

UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I

FACULTY OF ARTS, LETTERS AND
SOCIAL SCIENCES

POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL OF ARTS,
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LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES



UNIVERSITE DE YAOUNDE I

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PIDGIN ENGLISH IN COSMETICS SHOPS: A LEXICAL INVESTIGATION

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Presented by

KELLY BRIGHT KANG NYANG

B.A. ENGLISH LANGUAGE,
THE UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE 1

Matricule: 17K444



jury

President: Bonaventure Sala (Pr), University of Yaounde 1

Supervisor: Jean-Paul Kouega (Pr), University of Yaounde 1

Examiner: Charles Alobwede (Associate Pro), University of Yaounde

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this dissertation entitled “Pidgin English in Cosmetics shops: A lexical investigation” is the initiative of Kelly Bright K. NYANG of the Department of English, University of Yaoundé I in view of obtaining a Master’s Degree in English Language (Sociolinguistics)

DEDICATION

To my darling daughter Kelly-Rose ARRAH ATEM

Lovingly dedicated

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Inherent in every intention and desire is the mechanics for its fulfilment. I would like to express my gratitude to the following people:

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ABSTRACT

Over the years, various domains of Pidgin lexis have been studied, but some domains of language use seemed to have been side-lined. One such neglected domain is cosmetics shops, which is what underlies the motivation for this study. This paper examines language use in cosmetics shops, with the focus on Pidgin lexical words. The broad setting of the study was the town of Yaoundé and the specific settings were five female hair saloons, five manicure and pedicure workshops, five body lotion sale shops, and five male barbing saloons chosen at random in densely populated localities within Yaoundé. The instruments used were a phone with audio and video recording devices and a notebook, and the materials were the interactions that took place in each setting during the visit of the researcher, which generally lasted for one hour. The material collected was transcribed and a total of 51 specific words were identified. These words were analysed following the work of O'Grady and Guzman (1996) on word formation processes. It was found that these new words resulted from several processes of word formation, the dominant being borrowing (41.2% of 51 cases), followed by coinage and semantic extension (15.7% each). If the lexical items identified in Yaoundé are later found to be used in the seats of Pidgin in Cameroon, which are Buea and Bamenda, then these items would be considered for integration into the dictionary of Cameroon Pidgin English.

Keywords: Cameroon Pidgin English, lexicology, word formation, cosmetics, hair saloon, body lotion, manicure and pedicure

RÉSUMÉ

Au fil des années, divers domaines du lexique du “pidgin” ont été étudiés, mais certains domaines mineurs de l’utilisation de la langue, semblent avoir été mis de côté. Cet article examine l’utilisation des langages dans les salons de beauté, en mettant l’accent sur les mots lexicaux du “pidgin”. L’un de ces domaines négligés est celui des salons de beauté, ce qui est à l’origine de la motivation de cette étude. La recherche a été guidée par les trois questions suivantes. Le cadre général de l’étude était la ville de Yaoundé. Les paramètres spécifiques étaient cinq salons de coiffure pour femmes, cinq ateliers de manucure et pédicure, cinq boutiques de vente de l’huile de beauté et cinq salons de coiffure pour hommes choisis au hasard dans des localités peuplées de Yaoundé. Les instruments utilisés étaient un téléphone avec des appareils d’enregistrement audio et vidéo et un cahier. Les matériaux étaient les interactions qui ont eu lieu dans chaque contexte lors de la visite du chercheur, qui durait généralement une heure. Le matériel recueilli a été transcrit et un total de 51 mots spécifiques ont été identifiés. Ces mots ont été analysés à la suite des travaux de O’Grady et Guzman (1996) sur les processus de formation des mots. L’analyse de ces nouveaux mots a révélé qu’ils résultaient de plusieurs processus de formation des mots la dominante étant l’emprunt (41.2% des 51 mots), suivi de l’extension sémantique (15.7%). Si les éléments lexicaux identifiés à Yaoundé s’avèrent plus tard utilisés dans les sièges du pidgin au Cameroun, qui sont Buea et Bamenda, alors ces éléments seraient envisagés pour être intégrés dans le dictionnaire du pidgin du Cameroun.

Mots-clés : pidgin camerounais, lexicologie, formation de mots, cosmétiques, salon de beauté, lotion corporelle, manucure et pédicure.

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Anglophone Pidgin English (APE).....	12
Table 2: Francophone Pidgin English (FPE)	13
Table 3: YPE Borrowing	14
Table 4: YPE Clipping.....	14
Table 5: examples of compounding.....	21
Table 6: examples of conversion	24
Table 7: examples of derivation.....	25
Table 8: examples of borrowing	27
Table 9: examples from Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) :.....	28
Table 10: examples of Portuguese borrowed words.....	38
Table 11: Area of collection	51
Table 12: Sample of common words used in hair saloons.....	53
Table 13: List of specific words in the female hair saloons context.....	55
Table 14: Sample of borrowed words in the female hair saloon setting.....	57
Table 15: Sample of compound words in the female hair saloon setting	58
Table 16: Sample of reduplicated words in the female hair saloon setting	59
Table 17: Sample of Coined words in the female hair saloon setting	60
Table 18: Sample of semantic extended words in the female hair saloon setting	60
Table 19: Proportion of word formation processes in the female hair saloon corpus	61
Table 20: Sample of common words used in manicure and pedicure workshops	62
Table 21: List of specific words in the manicure and pedicure workshop setting.....	63
Table 22: Borrowed words in the manicure and pedicure workshop setting.....	65
Table 23: Compound words in the manicure and pedicure workshop setting.....	66
Table 24: Contribution of word formation processes in the manicure sector	67
Table 25: Sample of common words used in these shops	68
Table 26: List of specific words in the body lotion sale shop setting.....	69
Table 27: Sample of borrowed words in the body lotion sale shop setting	70
Table 28: Sample of semantic extended words in the body lotion sale shop setting.....	71
Table 29: Contribution of word formation processes in the sample	71

Table 30: Sample of common words used in the male barbing saloons	72
Table 31: Specific words in the male barbing saloon setting	73
Table 32: Sample of borrowed words in the male barbing saloon setting.....	75
Table 33: Sample of semantic extended words in the male barbing saloon setting	76
Table 34: Proportion of word formation processes in the sample	77
Table 35: New words and their meaning	77
Table 36: List of words resulting from borrowing.....	81
Table 37: List of words resulting from coinage.....	83
Table 38: List of words resulting from compounding	83
Table 39: List of words resulting from semantic extension.....	84
Table 40: List of words resulting from reduplication	85
Table 41: List of words resulting from clipping	85
Table 42: List of words resulting from clipping	86
Table 43: Contribution of the word formation processes in the sample	87
Table 44: Words specific to the domain of cosmetics	87

LIST OF ABBRIVIATION AND ACRONYMS

APE: Anglophone Pidgin English

CamE: Cameroon English

CamStE: Cameroon Standard English

CamP: Cameroon Pidgin

CPE: Cameroon Pidgin English

FPE: French Pidgin English

NIS: National Institute of Statistics

StE: Standard English

YPE: Youth Pidgin English

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CERTIFICATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
RÉSUMÉ	v
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF ABBRIVIATION AND ACRONYMS	viii
INTRODUCTION	1
Motivation.....	1
Research problem.....	2
Research questions.....	2
Research objectives.....	2
Significance of the study.....	2
Scope of study.....	3
Structure of the study	3
CHAPTER ONE	4
BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	4
1.1: Language situation in Cameroon	4
1.1.1: Official languages	4
1.1.2: Major minority languages	6
1.1.3: Lesser minority languages	8
1.2: Pidgin English in Cameroon (PE).....	9
1.2.1: Varieties of Cameroon Pidgin English	11
1.2.1.1: Anglophone Pidgin English (APE).....	12
1.2.1.2: Francophone Pidgin English (FPE)	13
1.2.1.3: Youth Pidgin English (YPE).....	13
1.2.1.4: Bororo Pidgin English (BPE)	15
1.2.1.5: Other Varieties	15

1.3: Education in Cameroon	15
1.4: Non-formal economic activities in Cameroon and the cosmetics domain	17
CHAPTER TWO	20
THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW	20
2.1: Theoretical framework.....	20
2.1.1 Aspects of O’Grady and Guzman (1996) word formation processes	20
2.1.1.1: Compounding.....	20
2.1.1.2: Blending.....	22
2.1.1.3: Clipping	22
2.1.1.4: Reduplication	22
2.1.1.5: back formation	23
2.1.1.6: Conversion	23
2.1.1.7: Derivation	25
2.1.1.8: Coinage	26
2.1.1.9: Acronym	26
2.1.1.10: Borrowing	27
2.1.1.11: Initialization	28
2.1.1.12. Onomatopoeia	28
2.1.1.13: Inflection.....	29
2.1.1.14: semantic extension.....	29
2.1.2 Aspects of Gumperz’s code-switching and contextualization	30
2.2: Review of related literature.....	34
2.2.1: Works on multilingualism in Cameroon.....	34
2.2.2: Works on Pidgin English in Cameroon	36
2.2.3: Works on Camfranglais in Cameroon	39
2.2.4: works on code-switching and code-mixing	41
2.2.5: Works on cosmetics in Cameroon	43
2.2.6: Works on word formation processes	44
CHAPTER THREE	47
METHODOLOGY	47
3.1 Setting	47

3.2: Informants	48
3.3: Research instruments and method of data collection.....	49
3.3.1: Tape recording	49
3.3.2: Observation and interviews	50
3.5: Method of data analysis	51
3.6: Difficulties encountered.....	51
CHAPTER FOUR.....	53
DATA ANALYSIS.....	53
4.1: Female hair saloons	53
4.1.1: Common words heard in female hair saloons.....	53
4.1.2: Specific words and their meanings in context	55
4.1.3: Word formation processes	57
4.1.3.1: Borrowing	57
4.1.3.2: Compounding.....	57
4.1.3.4: Coinage	59
4.1.3.5: Semantic extension	60
4.2: Manicure and pedicure workshops	61
4.2.1: Common words heard in manicure and pedicure workshops	61
4.2.2: Specific words and their meanings in context	63
4.2.3: Word formation processes	64
4.2.3.1: Borrowing	64
4.2.3.2: Acronym	65
4.2.3.3: Reduplication	66
4.2.3.4: Compounding.....	66
4.3: Body lotion sale shops	67
4.3.1: Common words heard in body lotion shops	67
4.3.2: Specific words and their meanings in context	68
4.3.3: Word formation processes	70
4.3.3.1: Borrowing	70
4.3.3.2: Coinage	70
4.3.3.3: Semantic extension	71

4.4: Male barbing saloons	72
4.4. 1: Common words heard in male barbing saloons.....	72
4.4.2: Specific words and their meanings in context	73
4.4.3: Word formation processes	74
4.4.3.1.: Borrowing	74
4.4.3.2: Coinage	75
4.4.3.3: Semantic extension	76
4.4.3.4: Clipping	76
4.4.3.5: Compounding.....	76
4.5: New Words and the processes of their formation.....	77
4.5.1: New words identified in the workshops	77
4.5.2: Formation of the new words	81
CONCLUSION.....	91
REFERENCES	94
APPENDICES	100

INTRODUCTION

Pidgin English is one of the languages of wider communication in Cameroon. It is used side by side other languages like English and French. What is however peculiar about Cameroon Pidgin English is that it is one of the lingua francas that is used within a larger scope (geographically and linguistically). The use of Cameroon Pidgin English is not restricted to a particular group of people or to people from a particular region. As Mbassi-Manga (1976) asserts, it is a language that “links at least potentially, Cameroonians from different language groups either educated in English or in French only, or non-educated at all in either of these Received Languages”. The flexible nature of the languages gives room to people from various linguistic backgrounds to express themselves using it. This has led to a significant increase in the function of CPE as it is generally used in out-of-group communication, buying and selling, religious teaching and worship and cultural expressions etc. (Menang 2006).

Cameroon Pidgin English has as donor languages: the English language, French, some home languages and some lexical items from neighbouring countries like Nigeria. It is noticed that CPE has a large vocabulary of words from the English language. Despite the similarities between the English language and CPE, a keen listening of the utterances of Pidgin speakers show that most of the English words used frequently in Pidgin have drifted somehow from what is conceptually recognised in Standard English usage.

In Sociolinguistics (language and the society) specifically, language has helped a great deal to curb the thinking of people reflected in the milieu where they find themselves. The study of the language of any community transcends more than just speakers, speech patterns and varieties, thus language would be more understandable when studied in context. As such there is a need to evaluate the meanings of these words as used in different language domains focusing on those Pidgin lexical items used in the domain of cosmetics.

Motivation

This study was motivated by the need to exploit an underrated research area like cosmetics. Following an observation on how people create a mix of languages equally brought about the

zeal to know why this is done by carrying out research in order to be clarified on the use of these lexical features and how they fit in these different languages.

Research problem

Over the years, researchers who worked on Pidgin English examined various domains of language use, generally paying little attention to the domain of cosmetics. The linguistic evolution of the cosmetics domain in Cameroon has led to some controversies over the years caused by multilingualism. As concerns this discussion, it is obvious that the English and French languages are used in all fields, thus, from a sociolinguistic and lexical perspective, it can be said that the language used extends meaning from the thoughts of the speaker to that of the hearer.

Research questions

This research is out to attempt answers to the following questions:

1. What are the common words used in social interactions in Pidgin in cosmetics shops?
2. What are the Pidgin lexical items specific to the domain of cosmetics?
3. What are the processes of formation of specific Pidgin terms used in the cosmetics domain?

Research objectives

The objectives of this work are threefold:

- To identify the common words used in social interactions in Pidgin in cosmetics shops;
- To sort out Pidgin lexical items specific to the domain of cosmetics;
- To work out the processes of formation of specific Pidgin items used in the cosmetics domain.

In short, the work intends to describe language use in the cosmetic field, cross check the relationship between the cosmeticians and their customers, investigate and document the process that boosts the language used in this domain.

Significance of the study

From a social perspective, this work will facilitate and enhance communication to a certain extent between speakers of different languages. From an academic level, this work will call researchers (in this domain) attention to see how these lexical features can be unified to suit

everybody. The study will be of great significance to teachers in general and language teachers in particular. Actually, these words will eventually be borrowed by a great number of ancestral languages which have already borrowed words like suku (school), moto (car)

Scope of study

This work focuses exclusively on the lexis of Cameroon Pidgin English. Within lexicology, the work is limited to the domain of cosmetics, specifically female hair saloon, manicure and pedicure workshops, body lotion sale shops and male barbing saloons.

Structure of the study

The work is divided into four chapters. Chapter One handles the fundamentals and overall knowledge on the language situation in Cameroon and the form that each language takes in the society. Additionally, it tackles the various sectors of language use prominent to this study. Chapter Two reviews related literature and outlines the theoretical framework adopted for this study related to the lexical aspects of language contact.

Chapter Three overviews the methodology and focuses on the instruments used in collecting data for this work which include tape recordings of interactions in cosmetics shops. This chapter also considers the informants, the material collected, the method of data collection and the difficulties encountered throughout the corpus. Chapter Four provides an overview of the different cosmetic sectors in Cameroon. It analyses the data collected for the research. It presents the complete data collected based on multilingual usage in cosmetician and customer exchanges. This chapter is divided in to sections presenting the lexical items particular to cosmeticians. Emphasis is laid on analyzing and interpreting the words, domains of usage, lexical features and analyzing data from tape records and the observation technique which will enable a conclusion to be drawn in this study.

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

This chapter discusses the historical events that contribute to Cameroon being a multilingual society. It equally looks at Cameroon's educational system. This is important to this study as it carries some salient points that dive deep into the different languages used and how these languages developed or were formed. It equally touches the educational and non-formal economic sectors in Cameroon with precision on the cosmetics sector as a way to make this chapter tie to the research topic and relate to the findings. In short, the chapter takes up the language situation in Cameroon (1.1), the education system in Cameroon (1.2) and non-formal activities in Cameroon (1.3).

1.1: Language situation in Cameroon

Cameroon is a Central African state which shares boundaries with Central African Republic to the East, Nigeria to the North and West, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, the Republic of Congo to the South and Chad to the North East. It is a medium sized state of about 472,710 km² comprising over 27,837,625 people (Worldometer elaboration of the latest United data: Saturday June 18, 2022). Kouega (2007), reports that Cameroon, besides its official languages, has more than 250 indigenous languages. In this same light Chia (1983) claims that Cameroon has a vast linguistic coverage with over 260 national languages with French and English as official languages, Pidgin, Ffulde, Camfanglais, and Ewondo Populaire as major lingua francas. Echu (2003) identifies three categories of languages which he refers as: official languages, vehicular languages, and indigenous languages. In a comprehensive study, Kouega (2007) grouped the close to 250 languages in the country into four categories: two official languages (1.1.1), a few major minority languages (1.1.2), a number of minority languages (1.1.3), and two religious languages i.e., Arabic and Pidgin English.

1.1.1: Official languages

The official languages of Cameroon are English and French. The coming of the Europeans to Africa in general and Cameroon in particular brought about the introduction of

certain Western cultural aspects like their languages, dressing styles, behaviour, and meals, etc. The territory was later partitioned between the British and the French in 1919 after the defeat of the Germans during the First World War. Thus, Cameroon became a trust territory of these two countries and then gained English and French as languages of official instructions. This marked the advent of official bilingualism in Cameroon.

The Cameroonian government on its part has put in place certain structures which will help promote bilingualism in the country and between the citizens. Special linguistic centres such as the Pilot linguistic centres were created around the country to help enhance the learning and fast acquisition of these languages.

At the educational level, English and French became prime mediums of instructions. The Anglophones were to be taught the French language while the Francophones be taught the English language. At the primary, secondary and high school levels, both languages were to be used separately in examinations. At the university and higher levels, examinations are set in both languages and the students are to choose the most suitable language in which they can answer and master best.

Despite all the efforts put in place by the government to implement and promote bilingualism among the citizens and in the country at large, some lapses are still registered with regards to building a bilingual Cameroon. Kouega (1999) says these lapses are due to the fact that it is the country that is bilingual and not the people. However, Anchimbe (2006) posits that:

[...] the statistics have no doubt increased tremendously given the increase in educational institutions, the advent of free primary education, the international usefulness of English and French technological trade and advancement, and above all, employment of opportunities in Anglophone and Francophone countries.

Fonlon (1969) adds that “de sure, Cameroon has become a bilingual state but, de facto, it is a highly multilingual, multicultural country”. Multilingualism can refer either to the language use or to the competence of an individual or to the language situation in an entire nation or a society. The language choice in such societies is determined according to social variables. In these regards, Clyne (1991) introduces a number of paradigms that characterises a multilingual society.

Fishman (1977) confirms that a multi-lingual's choice of language is determined by the interlocutors, the domain of usage, the topic, the venue, the channel of communication, the type of interaction and above all the phatic function (when the speaker focuses on establishing or maintaining social interaction without really communicating any meaningful information). Cameroon falls well into a multilingual context because of its language varieties. In a case where an individual is lacking in one language, there is room for variety and automatic code-switching and code-mixing.

1.1.2: Major minority languages

These include Ffulde, Pidgin and to some extent Camfranglais. They are considered below.

Ffulde

Ffulde is a language spoken in the northern part of Cameroon precisely in the Far North, North and Adamawa regions, and extends to part of the north of the East region. It is mostly spoken by the Fulbe people also known as the Fulani who migrated from different parts in Africa, Senegal in particular. According to Lewis et al (2016), the native speakers of Ffulde was estimated in 2003 at around 700,000 and the total number of its users within the country may be over 5,000,000 out of the country's population of 15,000,000 people. Speakers of its variants are stretched from Senegal through Cameroon to Sudan, and are estimated at around 13,000,000 people.

Pidgin

Pidgin is a language spoken in the entire Cameroon territory and mainly in the two Anglophone regions of Cameroon (Northwest and Southwest regions). The number of its speakers who are mainly second language users was estimated in 2005 to be about 2,000,000 when the country's population was about 15,000,000 (Lewis et al, 2016). Following a research carried out by Todd and Hancock (1986), the language is spoken by 50% of the population and it is becoming a mother tongue in some urban communities.

Camfranglais

Major works on Camfranglais in Cameroon include: Ze Amvela (1989), Chia (1990), Kouega (1999, 2003, 2013), and Kiessling (2005).

Camfranglais is a hybrid language of English and French with a mixture of some indigenous languages of the country not leaving out CPE. In line with this, Kouega (2003) says Camfranglais came as a result of interference between English and French. It was introduced after the reunification of the two Cameroons and originated among youth's zeal to create a catchy form of communication in football fields, market places, schools and around the ports. It gradually gained popularity in the 1990s and it is mostly used by Cameroonian youths between 12-28 years old. Kiessling (2005) posits the language is mainly used by adolescents in urban towns like Yaoundé and Douala. Camfranglais reflects the inner Cameroonian antagonism of English and French since it is to a considerable extent the product of Cameroonian pupils who have been exposed to the English language, but left secondary school without being capable of having a complete conversation in English (Kouega, 2003; Kouega (1999). Ze Amvela (1989) in this same light traces the origin of this speech form to France and Canada as bilinguals got involved in code-mixing and codeswitching.

Many researchers postulate that the derogatory nature of English and French is due to the existence of such language varieties while others are intrigued by the use of this code to the point where some of them propose that it should be promoted and set up as a language of communication. Chia (1990) outlines some examples of Camfranglais sentences as follows;

- Allons book aux cartes (let us go and play cards)
- J'ai prefere piak (I preferred running)
- Je bus a sawa yang une Chem (I am going down to Douala to buy a shirt)

From the above examples, it can be clearly noted that this code enriches its lexical banks from English, French and some indigenous languages mixed to form a structure which cannot be associated to a particular language.

1.1.3: Lesser minority languages

They are also referred to as home languages, local languages and national languages (Chia, 1983). Before the coming of the official languages (English and French) which have now gained grounds in the country, indigenous languages like Kenyang, Limbum, Lamnso, Ejagham, Ewondo, and many others were spoken alongside Pidgin English which was introduced during the early years of the European involvement in the territory. Biya (1984) during one of the Cameroon People's Democratic Movement (CPDM) congress in Bamenda asserts that:

At the ethnic level, we should encourage the development of national languages which are the privileged mediums of cultures... We could thus have opted for the integrity of each Cameroonian into his ethnic community through his mother tongue while bearing in mind that this ethnic integrity is only a strategic step to a better integration without national community. We now come to the second level of this action. The objective of which is to develop and setup national integration through cultural integration by way of the national official languages.

This brought about the setting up of structures such as the Department of African Languages and Linguistics at the University of Yaoundé 1, the National Association for Cameroonian Language Committee (NACALCO), the “Agence de Co-operation Culturelle et Technique” (ACCT). These centres were aimed at promoting mother tongueS and the development of these languages.

Various Cameroonian communities use these indigenous languages to identify themselves with at least one of the languages. These languages are mostly used either for performing traditional rights, divinations, songs, folktales, riddles, incantations and also used in Church to a certain extent. To a certain extent, these indigenous languages serve as donor languages to the official languages. Echu (2003a) highlights cases of lexical interference like:

- *Fai* (Grass field languages) traditional tittle
- *Nyango* (Duala) woman
- *Kwa coco* (Bakweri) traditional dish prepared from cocoyams
- *Eru* (Bayangi) traditional dish prepared from vegetables

- *Achu* (Grass field languages) traditional dish composed of pounded cocoyam and a yellowish soup.

The number of indigenous languages spoken in Cameroon seem to be fluctuating as there are new discoveries as time goes by. Researchers in this domain have not been able to give an exact number of the existing languages. Mbassi -Manga (1979) puts the number at 285, Chia (1983) claims 260, Tadadjeu and Mba (1996) puts the figure at 248, and Dieu and Renaud (1983) put it at 236.

1.2:Pidgin English in Cameroon (PE)

Some major works on Pidgin in Cameroon include: Ayafor (1996, 2000, 2006), Alobwede (1999), Simo Bobda and Hans (2003), Kouega (2004, 2007, 2012, 2018), Menang (2006), Kouega and Aseh (2017).

Todd (1990) defines Pidgin as a makeshift language contact language that arises to fulfill certain restricted communication needs among people who have no common language and are from different linguistic backgrounds. Kouega (2004) stipulates that Pidgin English (PE) or Cameroon Pidgin English (CPE) referred to as ‘KAMTOK’ by Ayafor (2000) started off some 500 years ago as a trade language. CPE gained grounds in Cameroon when the territory was discovered by the Portuguese in 1472 (Schneider, 1974). The Portuguese based pidgin was the first major pidgin in the territory which was later replaced by the English based pidgin. Kouega (2007) claims, Pidgin English came into being in the Slave Trade years, from the 1400s to the early 1800s. It became a makeshift language used in the German plantations and spoken by labourers who spoke mutual unintelligible languages. With the coming of legitimate trade, the interaction between the natives and the European increased. The creation of large plantations in the territory required a large number of workers from all corners of the territory. Ze Amvela (2001) recounts that “these labourers left their ancestral homes to migrate and mingle in the mixed communities created by these activities. In these heterogeneous and multilingual settings, the only available answer to the language problem was the creation of Pidgin English”. The Baptist missionaries who opened Institutions in Cameroon were forced to learn Pidgin English as the base language so as to easily communicate with the natives.

Pidgin English has helped to bridge the gap which existed between Cameroonians caused by its numerous ethnic groups and other dialects which existed within these languages making it difficult for even the closest neighbours to understand each other. Beatrice (2016) asserts Cameroonians are more comfortable using CPE than using English or French and consider it a unifying language which “grows” in their eyes and transcends geographical and political boundaries since it is not a language of a particular people and thus, goes beyond the reproach of tribalism. She adds that Cameroonians have diverted CPE as a means of a common linguistic identity through which they can understand each other. It is in this light of understanding that Ngallassum (2005) cites Rudin (1983) who assess the situation as this:

There were many languages as there were ethnic groups and these languages were so numerous that tribes had ceased to understand one another. There were so many dialects that the various tribes speak Pidgin to make themselves understood in periodical market days.

Ekanjume-Ilongo (2016) posits the existence of five varieties of CPE and says these varieties are based on regional differences. These varieties according to Ekanjume-Ilongo (ibid) include

- Liturgical Kamtok: this variety is that used in churches
- Grafi Kamtok: this variety can be found mostly in the grass field regions of the country
- Limbe Kamtok: this variety is that spoken around the port Victoria now called Limbe
- Bororo Kamtok: this variety is spoken by Bororo traders who traded around Cameroon and Nigeria
- Francophone kamtok: this is the variety spoken by Francophones who do not speak English especially when speaking with Anglophones who do not speak French

Pidgin English in Cameroon is used in many domains of language use like in homes, work places, schools, courts, official correspondences, media and public places (Kouega and Aseh, 2017). It is spoken by educated people in various settings; at home when interacting with the maids, in the neighbourhood when interacting with friends, neighbours and traders (Kouega, 2001). Cameroon Pidgin English has become a prominent language in Cameroon as the years go by; this assertion was made by Atechi (2011) whose informants affirmed its importance (85%)

against 15% who rejected this importance. CPE gets a handful of its lexemes, Morphemes and phonemes from Cameroon English (CamE). To this effect, Ngefac and Sala (2006) posit that CPE is giving up most of its phonological and lexical peculiarities in favour of CamE making it difficult to draw a difference between them.

1.2.1: Varieties of Cameroon Pidgin English

Cameroon Pidgin English (CPE) has over the years been a focal point of debate as permits status. Contrary views have been brought to the lime light which leaves the language still hanging especially without a prior standardization. The language has pulled together large users notwithstanding. Different linguists therefore hold varying opinions. Povey (1985) affirms that...the single most useful means of communication in Cameroon is Pidgin English. Mbangwana (2004) affirms this and adds that Pidgin English should be reconsidered as a language of communication because of its unexpected extensive functions in the day-to-day life of Cameroonians. The language is an effective instrument used in fields such as evangelism, activities, mass media, and education. Consequently, considering this enormous utility of the language, Mbangwana (ibid) concludes that:

“Cameroon Pidgin English is a vital lingua franca has developed from a simple marginal contact language to an extended form that serves the users’ linguistics needs in their multifarious spheres of interaction. Serving as a mother tongue to some Cameroonians, and serving Cameroonians’ needs beyond the initial ones, which were commercial. CPE has been revitalised, and increased its domain of use from time to time”.

Based on this, Chia (2009), recognises the fact that the language holds an intricate positioning Cameroon and poses as a threat to the grammar of an English language speaker. To complement the language, though it is observing some negative tendencies, Chia (ibid) still thinks that the language can be incorporated into our universities. Thus, Atechi (2011:33-34) adheres that, “the obvious shock waves being sent by Cameroon Pidgin English (CamP) from primary school to the university level makes it unwise to start prophesying the end of such a language”

The foregoing defined status and functions of the language can be accredited to its different variations. The varieties have been distinguished and named following their users, the use they make of it, the speaker's region of origin, the social group to which the speakers belong. In this light, previous researchers such as Todd (1982), Ngome (1983), Ndoping (1989), and Todd and Jumbam (1992) attempted to distinguish between the varieties of Pidgin English in Cameroon. On this note, Mbangwana (2004:27-36) has made an attempt to classify Cameroon Pidgin English into different varieties termed: Anglophone Pidgin English, Francophone Pidgin English, Youth Pidgin English, Bororo Pidgin English and other varieties.

1.2.1.1: Anglophone Pidgin English (APE)

Though this variety will be allocated to the two Anglophone regions, a keen listener must admit that there are yet some slight differences in the phonology between speakers from the two regions. Thus, Mbangwana (2004:28) demarcates the distinctive features of this variety between these two regions. He puts forth the following examples:

Table 1: Anglophone Pidgin English (APE)

Southwest	Northwest	Standard English
you don kam?	kam gud	You are welcome
a di go dai	i di go crai dai	I'm going to a death celebration
na massa Joe ei pikin	na pikin fo massa joe	This is Mr Joe's child
ei na we teacher	na we teacher this	This is our teacher
komot fo ya	komot fo ya	You should leave this place

Mbangwana (2004)

1.2.1.2: Francophone Pidgin English (FPE)

FPE unlike APE gets its lexifiers from French and English, mostly approximated to the French phonological system. Though Menang (1979) and Todd (1982) are unanimous on the existence of this variety, Ngome (1972) juxtaposes Anglophone Pidgin English (APE) and Francophone Pidgin English (FPE) with the following examples:

Table 2: Francophone Pidgin English (FPE)

APE	StE	FPE	French
karasin	Kerosine	petrol	petrol
holidei	Holiday	konje	Conje
akwara	Prostitute	bordel	Bordel

Ngome (1972)

The use of Francophone Pidgin English (FPE) continues to widen the gap between youths and adults because of the extensive vocabulary built through innovations, clipping, relexification, flexibility and adaptability. This accounts for a discrete communication system which effectively eases communication between the youths.

1.2.1.3: Youth Pidgin English (YPE)

Mbangwana (1991) adheres that youths developed a language code used amongst them. They have discussed the innovations made particularly by youths in urban areas. This is always characterised by aspects of interference, borrowing and code-mixing, neologisms, slang and other complicated systems they develop. In a nutshell, this refers to youth Pidgin English as “a lively and youthful jargon which displays a certain type of innovative lexical repertoire”.

- i. **Borrowing:** words from HLs and other untraceable origins and their meanings in standard English

Table 3: YPE Borrowing

YPE	Standard English
buka	Play/ cards
nyama	Eat
tum	Sell
yang	Buy
sua/ tua	Steal

It was later shown that these borrowed come from Camfranglais (Kouega 2003b).

ii. Clipping: invasion of lexical items and expressions

Table 4: YPE Clipping

YPE	Standard English
tua	Thousand
clando	Clandestine transportation
pang	Pantalon
mara	Marathon
fua	Foirer (to be poor)
dang	Identity card
kousa	Makossa

Mbangwana (1991)

Actually, what we called here YPE clippings are in fact clipped words in Camfranglais that are borrowed by Pidgin (Kouega 2003b).

1.2.1.4: Bororo Pidgin English (BPE)

This is used by the Bororos as Todd (1982:20) posits. These are a group of people who are cattle rearers spread mostly in west and central Africa. Thus Chia (1983:27) admits that their language-Fulani falls under the Niger-Congo (Congo Kordofanian) family. Mbangwana (2004:33-34) gives a good example of the speech of a bororo through which characteristics that underlie his variety can immediately be discerned.

1.2.1.5: Other Varieties

Mbassi-Manga (1973:50-51) traces creolized Pidgin English (C-PE) as far back as 1400 before and during the slave trade period. Todd (1982:20) identifies Liturgical Pidgin English (LPE) and refers to it as the variety used by missionaries, priests and other evangelists to spread the word of God. It is traced as far back as 1841 with the arrival of the English Baptist Missionaries who opened the first schools in Bimbia, Duala and Victoria. There is also Business Pidgin English (BuPE) which is the variety used in business transactions. Fonka (2011) refers to it as Comedy Pidgin English which is equally used in the audio-visual media especially in comical slots. Pop singers and musicians also use this variety for commercial purposes. These categorisation leaves the notion that in as much as CPE is a medium of communication, it has variant forms of usage. Sometimes it becomes overlapping with it is specific and peculiar characteristics.

1.3: Education in Cameroon

Some major works on education in Cameroon include Kouega (2003, 2008a, 2008b, 2011, 2018) Kouega and Dempowo (2022), and Abiba (2003).

Two educational programs co-exist in Cameroon: the French system and the English system. The French system is made up of the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. The primary language of instruction used in this system is the French Language with the English Language considered a minor at all levels. The Primary level in this system is made up of:

“l’école maternelle” and “l’école primaire” which run for two to three years and six years respectively after which a “Certificat d’études primaires” (CEP) is obtained. The Secondary level runs for seven years and three certificates are being obtained at this level: “Le brevet d’études de premier cycle” (B.E.P.C) is obtained in 3eme, Probatoire obtained in Premier and lastly Baccalauréat obtained at the end of high school (in terminal). The tertiary level which is the university level runs a seven to eight years program. A licence is obtained after a successive three year study, a Master’s degree is obtained after a completion of the master’s level and a diplôme de doctorat is issued after successfully completing and defending your research project at the PhD level.

The English educational system on the other hand is equally made up of the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. The primary, language of instruction used in this system is the English Language with French being introduced as a minor at all levels. The primary just like the French system, is divided into two sections: the kindergarten generally known as “Nursery school” is made up of the youngest set of learners with an age range of 3-5 years. This level is usually two to three years of learning where the basics in speech are being taught. The second sector of this level is the “primary school” which runs for six years after which a First School Leaving Certificate (F. S. L. C) is obtained. The Secondary level in this system unlike the French system is divided into two sections: the junior secondary school which runs for five years after which a General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level (G. C. E OL) is obtained, and a senior secondary school generally known as high school runs a two year program during which a General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (G. C. E AL) is granted after completion in Upper sixth. The last stage is the tertiary level known as the University level. This level runs a seven to eight years program with the first three years referred to as the undergraduate level where a Bachelor’s Degree is acquired after a successful completion. The post-graduate level is made up of the Master’s and PhD levels which runs for two and three years respectively after which a Master’s Degree and a Doctoral Degree are obtained.

Cameroon educational system is made up of both private and public schools, some of which are purely Anglo-Saxon, Francophone and some being bilingual at all levels of education: from primary, secondary to the tertiary level. The country owns eleven states universities in the towns

of Buea, Bamenda, Douala, Dschang, Ngoundere, Yaoundé I and II and Maroua, Bertoua, Garoua and many private institutions where professional studies are being carried out.

1.4:Non-formal economic activities in Cameroon and the cosmetics domain

The non-formal economic sectors in Cameroon involves the mining sector, subsistence farming, trade, petit markets vendors, home based services, small constructed services, street hawkers etc. According to the National Institute of Statistics (NIS, 2005), about 90% of jobs in Cameroon are informal. Although the study carried out by Raoul and Zenabou (2020) shows that the non-formal economy is a hindrance to the realisation of economic growth potentials in countries, these sectors or economies still remain an important sector in the world as they provide employment to many people who always tend to earn little from their daily activities.

Lewis (1959) used the term informal sector to describe employment within the developed countries viewed as falling outside of the modern industrial sector. The non-formal deals with the production of goods and services free from government intervention and these activities could be found in both the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy. Estimates show that the informal sector occupies a predominant position in Cameroon's economy.

- The main activities carried out by petit market sellers in an economy is retail sells. They usually buy things in bulk and resell them in smaller quantities. They are usually called 'buyam sellam'.

The Cameroon economy is a multilingual economy where people use a variety of languages for their daily exchanges depending on the milieu in which they find themselves. In market places, in football fields and areas highly dominated by youths, English and French are belittled and almost taken off the scene and the dominant languages at that point are Pidgin English (PE) and Camfranglais. This is due to the fact that the people in these places are mostly of different linguistic backgrounds and most at times uneducated and as such, they find it easy communicating in either of these lingua francas. Non-formal activities tend to have low cash-ins and most of the workers are paid immediately after the services are rendered.

Regarding the cosmetics domain in Cameroon, a few researchers have worked on it. These include Cécile ZKBA, et al. (2018) and Mougué (2019).

This has to do with areas considered “beauty homes” by both the men and women in the society. This economic sector is dominated by women and the activities carried out in this sector involves; hair dressing, manicure (a cosmetic treatment for nails), pedicure (a superficial cosmetic treatment for feet and toenails), body massage, makeup and the sales of toiletries and body lotions of all kind. This area is often dominated by the use of diverse languages depending on the people involved at a particular point in time. Cosmetics in Cameroon, like in other parts of the world, is partitioned into different categories depending on the place and the type of services needed by the population living in that area. Mougué (2019) states that, “the specific use of language illustrates the hybridity of understandings of natural beauty and bodily complements, painting a distinct African imagery demoting the social progress of black Cameroonian elite subcultures”.

The use of “*nyanga*” which is a Cameroon Pidgin English term used to demote the English words “beauty and stylish” is most common among every person engaged in this activity. Focus will be laid on aspects such as:

- Mass beauty and personal skin care
- Makeup
- Sun burn
- Fragrances
- Toiletries
- Colour cosmetics
- Hair care
- Nail care
- Deodorants
- Men’s grooming

Mixed cosmetic shops offer services for both men and women. It deals with both selling of cosmetics products and equally offer other services like body massage, manicure, pedicure. On the other hand, some cosmetic shops focus only on female beauty and others only on men cuts. Some shops equally deal only with the sales of cosmetic products.

Focusing on hair care which is always done in hair salons or any place conducive for hair dressing. It is noticed that there is no age range for people who visit these places. The dominant language in hair salons in Yaoundé is mostly the lingua franca PE and Camfanglais and since it is mostly frequented by people of diverse linguistic backgrounds.

It is noticed that a majority of those offering manicure and makeup services prefer doing home services rather than being on a spot. The cosmetics sector equally involves body bleaching which has become a call for concern among the youths of today. This involves the act of using different body lotions to change your skin tone mostly to make it brighter. Most people go to the point of taking injections and pills so as to get quick results. This act is generally known as doing “*njansang*”

English: she has bleached her body

Pidgin: ei don do *njansang*

Camfanglais: elle a do le *njansang*

These expressions are mostly used when a dark skin person suddenly changes his/her skin tone to a light skin. Cécile ZKBA et al. (2018) states that, Youths particularly teenagers in Africa are the target of the growing cosmetics market especially the skin-lightening cosmetic products.

The next chapter provides a review of related literature focusing on the works of authors who have elaborated on this domain and equally provides a theoretical framework section which handles linguistic aspects which will help ease the understanding of this corpus.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter outlines the theoretical framework (2.1) reviews related literature on the issues at hand (2.2).

2.1: Theoretical framework

This study uses O’Grady and Guzman (1996) theory on word formation processes which considers 14 words formation processes on the creation of new words in a language. It also builds on theoretical foundation which incorporated aspects of Gumperz (1982) theory of contextualization (code-switching) which deals with code-switching as a method of alternating between two or more languages in conversation.

2.1.1 Aspects of O’Grady and Guzman (1996) word formation processes

According to O’Grady and Guzman (1996), 14 processes are used for the formation of words in many languages; these include compounding (2.2.1.1), blending (2.2.1.2), clipping (2.2.1.3), reduplication (2.2.1.4), back formation (2.2.1.5), conversion (2.2.1.6), derivation (2.2.1.7), coinage (2.2.1.8), acronym (2.2.1.9), borrowing (2.2.1.10), initialization (2.2.1.11), onomatopoeia (2.2.1.12), inflection (2.2.1.13), and semantic extension (2.2.1.14).

2.1.1.1: Compounding

It is the combination of lexical categories. There are three categories of compounding words, which are:

- Noun compound is two words or more combined to create a noun compound. For example: postcard, greenhouse.
- Verb compound is two words or more combined to create a verb compound. For example: spoon-feed, overlook.

- Adjective compound is two words or more combined to create an adjective compound. For example, nationwide, redhot.

Table 5: examples of compounding

Noun + Noun	Adjective + Noun	Verb + Noun	Preposition + Noun
Street light	Blue bird	Sweet word	Over load
Camp site	Happy hour	Wash cloth	Out house
Book case	High chair	Scrub lady	In-group

Examples from the Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

Noun + Verb

bobi tanap (breast stand up = brassiere)

het tai (head tie = a scarf)

Adjective + Noun

bik ai (big eye = greed)

long chia (long chair = a dining table chair)

Verb + Noun

ben sikin (bend skin = a motorcycle)

kas net (catch net = a fish net)

Preposition + Noun

afta monde (after Monday = Tuesday).

2. 1.1.2: Blending

It involves taking only the first syllable of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. Well known examples of blends include:

- a) Brunch from breakfast and lunch
- b) Smog from smoke and fog
- c) Gasohol from gasoline and alcohol
- d) Motel from motor and hotel

2.1.1.3: Clipping

It involves removing one or more syllables from polysyllabic words to make them shorter some examples include:

- a) Professor becomes Prof
- b) Website becomes web
- c) Gasoline becomes gas
- d) Fabulous becomes fab

Examples from the Cameroon English Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

mbut from “mbutuku”

doki from “document”

blet from “razor blade”

2.1.1.4: Reduplication

There are two types of this kind of word formation process, full reduplication and partial reduplication. Full reduplication is the repetition of the entire word while partial reduplication

copies only part of the word. For instance, in Tagalog: “Reduplication” means to repeat all or part of the base to which it applies.

a. Takbuh (run) becomes tatakbuh (will run)

b. Lakad (walk) becomes lalakad (will walk)

Examples from Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

shap (to be early) becomes shap-shap (to be very early)

luk (to look at) becomes luk-luk (to stare at)

toli (story) becomes toli-toli (telling stories or story telling)

2.1.1.5: back formation

It involves creating a new word by removing a real or imagined affix from another word in language. Examples include:

a. Entertainment (noun) becomes entertain (verb)

b. Demonstration (noun) becomes demonstrate (verb)

c. Regulation (noun) becomes regulate (verb)

From the above examples, we may conclude that back formation is a process which causes a change in the word class and the meaning of words.

2.1.1.6: Conversion

The other process is conversion. “Conversion is a process that assigns an already existing word to a new syntactic category. Even though it does not add an affix, conversion resembles derivation because of the change in category and the meaning that it brings about. For the reason, it is sometimes called zero derivation”. The examples of conversion are:

a. V derived from N: ship (the package), butter (the bread), button (the shirt)

b. N derived from V: (a building) permit, (a new) survey, (a long) walk

c. V derived from A: dry (the clothes), empty (the box), open (a door).

Table 6: examples of conversion

Verb derived from Noun	Noun derived from Verb	Verb derived from Adjective
Finger (a suspect)	(a building) permit	Dirty (a shirt)
Butter (the bread)	(an exciting) contest	Empty (the box)
Ship (the package)	(a new) survey	Open (a door)
Nail (the door shut)	(a brief) report	Right (a wrong)
Button (the shirt)	(a long) walk	Dry (the clothes)

Examples from Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

akwara = Noun (a prostitute) Verb (to prostitute)

kosh = Noun (an insult) Verb (to insult)

glat = Adjective (to be glad) Noun (joy)

finish = Verb (finish) Adjective (to be exhausted)

njoh = Adjective (unpaid) Adverb (without a reward)

2.1.1.7: Derivation

Derivation is a process when a word is created where its meaning and/or its category is different from its base by adding an affix (altering the meaning or grammatical category of the base). The following are examples of this type of word formation:

- a. Noun to Adjective: boy + ish (boyish)
- b. Verb to Noun: sing + er (singer)
- c. Adjective to adverb: happy + ly (happily)
- d. Noun to Verb: vaccine + ate (vaccinate)

Table 7: examples of derivation

Affixation	Change	Example
-able (suffix)	Verb-adjective	Fix-able
-(a) tion (suffix)	Verb-Noun	Realiz-ation
-er (suffix)	Verb-Noun	Teach-er
-ing (suffix)	Verb-Noun	The shoot-ing
-I've (suffix)	Verb-Adjective	Assert-ive
Anti- (prefix)	Noun-Noun	Anti-pollution
Dis- (prefix)	Verb-Verb	Dis-continue
Re- (prefix)	Verb-Verb	Re-think

Mis- (prefix)	Verb-Verb	Mis-identify
De- (prefix)	Adjective-Adjective	De-active

Examples from the Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

Verb to Noun: travel + a = travela (travel)

2.1.1.8: Coinage

It the process of creating a word from a brand name or product. This phenomenon is particularly common in cases where industry requires a new and appealing name for a product. Coinage frequently found in word manufacture in industrial fields that need a name for goods. The most common sources are invented trade names for one company's products that become general terms.

As mentioned in the context of word manufacturing or coinage, it can be found generally in industrial fields that seek a new and catchy name for their products. Coinage is also derived from taking the name of an individual. For instance, Aqua, Samsung, Asus, Honda, Kodak, Linux and so on.

Examples from the Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

pofpof (small fried balls made out of flour, which children and labourers generally have for breakfast)

popo (true, real, genuine)

potopoto (mud)

2.1.1.9: Acronym

They state that “acronyms are formed by taking the initial letters of some or all of the words in a phrase or title and reading them as a word. This type of a word formation is especially common in names of organizations and scientific terminology”. Following to Chaer's

explanation (2007), the result of fragmenting which can be said as a word. For examples Angkatan Bersenjata Replubik Indonesia can be fragmented to ABRI.

2.1.1.10: Borrowing

This has to do with taking words from other languages. The introduction of new words from one language (the donor language) into another language (receiving language)

Table 8: examples of borrowing

Word	Donor language
Zebra	Bantu
Piano	Italian
Sofa	Arabic
Yogurt	Turkish
Okra	Ibo
Croissant	French
Vuvuzela	Zulu
Lilac	Prussia

Table 9: examples from Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) :

Pidgin	French	Gloss
avion	avion	aeroplane
kaminion	camion	truck
kinkaleri	quinvallerie	a warehouse
kitans	quittance	water, electricity or telephone bills
maniken	mannequin	1)a model, 2) slim, slender
rezo	réseau	Telephone network

2.1.1.11: Initialization

Words are formed from the initial letters of a set of words and are pronounced as single units

Examples include: C. D – Compact Disk

T. V – Television

Examples from the Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

D.O (Divisional Officer)

S.D.O (sub-divisional officer)

2.1.1.12. Onomatopoeia

Words are formed from the noise produced from an object

Examples include: tick-tack from a clock

Bang from a door

2.1.1.13: Inflection

They defined it as the modification of a word's form (through affixation, internal change, reduplication or suppletion) to indicate the grammatical subclass to which it belongs. This is a word formation process which deals with adding suffixes so that it can create new form without changing the word class or meaning. Types of inflection include

- Regular plural: boy – boys
- Irregular plural: child – children
- Zero plural: deer – deer
- Comparative and superlative forms: Good – better – best

Examples from the Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary (Kouega 2008) include:

The suffix – am is added to some English roots

diskonektam (to disconnect)

nilam (to nail)

jonam (to join)

2.1.1.14: semantic extension

This has to do with the additional shades of meanings attributed to words aside their original meanings when used in a different context or a different language.

An example is the word lemon. (which is lemon fruit in English) but it's used to mean both lemon and lime in Pidgin.

Examples

from Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary include:

baibul (English “Bible”) grated cocoyam spiced with various ingredients and tied in banana leaves

pa yakop (English “Mr. Jacob”) a man’s genital organs

ren but (English “rain boot”) a condom

2.1.2 Aspects of Gumperz’s code-switching and contextualization

Gumperz has been one of the most influential sociocultural linguists in the study of code-switching; his works on code switching and contextualization have had an impact on linguistic anthropology, sociolinguistics, and sociology of language. He describes three levels of code-switching: village dialects, regional dialects, and standard Hindi each of which may be comprised of numerous varieties and which serve different functions. A large portion of Gumperz’s early works was conducted in northern India (Gumperz 1958, 1961, 1964a, 1964b). The relationship between speakers influences the choice of language variety, according to Gumperz (1958), “Most male residents, especially those who travel frequently, speak both the village dialect and the regional dialect, with the former being used at home and with other locals. The latter is used with people from outside”.

In 1963, while working at the Institute of Sociology at the University of Oslo, Gumperz met Jan Petter Blom. Together, Blom and Gumpertz conducted a study of verbal conduct in Hemnesberget, a small settlement of about 1,300 people in northern Norway. Gumperz (1964b) related his use of two dialects of standard literary Bokmål and Rural Ranamol in Hemnesberget with the use of standard and regional dialects of Hindi in northern India. In each group, the local dialect appeared more frequently in interactions with neighbors, whereas the standard dialect was the “ceremonial wall” (148), i.e. the walls of caste, class and village groups in India, and the walls of academic, administrative, it was used in communication beyond religious barriers. Norwegian environment. Based on these comparisons, Gumpertz argued that the linguistic repertoire is definable both socially and linguistically. Specific repertoires are identified in terms of participants, settings and themes and described using phonological and morphological features.

In what has become a cornerstone of code-switching research, he expanded the investigation of the roles of Bokml and Ranaml in Hemnesberget. Bokml and Ranaml were described as separate codes but not as separate languages. The phonological, morphological, and lexical variations between the codes are significant but subtle, and native speakers tend to retain the form-based separation of the two kinds. Blom and Gumperz questioned why Bokml and Ranaml were primarily kept apart despite their striking similarities and the fact that the majority of speakers were proficient in both forms. The separation between dialect and standard language is conditioned by social variables, they claimed, calling this the “most reasonable assumption”. As a result, each variety was thought to have some minor changes in form as well as slightly different social functions.

According to Blom and Gumperz (1972), social events that are categorised by their participants, location, and subject matter “restrict the choice of linguistic variables” in a way that is somewhat similar to syntactic or semantic constraints. That is, some linguistic forms may be more acceptable than others in particular social contexts. The language used by men greeting one another in workshops along the fjord varied from that used, for instance, by teachers delivering text material in a public school. It’s crucial to understand that when the subject matter changes, various social gatherings could, for instance, feature the same individuals in the same location. As a result, according to teachers, they handled lectures and class discussions differently. While lectures were given in the traditional Bokml (according to teachers’ reports), a switch to the regional Ranaml was employed to promote open discussion. Situational switching is the name given by Blom and Gumperz to this type of shift, in which a change in language form corresponds to a change in social context.

Metaphorical switching is defined as the use of two language types in a single social context. In the community administration office, Blom and Gumperz depict exchanges between clerks and citizens in which greetings are spoken in the regional tongue but business is conducted in the standard.

In neither of these cases is there any significant change in the definition of participants’ mutual rights and obligations. ... The choice of either (R) or (B)... generates meanings which are quite similar to those conveyed by the alternation

between *ty* and *vy* in the examples from Russian literature cited by Friedrich (1972). We will use the term metaphorical switching for this phenomenon. (Blom and Gumperz 1972)

He proposes that the usage of regional words in a conventional discourse alludes to additional social activities that the participants may have taken part in. Without altering the subject or objective, this allusion gives the current situation some connotative significance, such as confidentiality. Numerous sociolinguists, linguistic anthropologists, etc. adopted the concepts of situational and metaphorical switching. Many later scholars have been content to equate code with language and to focus their analyses on either functional distributions or the definition of situations, in contrast to Blom and Gumperz who identified *Ranaml* and *Bokml* as “codes in a repertoire” and painstakingly described the formal differences between the two.

He presents minimal detail of real language use in their depiction of Hemnesberget's verbal repertoire, according to critics. Maehlum (1996) is particularly critical of the notion that *Bokml* and *Ranaml* are distinct codes. She claims that local and standard dialects are not as distinct in other rural areas of Norway as Blom and Gumperz suggest. As a result, any claim that Norwegian speakers' verbal repertoire is divided into two different codes is erroneous. Maehlum contends that “local” and “standard” exist “as idealized entities: it is their existence as norms which is important (1996). Furthermore, certain phonological or lexical/morphological factors stand out as distinct identifiers of dialects. This implies that sociolinguistic variants exist as indicators of multiple social meanings, but that attempts to specify specific codes and the contexts in which they occur are problematic. Rather than assuming that dialects, varieties, or languages will be equally salient across groups, it may be preferable to identify the formal indications of circumstance or identity available to a group of speakers and the uses made of these signals.

Gumperz, more than many subsequent researchers, appears to have noticed the flaw in the categorization of switching as either situational; changes in linguistic form reflects a change in social setting (for example switching from a local language to a standard language when entering a formal institution) or metaphorical; language varieties used within the same setting to signal different topics (for example a speaker might use a different language variety to quote

someone, express an emotion or signal a change in conversation) . Gumperz's favoured nomenclature by 1982 was conversational code-switching. (However, the description and definition of conversational code flipping were mostly based on metaphorical switching.) Gumperz admitted that it is difficult for analysts to recognize particular language choices as situational or metaphorical, and that native speakers have limited intuitions or comprehension of their own conversational code changes. With the exception of diglossia, the relationship between linguistic form and contexts, activities, or participants is highly changeable and rarely defined by static models.

He claimed that detailed analysis of brief spoken interactions is required to identify and define the function of code-switching since it is not susceptible to intuitive approaches and is not strictly related to macro-sociological categories. Gumperz proposed a list of six code flipping functions that "holds across language situations" but is "by no means exhaustive" based on his research of numerous speech communities. Gumperz proposed quote marking, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, message qualification, and "personalization versus objectivization" as conversational code-switching functions. It is worth noting that the code-switching functions identified by Gumperz are quite similar to the contextualization cues described elsewhere in the book.

Code-switching signals contextual information equivalent to what in monolingual settings is conveyed through prosody or other syntactic or lexical processes. It generates the presuppositions in terms of which the content of what is said is decoded. (Gumperz 1982)

Language alternation, like other contextualization cues, may allow speakers to communicate how utterances should be interpreted—that is, to give information other than referential content.

His list of code-switching functions led several future researchers to modify or propose their own lists of functions, such as McClure and McClure 1988), Romaine (1989), Nishimura (1997), and Zentella (1997). However, as Auer (1995) points out, the functions indicated by such lists are frequently inadequately defined. The frequently referenced category of reiteration, for example, fails to describe what is repeated or why. Lists also frequently mix linguistic structures

(such as interjection) and pragmatic or conversational functions (message qualification, addressee specification) without attempting to establish the relationship between forms and functions. Although such lists can help with knowledge of conversational code-switching, they do not provide a clear solution to the problems of why switching occurs and what purposes it performs in conversation. Bailey (2002) notes that “the ease with which such categories can be created – and discrepancies between the code-switching taxonomies at which researchers have arrived – hint at the epistemological problems of such taxonomies.” In a given encounter, code-switching might serve a variety of tasks, and a single turn at talk will almost certainly have several impacts. Therefore, any finite list of functions will be more or less arbitrary. Again, the suggestion is that it will be preferable to observe actual interaction, rather than starting from assumptions about the general effects of code-switching.

2.2: Review of related literature

Much have been done over the years on the area of language. In order to get a wider scope, the researcher read through already published documents related to the topic under study. Relevant works to review may be grouped into six categories: works on Multilingualism (2.1.1), works on Pidgin English in Cameroon (2.1.2), works on Camfranglais in Cameroon (2.1.3), works on code-switching and code-mixing (2.1.4), works on cosmetics in Cameroon (2.1.5) and, works on word formation processes (2.1.6).

2.2.1: Works on multilingualism in Cameroon

This section takes up works on multilingualism. The works reviewed here include Simo (1983), Weinreich (1993), Echu (2003a), Anchimbe (2005) and Neba and Kfukfu (2021).

Echu (2003) devoted his study to the influence of indigenous languages on the official languages. He examines how these languages have influenced the phonological, lexical, morphological, syntactical level. In this enriching study, he places particularity on lexical borrowing, and focused on a corpus compiled from everyday oral usage to written contexts such as newspapers, written documentation and literary works both in English and French. In this study, two lexical items are crosschecked; cultural-based items and cases of derivation from the indigenous languages which cut across linguistic communities. This study makes it evident that

the appropriation of indigenous language lexical items by English and French stems from the desire to communicate particular items or realities. The present study differs from Echu's study at the level of the lexical appropriation, since this study focuses on the lexical use of language and the appropriation of language forms during clients and servant exchanges.

Neba and Kfukfu (2021) in their work "Multilingualism as a literary code in Cameroon Anglophone literature" explore Multilingualism as a literary device in Anglophone Cameroonian literature. They focused on non-standard English words and expressions. Data collected for this work was qualitative and done using the content analysis method. They argued that, Anglophone Cameroonian writers use Multilingualism to convey various cultural and linguistic experiences. To the authors, Multilingualism is a natural aspect of the Cameroonian experience. This article examines the works of Tah Protus and Bole Butake who used a variety of lexical items which were analyzed lexically, semantically, syntactically and pragmatically. Some analysis and realizations were done using code – switching, coinage/blending and extensions/shift. The present study just like Neba and Kfukfu's study, will deal with the various methods of analysis of the lexemes used by cosmetics shop owners and their customers.

According to Weinreich (1993), "two or more languages are said to be in contact if they are alternately used by the same persons." Individuals are the center of the language engagement in this scenario. Language contact in Cameroon has resulted in influences from numerous levels of linguistic structure, including phonological, lexical, Morphological, and syntactical structures, to name a few. The English language has interacted with Pidgin English, indigenous languages, and French. This has resulted in some modifications manifested as borrowings and interference from these source languages. Thus, the lexical elements facilitate successful communication among Cameroonians. This has been a source of concern for researchers both inside and outside of Cameroon.

Simo (1983) explores certain words that have been integrated into Cameroon Standard English (CamStE) from Pidgin English, French, and Home Languages in his book "lexical integration in Cameroon Standard English". He attributes such integration to three factors: their melody, the closeness between the borrowed and native words, and the frequency of usage. The current study goes further to see if using these words in their standard forms would not produce

the same meaning, why this borrowing occurs, and if its equivalent cannot be found in the parent language.

Anchimbe (2005) provides a thorough examination of the linguistic issues confronting the average Cameroonian in a bilingual society. He claims that ethnic groupings, whether Anglophones or Francophones, represent a cross-section of people's identities. He goes on to mention the 11th province, which is initially concerned with official languages. He concludes by stating that it takes more than one generation to execute a multilingual program, and hence tight official language division will be achieved. The current work is not just concerned with multilingual difficulties, but also with how language might be studied from a lexical standpoint. It also looks at how language can be used to bring people together.

2.2.2: Works on Pidgin English in Cameroon

A handful of works have been written on Pidgin English in Cameroon with some directly relating to the topic at hand. A selection of these are reviewed below: Betek (1986), Ngefacs and Sala (2006), Menang (2006), Kouega and Aseh (2007) and Ubanako (2016).

Betek (1986) investigates the influence of Kamtok (Cameroon Pidgin English) on Cameroon Standard English (CamStE) in his study "The interference of Kamtok (CPE) on the use of English language". Kamtok, according to her, has contributed to CamStE's declining standards, particularly at the grammatical level. He reiterates that the concept of reduplication, phrasal and prepositional verbs always intervene in the speech of educated Cameroonians since Kamtok plays an important role in the socio-economic life of individuals who use both Kamtok and CamStE. In contrast to this study, the current study focuses on a general study of the lexis of words used by cosmetics shop owners and, to a lesser extent, clients, rather than just on grammar.

Kouega and Aseh (2007) in their work "Pidgin in creative works in Cameroon" seek to know the form which Pidgin takes in Cameroon creative works", strive to understand the shape that Pidgin takes in Cameroon creative works, the characters created to speak Pidgin in the work, and the purpose of Pidgin in the work. They applied Gumperz's (1982) "Contextualization" and Myres-Scotton's (1993) "Markedness theory" to language choice in a bilingual and multilingual

situation. Throughout the survey, the quantitative method of data collecting was used, and data was obtained from the creative works of Bate Besong, Bole Butake, Anne-Tannyi Tang, John Nkemngong Kengasong, and Alobwed'Epie. Data was identified and classified under instances of Pidgin into lexemes, and sentences and the switch between Pidgin and other languages and why the characters were made to alternate their languages. Their results showed that the lexemes used were either direct loans or cases of loan transactions and the characters made to speak Pidgin are mostly those considered the low-class, rural dwellers, uneducated, bar owners, herbalists, old people and are hardly looked up to in the Cameroonian society. The present study will equally focus on the lexemes used by the used by cosmetics shop owners who in one way fall in line with the population seen to be diminished in Kouega and Aseh's work.

Ngefacs and Sala (2006) investigate the linguistic confluence between Cameroon Pidgin and Cameroon English in a study on Cameroon Pidgin and Cameroon English at a confluence. They contended that Cameroon Pidgin, which had a distinct feature in the past, is rapidly acquiring phonological and lexical characteristics similar to Cameroonian English. In this enlightening study, the speeches of 150 educated Cameroon Pidgin speakers were chosen at random. It so demonstrated the penetration of phonological processes from indigenous Cameroonian languages, as seen by rampant cluster implications via vowel epenthesis and other segmental oddities typified by Cameroon Pidgin. As a result, they are significantly less noticeable in present Cameroon Pidgin English (CPE) opt for the modernization of the language as it was in the past. As a result, Ngefacs and Sala believe that these two languages will eventually merge. The current study focuses on the basic use of language during discussions between cosmetics shop managers and customers. It collects data by using speakers with no specific language background but who are familiar with the use of cosmetics items.

Menang (2006) believes, after tracking the history and prevalence of Pidgin English use in Cameroon, that the language is an essential marker of Anglophone identity in Cameroon. He goes on to demonstrate the wide range of tasks that Pidgin English plays in Cameroon. Out-of-group contact, religious instruction and worship, buying and selling, political campaigns, and cultural manifestations are among the many functions he promotes. Simo and Hans-Georg (2003) lament the condition of Pidgin English and indigenous languages in Cameroon against the backdrop of their multiple purposes. They compare the situation in Cameroon with that in

Nigeria and Ghana. As they put it, “Cameroon is notorious for its lack of real language policy.” They go on to investigate the prospects of Pidgin English in Cameroon, taking into account the attitudinal, institutional, and educational constraints

Ubanako (2016) investigates the significance of Cameroon Pidgin English in promoting local culture, science, and technology. In this detailed investigation, he hypothesizes that a majority of English or French speakers demonstrate Cameroon Pidgin English in local cultural, scientific, and technological information and how such knowledge is captured. The data for this study was gathered utilizing the participant observation technique, literary works of arts, local newspapers published in English, and Kouega’s (2008) dictionary on Cameroon Pidgin English, which was then analyzed using Bradley (1980) Domain Analysis Approach. To conclude, he adds that the increase in the number of Cameroon Pidgin English users helps to facilitate communication in informal settings such as Cameroon, and that the terms used should not be considered incorrect but rather as a way for members of a community to express themselves, especially since these terms reflect different linguistic backgrounds in Cameroon. The current study obtained data through the participant observation technique as well as tape recorded materials. This study also considers how language is utilized in the domain of cosmetics while keeping the words under culture, science, and technology in mind. In essence, the study like Ubanako does not consider these terms faulty but as a means to meet the goals of communication among a particular group of persons.

Schneider (1974) outlines some lexemes that eased communication and eventually became a wide range of usage in Cameroon Pidgin English.

Table 10: examples of Portuguese borrowed words

Portuguese words	Cameroon Pidgin English
Caca	kaka
Cameroes	Cameroon
Passer	pass

Palava	palava
Mulato	mulato
Piqueno	pikin
Escola	skul
Tobako	tobako
Dache	dash
Penar	pen
Criocelo	krio

Schneider (1974)

2.2.3: Works on Camfranglais in Cameroon

The evolution of Camfranglais in Cameroon and its wide lexical range have made researchers to be interested in this linguistic domain. Some of the works reviewed in this section include Kouega (2003), Kiessling (2005), Kouega (2013).

In his work “Word formative processes in Camfranglais,” Kouega (2003) investigates the many mechanisms by which words are produced in the Camfranglais language. The research gives a detailed examination of the morphological processes involved in the creation of new words in Camfranglais, including as affixation, compounding, reduplication, and conversion. The paper presents the many formative processes in a straightforward and comprehensive manner. The author uses various examples of each procedure to help readers understand how they work in practice. A review of the various word generation mechanisms is also included in the text. The current study, like Kouega's, focuses on camfranglais and gives a detailed investigation of the language's word formation processes. This work will make an important contribution to our understanding of camfranglais and its linguistic features.

Kiessling (2005) in his work “*bàk mwà mè dô – Camfanglais in Cameroon*” sets to give a critical review of some analysis, hypothesis and generalizations provided on this topic. He equally goes ahead to expose some Camfanglais features that have gone unnoticed and to integrate the notion of language both into the context of discourse on the jargons and speech styles of the urban youth in Cameroon. To him, lexical features of Camfanglais is a blend of Cameroon, Français, Anglais and some indigenous languages. To confirm this assertion, he outlines some examples of lexical borrowings cited in Chia (1991) some of which include ‘*on a kick mon agogo*’ meaning ‘they have stolen my watch’ and ‘*le test de linguistique étant sharp, j’ai préféré piak*’ meaning ‘the linguistics assignment was very difficult, I preferred to beat it’. He adds that, the language uses code-switching as a process which produces extremely hybrid utterances. He ends by saying that, Camfanglais is more than just a blend of languages but involves elements of deliberate creative distortion which is manifested in a range of linguistic strategies applied to lexical items of all origins, which makes a typical anti-language of urban youth type. In line with this study, the present study throws some lights on the lexical features of the Camfanglais language.

Kouega (2013) focuses on the formation and organization of a new linguistic code in Cameroon in his work “*Camfranglais: A Glossary of Common Words, Phrases, and Usages.*” He divided the book into two sections, the first of which concentrated on Camfranglais’s linguistic and sociolinguistic structure. The second section sheds light on the lexica’ inventory words and expressions that have come to be called Camfranglais speakers’ functional vocabulary. Camfranglais, according to him, is “a composite language variant, a type of pidgin that blends in the same speech act.” Linguistic features derived initially from French, then from English, Pidgin English, and other widely spoken languages in Cameroon”. He goes on to say that Camfranglais was created on purpose by Secondary School students in order for them to freely interact among themselves. He cites Ze Amvela (1989), who proposes Camfranglais as a catch-all term for what has been dubbed “Franglais,” “Pidgin French,” “Munjunga Talk,” and “Camspeak.” Words used by Camfranglais speakers, according to Kouega, revolve around food, alcohol, money, sex, physical appearance, state of mind, and references to relatives and other people. Some lexical terms Kouega cited involves *tara* (friend), *change* (people having same in-laws), *mbut* (idiot), *vieux* (father), *asso* (customer), *katika* (gambling cashier), *mbindi* (junior brother), *villankonkon* (uncivilized). Borrowing, idiomatic expression, compounding, coinage, affixation, inversion,

meaning change, and mix are among the tactics employed by Camfranglais speakers, according to the author. He goes on to say that Camfranglais uses 42 sounds, 18 vowels and 24 consonants and concludes by saying that many speakers of this language use code-mixing and the phonological, morphological, lexical, and semantic manipulation of lexemes drawn from other languages to confuse non-members and make it difficult for them to decode the message. The current effort will concentrate on the formation of terms in the Camfranglais language, their context meanings, and their original meaning in the English language.

2.2.4: works on code-switching and code-mixing

Code-switching and code-mixing have been an area of concern for many researchers over the years. Some already written works on this domain include Blom and Gumperz (1972), Gumperz (1982), Myers-Scotton (1993), Muysken (2000).

Gumperz (1982) defines code-switching as the juxtaposition of sequences of speech belonging to two separate grammatical systems or subsystems within the same speech exchange, and adds that the concept of code-switching is a contextualisation cue. While Dell Hymes (1974) considers code-switching to be a widespread word for the alternate use of two or more languages, variations of language, or even speech styles. Gumperz defines code-switching as the process of moving back and forth between one language and the other or between dialects or registers of the same language Trudgil (2003). This phenomenon is most recurrent in conversations than in writing. Most often, code-switching comes to play when people want to hide fluency or memory problems in the second language. They tend to switch from formal to informal situations; it exerts control between parents and children. Code-switching announces specific identities, creates certain meanings and facilitates interpersonal relationships Johnson (2000).

Blom and Gumperz (1972) distinguish between code-switching and code-mixing. According to them, code-mixing occurs when a speaker changes the code (subject shift) during a conversation, but code-switching occurs when the code changes due to external factors such as environmental change.

Milroy and Muysken (1995) in their capacity consider this concept as the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation. To them, code-switching has developed two distinct but related directions. There are the structural directions. There is the structural direction which is mostly concerned with grammar and focuses on the syntactic and the morpho-syntactic constraints on code-switching. On the other hand, there is the Sociolinguistic approach which focuses on social meaning and what specific discourse it serves. Coulmas (1998) emphasises that the Sociolinguistic of code-switching can be analysed firstly on its patterning. Here, there is always an unmarked choice for any interaction type and the participants involved. This unmarked choice is often not the language of greater prestige in the larger community since code-switching is more of an in-group mode of communication than one used with strangers. Secondly, code-switching can be analysed based on the community norms. This relates to how speakers view themselves in relation to the social, political and cultural norms attached to the linguistic varieties of that society as far as code-switching is concerned. Also, in the case of an in-group communication medium, social distance tends to play a vital role especially in a case where an indigenous language might come to be used. Thirdly, Scotton (1995) talks of the language proficiency of a society that is closely related to code-switching. Here, the language with the higher proficiency gains more prestige. For instance, let us take the case of Cameroon, comparing the French language and Fulfulde. The French language stands out because, first of all, it is an official language and the bulk of education depends on it. The younger group will use Fulfulde but with a lower proficiency. Even though code-switching can co-occur between the two languages, it becomes prominent that French maintains a higher proficiency.

Myers-Scotton (1993) defines code-switching as the use of forms from an embedded language (or languages) in utterances of matrix language during the same discourse by bilinguals and multilinguals. Her “Markedness model” provided more examination of code-switching. She claims that bilinguals are aware of the effects of mixing languages or adopting a certain language in a given environment. She emphasizes that the unmarked expected matrix language is the primary language variety, whereas the marked or unexpected language is the secondary language variety. Myers-Scotton provides an example of code-switching in a dialogue between a passenger and the bus conductor, who began the conversation in Swahili and noted a changeover to English. According to Myers-Scotton, the passenger turns from Swahili, the unmarked

language, to English, the marked language, to project authority and demonstrate his educational level, and the conductor does the same. In this light, she sees one of the most common applications of code-switching as a marked decision to demonstrate prestige and goes on to explain that determining the marked and unmarked codes during discussion is challenging.

In this same line of thought, the present study focuses on code-switching and code-mixing as a way of creating new lexemes into a language and making understanding easy.

Muysken (2000), on the other hand, prefers the term Code-mixing as a hyponym to include code-switching because there is some degree of insertion and borrowing. Scholars such as Kachru (1983) and Singh (1985) use preferential switches when code-mixing for intra-sentential switching. The primary motivation for such philosophy is that only code-mixing necessitates the integration of the rules of the two languages involved in the discourse. This is due to the speakers' tendency to shift back and forth within sentences and phrases, making it difficult to determine which language they are using at any one time. In contrast, Auer (2009:491) claims that code-switching encompasses all instances of locally functional usage of two languages in an interactional episode. Code switching can happen between two turns or between turns, it can be limited to a well-defined unit or it can change the entire language of interaction; it can happen within a clause...or between clauses. As a result, Auer (*ibid*) considers code-switching to be functional language alternation and code-mixing to be non-functional language alternation. According to him, "the frequent variation between the two 'codes' has become a mode of interaction in its own right, that is, a new code with its own rules and regularities."

2.2.5: Works on cosmetics in Cameroon

As concerns this domain, little has been done with regards to the linguistic aspects of the cosmetics in Cameroon some of which include, Bissek (2018), and Mougoué (2019).

Cécile ZKBA et al. (2018) provides a detailed analysis of the phenomenon of skin bleaching among the target population, including the prevalence and motivations for engaging in the practice, in his work "Practice, Perception, and Problems Associated with Skin Bleaching Among Female Secondary Teenagers in Yaounde Cameroon." Bissek also investigates the health

and social ramifications of skin bleaching, such as the risk of using skin lightening products and the influence of skin bleaching on self-esteem and social identity. They collected data using pre-tested questionnaires, and the data was analyzed using the chi-squared test. The authors provide significant ethnographic material on the target population's experiences and beliefs, which improves our knowledge of the cultural and socioeconomic elements that contribute to skin bleaching in this context. According to the survey, some people thought skin bleaching made their skin more beautiful, stylish, and a source of sexual appeal, while others thought it was harmful. The current study, like this one, focuses on features of skin bleaching, its products, and the motives for bleaching. The distinction will be at the level of lexical appropriation of the words used during the discussion.

Mougué (2019) investigates how Anglophone urban elites in 1960s metropolitan Cameroon negotiated local and global ideas about culturally constructed forms of “natural” black beauty in her work “Over-making Nyanga: Mastering ‘Natural’ Beauty and Disciplining Excessive Bodily Practice in Metropolitan Cameroon.” She goes on to say that formally educated Christian urbanites, such as freelance female journalists, tried to decipher women's bodily practices and emotional expressivity in order to define a woman's “natural” beauty and to regulate the borders of perceived feminine respectability. She goes on to say that they utilize both local phrases like ‘nyanga,’ a Cameroonian Pidgin English word for various concepts about beauty and style, and conventional English ones. This particular use of language demonstrates the hybridity of understandings of natural beauty and body comportment, painting a distinct African imagery reflecting the social advancement of black Cameroonian elite subcultures. The current study, like Mougué's, focuses on the use of cosmetics items while paying special attention to the language employed in this arena.

2.2.6: Works on word formation processes

The creation of new words in a language has been a fruitful area of research over the years. Much has been written on these processes by researchers like Simo (1994), Afuh (1995), Ubanako (2000), Kouega (2004) and Kouega (2005).

Kouega (2005) conducts a lexical research of French on English in Cameroon. He confirms that lexical innovations are present in both spoken and written English, particularly

where English is used as a second language L2. Compounding, affixation, functional shift, clipping, and borrowing are examples of word formation processes. He concludes by stating that the coexistence of these two languages molded Cameroon English and imprinted it with traits that set it apart from other New Englishes. This work, like Kouega (2005), will discuss lexical items in relation to the word formation processes at hand.

Simo (1994) examined the process of innovation in Cameroon English, focusing on lexical characteristics. Cameroon English, he claims, gets new lexis through several processes. Loans from French, Pidgin English, and other indigenous languages are included. The availability test established these acquisitions, resulting in novel processes such as semantic shift, deviation (prefixation, suffixation, dialogue, and back derivation). Compounding, clipping, and reduplication are also procedures. As a result, he believes that Cameroon English lexis resulting from these various processes appear to be unique, making generalization to or from other Englishes regarding these inventive processes somewhat unlikely. The current study, like Simo, focuses on lexical properties and processes like as compounding, clipping, and reduplication.

Afuh (1995) carries out a study on some semantic extensions in Cameroon English. In this extensive study, she says that Cameroonians have a way of extending the meaning of words to suit their environment. To her, these words are often used out of the normal existing native language as the meanings are always changed. These extensions, she cites have greatly been influenced by indigenous languages, French and Pidgin English. The limitation of this study is on semantics whereas the present study broadens the lexis of Cameroon used by cosmeticians with particular attention on words and their meanings.

Ubanako (2000) investigates the lexico-semantic examination of newspapers in Cameroon. In this study, he focuses on cultural and institutional terminology that have been absorbed into Cameroon English usage, with a particular emphasis on newspaper language. He examines the various domains of language and their various adaptations into English language relating to direct loans, loan translations, and coinage. He also examines the lexical and semantic aspects of these phrases that are commonly used in newspaper language. The current study, like Ubanako's, will attempt to examine lexical features and deduced meaning; however, the current study will deal with language used by cosmetics shop owners rather than newspapers

Kouega (2004) investigates English lexis in Cameroon, focusing on traits that come from contact between British, French, and African cultures in Cameroon. He restricts his research to borrowing from French and Pidgin into English, focusing on private and official letters, student essays, literary products, and newspapers. It goes on to discuss semantic areas such as the army, education, and sports, as well as how the words have been absorbed into the English language. Loan translation, loan mix, and direct loan, according to him, can serve as a bridge connecting people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds who must coexist in a civilized society. The current study focuses on the lexical usage of language, with tape recording serving as the primary technique of data gathering.

From our review, it is noticed that, the above mentioned researchers have succeeded in showing how language use and the meanings of words change in a particular time depending on their area of usage. Just like the previous studies, the present study examines the meanings of words used in context. However, the present study differs from the previous in the sense that it examines the pidgin lexical items used in cosmetics shops with a focus on their formation processes.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter considers the setting (3.1), the informants (3.2), the research instruments and method of data collection (3.3), the materials collected (3.4), the method of data analysis (3.5), and the difficulties faced when gathering data for this study (3.6). This study is out to produce or bring out the different lexical items found in speech production and to validate the fact that different or particular lexemes vary in meaning when used in different languages.

3.1 Setting

Podolefsky and Brown (2007) define sampling as a sub-population that is studied in order to make generalizations. From this definition, we can say sampling is choosing a particular population and making a statement which applies to the general public. Ryan and Bernard in Nkwi et al, (2001) point out that

Sample choice is largely dependent on the goals of the research: discovering terms and concepts and building models: describing cases, events and phenomenon, comparing across cases and populations, and testing models

The snowball sampling technique was used where key participants were located and asked to name others who will likely be candidates for the research as cited in Bernard (1990). With this, the researcher was able to identify other participants who could give relevant information on the topic under study and had interview sessions with them.

Babbie (1992) is of the opinion that it is virtually impossible to study the whole universe of discourse as far as cultural behaviour and social sciences are concerned. She further explains that:

If all members of a population were identical in all aspects, all demographic characteristics, attitudes, experiences, behaviours and so on, there would be no need for sampling procedures. In such a case, any sample would be insufficient. In this extreme

case of homogeneity, in fact one case would be sufficient as a sample to study characteristics of the whole population. In fact, of course the human beings who compose any real population are quite heterogeneous, varying in many ways

This accounts for the reduction in the scope from which information had to be gotten. The researcher visited 20 workshops in a way to get concrete information. The selected workshops for this project were centered in the town of Yaoundé, specifically in quarters like Obili-Melen, Jouvance-Biyemassi, Simbock and Bonamoussadi (commonly known as Bonas) and Obobogo. These areas were chosen as they harbour people of all linguistic backgrounds and particularly as they are the areas where most of the internally displaced from the Northwest and Southwest are mostly found. The selected shops were made up of shops which offered only female services, some which offered only male services and others were a mixture of both female and male services (plaiting, shaving, manicure, pedicure).

The shops were of different sizes and categories, the researcher visited shops of both high and low standards. The low standards shops were visited in order to get the appropriate materials needed for analysis (most especially the conversations). This is because these shops are most at times dominated by people speaking “quarter languages” (Pidgin and Camfranglais). It was found that, they mostly visited these low standards shops since they were seen to be more affordable as compared to the high standards shops while, the high standards shops were visited in a way to get other materials which were not found in the low standards shops.

3.2: Informants

Informants here refer to the population that was choosen for study. Population is a term used in research to describe the total quantity of cases particular to the study. Thus, a population can be made up of people, events, objects or organisations. The total population for this study comprised of Cosmetics shop owners, workers and customers in the Centre Region. A total of 10 shop owners were interviewed and tape recorded in line with their workers and about 20 customers were targeted. A random selection of participants was done based on accessibility and possession of qualification that match the criteria necessary for the study.

It was easier to acquire data since the researcher presented herself as an individual research student from the Department of English of the University of Yaoundé 1 who aims at understanding how they build up the repertoire of the cosmetics domain.

The target population was from the Centre Region – Yaoundé Cameroon. The choice of the town is simply due to the fact that its inhabitant cuts across national boundaries harbouring people with different socio-linguistic backgrounds. A total of about 30 informants comprising shop owners, workers and customers provided relevant materials for this work. The informants were both the educated (those who mostly spoke purely the English language or French) and the uneducated, those who spoke little or no English and more of Pidgin English and or Camfranglais and at times they just preferred doing a mixture of both or they just diverged into their different mother languages.

3.3: Research instruments and method of data collection

The instruments used were tape recording (3.3.1), observation and interviews (3.3.2)

3.3.1: Tape recording

Tape recordings were used to collect audio data relevant to the study. Interactions in these shops were recorded. Some excerpts of these discussions are transcribed in the appendix. A majority of the recorded materials gotten for this work was done without the knowledge of the participants where the researcher played the role of both a researcher and a customer at certain points. This was done in order to ensure accuracy and originality of the data collected. The shortcoming was when there was no customer in the shop for conversation to take place. Nonetheless, the researcher was able to get conversations which helped get answers to her research questions.

A considerable amount of data for this project was gotten by interacting with the population under study. That is, the interactions were made with both the cosmetics shop owners and their customers with regards to the type of language they speak or are forced to speak when in a cosmetics shop. The lexical features examined in this study were collected and identified through every minute discussion with people who could give valuable information with regards to the findings.

3.3.2: Observation and interviews

As a primary method of data collection, observation served as a reliable and practical method to this study. The researcher paid attention to the peculiarities of the language used by the shop owners and their customers. The researcher paid particular attention while taking down notes as concerns the lexical items, names of various products used and their meanings. The behaviour of the customers to the application of the products and how they interact with the shop owners and workers. The researcher realized most words have been redefined by the cosmetics domain. So, this was a reason to investigate these words, their meanings and functions.

Even though the relevance of observation is obvious, it is important to know who and/or what to observe. It was practically impossible to observe everything at a time and not everything observed was noted.

Question and answer sessions were conducted in a way to collect materials relevant to this work. Some questions were set aside to be answered by the shop owners and their customers. The interview sessions involved questions related to the reason for the choice of a particular code during discussions. It equally involved questions on the behaviour of customers during conversations. They were equally interviewed on the meanings of the names they use for their products and if in any way they had an idea of the origin of the different words they allocated to the products and those they used during discussion.

3.4: Materials collected

The main objective of this study is to understand the meaning deduced from the language used by cosmetics shop owners and their customers. The researcher was able to pursue and immerse herself in the topic using various materials. Collection of data for this work was done using both the qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection where a handful of material were gotten through; tape recordings and observation employed as the primary means of inquiry, Social interactions, and interviews from the various cosmetics shop owners. A total of 20 conversations were collected with 5 conversations gotten from each cosmetics sector. 76 words were registered from the conversations collected but 51 of these words were analysed as they comprise the new words intended for the study.

Table 11: Area of collection

Cosmetics area	Number of conversations	Town of collection
Female hair saloon	5	Yaoundé
Body lotion sale shops	5	Yaoundé
Manicure and pedicure workshops	5	Yaoundé
Male barbing saloon	5	Yaoundé
Total	20	

3.5:Method of data analysis

Firstly, words and expressions closely or loosely related to the domain of cosmetics were identified from the broad data collected, which were conversations. The words identified were listed sequentially. Secondly, these words were divided into two categories; those which have already been identified in previous research: plet, chop, bele, bakala, tips, sirop, Mukala, dash and those which as far as we are aware, have not been given a proper look into: mua, japap, kangol just to name a few. The latter category of words is further analyzed and grouped into the linguistic process that has led to their formation, some of which involve borrowing, semantic extension, coinage.

3.6:Difficulties encountered

Getting previous works done on the language use in the cosmetics domain was one of the most vital problems. This is due to the fact that there are little or no write-ups relating to the code used in this domain during exchanges.

Also, at certain points there was little or no conversations made between the customers and the shop owners making it difficult for data to be collected. To reduce this problem, we simply collected words from notice boards.

The interactions were mostly friendly conversations which handled little aspects of the cosmetics domain, to this regard, the researcher was forced to draft out some questions pertinent to the domain of study and interview the shop owners and the customers individually and collectively in view of obtaining the necessary information needed.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

The chapter identifies and analyses the lexemes collected in female hair saloons (4.1), manicure and pedicure workshops (4.2), body lotion sale shops (4.3), and male barbing saloons (4.4). The researcher first identified the lexemes used in each of the settings, then draws up a list of new words, and finally examines the process of formation of each word.

4.1: Female hair saloons

A total of five female hair saloons, where women style their hair, were visited in Yaoundé and conversations between saloon owners and their customers were recorded. The relevant words identified in these settings are listed in (4.1.1) below. Then the words which are specific to the area of hair saloons are selected (4.1.2) and finally, the processes underlying the formation of these selected words are considered (4.1.3).

4.1.1: Common words heard in female hair saloons

The conversations collected were transcribed and the common Pidgin words identified. A total of 44 words were identified and a short list of 20 of these words is presented in table 12 below

Table 12: Sample of common words used in hair saloons

Words	Meaning
bik-bik	Very big
bush	Overseas
chik	A baby bird (fowl)
chap	Girlfriend
espresion	Brand name of a type of mesh

ina-bakala	French braids
klem	To own
kap	A tight fitting headdress
las-las	Finally / at the end
mare	To marry
mami	Mother
mata	Issue
nova	Not (yet)
plet	To plait
prodok	A substance that is manufactured for sale
rasta	Braids
shak	Sea fish
sigaret	A thin cylinder of finely cut tobacco rolled in paper for smoking
tif	To seal
weti	What

As can be seen, some of these words are common lexemes found in various social contexts while others are specific to the saloon context. The latter are considered in 4.1.2.

4.1.2: Specific words and their meanings in context

The words specific to the domain of hair styling were picked out. These relevant words are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: List of specific words in the female hair saloons context

Words	Standard English meaning	Meaning in context	Processes of formation
bik-bik	Large	Very big	Reduplication
bon	The skeletal part of the body	Frown at someone	Semantic extension
chik	A baby bird	A young girl	Semantic extension
espreshon	Brand name	A type of mesh	Coinage
ina-bakala	Cornrow hairstyle	French braids	Compounding
fat-fat	Huge	Very fat	Reduplication
folo-me	Come with me	An African hairstyle done with thread	Compounding
kap	A tight fitting headdress	A wig or lies (being fake or dishonest)	Borrowing
klem	To own	Show off	Borrowing
kristal	Brand name	A type of mesh	Coinage
lai-tin	To tell a lie	You are telling lies	Compounding
lon-lon	Long	A hairstyle done with thread packed together	Reduplication

		either at the middle of the head or at the edge	
pong-pong	A tropical round fruit	A type of hairstyle done by tying big knots on the hair	Reduplication
prodok	A substance that is manufactured for sale	Hair relaxer	Borrowing
shak	Sea fish	Drink (precisely alcoholic drinks)	Semantic extension
sigaret	A thin cylinder of finely cut tobacco rolled in paper for smoking	An African hairstyle done with thread	Semantic extension
supa-star	Brand name	A type of mesh	Coinage
tif	To steal	Steal	Borrowing
tuainin	Moving in a way that wraps on an object several times	A type of hairstyle	Borrowing
tuistin	To twist	A type of hairstyle	Borrowing
waka-lie	To tell lies	You are telling lies	Compounding

44 lexemes were collected in this setting. 13 were already cited in previous works, especially the dictionary of Cameroon Pidgin English (Kouega 2015). The remaining 21

words listed in Table 9 above are those peculiar to this study. These new words are analysed in 4.1.3 below.

4.1.3: Word formation processes

A look at the specific words in table 13 shows that these words result from the following word formation processes: borrowing (4.1.3.1), compounding (4.1.3.2), reduplication (4.1.3.3), coinage (4.1.3.4) and semantic extension (4.1.3.5).

4.1.3.1: Borrowing

O’Grady and Guzman (1996) put borrowing as taking words from a different language into another language as is the case with the lexemes studied in this section. The language from which these lexemes are borrowed is called the donor language.

Table 14: Sample of borrowed words in the female hair saloon setting

Words	Donor language	Meaning
klem	English	Claim
kap	English	Wig
twinin	English	A hairstyle
twistin	English	A hairstyle
tif	English	Thief
prodok	English	Product

Borrowing registered 6 words giving a percentage of 28.6% in the 21 words corpus. It is noticed here that English is the sole donor language of the lexemes registered in this sector.

4.1.3.2: Compounding

The words analysed in table 15 below are compounds belonging to various compound types or word classes relating to each item in the combination.

Verb + verb

waka-lai (walk lie = Lier or lies telling)

Verb + Noun

lai-tin (lie thing = Lier)

folo-mi (follow me = a type of hairstyle)

Preposition + noun

ina bakala (inner cornrows = French braided cornrows).

Table 15: Sample of compound words in the female hair saloon setting

Words	Compound type	Meaning
waka-lai	Verb + Verb	Lies telling
lai-tin	Verb + Noun	Lier
folo-mi	Verb + Noun	A type of hairstyle done with thread
inner bakala	Preposition + Noun	French braided cornrows

Compounding registered 4 words giving a percentage of 19% in the 21 words corpus.

4.1.3.3: Reduplication

This has to do with repeating all or part of a base word to form a new word. A look at the reduplicatives below shows that they convey two major shades of meanings that is intensity and repetition and convey meanings of very.

fat (fat) - - - - - fat-fat (very fat)

lon (long) - - - - - lon-lon (very long)

bik (big) - - - - - bik-bik (very big)

Table 16: Sample of reduplicated words in the female hair saloon setting

Word	Meaning
pong-pong	Hairstyle done by tying two or three knots on the hair
fat-fat	Very fat
lon - lon	Very long
bik-bik	Very big

Reduplication registered 4 words giving a percentage of 19% in the 21 words corpus.

4.1.3.4: Coinage

Instances of coinage, a process of creating a new word by using its brand name is identified in the study as seen below.

Table 17: Sample of Coined words in the female hair saloon setting

Words	Brand type	Meaning
supa-sta	Brand name for a type of mesh	A type of artificial hair used for plaiting
espreshon	Brand name for a type of mesh	A type of artificial hair used for plaiting
kristal	Brand name for a type of mesh	A type of artificial hair used for plaiting

Coinage registered 3 words giving a percentage of 14.4% in the 21 words corpus.

4.1.3.5: Semantic extension

This has to do with additional shades of meanings attributed to words aside their original meanings in Standard English.

Table 18: Sample of semantic extended words in the female hair saloon setting

Words	Standard English meaning	Meaning in context
shak	Shake (a sea creature)	To drink or a drink
chik	Chick (a baby bird)	A young girl
bon	Bone (the skeletal part of the body)	To show off
sigaret	Cigarette (a thin cylinder of finely cut tobacco rolled in paper for smoking)	A hairstyle

Semantic extension registered 4 words giving a percentage of 19% in the 21 words corpus.

From the above analysis, the data registered borrowing as the word formation process with the highest number of lexemes found. Of a total of 21 lexemes registered for this sector, it had a frequency of 6 occurrences representing a percentage of 28.6%. Reduplication registered a frequency of 4 occurrences representing a percentage of 19% as well as compounding and semantic extension. Coinage registered a frequency of 4 representing a percentage of 14.4%.

Table 19: Proportion of word formation processes in the female hair saloon corpus

Word Formation Process	Frequency	Percentage
Borrowing	6	28.6%
Compounding	4	19%
Reduplication	4	19%
Coinage	3	14.4%
Semantic extension	4	19%
Total	21	100%

4.2: Manicure and pedicure workshops

Data were collected in three manicure and pedicure workshops. The common words collected are listed in 4.2.1. The specific words identified are listed in 4.2.2 and the processes underlying their formation are discussed in 4.2.3 below.

4.2.1: Common words heard in manicure and pedicure workshops

A of the data collected in the manicure and pedicure workshops shows that the words in table.... below are frequently used in this setting.

Table 20: Sample of common words used in manicure and pedicure workshops

Words	Standard English Meaning
mua	Make-up artist
gel	Substance used to build-up artificial finger nails
duble-pos	Double pose
tips	White artificial nails added just at the tip of the nails
résine	Substance used to build-up artificial finger nails
sirop	A thick sweet sticky liquid
blenda	A machine used in grinding
faondashon	The base on which something is grounded
témoins	Someone who take part in an event but isn't called to intervene
de-de	I am there/count me in
eske	Est-ce-que
wey	That
mekop	Composition of something /substituting an event for a previously cancelled one
chuck skin	To feel involved even when you are not

The list of words in the table above shows common words used in our day to day social exchanges. Specific words to this sector will be discussed in 4.2.2 below.

4.2.2: Specific words and their meanings in context

Table 21 comprises a list of lexemes peculiar to the manicure and pedicure sector. The lexemes listed are considered new words in this language domain due to the new meanings attributed to each of the words. Of the 14 listed words above, 11 words were new. These are outlined and listed below.

Table 21: List of specific words in the manicure and pedicure workshop setting

Words	Standard English Meaning	Meaning in context	Processes of formation
blenda	A machine used in grinding	A soft and round sponge used to apply make-up	Borrowing
chuckskin		To feel involved even when you are not	Compounding
eske	French word “est-ce-que”	Is it that	Borrowing
faondashon	The base on which something is grounded	A thick liquid applied as makeup	Borrowing
de-de		Count me in	Reduplication
duble-pos	Doubling	Double posing artificial nails	Borrowing
gel	From Gelatine: meaning a colourless water-soluble obtained from animal tissues	A substance used to build up artificial nails	Borrowing
mekop	“Make up” Composition of something / substituting an event for a previously cancelled one	Applying cosmetics on one’s face to enhance or alter appearance	Borrowing
mua	Make up artist	Make up artist	Acronym
resin	French word « résine »	A substance used to build up artificial nails	Borrowing
temoins	French word “témoins”	A substance used to build up artificial nails	Borrowing

These words are further analysed below in terms of the processes involved in their formation (4.2.3).

4.2.3: Word formation processes

This sector registered a total of five word formation processes, namely: borrowing, acronym, reduplication, compounding and clipping.

4.2.3.1: Borrowing

The main sources of pidgin words gotten in this setting are English and French, the official languages of Cameroon. These words were obtained from the following interactions:

A. abeg yu fit helep mi gi mi da **blenda**?

(can you please give me that Blender?)

B. no put plenti **foundation** fo ma fes

(do not use much foundation on my face)

C. **eske** a di fes fie yu?

(am I afraid of you?)

D. Da geh ova get **témoin** dem do yi han dem

(that girl's knuckles are too dark)

E. a do **double-pose** fo tu geh dem di monin taim

(I did a double pose for two girls this morning)

F. put me **résine** nel ei get fo ste a no get mi moni fo di chench nel ol taim

(put me résine nails so it stays, I don't have money to change nails at all time)

Table 22: Borrowed words in the manicure and pedicure workshop setting

Words	Donor language	Meaning
resin	French	A liquid substance used to build up artificial nails
temoins	French	Dark spots on one's knuckles
duble-pos	French	Double pose artificial nail
blenda	English	A soft and round sponge used to apply make up
faondeshon	English	A thick liquid applied as makeup
eske	French	Est-ce-que
gel	English	A substance used to build up artificial nails
mekop	English	Make-up

Borrowing registered 8 words giving a percentage of 72.7% of the 11 words corpus. Making it the formation process with the highest proportion. The donor languages English and French are equally distributed in this corpus as the both have a frequency of 4 occurrences each.

4.2.3.2: Acronym

One instance of acronym, a process of creating a new word by using the initial letters of longer words, is identified in the corpus. This new word is MUA, from Make Up Artist, as can be found in this interaction:

A. di man, wuna get any mua for hia?

B. yes, yu no no se a di du mekop?

Acronym registered 1 word of the 11 words corpus giving a percentage of 9.10%.

4.2.3.3: Reduplication

Just like Sala (2012) nouns and pronouns are reduplicated to show plurality and show limitation, adjectives and adverbs mark intensification, and verbs for the lexicalisation of the repetitive and distributive aspects. The reduplicative below shows intensity meaning “to be there” “availability”.

Sample conversation

A: eske a be no se yu di do mekop?

B: Mami, anytin wey concern make-up a de-de (mother, anything that concerns make-up, count me in)

de (there) - - - - - de-de (to be there)

Reduplication equally registered 1 word in the 11 words corpus giving a percentage of 9.10%.

4.2.3.4: Compounding

The compounds found in this section involves

Verb, + noun

chukskin (chuck skin = to feel involved)

Table 23: Compound words in the manicure and pedicure workshop setting

Words	Compound type	Meaning in context
chuckskin	Verb + noun	To feel involved even when you are not

Just like acronym and reduplication, compounding equally registered 1 word of the 11 words corpus giving a percentage of 9.10%.

In summary, the 11 new words identified in the manicure and pedicure saloon setting are found to be derived from the word formation processes outlined in Table 24.

Table 24: Contribution of word formation processes in the manicure sector

Word Formation Process	Frequency	Percentage
Borrowing	8	72.7%
Compounding	1	9.1%
Acronym	1	9.1%
Reduplication	1	9.1%
Total	11	100%

As table 24 shows, 72.7% of the 11 words result from Borrowing, specifically from English and French followed by acronym, reduplication and compounding registering 9.10%. As Kouega (2015:91) had predicted, borrowing is by far the most productive word formation processes in Pidgin.

4.3: Body lotion sale shops

Data for this sector were collected in four body lotion shops. A sample of the common words collected is listed in 4.3.1 while the specific words identified are listed in 4.3.2. The processes underlying their formation are further discussed in 4.3.3 below.

4.3.1: Common words heard in body lotion shops

A look at the data collected in these shops show that the words in table 25 below are frequently used in this setting.

Table 25: Sample of common words used in these shops

Words	Meaning
mukala	Albino
kombo	A set of products
njansan	A type of condiment used for cooking
bak-sai	Behind
skin	The outer layer of the body
dash	To gift something to someone
gliserin	Vicious non-toxic liquid used for the skin and sometimes added in body creams
piman du	A liquid substance added to body cream to lighten the body
vitamin	A nutrient that the body needs in small amount to function and stay healthy
krim	A thick liquid
glam	To shine

The words listed in table 25 above are common lexemes used in our daily social conversations with others being specific to the body lotion context. These specific words are considered in 4.3.2.

4.3.2: Specific words and their meanings in context

The words in table 22 below are lexemes specific to the body lotion sector. A total of 10 words were outlined and studied as seen below

Table 26: List of specific words in the body lotion sale shop setting

Words	StE Meaning	Meaning in context	Processes
gliserin	A vicious non-toxic liquid used to oil the skin and sometimes added to body cream	A vicious non-toxic liquid used to oil the skin and sometimes added to body cream	Borrowing
krim	Cream	A thick liquid used on the body to either enhance or change its tone	Borrowing
kombo		A set of cosmetic products used for body enhancement or altering	Coinage
njansan	A condiment used in cooking food	This is when you use different body products to change your body tone from dark to light	Semantic extension
piman-du	French word “Piment doux “	A liquid substance added to body cream to lighten the body	Borrowing
vitamin	A nutrient that the body needs in small amount to function and stay healthy	A liquid added to body lotion to enhance the body appearance	Semantic extension

The processes underlying the formation of the lexemes analysed above will be studied in 4.3.3.

4.3.3: Word formation processes

This sector registered a total of three word formation processes under which the different lexemes were classified and analysed. These words result from the following word formation processes. Borrowing (4.3.3.1), compounding (4.3.3.2), coinage (4.3.3.3) and semantic extension (4.3.3.4).

4.3.3.1: Borrowing

Table 27: Sample of borrowed words in the body lotion sale shop setting

Word	Donor language	Meaning in context
gliserin	French	A vicious non-toxic liquid used to oil the skin and sometimes added to body cream
vitamin	English	A liquid added to body lotion to enhance the body appearance
krim	English	A thick liquid used on the body to either enhance or change its tone

Of the 6 words studied in this corpus, borrowing registered 3 words giving a percentage of 50%, making it the formation process with the highest occurrence. It is noticed that of the 3 words registered here, the most prominent donor language is English.

4.3.3.2: Coinage

Kombo is a term coined by people in the cosmetic domain in order to refer to a set of cosmetic products used for skin enhancement or skin altering. The term is mostly used for body lotions, butt and breast enlargement products.

Coinage registered 1 occurrence giving a percentage of 16.7%.

4.3.3.3: Semantic extension

Table 28: Sample of semantic extended words in the body lotion sale shop setting

Word	StE meaning	Meaning in context
njansan	A condiment used in cooking food	The act of bleaching the human skin
vitamin	A nutrient that the body needs in small amount to function and stay healthy	A liquid added to body lotion to enhance the body appearance

Semantic extension registered 2 occurrences of the 6 words corpus giving a percentage of 33.3%.

In summary, the 6 new words identified in the body lotion sale shops setting are found to derive from the word formation processes listed in table 29 below.

Table 29: Contribution of word formation processes in the sample

Word formation process	Frequency	Percentage
Borrowing	3	50%
Coinage	1	16.7%
Semantic extension	2	33.3%
Total	6	100%

Table 29 above illustrates the different word formation processes and their respective percentages as per the number of lexemes each registered. Borrowing registered the highest number of lexemes. Of a total of 6 lexemes registered for this sector, it had a frequency of 3

occurrences representing a percentage of 50%. Coinage registered a frequency of 1 occurrence representing a percentage of 16.7% and semantic extension registered a frequency of 2 occurrences representing a percentage of 33.3%.

4.4: Male barbing saloons

Male barbing saloons are saloons where men and women style their hair. These saloons were visited and the researcher with the help of a tape recorder gathered relevant data necessary for this study. The lexemes were listed and tabled to ease understanding. Table 30 shows a sample of the words collected in these saloons.

4.4. 1: Common words heard in male barbing saloons

The data collected in these saloons are seen to be words used in our daily social discussions precisely by the male youths as they tend to use more of pidgin English and Camfranglais in their discussions.

Table 30: Sample of common words used in the male barbing saloons

Word	Meaning	Meaning in context
go	To go	A young girl
fala	To take	To take
rof-ple	Rough play	Rough game
kaso	Wrong English	Wrong English
gars	boy	boy
njaka	Small boy or girl	Small boy or girl
nianga	Stylishness	Stylishness
kwata	Quartier	Neighbourhood

mop	Mouth	To be mouthy
fiva	To resemble	To resemble
jos	To tell	To tell
kangol	A British stylish headwear	A type of hairstyle
koko	A type of food	A young girl
libon	A type of hairstyle	A type of hairstyle
trasage	Trasser	A type of hairstyle (to draw) or ca
memba	To show off	Show off
japap	To gossip	Gossip

The list of words in Table 30 are lexemes commonly used in our Cameroonian society precisely by the male youths. The specific words will be listed in Table 32 below

4.4.2: Specific words and their meanings in context

Table 32 below is made up of words particular to the male barbing saloon sector. Of the 17 words listed above, 13 words were new. These are listed in Table 31 below.

Table 31: Specific words in the male barbing saloon setting

Word	StE meaning	Meaning in context	Processes
go	To go	A young girl	Semantic extension
fala	To take	To take	Coinage
rof-ple	Rough play	Rough game	Compounding

koko	A type of food	A young girl	Semantic extension
kaso	Wrong English	Wrong English	Coinage
gars	Boy	Boy	Borrowing
njaka	Small boy or girl	Small boy or girl	Coinage
mop	Mouth	To be mouthy	Borrowing
kangol	A British stylish headwear	A type of hairstyle	Borrowing
libon	From Kongolibon	A type of hairstyle	Clipping
trasag	From French “trasage”	A type of hairstyle	Borrowing
memba	Show off	Show off	Clipping
japap	Gossip	Gossip	Coinage

4.4.3: Word formation processes

The words listed in 4.4.1 above are found to have been formed through the following word formation processes: borrowing (4.4.2.1), coinage (4.4.2.2), semantic extension (4.4.2.3), and Clipping (4.4.2.4).

4.4.3.1.: Borrowing

The words in this section were gotten through direct loan from English and French and these words are then used in the Pidgin language to refer or mean the same as in their respective loaned languages. It registered 5 lexemes as in Table 32.

Table 32: Sample of borrowed words in the male barbing saloon setting

Words	Donor language	Meaning in context
gars	French	boy
mop	English	Mouth
kangol	English	A hairstyle
trasag	French	To draw

Of the 13 words registered in this setting, 4 of these words were formed through borrowing from English and French. The two donor languages were fairly represented as they both register 2 words each.

4.4.3.2: Coinage

The words in this section involves coined words belonging or mostly used in the Pidgin language and in Camfranglais. These words were coined in a way to create a distinction and give already existing meanings to words different from the already existing ones so as to create an understanding by those using these languages. The words involved here include:

fala meaning to give

kasó meaning wrong English

njaka meaning small boy or girl

japap meaning gossip

Coinage just like borrowing registered 4 words in the 13 words corpus giving a percentage of 30.8%.

4.4.3.3: Semantic extension

Table 33: Sample of semantic extended words in the male barbing saloon setting

Words	StE meaning	Meaning in context
go	to go	A young girl / girlfriend
koko	a type of food stuff	a young girl /girlfriend

Semantic extension registered a frequency of 2 occurrences representing a percentage 15.4% in the 13 words corpus.

4.4.3.4: Clipping

libon is a word clipped from “kongolibon” a Camfranglais word which is a type of hairstyle

memba is a word clipped from “remember” an English word which means to bring to awareness something from the past.

Clipping just like semantic extension registered a frequency of 2 occurrences giving a percentage of 15.4%.

4.4.3.5: Compounding

The compound type involved in the formation of the word analysed here is

Adjective + Verb

rof-ple (rough play = a rough game, bad game)

Compounding registered the lowest frequency in this setting with an occurrence of 1 lexeme giving a percentage of 7.6%.

The conclusion of this short analysis is as follows: of the 13 words gotten in this section, 4 were gotten through borrowing (30.8%), 4 resulted from coinage (30.8%), 2 from semantic extension (15.4%), 2 from clipping (15.4%), and 1 from compounding (7.6%).

Table 34: Proportion of word formation processes in the sample

Word formation process	Frequency	Percentage
Borrowing	4	30.8%
Coinage	4	30.8%
Semantic extension	2	15.4%
Clipping	2	15.4%
Compounding	1	7.6%
Total	13	100%

4.5: New Words and the processes of their formation

This section considers the new words identified in these workshops (4.5.1) and the processes of their formation (4.5.2).

4.5.1: New words identified in the workshops

The few workshops visited that is, female hair saloons, manicure and pedicure saloons, body lotion sale shops and male barbing saloons, provided a collection of 51 new words. These words are listed in Table 35 below together with their meanings.

Table 35: New words and their meaning

Words	Meaning	Workshop
bik-bik	very big	female hair saloon
blenda	a soft and round sponge used to apply make-up	manicure and pedicure workshop

bon	Frown at someone	Female hair saloon
chik	a baby bird (fowl)	body lotion sale shop
chukskin	to feel involved even when you are not	manicure and pedicure workshop
de-de	I am there/count me in	manicure and pedicure workshop
duble-pos	double posing artificial nails	manicure and pedicure workshop
eske	Is it that	manicure and pedicure workshop
espreshon	a type of mesh	female hair saloon
fala	to take	male barbing saloon
fat-fat	very fat	female Hair saloon
folo-me	an African hairstyle done with thread	female hair saloon
faondashon	A thick brown liquid applied on the face as the base for makeup	manicure and pedicure workshop
gars	boy	male barbing saloon
gel	a substance used to build up artificial nails	manicure and pedicure workshop
gliserin	vicious non-toxic liquid used to oil the skin	body lotion sale shop
go	a young girl	male barbing saloon

ina-bakala	French braided cornrows	female hair saloon
japap	gossip	male barbing saloon
kangol	a type of hairstyle	male barbing saloon
kap	a wig	female hair saloon
kasu	wrong English	male barbing saloon
klem	to claim	female hair saloon
koko	A young girl	Male barbing saloon
kombo	A set of cosmetic products used for body enhancement or altering	Body lotion sale shop
krim	A thick liquid used on the body to either enhance or change its tone	Body lotion sale shop
kristal	brand name of a type of mesh	female hair saloon
lai-tin	liar	liar
libon	a type of hairstyle	male barbing saloon
lon-lon	very long	female hair saloon
mekop	make up	manicure and pedicure workshop
memba	to remember	male barbing saloon
mop	to be mouthy	to be mouthy
mua	Initials of Make up artist	manicure and pedicure workshop

njaka	small boy/girl	male barbing saloon
njansan	when you use different body products to change your body tone from dark to light	body lotion sale shop
piman-du	A liquid substance added to body cream to lighten the body from French word “Piment doux”	body lotion sale shop
pong-pong	a type of hairstyle done by tying two or three knots on the hair	female hair saloon
prodok	a substance that is manufactured for sale	female hair saloon
résine	a substance used to build up artificial nails	manicure and pedicure workshop
rof-ple	rough game	male barbing saloon
shak	to drink / a drink	female hair saloon
sigaret	an African hairstyle made with thread	female hair saloon
supa-star	a type of mesh (artificial hair)	female hair saloon
témoins	dark spots on one’s knuckles	manicure and pedicure workshop
tif	to steal / a thief	female hair saloon
trasage	a type of hairstyle	male barbing saloons
tuinin	a type of hairstyle	female hair saloon
tuistin	a type of hairstyle	female hair saloon

vitamin	A liquid added to body lotion to enhance the body appearance	body lotion sale shop
waka-lai	lier	female hair saloon

4.5.2: Formation of the new words

This section sets to present the lexemes studied in this corpus according to each formation process each underwent for its formation into the Pidgin language.

Borrowing

Borrowing registered 41.2% of the 51 lexemes collected making it the formation processes with the highest number of lexemes

Table 36: List of words resulting from borrowing

Word	Meaning	Workshop
blenda	A soft and round sponge used to apply make-up	Manicure and pedicure workshop
duble-pos	Double posing artificial nails	Manicure and pedicure workshop
eske	From French “est-ce-que” Meaning “is it that”	Manicure and pedicure workshop
faondashon	A thick brown liquid applied on the face as the base for makeup	Manicure and pedicure workshop
gars	Boy	Male barbing saloon
gel	A substance used to build up artificial nails	Manicure and pedicure workshop

gliserin	A vicious non-toxic liquid used to oil the skin	Body lotion sale shop
kap	Wig	Female hair saloon
kangol	A type of hairstyle	Male barbing saloon
klem	To claim	Female hair saloon
krim	A thick liquid used on the body to either enhance or change its tone	Body lotion sale shop
mekop	Make up	Manicure and pedicure workshop
mop	To be mouthy	Male barbing saloon
prodok	A substance manufactured for sale	Female hair saloon
resin	A substance used to build up artificial nails	Manicure and pedicure workshop
tif	To steal /thief	Female hair saloon
temoin	Dark spots on one's knuckles	Body lotion sale shop
trasag	A type of hairstyle	Male barbing saloon
tuainin	A type of hairstyle	Female hair saloon
tuistin	A type of hairstyle	Female hair saloon
vitamin	A liquid added to body lotion to enhance the body appearance	Body lotion sale shop

Coinage

Coinage registered 15.7% of the 51 lexemes studied in this corpus. These lexemes are listed in Table 37 below

Table 37: List of words resulting from coinage

Words	Meaning	Workshop
espreshon	A type of mesh	Female hair saloon
fala	To take	Male barbing saloon
japap	Gossip	Male barbing saloon
kaso	Wrong English	Male barbing saloon
kombo	A set of cosmetic products used for body enhancement or altering	Body lotion sale shops
Kristal	A type of mesh (artificial hair)	Female hair saloon
njaka	Young boy/girl	Male barbing saloon
supa-sta	A type of mesh (artificial hair)	Female hair saloon

Compounding

Compounding registered new words from the 51 new words found in this corpus. The compounded words are listed in Table 38 below

Table 38: List of words resulting from compounding

Word	Meaning	Workshop
chukskin	To feel involved even when you are	Manicure and pedicure

	not	workshop
folo-me	A type of hairstyle made with thread	Female hair saloon
ina-bakala	French braided cornrows	Female hair saloon
lai-tin	Liar	Female hair saloon
rof-pe	Rough game	Male barbing saloon
waka-lie	Lier	Female hair saloon

Semantic extension

Semantic extension just like Coinage registered 8 lexemes in this corpus. The words got through semantic extension are listed in table 39 below

Table 39: List of words resulting from semantic extension

Words	Meaning	Workshop
bon	Frown at someone	Female hair saloon
chik	A young girl	Body lotion sale shop
go	A young girl	Male barbing saloon
koko	A young girl	Male barbing saloon
njasan	When you use different body products to change your body tone from dark to light	Body lotion sale shop
shak	Drink /a drink	Female hair saloon
sigaret	A type of hairstyle made with thread	Female hair saloon
vitamin	A liquid added to body lotion to enhance the body appearance appearance	Body lotion sale shop

Reduplication

Reduplication registered as 5 new lexemes in the corpus. The reduplicated words studied are listed in Table 40 below

Table 40: List of words resulting from reduplication

Words	Meaning	Workshop
bik-bik	Very big	Female hair saloon
de-de	I am there/ count me in	Manicure and pedicure workshop
fat-fat	Very fat	Female hair saloon
lon-lon	Very long	Female hair saloon
pong-pong	Hairstyle done by tying two or three knots on the hair	Female hair saloon

Clipping

Of the 51 words found in this corpus, clipping registered 2.

Table 41: List of words resulting from clipping

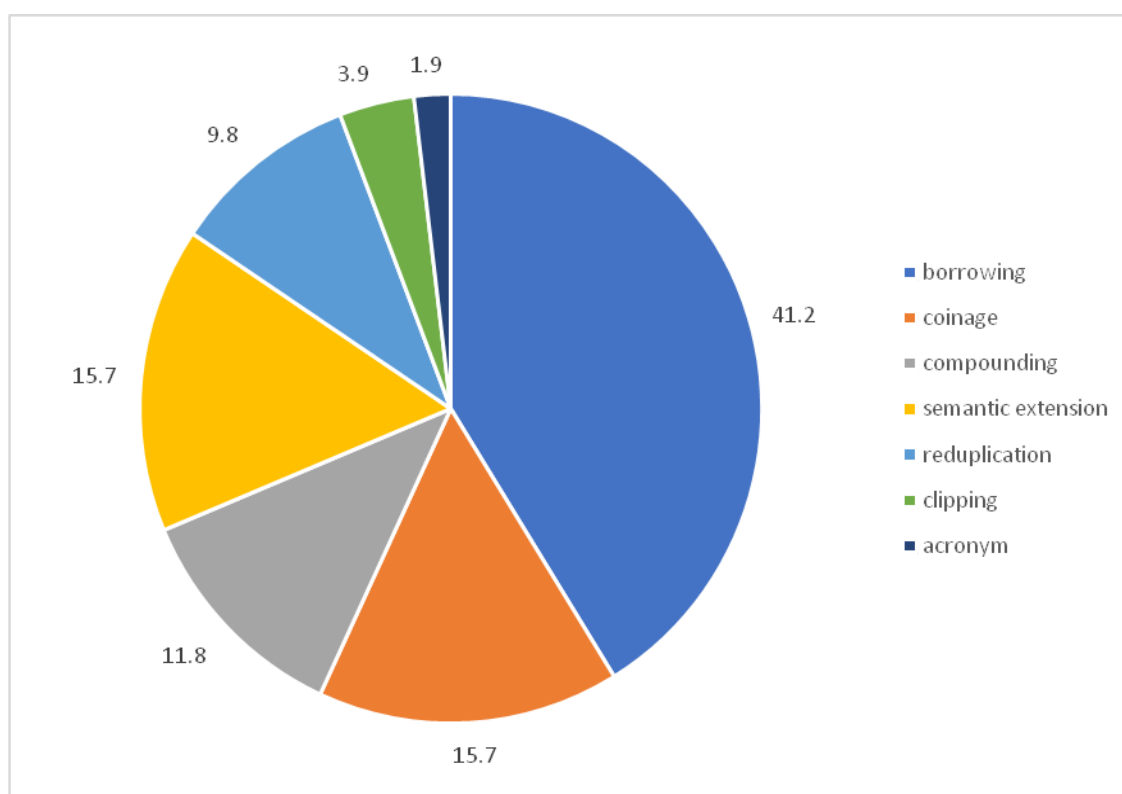
Words	Meaning	Workshop
libon	A type of hairstyle	Male barbing saloon
memba	To show off	Male barbing saloon

Acronym

Acronym is the formation processes with the lowest number of lexemes registered. Of the 51 words registered in this corpus, just 1.9% was identified to have been formed through the process of acronym.

Table 42: List of words resulting from clipping

Word	Meaning	Workshop
mua	Make up artist	Manicure and pedicure workshop

**Diagram 1: Proportion of the word formation processes in the corpus**

In summary, from the chart above, the study recorded a total of 51 new words. These words were analysed giving their various meanings as per their context of usage. It is therefore observed from this study that borrowing (41.2%) is by far the most productive word formation process in Pidgin. This is followed by coinage (15.7%), compounding (11.8%), semantic extension (15.7%), reduplication (9.8%), clipping (3.9%) and acronym (1.9%) being the lowest.

Table 43: Contribution of the word formation processes in the sample

Word formation processes	Frequency	Percentage
Borrowing	21	41.2%
Coinage	8	15.7%
Compounding	6	11.8%
Semantic extension	8	15.7%
Reduplication	5	9.8%
Clipping	2	3.9%
Acronym	1	1.9%
Total	51	100%

Table 44: Words specific to the domain of cosmetics

Word	Meaning	Workshop	Word formation processes
bik-bik	Very big	Female hair saloon	Compounding
blenda	A soft and round sponge used to apply make-up	Manicure and pedicure workshop	Borrowing
duble-pos	Double posing artificial nails	Manicure and pedicure workshop	Borrowing
espreshon	A type of mesh	Female hair saloon	Coinage

fat-fat	Very fat	Female hair saloon	Reduplication
folo-me	A type of hairstyle made with thread	Female hair saloon	Compounding
faondashon	A thick brown liquid applied on the face as the base for makeup	Manicure and pedicure workshop	Borrowing
gel	A substance used to build up artificial nails	Manicure and pedicure workshop	Borrowing
glicerin	A vicious non-toxic liquid used to oil the skin	Body lotion sale shop	Borrowing
ina-bakala	French braided conraws	Female hair saloon	Compounding
kangol	A type of hairstyle	Male barbing saloon	Borrowing
kap	Wig	Female hair saloon	Borrowing
kristal	A type of mesh	Female hair saloon	Coinage
kombo	A set of cosmetic products used for body enhancement or altering	Body lotion sale shop	Coinage
krim	A thick liquid used on the body to either enhance or change its tone	Body lotion sale shop	Borrowing

libon	A type of hairstyle	Male barbing saloon	Clipping
lon-lon	Very long	Female hair saloon	Reduplication
mua	Initials for make up artist	Manicure and pedicure workshop	Acronym
njansan	When you use different body products to change your body tone from dark to light	Body lotion sale shop	Semantic extension
piman-dou	A liquid substance added to body cream to lighten the body	Body lotion sale shop	Borrowing
pong-pong	Hairstyles done by tying two or three knots on the hair	Female hair saloon	Reduplication
prodok	A substance manufactured for sale	Female hair saloon	Borrowing
resin	A substance used to build up artificial nails	Manicure and pedicure workshop	Borrowing
sigaret	A type of hairstyle made with thread	Female hair saloon	Semantic extension
supa-sta	A type of mesh	Female hair saloon	Coinage
temoin	Dark spots on one's knuckles	Body lotion sale shop	Borrowing
trasag	A type of hairstyle	Male barbing saloon	Borrowing

tuainin	A type of hairstyle	Female hair saloon	Borrowing
tuistin	A type of hairstyle	Female hair saloon	Borrowing
vitamin	A liquid added to body lotion to enhance the body appearance	Body lotion sale shop	Borrowing

CONCLUSION

This work set out to examine the Pidgin lexical items used in interactions in cosmetics shops. A total of 20 beauty workshops were visited and conversations were tape recorded. From these conversations, relevant lexical items were extracted and analysed. The researcher was guided by three research questions which are reproduced below together with the findings of the study.

The first research question read as follows:

Question 1: what are the common words used in social interactions in cosmetics shops?

They are the same words used in other domains of Pidgin use like the news. These words were recorded in the seminal dictionary of Cameroon Pidgin English.

Question 2: what are the lexical items specific to the domain of cosmetics?

A total of 51 specific words were identified in this study. The study outlined several words listed in the Cameroon Pidgin English dictionary compiled by Kouega (2017) which were used in these interactions, which is the prime already documented material used during the analysis. Some of these words include: “padiman” which means male friend, “kosh” meaning to insult, “nianga” which means stylishness, “jel” which refers to a hair gel, “plet” which means to plait, “shinion” which in standard English is a bun. It also is made up of words specific to the cosmetics domain not leaving out already cited words found with different attributed meanings. Words like “supa-star”, “prodok”, “mua”, “kombo”, “sigaret”, “trasage”, “blenda”, “kangol”, “folo-me”, “gel”, “ina-bakala”, tips just to name a few. A complete list of the specific lexical items is found in Table 35 of the corpus.

Question 3: what are the processes of formation of the specific Pidgin lexemes used in the cosmetic domain?

The lexemes registered in this study were derived from various formation processes. These processes encompassed: borrowing, coinage, compounding, semantic extension, reduplication, clipping, and acronym. The dominant process was borrowing (41.2% of 51 words) following by coinage and semantic extension (15.7% each).

It is noticed from the study that the meanings of some words are extended from their already known meanings to a newly attributed meaning relating to the context in which each is used. Some of which include:

- memba: clipped from the word “remember” whose meaning still remains the same “to remember” as seen in Kouega’s (2017) Dictionary of Pidgin English but semantically extended, it would mean to show-off.
- kap: this word borrowed from the English language meaning “cap” and its meaning has been semantically extended to being a wig.
- sigaret: which originally is finely cut tobacco rolled in paper for smoking. In the cosmetics sector specifically the hair saloon domain it will mean a type of hairstyle.
- témoins: borrowed from the French word “témoins” which means “witness”. Its meaning is therefore semantically extended to refer to the dark spots on one’s knuckles.
- blenda: which originally is spelt as “blender” which is a machine used in grinding, is found to be semantically extended to mean a soft and round sponge used to apply make-up.

From this, it can be said that Cameroon English gets some of its lexemes by attributing new meanings to existing Pidgin lexemes or lexemes drawn from other languages.

If the words identified in the study resist the test of time, they will eventually enter the indigenous languages of Cameroon, like the words “suku” (a school) and “motuo” (a car) which are part of the lexicon of many languages.

As a follow up to this research, it can be recommended that the State should begin to develop vehicular languages in general and Pidgin English in particular as these languages are by far the most frequently used in informal contexts. They are languages which tend to unite a greater number of people than the official languages.

As far as further research is concerned, there is a need to check whether the lexemes found in Yaounde in this study have reached the seats of Pidgin in Cameroon which are Buea and

Bamenda, then it can therefore be concluded that these items could be considered relevant and could therefore be added to the already published dictionary of Cameroon Pidgin English. Secondly, other technical domains such as computer workshops, tailoring, transport and many others need to be studied in the same way and the lexemes identified considered for inclusion in the dictionary of Cameroon Pidgin English (Kouega 2017).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX ONE

I. Sample conversations transcribed from audio records

A. Sample extract from Female hair saloons

a: a wan plet rasta, da fat-fat wan

b: na which color mesh you wan mek we plet the head witam?

a: use black abeg, da supa-star na hamany paket go coret?

b: since ya hair no plenty and you wantam Big-big even two go coret

a: some geh kam tif cap dem fo here run witam, we no even no how ei happen

b: wuna recognize the geh?

a: yes ohh ma sista ei piture dei all facebook, some fine geh so di tif.

B. Sample extract from body lotion sale shops

a: ma fren you nova yet get da ma tin?

b: ei nova yet cam but a get different combo fo you. ei go fit you bad

a: show me nor, ma see

b: ei no go leave any témoins fo ya fut even ya handem

C. Sample extract from manicure and pedicure workshops

a: abeg put me tips dem fo fut and normal nail dem for hand

b: put gel nor mami you nid fo shine

a: wusai moni go comot? a no fes get me moni

D. Sample extract from male barbing saloons

- a:** boy we no see you yesterday, we be get for go falla da moni nor? how you do me so?
- b:** ma guy tin dem no show like a be di expect
- c: (to the barber)** gars do moi la kangol

APPENDIX TWO

II. Sample interview questions

1. What language do you mostly speak with your customers
2. What are these products used for? (showing the particular products)
3. How do you mostly refer to them when exchanging with your customers?
4. Do these products have other names attached to them?

APPENDIX THREE

I. Sample picture of notice boards and fliers



