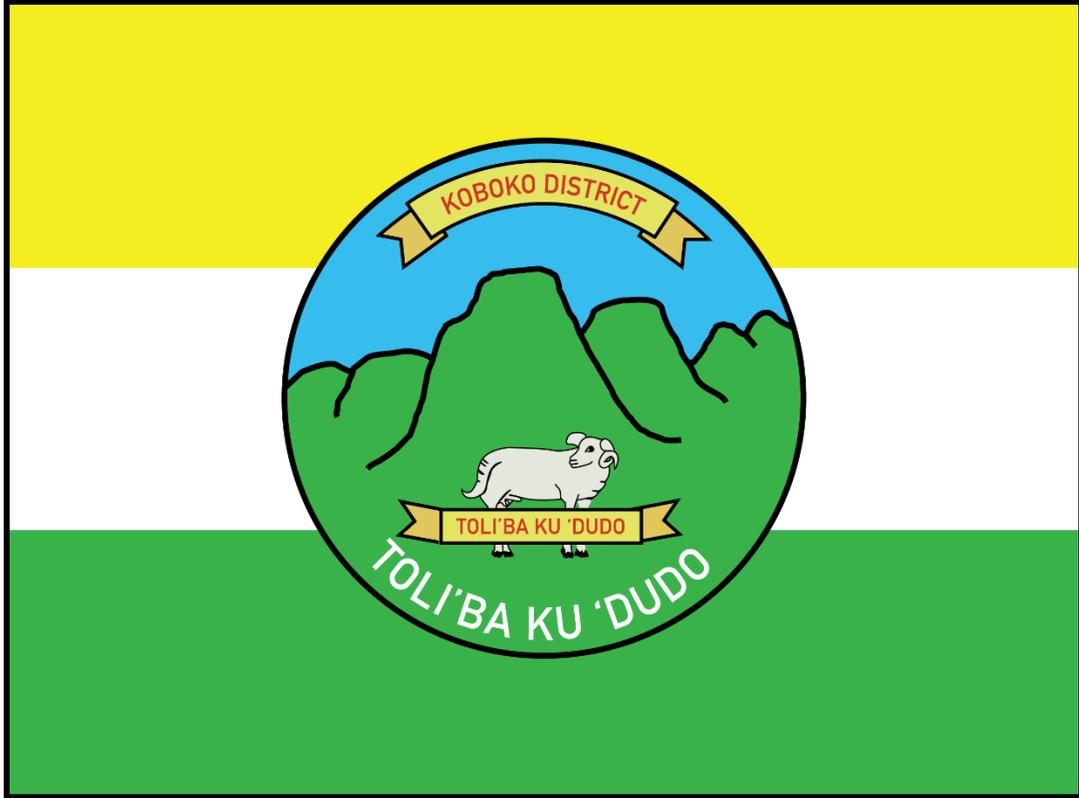


**Buku naga na yakiya wuroni
lokuliye lo Kakwa**



The Kakwa Orthography

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THE KAKWA ORTHOGRAPHY

Published on behalf of the Kakwa Language Board by LABE (Uganda) and Choice Publications (UK)

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FOREWORD

The need by all communities in Uganda to have their languages recognised in the form of written literature is one of the greatest concerns for all Ugandans.

This orthography has been prepared in accordance with the Government of Uganda's policy on language in education which recognizes and provides for multilingual literacy. Having been outlined in the Education White Paper (1992) and implemented through the Thematic Curriculum (2007), local languages are now valued as the medium of education in P1 - P3 and in adult literacy classes.

It is the intention of the Kakwa Language Board to launch this orthography into the local education system to empower learners to claim, utilise and celebrate their basic right of learning literacy in their first language.

It is our heartfelt hope that the correct way to write the Kakwa language, as captured and explained in the following pages will inspire a new generation of writers.

PREFACE

This book shows the orthography of the Kakwa language which is from the Bari language family - a sub group of the Nilo-Hamitic language family. Other languages of Bari origin are Kuku, Pojulu, Mundari and Nyamgbara, amongst others: all of which share words, expressions and sentences with the same or similar meaning.

Kakwa culture, in general and Kakwa language, in particular, exists largely in oral form. It is for this reason that to date, the only written text in the Kakwa language is The Bible. Even this text has inconsistencies as there was no orthography to refer to at the time it was translated.

The Kakwa language is spoken by approximately 165,000 people in Koboko District, and a few people in the neighbouring districts of Moyo and Yumbe in Uganda and a good number of people in South Sudan and the north eastern areas of the Democratic Republic of Congo. Research is being carried out in these two neighbouring countries to establish the actual number of Kakwa speakers/users.

This book will be of great use in developing written material in the Kakwa language in educational institutions, religious and cultural organizations, public libraries and community development organisations.

Teacher training colleges, primary schools and public libraries are advised to use this orthography where the Kakwa language is predominant to implement the Thematic Curriculum which emphasizes the use of local languages. Besides that, all translation work will be based on the principles laid down in this orthography as they are universally accepted by Kakwa speakers from all over the region.

Kakwa is very rich in vocabulary and grammar but lacks written materials due to the lack, in the past, of a documented orthography and supporting Kakwa dictionaries. Instability and warfare has plagued the region where Kakwa is spoken for many years, but now that there is peace and stability in most areas, it is with great pride and hopeful expectation that the Kakwa Language Board publishes this first edition

AKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This document has been developed in four phases: phase one took place in 2006, when members of the Koboko District Language Board created the first draft.

The second phase took place in April 2010, at Nyarilo Primary School, when Rev. Charles Nyaga, Mrs. Draru Margaret, Mrs. Dronyi Betty, Mr. Juruga John Nicolas, Mr. Yossa Chaggas, Mr. Abure John and Mr. Dimba David Kenyi developed the second draft.

Phase three, in August 2010, was facilitated by Literacy and Adult Basic Education (LABE) in a workshop in the Arua African Village Hotel, when the following Board members prepared the final draft for submission to the Ministry of Education and Sports:

Mr. Dimba David Kenyi, Head Teacher, Kaya Primary School

Mr. Aloro Jonathan Nyaga, Head Teacher, Midia Primary School

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The final phase took place between October 2014 and September 2015 when Rachel Nalumoso and her team from Choice Tutors Ltd partnered with the Board to produce promotional copies for public consultation followed by this first edition which incorporates new advice from the National Curriculum Development Centre.

The Board is grateful for LABE's continued technical and financial support towards the orthography development process, especially the tireless efforts of Mrs. Anika Grace, LABE Programme Officer for Koboko and Mr. Drani Vick who succeeded her; both of whom made significant contributions leading to the success of the Kakwa Orthography.

The Koboko District Local Government, especially the District Education Officer, supported the idea of producing the orthography in order to promote documentation of Kakwa culture, moral values and beliefs which help to act as a unifying factor for the people of Koboko.

Finally, the Board wishes to thank all stakeholders in Koboko District who encouraged and supported them throughout their struggle.

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INTRODUCTION

This orthographic guide is based on modern socio-linguistic principles and mother tongue intuition. It describes the rules governing the relationship between letters and sounds, between vowels and consonants, how spelling patterns affect pronunciation and the relationships between syllables, word boundaries and words, as they form sentences. Rules are given in context and examples are provided to guide the reader at every step.

Teachers will be able to plan literacy lessons using this book and in doing so they may discover intricacies of the language they might not have thought about before. We hope that knowledge, relief and enjoyment comes to everyone who reads and uses this little book. Literacy skills are transferable: once mastered, pupils will be able to use their Kakwa literacy skills in all order to learn other languages, especially English. The guidance in the following pages will also be a valuable reference tool for adults, both learned and learning.

Technical terms

Technical terms are avoided as much as possible. Instead, concepts are written in a straightforward and clear way for everyone to understand. There is a Glossary at the back of the book which explains any technical or grammatical terms that could not be avoided.

Slash marks like this / / are used to wrap around a sound made from one or more letters, e.g. / a /, / b /, / ba /. When extra information regarding pronunciation is needed, it is given in brackets inside the slash marks, e.g. / (in-breath) d /

Bold is used to highlight written letters, syllables or words, to give emphasis, e.g. When **lepe** is used as a suffix, it forms a reflexive pronoun.

In some examples, a shorthand way of writing certain technical words is used:

N = nasal sound / letter (made through the nose - m, n and ŋ)

C = consonant

V = vowel

SV = semi vowel (y and w)

Where space allows, English translations are given in *italics* on the right hand side of the page. Where space is limited, the English translations are simply in *italics*.

When reading **Kakwa** throughout this orthography, please note this refers to the **Kakwa language**.

THE INFLUENCE OF OTHER LANGUAGES

Around 1969/ 70 the Kakwa language was captured in print when the Bible was translated in Koboko District. Even before this time, however, in Uganda, Kakwa was overshadowed and marginalised by the neighbouring language Lugbarati. It was not until the advent of the Thematic Curriculum in 2007 that Kakwa took its rightful place as the medium of instruction in the first three years of primary school education in Koboko District. It was in fact the last of Uganda's 45 local languages to be acknowledged by the National Curriculum Development Centre.

Common confusions

[THIS PARA NEEDS SPECIAL ATTENTION FROM THE LANGUAGE BOARD]

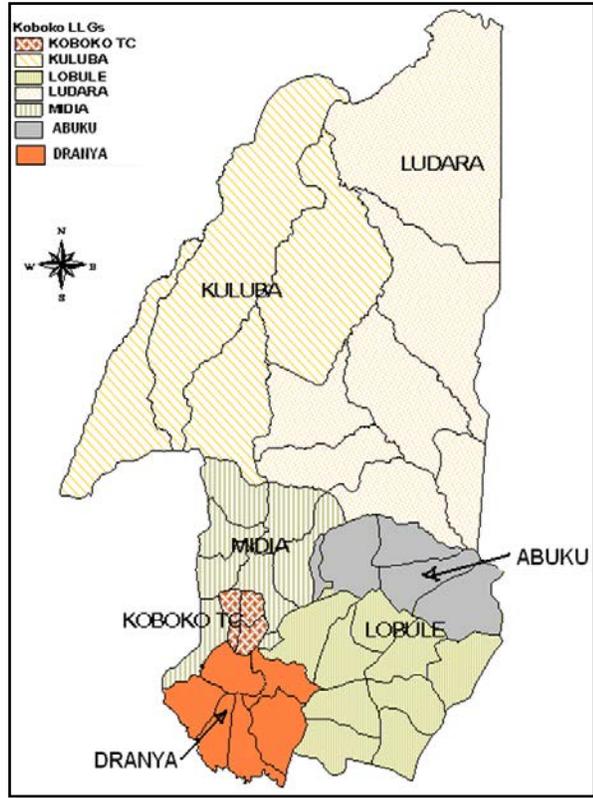
Due to the Kakwa language having a troubled past, some Kakwa speakers might find elements in this orthography challenging, especially Rule number ... stipulating the consonant clusters *dr*, *ndr* and *tr* are not written in Kakwa. These are in fact consonant clusters in Lugbarati, not Kakwa: the sounds / *dr* /, / *ndr* / and / *tr* / only occur in the spoken form of Kakwa, due to common misuse in the absence of orthographic rules.

Kiswahili has also influenced Kakwa speakers in terms of vocabulary. For example, the word *dawa* is commonly used for *medicine* because the Kakwa words **wini** (singular), **winiko** (plural) and **lugeyi** (singular) **luga** (plural) have fallen out of usage. Similarly, the Kiswahili word **gari** is commonly used for *bicycle* instead of the Kakwa word **gbaki'da**; and **miamoja** is commonly used by school children instead of **kama gele** for *one hundred*.

Lack of knowledge of the rules for writing Kakwa sounds and letters has impacted on people's names, for example '**Banjutu** is a name for a person who is alone, without relative. It is commonly written **Bangutu** with **B** instead of '**B** and **ng** instead of **ŋ**, which is a meaningless word.

In South Sudan the Bari language is dominant and overshadows Kakwa, but this is not surprising as Kakwa is derived from Bari. This situation does not pose a threat as there is printed material in Bari which can be a source of vocabulary to strengthen weak areas of Kakwa.

The interference of other languages will no longer pose a threat to the Kakwa language because there is now this orthography and printed materials can be developed as a consequence.



Map of Koboko District showing sub-counties

DIALECTS

Kakwa is spoken in three dialects in three countries; in Koboko, Moyo and Yumbe Districts in Uganda; in South Sudan; and in north eastern areas of the Democratic Republic of Congo. Speakers of the three dialects can understand each other even though there are a few sound and word differences. For example:

Sound differences

Kakwa speakers in Uganda pronounce words with j, whereas in the Congo dialect, speakers pronounce z, instead of j. For example:

Uganda	Congo	English
yaja	yaza	monkey

Rule Dialect sound difference: the sounds / j / and / z / are interchangeable between the dialects spoken in Uganda and Congo and these differences are seen in writing. There is no difference in meaning when these sounds are interchanged.

Sound and word differences

Within a few words there are certain syllables that carry specific grammatical meaning, but the syllable is not identical when Kakwa spoken in Uganda is compared with that in South Sudan. For example **ni** (used in Uganda) and **ta** (used in South Sudan) carry the meaning of singularity and occupy the same position within the word *komonilo* / *komotalo*:

Uganda			South Sudan			English
Komonilo			Komotalo			<i>a male visitor</i>
komo	ni singular classifier	lo masculine classifier	komo	ta singular classifier	lo masculine classifier	

Rule Dialect syllable difference: there is a difference between the dialects spoken in Uganda and South Sudan in terms of the affix syllable that classifies singularity.

There are dialect differences in the use of an apostrophe to mark a contrast in pronunciation and meaning. In Uganda and South Sudan, an apostrophe is used to mark the contrast between **b** and **'b**, between **d** and **'d**, and between **y** and **'y**. This mark completely changes the meaning of the word. In Congo, however, the contrast is between **b** and **bh**, and between **d** and **dh**, instead of the use of an apostrophe. The contrast between **y** and **'y** does not follow this pattern: **'y** is used in Congo exactly the same as in Uganda and South Sudan, with a very few exceptions such as **'yala** meaning *to increase in number* in Congo and Uganda and *let's do it* in South Sudan.

Uganda and South Sudan	Congo	English
bolo	bolo	<i>a quiver made from long haired male goat hide</i>
'bolo	bholo	<i>porridge</i>
bala	bala	<i>adjective bald headed</i>
'bala	bhala	<i>salt</i>
'Banjutu	Bhanjutu	<i>name given to someone who is alone</i>
'Data	Dhata	<i>male name</i>
'Do'do	Dhodho	<i>male name and verb to carry</i>
Dodo	Dodo	<i>female name and spinach</i>
yoda	yoda	<i>verb to take no concern</i>
'yoda	'yoda	<i>verb to make dirty</i>

Rule Dialect differences in marked consonants: there are dialect differences between the marking of consonants that are made with an ingressive (inward) breath. This marking is contrastive in that there are identical unmarked words with completely different meanings.

Lexical and grammatical differences

There are very minor differences in vocabulary between Uganda, South Sudan and Congo, for example:

Uganda	South Sudan	Congo	English
rumbo	rumbo	tora	<i>to ripen</i>
tora	tora	rada	<i>To bear fruit</i>

There is a word difference and potential confusion between the dialects spoken in Uganda and South Sudan, regarding reflexive pronouns, as shown here:

Plural reflexive pronoun

Uganda			
Yi a nyari 'beri			
Yi	a	nyari	'beri
We	auxiliary verb	love verb	<i>ourselves plural reflexive pronoun</i>
South Sudan			
Yi a nyari mugu			
Y	a	nyari	mugu
we		love	<i>ourselves</i>

	auxiliary verb	verb	plural reflexive pronoun
--	----------------	------	--------------------------

Singular reflexive pronoun

Uganda Yi a nyari mugu			
Yi	a	nyari	mugu
/	auxiliary verb	<i>love</i> verb	<i>myself</i> singular reflexive pronoun
South Sudan Yi a nyari 'beri			
Yi	a	nyari	'beri
	auxiliary verb	<i>love</i> verb	<i>myself</i> singular reflexive pronoun

Rule two dialects swapping reflexive pronouns: **'beri** and **mugu** are swapped in meaning and usage between the dialects in Uganda and South Sudan. In Uganda, **'beri** is the plural reflexive pronoun *ourselves*. In South Sudan, **'beri** is the singular reflexive pronoun *myself*. In contrast, in Uganda, **mugu** means *myself*, whereas in South Sudan, it means *ourselves*.

This feature is not a problem within either country, but it is a problem when it is heard in one of the other countries. Apart from this example which is seen in writing, other differences between the three dialects are only in the spoken form. There is one common grammar and this standardised orthography caters for all dialects.

TONE

Tone can be heard in Kakwa but it is not marked in writing: it is determined contextually. In spoken Kakwa there are three tones: mid, low and high. The following analysis shows how tone is contrastive, i.e. one word can mean four different things, depending on the tone of each syllable (separated with hyphens for clarity and stressed syllable in bold).

mid-mid	high -low	mid- high	low-high
ki-ne equal stress on each syllable <i>goat</i>	ki -ne stress on first syllable these – female plural classifier	ki- ne stress on second syllable <i>verb – to shut</i>	ki-ne equal stress on each syllable <i>verb – to climb</i>

Rule Tone High, mid and low tones are heard and carry meaning but they are not marked in writing.

THE ALPHABET

There are 26 separate letters:

[LANGUAGE BOARD TO CONFIRM THAT F AND P ARE INTERCHANGEABLE DEPENDING ON GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION]

Lower case

a b 'b d 'd e f g h i j k l m n o p r s t u w y 'y z ŋ

Upper case

A B 'B D 'D E F G H I J K L M N O P R S T U V W Y 'Y Z D

Letter Names and Letter Sounds

Each letter has a name as well as a sound: these are not the same concepts, although vowel letter names are the same as their sound. Consonant letter names are not the same as their sound, as distinguished in the table below. In writing, lower case (small) letters are used more frequently than upper case (capitals) so these are presented first in the table below. In compliance with internationally recognised rules for proper nouns, these start with a capital letter in the table below. Here are the letters, their names and sounds in Kakwa, with examples and translations:

Letter	Letter name	Sound	Example: initial letter	English
a A	a	/ a /	Anika	<i>female name</i>
b B	ba	/ b /	bolo	<i>a long haired goat hide quiver</i>
'b 'B	'ba	/ (in-breath) b /	'bolo	<i>porridge</i>
d D	da	/ d /	Diyo	<i>Male name / I am doubtful</i>
'd 'D	'da	/ (in-breath) d /	'diyo	<i>dog</i>

e E	e	/ e /	eja	<i>to pick fruits</i>
g G	ga	/ g /	gaanda	<i>why?</i>
h H	ha	/ h /	Haaa!	<i>warning</i>
i I	i	/ i /	lyete / iye	<i>thank you / yes</i>
j J	ja	/ j /	jiki	<i>mortar (pot)</i>
k K	ka	/ k /	kima	<i>fire (noun)</i>
l L	la	/ l /	lee	<i>milk (noun)</i>
m M	ma	/ (nasal) m /	moko	<i>leg</i>
n N	na	/ (nasal) n /	nukuta	<i>word</i>
o O	o	/ o /	oka	<i>inedible fruit</i>
p P	pa	/ p /	piyo	<i>water</i>
r R	ra	/ r /	roro	<i>information / throat</i>
s S	sa	/ s /	soso	<i>OK, right</i>
t T	ta	/ t /	ta	<i>you (plural)</i>
u U	u	/ u /	uti	<i>to go</i>
w W	wa	/ w /	Wawa	<i>male name</i>
y Y	ya	/ y /	yoda	<i>to take no concern</i>
‘y ‘Y	‘ya	/ (in-breath) y/	‘yoda	<i>to make dirty</i>
z Z	za	/ z /	Zaki	<i>male name</i>
ŋ Ŋ	ŋa	/ (nasal) ŋ /	ŋun	<i>God</i>

Making a vowel sound

A vowel sound is the nucleus of a syllable, i.e. the loud, long part, made with an open mouth (in different shapes, depending on the vowel) and vibration of the vocal cords.

Making a consonant sound

A consonant sound forms the border of a syllable: the breath is at least partly obstructed as it leaves (or enters - in the case of ingressive sounds) the mouth or nose, by teeth, the tongue, throat, or lips and can be combined with a vowel sound to form a syllable.

Distinguishing between letter names and letter sounds

Primary school teachers and other user of the Kakwa language must be careful to distinguish between letter names and letter sounds. This difference can be seen in the table above, for example the name for letter **b** is **ba** but its sound is not **/ba/**; it is a very short sound on its own: **/b/** without the vowel sound **/a/** immediately following. Individual consonant sounds can be made by cutting off the vowel sounds and focusing on the sound of the consonant letter in isolation. A good example is the sound **/m/**: by starting with, and keeping the mouth closed, the vowel sound **/a/** cannot be made (**ma** is the letter name) so the only sound that comes out (of the nose) is **/m/**. It can be made into a long sound as in **/mmmmmmm/** for teaching purposes. Some consonant sounds do not use the voice, for example to make the sound for **/h/** the teacher needs to breathe out so that the sound of the breath is clearly heard, but as a plain sound - **not** **/ha/**, **/he/**, **/hi/**, **/ho/** or **/hu/**.

Rule letter names and sounds: vowel letter names are the same as their sounds but consonant letter names are not the same as their sounds. This is important to understand when teaching the first steps of how to read using phonics.

VOWELS

There are five short vowels written as separate letters [**a e i o u**] five long vowels written as double letters [**aa ee ii oo uu**] There are no blended vowels.

Short vowels

Examples of words with short vowels:

Kakwa	English
na	<i>I (first person singular pronoun)</i>
keni	<i>hand</i>
si'de	<i>chair</i>
do	<i>you (singular pronoun, gender neutral)</i>
ta	<i>you (plural pronoun, gender neutral)</i>
uti	<i>to go (imperative form of the verb)</i>

Rule: Short vowel letters and sounds. All short vowels have regular and consistent sounds and spellings, regardless of their position (beginning, middle or end) in a word and neighbouring consonants.

Single vowel letters as words

a can be an auxiliary verb and a preposition, for example see pages And:

i functions as a preposition before a noun, e.g.see page

Rule individual vowels as words. Only **a** and **i** can occur as words.

Long vowels

Long vowels are written with double vowel letters. They occur at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of words:

Kakwa	English
aa 'yu	<i>to add</i>
Aate	<i>female name</i>
eene	<i>pick fruit / veg (imperative form of verb)</i>
eezi	<i>permitted to pick fruit (passive)</i>
ii 'ya	<i>to fetch</i>
ootu	<i>to make dirty</i>
oota	<i>dirty (adjective)</i>
uutu	<i>can be planted</i>
uura	<i>to burn</i>
kaakutu	<i>door</i>
'Duuki	<i>male name</i>
...ee...	
...oo...	
'baa	<i>home</i>
lee	<i>milk</i>
rii	<i>a compound</i>
kii	<i>up</i>
'duu	<i>always</i>
logoo	<i>elders</i>
kaa	<i>down</i>

However, they are rare in the middleRuledepends on ???

Some words are contrastive in terms of short and long vowels, i.e. the meaning changes if a long vowel is substituted for a short vowel, for example:

Short vowel	English	Long vowel	English
logo	<i>hard</i>	logoo	<i>elders</i>
utu	<i>to plant / to go</i>	uutu	<i>can be planted / can go</i>
kima	<i>fire</i>	kiima	<i>sorgum</i>

Rule Lengthening from a short vowel to a long vowel in a word that is otherwise the same, changes the meaning of the word.

Rule ...Vowel occurrence in words. Short and long vowels can occur at the beginning and at the end of words. At the beginning of a word, a long vowel forces the end of the word to have a short vowel.

Some long / double vowels in the same word are not pronounced as long vowels, rather they are divided into separate syllables by the sound of a glottal stop. A glottal stop is a sound made in the throat by completely obstructing the airflow then releasing it in a burst of air, for example in **eewu**, **iile** and **ooda**:

	After glottal stop	After glottal stop	English
Yii eewu mala kilo			
Yii	e	eewu mala kilo	<i>We shall pick the wild fruits</i>
Ku iile nyomo kilo			
Ku	i	iile nyomo kilo	<i>Go and water the crops</i>
Ta ooda kuliya			
Ta	o	ooda kuliya	<i>You will spoil issues</i>

Rule most words containing double vowels are pronounced with a long vowel sound, however in certain words there is a glottal stop between the double letters in a long vowel, rather than letting them sound as one long vowel together or with a /w/ or /y/ sound in between the two vowels. The presence of the glottal stop is determined by meaning, i.e. certain words are meaningless if pronounced with long vowels or semi vowels.

SEMIVOWELS

A semivowel is a special type of consonant that sounds like a vowel. In Kakwa there are two: **w** and **y**. As there are no blended vowels, words containing two different vowels have either **w** or **y** in between them: in such words, **w** and **y** are pronounced like a vowel, yet they act as syllable boundaries, for example:

Kakwa	English
iyete	<i>thank you</i>
awuda	<i>it has changed</i>
Ayipe	<i>a proper noun - a parish in Koboko District</i>

Ayiki	<i>name given to child born to a barren woman, now blessed</i>
mawunda	<i>bad consequences happening to someone ignoring warning</i>
Agoyi	<i>a masculine name</i>
Kuliya adinyo?	<i>a greeting - finding out what is the matter with someone</i>
piyo	<i>water</i>
Awoŋo	<i>male name</i>
awoŋo	<i>something (e.g. a cow / bull / bell) has made a sound</i>
Diyo	<i>a male name</i>

Semivowels also occur at the beginning, but not at the end of words, e.g:

woku	<i>run up here (instruction) / to draw something near to be within reach, for example by using a hook shaped branch</i>
wele	<i>oil / being selfish</i>
wuda	<i>to change</i>
waje	<i>you taste</i>
wido	<i>going round in circles or to and fro, in a confused manner</i>
yapa	<i>moon</i>
yepingo	<i>sneeze</i>
yije	<i>listen (instruction)</i>
yuda	<i>to point at</i>
Yossa	<i>male name</i>

Rule All words that contain two different vowels (i.e. not double / long vowels) have a semi-vowel: **w** or **y**, in between the vowels, regardless of their position in a word, as there are no blended vowels in Kakwa.

Consonants

There are 20 separate letters [**b 'b d 'd g h j k l m n p r s t w y 'y z ŋ**].

Two of these – **w** and **y**, are semi vowels and in certain words, sound like vowels.

B, D, G, J, L, P, S, T and **Z**

These consonants: **b, d, g, j, l, p, s, t** and **z** behave in the same way, regardless of where they occur in a word, i.e. they can precede and follow single and double vowels, without affecting them nor being affected by them in terms of pronunciation or spelling. They cannot end words (as seen in tables on pages 12, 14, and 15).

R

R behaves like the consonants above apart from one difference: it can end a word, for example:

nyir *pangolin*
 njir *miniscule*

There are three consonants that are marked with an apostrophe: ‘**b**’, ‘**d**’ and ‘**y**’, as in three of the words below:

bolo	<i>a quiver made from long haired male goat hide</i>
‘b’olo	<i>porridge</i>
Diyo	<i>Male name</i>
‘d’iyo	<i>dog</i>
yoda	<i>to take no concern</i>
‘y’oda	<i>to make dirty</i>

Rule the marking of contrastive consonant letter sounds: the apostrophe in Kakwa distinguishes contrastive sounds between three pairs of consonants: **b** and ‘**b**’, **d** and ‘**d**’, **y** and ‘**y**’: it changes the meaning of a word that has the same spelling but uses the unmarked **b**, **d**, or **y**, as can be seen in the table above. The apostrophe marks an ingressive, or in-breath on pronouncing the letter, which produces a louder sound compared with the unmarked letter sound. This loudness (and stress) is carried into the syllable started by the marked letter.

Consonant sounds made through the nose (nasals): m, n and ŋ.

M

M occurs before in between and after all vowels without affecting them, nor being affected by them. M can end a word without a vowel following:

Kakwa	English
moko	<i>leg</i>
Lomo	<i>male name</i>
kum	<i>an arrow that is entering a body</i>

ɲom	<i>verb to squat</i>
kom	<i>a style and noise of walking quickly</i>
emu	<i>to fetch a drink (water, soup, beer)</i>
munu	<i>snake</i>
miru	<i>to imitate</i>
meja	<i>table</i>
ume	<i>baby</i>
imu	<i>to fetch a drink (water, soup, beer)</i>

ŋ

ŋ is very commonly used in Kakwa. Like **m**, it comes at the beginning, middle and end of words without affecting nor being affected by surrounding vowels. All vowels can come before and after **ŋ**, either in the same word or as a separate word, regardless of where **ŋ** occurs in a word. **ŋ** can go at the end of a word without a vowel following it:

a ŋutu	<i>a person</i>
i ŋodu	<i>to shoot with a bow and arrow</i>
lonŋututo	<i>short items / objects / people / things</i>
aŋan	<i>crested crane</i>
geŋe	<i>to put aside</i>
riŋe	<i>to threaten punishment / to wither</i>
luŋe	<i>to call</i>
kobuŋe	<i>wind</i>
ŋutulu	<i>people</i>
koŋo	<i>face / to swear</i>
koŋa	<i>white ants</i>
miŋ / gbiŋ	<i>the pain of being stung by a wasp</i>
yiŋ	<i>a situation where there is quiet, e.g. in a library</i>

Rule m and ŋ occurrence: m and ŋ occur before, in between and after all vowels without affecting them, nor being affected by them in terms of pronunciation. The difference between m and ŋ is that ŋ cannot be escorted by other consonants apart from when it follows m (see examples of words containing the mŋ cluster on page)

N

n does not behave like ŋ and m, although it is similar in that it can occur at the beginning and in the middle of words:

noka *wife / to burn*

Anika *female name*

munu *snake*

kona *to do*

kine *goat*

dini *a hard wood tree which is used for granary stands. It has a purplish pigment inside the bark which women use for decorating pots. Birds enjoy eating the fruit.*

Yogono *a crown worn by someone who is being congratulated for doing a great achievement, e.g. killing a lion or buffalo, the crown is made from leaves and feathers.*

Rule no nasal affects the vowel following or preceding it, apart from n which must have a vowel following it.

Examples of **N and ŋ interchangeable**

Rule N and ŋ are interchangeable when

Consonants ending a word:

ŋom *verb to squat*

njir *miniscule*

yinj *a situation where there is quiet, e.g. in a library*

Rule Consonants ending a word: only the consonants **m**, **ŋ** and **r** can end a word.

Consonant clusters - nukuta laga lo susukpaka: there are 11 consonant clusters formed from two letters together [**dy gb kp kw ky mb mŋ nd ng nj ny**] and one with three letters [**mgb**].

Clusters formed with semivowels: kw, dy, ky, ny

These clusters occur at the beginning and in the middle, but not at the end of words, because only the consonants m, ŋ and r can end a word. There are two sounds in each cluster, blended together quickly: **/kw/**, **/dy/**, **/ky/** and **/ny/** to form the boundary of the syllable which contains a following vowel.

Kakwa		English
kw	kakwa kwaje	<i>thorn</i> <i>night</i>
dy	dyapady	<i>weapons</i> ?
ky	kyakya ky	<i>the sound of eating</i> <i>something crunchy / joints</i> <i>creaking</i> ?
ny	konyuke Nyanjiliya kinyo konye	<i>a special tree that bears</i> <i>edible black fruit,</i> <i>important in peace</i> <i>building. Tender leaves of</i> <i>this tree are used by</i> <i>elders to bring peace</i> <i>between people in conflict</i> <i>A parish in Koboko District</i> <i>millet</i> <i>eyes</i>

There are very few written words in common use in Uganda containing **dy** and **ky** clusters. Most words with this spelling are used in the written form in South Sudan, as they are derived from Bari.

Rule... occurrence of clusters containing a semivowel: clusters formed with a semivowel are followed by single vowels, not double. The cluster blends with the following vowel to form a syllable, and this syllable carries the stress in the word.

Nasal followed by consonant that is not a semivowel: mb, nd, ng and nj

MB

Dimba *male name*
rumbo *to ripen*

ND

undo *being infertile*
ndindi *a sweet smell*
nderi *a bad smell*

NG

ngari *something seen prominently*
angara *a type of salted fish with a lot of tiny bones*
ngarangara *a feeling of a foreign body entering the eye or throat*

NJ

njuwaa *a feeling of pain which gradually gets deeper*
njuwanjuwa *a task that is nearly finished*
njayinjayi *boiled and fried beans*
Lekpenje *trouble maker*

Rule consonant clusters starting with a nasal and followed by consonant that is not a semivowel, are pronounced with both letters clearly heard. Such clusters occur at the beginning and in the middle of words and next to any vowel; **neither letter in the cluster affects surrounding vowels nor are they affected by them. Eachsyllable**

Cluster formed from three letters: mgb

This is the only 3-letter cluster. It appears at the beginning and in the middle of words, but not at the end. **G** is silent: there are only two sounds **/mb/**. The letter **g** impacts on and changes **/b/** into a prenasalised sound which is made by preparing the tongue as if to say **/ŋ/**, but the closed mouth then opens to make **/b/**.

somgbo *large clay pot holding drinking water*
Kulumgbi *a proper noun - a place and a school*
mgbamgba *it's true*
mgba *true*
mgbaya *maize*

Rule pronunciation and occurrence of mgb: the letter **g** is silent and the cluster occurs before and after all vowels. The stress falls on **/b/** and the following vowel.

GB

g banda	<i>cassava</i>
g boro	<i>leopard / to buy</i>

The **g** is silent but its presence in this cluster changes the pronunciation of **b**, from a regular **/b/** to a new sound made with the tongue remaining down but not touching the teeth.

Rule g in mgb and gb: **g** is silent in both **mgb** and **gb** clusters. Both clusters occur before and after all vowels, and the stress is on **/b/** and the following vowel.

Kp

This cluster occurs at the beginning and in the middle of words; before and after all vowels and there are many words with one or more syllables starting with **kp**, that are repeated.

k penya	<i>birds</i>
k pekpe	<i>epilepsy</i>
k piya	<i>having grey hair</i>
k pokpo	<i>flour</i>
k perekpere	<i>an old disused mat</i>
k parakpara	<i>a lazy, unhelpful person</i>
k piyu	<i>everything</i>
k porokporo	<i>an old metallic object that is and now useless</i>
k pu	<i>the sound of something falling</i>
Luk k pagu	<i>to hold tight</i>
Lek k penje	<i>trouble make</i>

Rule kp pronunciation: **k** is not pronounced: it functions to alter the pronunciation of **p**, from a regular **/p/** to a louder sound made by filling the mouth with air, closing the mouth and then exploding the air. The stress falls on **/p/** rather than on preceding or following vowels.

Mŋ

This cluster occurs at the beginning and in the middle of words; before and after all vowels with no impact on any vowel.

m ŋake	<i>to tighten</i>
m ŋenye	<i>to handle</i>
m ŋuwa	<i>a nasty smell</i>
im ŋ ani	<i>four</i>

Neither **m** nor **ŋ** have regular pronunciation in the cluster **mŋ**: the sound of **ŋ** disappears but the tongue is in the shape for **ŋ** and the mouth is closed so the sound of /**m**/ is changed from regular, to a more nasal sound.

Note: common cluster confusions

dr, ndr and tr are not consonant clusters in Kakwa (they are clusters in Lugbarati and although they have become absorbed into spoken Kakwa, due to language spread and common usage, they are not written in Kakwa.

Mŋ is commonly written **ŋm** in error

Gb is commonly written **bg** in error

WORD BOUNDARIES AND PARTS OF SPEECH

In Kakwa most parts of speech are written as isolated, separate words, i.e. nouns, pronouns, verbs, auxiliaries, adverbs, adjectives, conjunctions, pre/postpositions, ideophones, interjections, articles and sentence particles such as negative markers. Other parts of speech are attached as affixes: singular / plural markers, subject prefixes, reflexive pronoun suffixes, possessive pronoun prefixes, gender marking affixes. There is a third category of words that are joined together, i.e. compound and reduplicated words.

WORDS WRITTEN SEPARATELY

Nouns

A noun is the name of a person, place or thing. In writing Kakwa, nouns stand on their own as distinct word forms, for example:

Kenyi, mata, Koboko, Liru, mere, Nyarilo, noka, 'doke, Dun, as below:

Kakwa

Kenyi kaju/kazu a **mata** lo **Koboko**
Liru a **mere** laga **duma**
Nyarilo riye **Koboko** **ni**
Noka na'buna a **'doke** lo **Dun**

English

Kenyi** was the **Chief** of **Koboko
Liru** is the big **mountain
Nyarilo** is found in **Koboko
*A good **wife** is a **gift** from **God***

Rule ... Nouns Nouns stand on their own as distinct word forms at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a sentence. When beginning or in the middle of a sentence, a noun is followed by a verb, an adjective, a preposition, an article or another noun.

Pronouns

All forms of pronouns are written as separate words:

Personal pronouns

Na	<i>I</i>
do	<i>you</i> (singular – neutral)
ta	<i>you</i> (plural – neutral)
lepe	<i>he / she / it</i> (neutral)
yi	<i>we</i>
kara	<i>they</i> (within the group / friendly)
kuwo	<i>they</i> (others / unfriendly)

Na ade kenda ku wudo					<i>I know how to read and write</i>				
Na	ade	kenda	ku	wudo					
I	<i>know how to</i> verb	<i>read</i> verb	<i>and</i> conjunction	<i>write</i> verb					
Kara kulu kukudu					<i>They are digging</i>				
Kara	kulu	kukudu							
They	<i>are</i> auxiliary verb	<i>digging</i> verb							

Rule pronouns and object specification. There is no **it** representative in Kakwa; the object has to be specified/named.

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns are formed from separate parts, in harmony with each other and attached together, following the noun, for example:

<i>Kadi niyoṅa</i>	<i>My house</i>
<i>Kadiji kwe kine</i>	<i>My houses</i>

Rule singular possessive pronouns take gender identity as the first letter, e.g. **I** in

liyoṅa male, **n** in niyoṅa female. Plural possessive pronouns start with **ko** and take gender identity from the following letter, e.g. **l** in liyoṅa male, **n** in / niyoṅa female.

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are separate words, formed from prefix gender markers **na** and **lo** andsuffixes:

Nalepe

Lepe / amugu / lepelepe

Yilepe

myself

herself, himself, itself

ourselves

For example, when **lepe** is added as a suffix in a pronoun, it becomes a reflexive pronoun and when **a** is added as a prefix to **mugu**, it becomes a reflexive pronoun **amugu**:

Kakwa

English

Kinena a dido mugu					<i>The female goat strangled itself</i>
Kine	na	a	dido	mugu	
goat noun	female gender marker	past marker	tense <i>strangle</i> verb		<i>itself</i> reflexive pronoun
Lepe lo nyumundo noka nanyena amugu					<i>He chose his wife himself</i>
Lepe	lo	nyumundo	noka	nanyena	amugu
<i>he</i>	masculine	<i>chose</i>	<i>wife</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>himself</i>

Summary of personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns

Table needs amending – separate the reflexive pronouns

Singular Form

Person (Gender)	Subject	Object	Possessive Determiner	Possessive Pronoun	Reflexive Pronoun
First Person	<i>I</i> Na	<i>Me</i> Na	<i>My</i> Liyo (masculine) Niyo (feminine)	<i>Mine</i> Liyona (masculine) <i>Mine</i> Niyona (feminine)	<i>Myself</i> Mugu/'Beri
Second Person	<i>You</i> Do		<i>Your</i> Loluṅa (Lolu -short form)	<i>Yours</i> Loluṅa (masculine) Lolu (feminine)	<i>Yourself</i> Dolepe

Third Person	<i>He</i> Lepɛŋa (Lepe -short form) (Masculine) <i>She</i> (feminine) Lepɛŋa (Lepe -short form)	<i>Him</i> Lepɛŋa (Lepe -short form) <i>Her</i> Lepɛŋa (Lepe -short form)	<i>His</i> Lolepɛŋa <i>Hers</i> Nalepɛŋa	<i>His</i> <i>Hers</i>	<i>Himself</i> Lepelepe <i>Herself</i> Lepelepe
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Plural Form

Person (Gender)	Subject	Object	Possessive Determiner	Possessive Pronoun	Reflexive Pronoun
First Person	<i>We</i> Yi	<i>Us</i> Yi	<i>Our</i> Likaŋa (Lika -short form and masculine) Nikaŋa (Nika -short form and feminine)	<i>Ours</i> Likaŋa (masculine) Nikaŋa (feminine)	<i>Ourselves</i> Yilepe
Second Person	<i>You</i> Ta		<i>Your</i> Lasuŋa (Lasu -short form)	<i>Yours</i> Lasuŋa (Lasu -short form)	<i>Yourselves</i> Talepe
Third Person	<i>They</i> Kuwo? Karaŋa (Kara -short form)	<i>Them</i> Kuwo/ Karaŋa	<i>Their</i> Lokuwo (Lokuwo/ Lokara -short form and masculine) Nasikukuwo/ Nakukuwo/ Nasikuwo/ Nakuwo -short form and feminine)	<i>Theirs</i> Lasikaraŋa/ Lokaraŋa/ Lasikara/ Lokara/ Lasikara -short form and masculine) Nasikaraŋa/ Nakaraŋa/ Nasikara/ Nakara -short form and feminine)	<i>Themselves</i> Karaŋalepe (Karalepe -short form and both masculine and feminine)

Relative and interrogative pronouns

These are separate words:

lagaya / nagaya
nanu
lude / nude
ŋa
inyo
weda/yeda

which
when
that
who
what
where

gbaanda, gaanda, ku nyo / ku inyo

why

Sudan ku nyo instead of ku i nyo

adidinyo / adinyo

how

lori ina 'duki **adidinyo**? *How did the lorry fall?*

Duki is the verb

*Dirolo tuwa **adidinyo**? How did the boy die?*

Tuwa is the verb

Reflexive pronouns

Kine nagaya na dido mugu?			<i>Which goat strangled itself?</i>	
Kine	nagaya	na	dido	mugu?
<i>goat</i> (female, due to following pronoun)	<i>which</i> interrogative feminine pronoun	<i>it</i> reflexive pronoun	<i>strangled</i> verb past tense	<i>self</i> reflexive pronoun
Sukurilo nagaya naga do ariyo? <i>find?</i>			<i>Which cockerel did you</i>	
Sukurilo	lagaya	naga	do	ariyo?
<i>cockerel</i> gender identified by suffix lo and related to the following pronoun)	<i>which</i> interrogative masculine pronoun		<i>find</i>	

Rule Relative pronouns join a following verb and adjective.

Rule all forms of pronouns are separate words.

Rule word order of relative and interrogative pronouns: these come after the noun, apart from how, as this one comes after the verb.

Verbs

Verbs are written as separate words, with the past tense marked with the **a**, **continuous tenses marked with lu**, **future marked withprefix** for e.g.

Na **nyosu** 'dilo *I eat food*
 Na ilo **nyosu** 'dilo *I am eating food*
 Na **anyosu** 'dilo *I ate food*
 Na lu **nyonyosu** 'dilo *I was eating food*
 Na i **nyonyosu** 'dilo *I will eat food*

Do **anyosu** 'dilo *You (sing) ate food*
 Ta **anyosu** 'dilo *You (plural) ate food*

Yi kilo **nyosu** 'dilo *we are eating food*
 Yi **anyosu** 'dilo *we ate food*
 kara **anyosu** 'dilo *they ate food*

Lepe anyosu 'dilo *She/ he ate food*
 Lepeṅa anyosu 'dilo *she / ate ate food*
 We plural (are)

Rule verbs are written as separate words, preceded by nouns and pronouns and followed by adverbs.

Ayume atogboru kinena			<i>Ayume sold the nanny goat</i>	
Ayume	a	togboru	kine	na
<i>Ayume</i> Proper noun	Past tense identifier	<i>sold</i> verb	<i>goat</i>	Female singular

Rule

4. Adverbs

An adverb is a separate word, written after the verb it qualifies, for example:

Na nyosu soso		<i>I eat well</i>
Na	nyosu	soso
<i>I</i> subject	<i>eat</i> verb	<i>well</i> adverb
Lepe kine maada		<i>She/he climbs slowly</i>
Lepe	kine	maada
<i>She/ he</i> gender neutral pronoun	<i>climbs</i> verb	<i>Slowly</i> adverb

Rule Adverbs follow the verb they qualify.

Adjectives

An adjective is written as a distinct word form, after the noun it qualifies. However when the attribute particle **lo / na** is to be used, it must be attached as a prefix as in:

lotoru / natoru	<i>red</i>
loruwo / naruwo	<i>black</i>
lojo / najo	<i>long / tall</i>
lomini / lomii namini / namii	<i>thin</i>
lepe a Sudani ta	<i>Sudanese (singular)</i>
Sudani kilo	<i>Sudanese (plural masculine)</i>
Sudani kine	<i>Sudanese (plural feminine)</i>
duma	<i>big</i>

.....**kilo**

.....**kine**

Rule for adjectives describing nationalities: **a** precedes the adjective as a separate word / article and **ta** follows, as separate word after the noun / name of country as a singular identifier.

Plurals take **kilo** as a suffix at the end of the noun and **kine** for female plural gender identity.

Rule An adjective is written as a distinct word form, after the noun it qualifies. However when the gender attribute particle **lo / na** is to be used, it must be attached as a prefix.

Prepositions/ postpositions

Prepositions / postpositions are formed from two separate words behaving as a pair; the first occurring before the noun / object of the sentence (preposition) and the second, after it (postposition). For example, **kii**, **kaa a** and **i** can be prepositions and **muko**, **kojo**, **de** and **imalu** can be postpositions. Postpositions are formed from different words depending on the position or time referred to, e.g. **imalu** refers to future time):

Kakwa

Pre post

i.....kojo

i.....ki'di

i.....muko

ki.....de

kii

i.....ki

English

in front of

behind

under

between / middle

up

top

in

on

kaa

.....

i.....imalu

down

before

future time

ki can be a preposition as well as a postposition:

Kalamulo ilo i mesa muko						<i>The pen is under the table</i>
Kalamu	lo	ilo	i	mesa	muko	
<i>pen</i> subject	<i>the</i> article	<i>is</i> auxiliary verb	Preposition Separate word	<i>table</i> object	<i>under</i> postposition separate word	
Jokuda a gbi'diki i kitiki						<i>Jokuda sat on a chair</i>
Jokuda	a	gbi'diki		i	kiti	ki
<i>Jokuda</i> subject noun	auxiliary verb	<i>sat</i> verb - past tense		<i>on</i> preposition separate word	<i>chair</i> noun	<i>top</i> postposition suffix

Ti anejerayi a lo kaŋo ku a lo kata								<i>when partitioned outside and inside</i>
Ti	anejerayi	a	lo	kaŋo	ku	a	lo	kata
<i>when locative</i>	<i>partitioned</i> verb	preposition	preposition	<i>outside</i>	<i>and</i> conjunction	preposition	preposition	<i>inside</i>
Kuwade ta laga a ŋutulu translation								
Kuwade	ta	laga	a	ŋutulu				
		?	Auxiliary verb	?				

i kiŋa lo imalu				<i>next year</i>
i	kiŋa		lo	imalu
Preposition	<i>year</i> noun			<i>next</i> postposition
i yinga lo imalulo				<i>next week</i>
i	yinga		lo	imalulo
Preposition	<i>week</i> noun			<i>next</i> postposition

Lira a mere laga a dududu Ko'bukoni								<i>Liru is the biggest mountain in Koboko District</i>
Liru	a	mere	laga	a	dududu	Ko'buko	ni	
<i>Liru</i> Proper	<i>Auxiliary</i> verb	<i>Mountain</i> noun	<i>Definite</i> article?	<i>Definite</i> article	<i>Biggest</i> adjective	<i>Koboko</i> District	<i>Preposition?</i> suffix	

noun	Article?? Preposition?		qualifying Liru		Proper noun	
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Rule prepositions are formed from two separate but related words: one before and the other after the noun they refer to...

Rule.....

Conjunctions

Conjunctions are written as separate words, as in:

Kakwa	English
Na a nyari lepe ' boo , lepe a kolani.	<i>I love her but she is a thief.</i>
Na anyari lepe ' diya kodo lepe a kolani	<i>I like him although he is a thief</i>
' Diya kodo lepe a kolani, na a nyari lepe	<i>Although he or she (not gender specific) is a thief, I like him / her</i>

Rule Conjunctions are written as separate words. There are only two conjunctions in Kakwa: '**boo** – *but* which can only occur in the middle of a sentence, and '**diya kodo** *although*, which can occur in the middle or at the beginning of a sentence.

Ideophones

Ideophones are separate words, for example:

Wuu, woo, waa, yaayaa (*surprise*) etc.

Rule ideophones are formed with an initial semivowel **w** or **y** followed by a long vowel, and in the case of repetition; the repeated form is not be made more than twice, for example:

Wuuwuu, woowoo

Interjections

Interjections are separate words and mostly begin with **h** or **k**, as in:

Kaapoo! haapoo!

You least expect

Kaaa! keee! haaa! heee!

Watch out! (expressing a warning)

Ediyoo!

Oh dear!

Rule all vowels are at least doubled in interjections. Warnings are expressed using triple vowels.

Short forms / contractions

Some contracted or shortened forms of words are written as separate words, as in example group 1:

Example group 1	
Kakwa	English

complete form	short form	complete form	short form
A'diri	'diri	<i>it is true</i>	<i>true</i>
Amgbamgba	mgba	<i>it is real</i>	<i>real</i>
'Bunyekita (plural)	'bunyeke (singular)	<i>rescue / help!</i>	
'Bo'bota (plural)	'bota (singular)	<i>rescue / help!</i>	
Yu de	yu	<i>there</i>	

However, group 2 examples reveal that some constructions are missed out, when comparing the spoken and written form, such as **a**, which qualifies a verb (nyari / 'biye) and links it to a pronoun (do) after the verb: **a** is missed out in the spoken forms below.

Example group 2		
Spoken	Written	English
na nyari do	na a nyari do	<i>I love / like you</i>
na 'biye do	na a 'biye do	<i>I don't love / like you</i>

Rule contractions of brief expressions can be written as separate shortened words, whereas in contracted sentences, a specific construction/word can be missed out.

Rule shortened forms of brief expressions do not carry as much emphasis in meaning as full forms.

Negative Markers

In Kakwa, words like **ani**, **'baya**, **aku**, **'ba** that show negation are written separate from the negated forms, for example:

Aate **ani** ponda indikini
 Yakani **'baya** kasiko i mooro yu
fight
 Kasiko I mooro yu
 Yakani **'baya**
 Arike **aku** gboro gari uye
 Kereke **'ba** monye
 Lepeŋa **'ba** ntulu

Aate is **not** coming today
 Yakani was **not** there in their
 ?
 ?
 Arike did **not** buy a bicycle
 Kereke does **not** have a father
 he/she does not have relatives

Rule Negative markers are written as separate words after the word they qualify, in the middle or at the end of a sentence.

Word Boundaries Marked in Speech, Not in Writing

A glottal stop can be heard between two vowels when a vowel ends one word and another vowel begins the next word:

	After glottal stop	After glottal stop	English
Na a'biye			
Na	a	'biye	<i>I don't want</i>
Na ariyo			
Na	ariyo		<i>I have got it</i>
Na anyari			
Na	anyari		<i>I like it</i>
Do lu utu i da			
Do lu	utu	i da	<i>Where are you going?</i>

Rule Glottal stop between two adjacent vowels in neighbouring words: There is a glottal stop between pronouncing each vowel, rather than letting them blend together or with a /w/ or /y/ sound in between, when a word ends in a vowel and the next word starts with a vowel.

AFFIXES

Gender marking

Gender is identified in common nouns, possessive pronouns and adjectives through the affix qualifiers **na**, **n**, **l**, and **lo**. These are prefixed or suffixed to the words they qualify, depending on the context. **Ka** is the plural affix for neutral gender. Gender affixes have a dual function as they are also articles. Living things as well as non-living are classified and marked according to gender.

Examples of **na** and **lo** marking gender in a singular noun suffix:

kinena *nanny goat*

kinelo *billy goat*

sukurina *hen*

sukurilo *cock*

kalamulo *pen*

.....na*inanimate female*

.....ka *gender neutral plural*

Rule Common nouns in the singular take gender identity as a suffix: **lo** for masculine singular; **na** for feminine singular. **Ka** is the suffix for gender neutral plural.

Examples of sentences with nouns with no gender identity

Rule nouns can be written with or without gender identity, depending on the context.

Prefix a and gender

Proper nouns do not behave in the same way as common nouns in terms of gender marking. The prefix **a** behaves like a gender qualifier in names, but in fact it can be a prefix for both female and male names, so it is not gender specific. Examples of female names: **Akudu Akikoli, Alomo. Arube** and **Araba** can be both female and male names. Examples of male names: **Agele, Asiki, Aloro**. When the prefix **a** is separated such that what was a name becomes two separate words used as an adjectival phrase as in:

A kudu kana **a kudu** *It is raining in a place / area*

Kana **a kikoli** *The place / area is full of roads / paths*

Lepeņa **a lomo** *She had been cursed / wished bad luck*

The meaning in each sentence applies to each name, i.e. Akudu means a girl born during the rainy season; Akikoli means *a girl born near a road / path* and Alomo means *a girl who was cursed*.

Examples of n and l marking gender in a singular possessive pronoun prefix:

niyoṅa *mine (female)*

liyoṅa *mine (male)*

Examples of ka functioning in a plural neutral article and possessive pronoun prefix:

kayaṅa *oursput in longer sentence*

kasikoo *theirsput in longer sentence*

Gender marking in adjectives

Examplesin sentences

Rule Gender marking: gender is marked as a suffix in common nouns and as a prefix in possessive pronouns.....and adjectives?????

Examplesin sentences

Rule Gender and article marking: gender affixes also function as singular and plural definite articles.

Rule reflexive pronouns and gender: there is no gender identity in reflexive pronouns.

Articles

The singular definite article **lo** (masculine) or **na** (feminine) is written as a suffix in a noun, in the middle or at the end of a sentence, as in:

Ayume atogboru kinena**na** / **lo**

Ayume sold the nanny / billy goat

Kolani a mokara sukuri**lo** / **na**

A thief stole the cock / hen

Mariya atogbodu sukuri

Maria sold a chicken

(Sukiri is the unmarked noun chicken)

Liru a mere laga **a** dududu

Liru is the biggest mountain

Plural articles

Rule Definite articles: when gender is identified in a noun (as a suffix) it is a definite article.

Rule Indefinite articles: When the object / noun is not identified in terms of gender, it is an indefinite article.

Rule Article with adjective: When **a** is an article (as a separate word) it comes before an adjective.

Rule Article and gender marking: singular and plural definite article affixes also function as gender markers.

WORDS JOINED TOGETHER

Compound Words

A compound word is written as a single word for instance:

Kakwa			English
Compound form	Constituent parts		Compound form
monyesi'de	monye	si'de	<i>chairperson (male)</i>
notesi'de	note	si'de	<i>chairperson (female)</i>
kadopani	ka (prefix)	dopani (noun)	<i>wizard (the one who uses magical items)</i>
Kapisani	ka (prefix)	pirisa (verb) to turn a wheel	ni (suffix) singular noun marker neutral gender
			<i>driver</i>

Rule meanings are changed when elements are joined together into new words.

Rule most compound words carry the prefix **ka** which means *the one* and it qualifies the verb to make it into a new noun.

Reduplication

In Kakwa, many words are formed through the repetition of sounds. This language feature is used to extend the meaning of a word by repeating it, for example:

duma	<i>big</i>
dudu	<i>bigger</i>
dududu	<i>biggest</i>

logo *hard*
logologo *very hard*

However, there is an extra use of reduplication in Kakwa after the consonant cluster **kp**, as many words are formed with repeated syllables that are not extensions of meaning, such as:

kperekpere *an old disused mat*
kparakpara *a lazy, unhelpful person*
kpirikpiri *everything*

There are also extensions of meaning after this cluster, as in:

kpu *the sound of something falling*
kpukpukpu *the sound of flapping*

Rule Reduplication serves two purposes: to extend the meaning of a word by repeating a sound or sounds, and to form unique words with **kp**.

VOCABULARY AND SPELLINGS

Names of Places

Names of places should be written as they are currently spelt while foreign names should be written as pronounced by Kakwa speakers, for example:

Kakwa	Swahili	English
Kandiapari		
Reni kambi	kambi ya kifaro	<i>Rhino camp</i>
Geremani		<i>Germany</i>
Ko'buko		<i>Koboko</i>
	Ulaya	<i>England</i>

Numbers

Counting numbers should be written as pronounced by Kakwa speakers, for example:

0	- 'Bayi / Kana	7	- Buriyo
1	- Gele	8	- Budo
2	- Mure	9	- Buṅa
3	- Musala	10	- Mere gele
4	- Imṅani	50	- Meriya mukana
5	- Mukana	100	- Kama gele / pukunye gele
6	- Bukiye	1,000	- Elipu gele
		1,000,000	- Miliyoni gele

Rule when writing the word that means zero, 'Bayi should be used. Kana is only used in speech to mean zero or nothing.

Colours

Kakwa

Waa
waan
Dorudoruta
Ka'boka'bo
Konjulukonjulu
Katilokatilo
Lobulie
Lopke
Loruo
Lomuriye
Iotoru
Black and white

English

Orange
Pink
Green
Brown
Purple
Yellow
Blue
White
Black
Grey
Red
Landro (like a cow with black sides and a white back)
Kulikuli (dappled)
Lo'bore
Kori kori

Brown and white

Many colours together

Shapes and Patterns

Kakwa

Keriṅa / logburu
logele
lujojoli
katulukuti
rectangle
Kasirita (singular)
kasiri (plural)
koturo
Kolo

English

Round / circle
Square
Triangle
Oval / egg shape
Rectangle
Star

flower
Sun

Rigo
Beriyō
Goli

Line
Straight line / stripe
Wavey line / stripe

Days of the Week

Days of the week should be written as separate word forms and as pronounced by Kakwa speakers:

Kolo gele	<i>Monday</i>
Kolo mure	<i>Tuesday</i>
Kolo musala	<i>Wednesday</i>
Kolo imṅani	<i>Thursday</i>
Kolo mukana	<i>Friday</i>
Kolo bukiye	<i>Saturday</i>
Yinga	<i>Sunday</i>

Months of the Year

Months of the year should be written as separate word forms:

Kakwa	English	
Kirongole	<i>January</i>	<i>cold, dry and windy</i>
Pudoo	<i>February</i>	<i>dry season for field preparation</i>
Dirili	<i>March</i>	<i>the season when first rains come and shrubs sprout. Flying cricket-like insects (dirili) make a constant noise from where they stay on tree trunks</i>
Poonj	<i>April</i>	<i>rain continues and planting begins in the fields</i>
Koduse	<i>May</i>	<i>the season when cows eat young grass and in the process digest worms (koduse) which bring plenty of protein rich milk. Wild fruits are gathered e.g. mala, kasara, konjulu, ola and lomu'da</i>
Kuma	<i>June</i>	<i>grass – which flowers when there is no other crop ready. Those with no feed reserves gather wild fruits in order not to starve</i>
Yobuwata	<i>July</i>	<i>dry season when fields are prepared for the second season of rain</i>
Ja'be	<i>August</i>	<i>rains and planting, also harvesting first crops such as beans, potatoes, maize, pumpkins and groundnuts</i>
Ayize / Ayije	<i>September</i>	<i>another type of grass – with sharp tips that prick and attach to clothing - begins to flower. When water, urine or saliva is poured onto such a tip, it turns clockwise and drills itself onto the ground. In this season, animals grow thin as they cannot eat</i>

		<i>this grass.</i>
Sunguru	<i>October</i>	<i>according to legend, a man put his only child - a daughter - in charge of cattle. As she wanted to get married instead of herd cattle, she put insects - sunguru - in her father's hands. They itched his palms and disturbed him so much that he married her off.</i>
Rarawu	<i>November</i>	<i>the time of last rains as the dry season approaches. Firelines are created around homes to prevent wild fires burning them down. Some non poisonous snakes - kiriliyo - come out to cool down.</i>
Sopa na soo	<i>December</i>	<i>a dry period for harvesting crops of the second season, preparing areas in wetlands by slashing, digging and burning to produce crops for the next dry season of January - March. A variety of millet, soo is planted.</i>

BORROWED WORDS

Borrowed words should be written as pronounced by Kakwa speakers, for example:

Kakwa

Nukuta
simu
motoka
minisita

English

an Arabic word for letter, e.g. a, b, c
phone
motorcar
minister

Borrowed words must be used with great care because certain words have different meanings compared with their usage in Kakwa. For instance, the word, **yemba** as used by the Bari, Kakwa Yei, Pojulu, Kuku, etc means marriage or wedding. Meanwhile, the usage of this word in Kakwa refers to sex. Instead of **yemba** other Kakwa speakers use **lundra** and a **different word**? for sex. In other words, it is a highly sensitive word when used by other Kakwa speakers, but a normal word when used by Kakwa Yei and non-Kakwa users. The word becomes acceptable when it involves a combination of Kakwa and/or other Bari speakers because all the Kakwa speakers understand it within the same context or meaning.

The best practice is to limit the number of borrowed words/terms, specify them as borrowed and only use them in the absence of specific Kakwa words. In the event that a known Kakwa word is obsolete or outdated, both the borrowed and outdated forms should be mentioned because it will serve the important purpose of showing the evolution of Kakwa language.

CAPITALISATION

In a sentence, capital letters only occur in specific places, for example:

Katukoni lo **I**silamu lo **S**udani lo aponda i momora seki **M**onye si'de lo **K**awura ti Lokuliye lo **K**akwa ilo **K**aturoni.

*The **S**udanese delegate **I**mam **M**ustafa came to meet **Mr** **D**imba, chairman of the **K**akwa **L**anguage **B**oard.*

RuleCapitalisation of initial letters:

- the first word in every sentence
- proper nouns
- nationalities, races, tribes and clans.
- religions and belief systems
- titles
- organisations

GLOSSARY

Adjective – a word that describes or clarifies a noun.

Adverb – a word that describes a verb.

Affix – part of a word that is attached at the beginning (prefix), middle (infix) or end (suffix).

Article – a word that is used with, and gives information about a noun.

Clause – a group of related words that contain a subject and a verb, but not a complete thought, so it is not a sentence.

Compound word – a word made by joining two words together into a new word.

Conjunction – a word that joins parts of a sentence together.

Consonant – a speech sound that forms the border of a syllable. The breath is at least partly obstructed as it leaves the mouth or nose, and can be combined with a vowel sound to form a syllable.

Contrastive – when two sounds in a language can be replaced by each other in a word, and that replacement changes the meaning. For example **bolo** *a quiver made from goat skin* and **'bolo** *porridge*.

Gender – the way certain words convey concepts of masculine and feminine meaning. In Kakwa, gender is marked on

Glottal stop – a sound which makes a syllable boundary (i.e. it functions as a consonant in Kakwa) produced by completely obstructing the airflow in the vocal tract then releasing it in a burst of air, for example,

Ideophone – a word that expresses a sound, movement, or other sense.

Infix – an element of a word that is inserted within an existing word, rather than as a prefix (at the beginning) or suffix (at the end).

Ingressive sound – a sound made by breathing in. For example, 'b 'd and 'y in Kakwa.

Interjection – a word that expresses emotion or exclamation. It does not relate grammatically to other parts of a sentence.

Letter – a character or symbol representing one or more of the sounds used in speech.

Locative – also called preposition, these are small forms that point towards a position or location in space or distance.

Lower case – small letters (not capitals).

Marked and unmarked – unmarked terms are normal, i.e. they have no identifying marks, whereas terms that are not normal are identified or marked e.g. **d** is not marked in Kakwa, but **'d** is marked because there is an extra sound – a glottal stop - indicated by the apostrophe (the mark that distinguishes it from the normal d).

Nasal – the consonants **m**, **n** and **ŋ**, which are pronounced through the nose.

Negative marker - part of speech that carries negation.

Noun – the name of a person, place or thing.

Object – a noun, pronoun, clause or phrase in a sentence that is acted upon by the subject.

Parts of speech – the classification of words according to their function in a sentence, i.e. the sense in which a word is used, not the letters it is composed of.

Phrase – a group of words that do not have a subject doing a verb.

Postposition / preposition – a word that links nouns, pronouns and phrases to other words in a sentence. In Kakwa, these words wrap round the object/noun in the sentence they are linked to, with an element immediately before and another related element, immediately after. For example see

Prefix – a letter or group of letters added to the beginning of a word.

Pronoun – a word that can replace a noun.

Reduplication – when words are formed through the repetition of sounds. This language feature is used to extend the meaning of a word by repeating it.

Reflexive pronoun – a special type of pronoun that is used when the subject and object of a sentence refer to the person or thing.

Relative clause – a clause with a subject and verb, also called an adjective clause because it functions like an adjective and gives more information about a noun.

Relative pronoun – a type of pronoun that relates to a word in a relative clause.

Semivowel – the consonants **y** and **w**, which sound like vowels but function as syllable boundaries rather than the nucleus of a syllable.

Sentence – the basic unit of language which expresses a complete thought.

Sound – vibrations that travel through the air (or another medium) that can be heard.

Subject – the subject of a sentence is the person, place, thing or idea that is doing or being something. You can find the subject of a sentence if you can find the verb, and ask ‘ who or what ‘verbs’ or ‘verbed’ ? and the answer to that question is the subject.

Suffix – a letter or group of letters added to the end of a word.

Syllable – part of a word that is pronounced as one unit, but bigger than individual letter sounds. For example the word Liru has two syllables: **Li-ru**. The word **Lee** has one syllable and the word **du-du-du** has three (the division of the syllables is shown here by a small line / hyphen, for clarity). A syllable can be a vowel sound, with or without surrounding consonants, i.e. it is an unbroken sound used to make up words.

Tone – the use of pitch to convey meaning.

Upper case – capital letters.

Verb – a word that expresses an action or a state of being.

Vowel a speech sound that is the nucleus of a syllable, i.e. the loud, long part, made with an open mouth (in different shapes, depending on the vowel) and vibration of the vocal cords.

Word – a single distinct meaningful element of speech or writing.



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