

**On the Inadequacies of the Igbo Sound System and Orthography for
Transcribing and Writing Ika.**

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CERTIFICATION

I, Blessing Chinyere ENYAOHIA, a student in the Department of Linguistics and African Languages, University of Benin, with Matriculation number ART1101050 has completed the requirement for course work and research for the Bachelor of Arts Degree of University of Benin. The work embodied in this project is original and has not been submitted in part or whole for any other degree or diploma programme in this or any other University or Institution.

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DEDICATION

This academic research work is dedicated to Almighty God

And

To my wonderful mum MRS. PHILOMMENA ESENE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My appreciation goes first to Almighty God for His infinite mercies having led me thus far, and for His grace that has kept me through my stay in school.

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Augusta, Faithee; my roommates Andria, Mercy, Mercy, Joy, Tabitha and Christabel, God bless you all. Thank you.

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ABSTRACT

This work discusses the Igbo sound system and orthography for transcribing and writing Ika. The aim of the study is to employ relevant data in showing that the Igbo sound system and orthography which is presently being used to transcribe and write Ika is descriptively inadequate. The need for this research to Ika language studies is that it observes the various sounds and orthographic symbols in the Ika sound and writing inventory. This work advances the study of descriptive linguistics since it is based on the Ika phonology. The theoretical framework adopted for this study is the Basic linguistic theory (Dixon 1997) which is supported by Williamson's (1984) Basic Principles for a Good Orthography'. The data relied on for this study comprised primary and secondary data. The primary data consisted of oral data which served as the major source of data, these data were gotten from competent native speakers and users of Ika languages. The bulk of the secondary data are documented works ranging from dictionaries, online and hard print journals, textbooks and unpublished projects and thesis. The

relevant data selected from the bulk of data collected were then subjected to a verification process by consulting with language teachers, competent speakers and students of the language under study so as to authenticate the data. In the course of this study, we discovered firstly that the current Ika orthography which is based on the Igbo sound system has 36 sounds as against the 38 sounds present in the Ika sound system. In other words, there are sounds in Ika that are not adequately represented in the Igbo sound system and orthography such as /ɛ/ half open front unrounded vowel /ũ / close back rounded nasal vowel, /ẽ/ half open front unrounded nasal vowel, /õ/ half open back rounded nasal vowel, /ã/ open central unrounded nasal vowel, / m / voiced labio-dental nasal, / r̥/ voiceless alveolar tap. This study has attempted to show the inadequacies in the current Ika sound system and orthography, as well as suggesting some meaningful proposals to correct the inadequacies.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to study

1.1.0 Introduction

This work carries out a discussion of the Igbo sound system and orthography for transcribing and writing Ika. Sound systems in human languages are the way they are as a result of balancing sufficient acoustic/auditory contrast for a listener and articulating economy for a speaker under varying conditions of speech communication; they both tend to be maximized in the pursuit of communication goals (Kohler 1996:1). The sound system is primary and it is the basis for the spelling system. The standardized writing system of a language is known as its orthography (Crystal 1995:257). Orthography understood as a writing system comprises not only the spelling of particular lexical items and morphemes, but also capitalization, word division at the end of lines, and punctuation. Eventually, taking into consideration the third sense of ‘orthography’, it is also used as a term denoting a branch of knowledge which studies all aspects of a spelling

norm, including the relation between writing practices beyond norms, codification, and language policy (Rutkowska 2012:226 and Rutkowska Rössler 2012:214).

1.1.1 Ika language and People

The Ika language is considered as a dialect of Igbo and is classified under the Igboid group of languages (*Williamson 1968:5*). Presently, Ika is spoken in Ika North-East and Ika-South local government areas in Delta state. Linguistically, to the west of Ika speakers is the Edo speakers, to the north are the Esan speakers, to the east are the Aniocha speakers, and to the south are the Ukwani speakers. Ika is also spoken not only in Delta State, but in some villages in Orhionmwò local government area of Edo state. Although there has not been a systematic study of Ika dialects, it is possible to classify Ika dialect into at least four dialect groups. The four dialect groups are South; South-South, North-South, and North East. The South consists of Agbor clan, South-South consists of Abavo clan, while North-South consists of Owa, /Mbiri, Ute-Okpu, Ute-Ogbeje, Otolokpo, Idumuesah

and North-East consists of Akwumazi, Umunede and Igbodo (Onyeche 2002:43).

Phonologically, Ika is yet to have a standard sound system because the Igbo sound system is being used. Also, for the language's orthography that of Igbo is also used. The language is a tonal language, consisting of low, mid and high tones. These tones are used to create differences in the meaning structure of identical word forms. Consider the data below:

1. a. /ékwà/ ékwà 'cloth'
- b. /èkwá/ èkwán 'egg'

The language is an open syllable language because all the words end in a pronounceable vowel. E.g.:

2. a. /ótfé/ oche 'chair'
- b. /òtǎ/ ocha 'white'

Morphologically, the language is an isolating language. It is isolating because words can stand on their own in sentences. E.g.:

3. a. Ó rí ní ńní.

He eat-pst-sl do-neg-pst-sl food.

He ate did not food.

‘He didn’t eat the food.’

b. Ó kà bià échì.

She fut come-prs-sl tomorrow.

She will come tomorrow.

‘She will come tomorrow.’

Syntactically, Ika operates an SVO word order. The subject and its complements come before the verb and its complements while the object and its complement occupy the sentence final position. Consider the data below:

S V O

4. a. Àdá jè áfià.

Ada go-pst-sl market.

Ada went market.

‘Ada went to the market.’

S V O

b. Úzọ bià ùgbó.

Uzọ come-pst-sl farm.

Uzọ came farm.

‘Uzọ came to the farm.’

Furthermore, Ika is a head first language. Head first languages are languages which the modifiers come before the nouns, verbs etc. The head of phrases always occur at the head first position as shown in the examples below:

5. a. NP[Òkpòhó nì] VP[rì rímmá]

Woman det be-prs-sl beautiful.

Woman this is beautiful.

‘This woman is beautiful.’

b. NP[Èkwá nì] VP[à rì rímmá.]

Cloth det not be-prs-sl fine.

Cloth this not fine.

‘This cloth is not fine.’

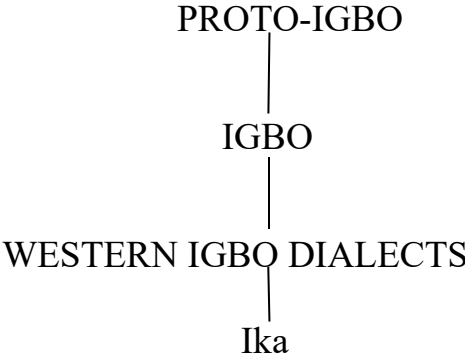
1.1.2 Linguistic classification of Ika

Ika has been classified as an Igboid language due to her native speakers being able to understand Igbo to a certain level and most of the names of Ika people are Igbo based except for some persons whose names are Edo based like 'Igudia', 'Osadebey', among others.

Williamson (1968:5) classifies Ika under the Igboid group of languages. Ika is not given a distinct language status here rather it is considered as a dialect of Igbo. However Ebinum (2011:93) is of a different view. She relies on a comprehensive word list of four hundred items and employing the lexico-statistical methods as well as linguistic and historical evidences, she classifies Ika alongside Igbanke and Ukwani as 'Eastern Edoid languages'. The views above may not be an adequate representation of the Ika language. This view is maintained because Ika is a language that combines Igbo and Edo at all levels of basic linguistics. It is on this ground that the present study proposes the term 'EGBOID' which is a coinage from 'Edo', 'Igbo' and the technical language classification suffix '-id' to refer to languages spoken in Delta and Anambra states which show a high degree of

cognacy with Edo and Igbo. This linguistic group we propose consists of two areas, i.e., ‘Anioma’ and ‘Aniocha’. These terms are widely used in the ‘Delta Igbo’ regions of Delta and Anambra states. The Anioma region entail Igbanke, Ika, Isele-Uku, Obulu-Uku, Ogwashi-Uku, Ukwani, Ibusa, Ihusa, Issele-Azagba, Issele-Mkpitime and Asaba while the Aniocha region entail Onicha-Ugbo, Onicha-Uku, Onicha-Olona, Onicha-Mili, Obior and Obomkpa. (Bulk of the languages here had been genetically studied in Uwajeh (2003) and the division made here is based on the findings of that work). Below, we present three figures with regard to the classification of Ika. Figure 1 shows the classification of Ika as an Igboid dialect (Williamson 1968), figure two shows Ika as an eastern Edoic language while figure 3 shows the proposed classification Ika as an Anioma language:

Figure 1: Classification of Ika as a dialect of Igbo:



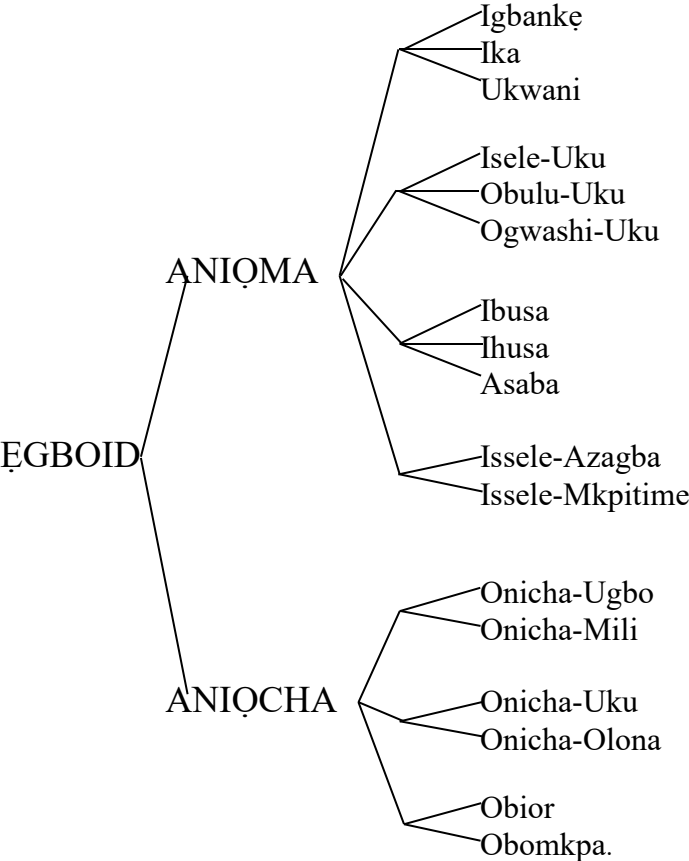
Adapted from Williamson (1968:5)

Figure 2: Classification of Ika as an Eastern Ẹdoid language:



Ebinum (2011:93)

Figure 3: Classification of Ika as an Anioma language:



PROPOSED CLASSIFICATION OF EGBOID LANGUAGES.

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter one is the general introduction of the study. This entails the background of study, methodology, purpose of study as well as significance and justification of study. In chapter two, the review of some relevant literature on the concept of writing systems and orthography is discussed. The chapter ends with a presentation of the concerns of the present study. While chapter three discusses the theoretical framework adopted for the study, chapter four presents the analysis and discussion of the data and also presents the study's results. The research ends with chapter five which presents a summary of the work's findings which is followed by the conclusion. The references are shown at the end of the work.

1.2 Methodology

The data relied on for this study comprised primary and secondary data. The primary data consisted of oral data which served as the major source of data. The primary data served as the major source because the essence was to capture the speech pattern of Ika as it is not as it should be. The primary data were gotten from competent native speakers and users of

Ika languages. These informants are resident in Umunede community in Delta state and have lived in the community for not less than two decades. The academic qualification and ages of informants are a minimum of senior secondary certificate and they are between the ages of thirty-five to sixty years. The instrument used for collecting the primary data entailed both digital and analogue instruments. The analogue instrument used was a writing pad and a pen which was supported by a voice recorder. The Swadesh wordlist of two hundred lexical items formed the template for eliciting the data needed whereas the tape recorder was used so as to ensure the integrity of the qualitative data collected.

The bulk of the secondary data are documented works ranging from dictionaries, online and hard print journals, textbooks and unpublished projects and theses. These sources were consulted in order to have a robust knowledge on previous works on the Ika orthography as well as examine how the Ika language had been written before now. These documents showed that the Ika language had been written using Igbo orthography.

The relevant data selected from the bulk of data collected were then subjected to a verification process by consulting with language teachers, competent speakers and students of the language under study so as to authenticate the data. The adequacy of the Igbo sound system and orthography were then tested with the Ika data using Williamson (1984) principles of a good orthography. This framework was adopted for this study because it gives a most succinct direction on what to do when carrying out orthography development studies.

The study centers on aspects of Ika phonology and its orthography development and it is descriptive in nature.

1.3 Purpose of study

The aim of the study is to employ relevant data in showing that the Igbo sound system and orthography which is presently being used to transcribe and write Ika is descriptively inadequate. The set objectives include to:

- i. produce a list of transcribed Ika lexical items and show how some sounds are not represented in the Igbo sound system;
- ii. present an orthographic representation of the transcribed sounds and show how the Igbo orthographic system is limited in capturing all of the Ika orthographic symbols;
- iii. propose a descriptively adequate sound system for Ika i.e. consonant and vowel charts; and
- iv. propose an descriptively adequate orthography for the writing of Ika.

1.4 Significance and Justification of study

The research is relevant to Ika language studies because it studies the various sounds and orthographic symbols in the Ika sound and writing inventory. This work advances the study of descriptive linguistics since it is based on the Ika phonology. It helps the Ika language teachers and students to know what their orthography and writing system is all about. It also serves as a reference material for other researchers who would want to do a

further study on the Ika orthography system. This research is centered on documentary and descriptive linguistics because it documents and reanalyzes the existing knowledge of Ika sound and writing systems.

The inadequacy of Igbo sound inventory and writing system for transcribing Ika data and writing Ika necessitated this research. The data collected for this study showed that there are some sounds present in Ika that are unaccounted for in the Igbo sound system. For example nasal vowels which are present in Ika are not present in the standard Igbo sound and orthographic inventory.

The scope of the present study spans through phonology; which is the study significant, relevant and functional segments and supra- segments in a language and orthography, which is the study of the representation of language using linguistic signs known as orthographic symbols. The study is however delimited to a comprehensive study of Ika phonemic and orthographic systems showing how it is distinct from Igbo and should therefore have her own sound system and corresponding orthographic system.

CHAPTER TWO:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

In recent years, the study of spoken and written language has been supplemented by interest in a third means of linguistic communication_ sign language or simply sign. Crystal (1987:219). Words in any language are primarily a combination of various speech sounds. Hence to speak any language, the first essential thing is to produce the sounds of that language correctly. The representation of meaning by words is the basis of the human linguistic ability. Just as languages differ one from the other, orthographic systems represent the various languages' phonologies in different ways. Writing systems are conventionalized techniques of segmenting linguistic utterances in such a way that the resulting units can be interpreted as linguistic constructs such as words, morphemes, syllables, phonemes, as well as high-level units such as clauses and sentences. Coulmas (2003:31)

The present chapter is divided (excluding the present section) into three sections. Section 2.1 presents and reviews a number of conceptualizations on the concepts of writing systems. Section 2.2 examines a number of previous studies on Igbo orthography, Edo orthography and Ika orthography. Previous works on Igbo and Edo orthography are examined because the Ika language (as will be shown in chapter four) combines a number of orthographic symbols from Igbo and Edo and its lexicon is full of evidences of Igbo and Edo affinities.

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Writing

Early humans discovered that they could communicate by making marks on material. The technique of writing grew out of the more general institutions of pictorial art. The earliest known pictures and cave drawings date back to 20,000 B.C. though we cannot be certain that they were intended to communicate. Writing, as we know it today, developed rather late, about five or six thousand years ago, but it has been particularly important

since the invention of printing press some five hundred years ago (Okolo & Ezikeojiaku 1999:198).

Writing can be an important factor in establishing or maintaining a dialect as a standard one. When represented in writing, a language or dialect is better able to serve as a model since it has greater permanence.

‘Writing is not a language’, insisted the American linguist, Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949), ‘but merely a way of recording languages by means of visual marks’. Crystal (1987:179). Writing may be defined as a system of visual symbols whose purpose is to convey the thought of an individual or group to another. Crossland (1956:8). Thus, writing is used to express feelings and ideas, as well as to transmit information, so it can be called a means or channel of communication.

The term writing may also be defined as any system of communication based on conventional, permanent visible signs. Luschützky (2006:2) writing is articulate, made up of characters and thereby distinct from drawing and printing. Gelb (1963:12) also stated that ‘Writing is

clearly a system of human intercommunication by means of conventional visible marks.

2.1.2 Writing Systems

There are various types of writing systems and these systems have been used or are still being used to codify different languages. The common types are the pictographic or non-phonological, cuneiform, ideographic, logographic, alphabetic, syllabic, alpha-syllabic and mixed writing systems. All these are briefly explained in the paragraphs that follow.

The pictographic or non-phonological system the graphemes (often referred to as pictographs or pictograms) provide a recognizable picture of entities as they exist in the world. For example, a set of wavy lines might represent the sea or a river, and outlines of people and animals represent their living counterparts. To read such a script, it is enough only to recognize the symbols and the sequence may then be verbally described in a variety of ways, in whatever language one happens to speak. There is thus a great deal of possible ambiguity when it comes to reading sequences of pictograms,

and many of these scripts have proved difficult or impossible to decipher. Pictograms constitute the earliest system of writing and are found in many parts of the world where the remains of early people have been discovered. They have been discovered in Egypt and Mesopotamia from around 3000 B.C. and in China from around 1500 B.C. (Crystal 1987:197).

The cuneiform method of writing dates from 4th millennium B.C. and was used to express both non-phonological and phonological writing systems in several languages. The name derives from the Latin, meaning ‘wedge-shaped’ and refers to the technique used to make the symbols. A stylus was pressed into a tablet of soft clay to make a sequence of short straight strokes. In later periods, harder materials were used. The strokes are thickest at the top and to the left, reflecting the direction of writing: at first symbols were written onto their sides, and written from left to right. The earliest cuneiform was a development of pictographic symbols. Subsequently, the script was used to write words and syllables, and to mark phonetic elements. (Crystal 1987:198).

The ideographic writing is usually distinguished as a later development of the pictographic system. Ideograms, or ideographs, have an abstract or conventional meaning, no longer displaying a clear pictorial link with external reality. Two factors account for this: The shape of an ideogram may so alter that it is no longer recognizable as a pictorial representation of an object; and its original meaning may extend to include notions that lack any clear pictorial form. In early Sumerian writing, for example, the picture of a starry sky came to mean 'night', 'dark', or 'foot', a foot came to represent 'go', 'stand', and other such notions. It is rare to find a 'pure' ideographic writing system i.e. one in which the symbols refer directly to notions or things. Most systems that have been called ideographic in fact contain linguistic elements. The symbols stand for words in the language, where parts of the symbols represent sounds. The Sumerian, Egyptian, Hittite, and other scripts of early period were all mixtures of pictographs, ideographic, and linguistic elements (Crystal 1987:198).

The logographic system employs logograms. It is a character in writing which represents a word as a whole. It is different from a phonogram

which represents a sound or group of sounds and also from a pictogram or an ideogram which represents an object or idea independently of words (Matthews 1997:213). In the study of writing systems a written or printed symbol which represents a word (or morpheme) in a language. The term must be used with care as it suggests that only words are represented by symbols, whereas meaningful parts of words (e.g. affixes, roots) are also included in the notion. (Crystal 2003:278).

An alphabetic is a writing system in which consonants and vowels are represented equally by separate letters. Hence, the Greek alphabet, Roman and other derivatives, are also of consonantal alphabets of the Semitic type. Generally speaking, the principle of alphabetic writing is that each letter represents a particular spoken sound of the language. Thus, each symbol in an alphabetic system represents not a whole syllable, but a single sound segment. For example, the word cat in English has three sound segments [k], [æ], [t]. The letter 'c' exemplified above in 'cat' is associated with at least three distinct sounds [k], [s], and [ʃ] as in cat, cease, and spacious. Only a few letters of the English alphabet namely, f, l, m, are usually associated

with one and only one sound. Since only a relatively small number of sound types are systematically distinguished in a language, the number of symbols in an alphabetic writing system is relatively small (Okolo and Ezikeojiaku 1999:202).

The syllabic system is also known as syllabary, it is a writing system in which each character represents a syllable, typically consisting either of a vowel or a consonant plus a vowel. Syllabaries are less satisfactory than alphabets for many languages, especially those which have consonants at the end as well as the beginning of syllables (Matthews 1997: 365). In the syllabic system of writing, each symbol represents a syllable or a syllable type. Hindi and Sinhalese writing systems are examples of this type. Each symbol in a syllable writing system has a particular phonetic value and it is used in a word that contains the phonetic sequence it stands for. Thus, it is possible to figure out a word when pronounced from the way it is written and vice versa. The signs in a syllable writing system are counted in the dozens and not in the thousands which makes such a system less cumbersome than a word-writing system. The Kana syllabaries of Japanese

are another good example of a syllabic writing system. In Japanese, a syllable consists either of a vowel sound or of a consonant plus a vowel. The word 'ame' for instance, consists of the syllables a- plus -me. Okolo & Ezikeojiaku (1999: 201-202).

Alpha-syllabic writing system which is also known as the alpha-syllabary writing system is one in which successive characters sometimes represent a single consonant or vowel, as in an alphabet, and sometimes a syllable, as in a syllabary. This type is characteristic of systems in or derived from India, such as Devangari (Matthews 1997:15). Alpha-syllabic writing presents a special case as it shares the properties of alphabetic and syllabic writing systems. Reading in the alphasyllabary writing system is similar to reading in other writing systems, requiring the engagement of phonological processing and the broader language system. Nag, Caravolas & Snowling (2011:6). Also, alphasyllabaries rather distinguish themselves from alphabets and align with the logographs in terms of the longer learning phases that are required for the complete acquisition of the symbol set. Nag (2007:7)

A mixed writing system entails the use combination of a number of several writing systems. English uses mainly the alphabetic system and equally uses logographs. Japanese is a good example of a language where different writing systems can be mixed to form a more or less sensible and cohesive whole, although its complexities make it a challenge to learn. There are basically four writing system in Japanese: Kanji is logographic, Hiragana and Katakana are syllabic and Romaji is alphabetic Okolo & Ezikeojiaku (1999: 203).

2.1.3 Orthography

It is pointed out in Williamson (1984:1) that “in developing a written form of a language, our aim should be to make the written form agree with the spoken form if this is done we should be able to read the language just as easily as we can understand people speaking it.” This therefore implies that for every phonemic sound in a language, there must be a corresponding orthographic symbol.

Agheyisi (1987:15) view of a successful use of any indigenous language for academic, governmental or economic purposes is that such language must have an adequate and acceptable orthographic system which encompasses the writing system for any language concerned along with its norms and conventions. The second view is that a well-planned corrected orthography promotes literacy among the speakers. Thus, the development of orthography along with language correction are usually the first steps towards promoting literacy in the language as well as to bring the language concerned to meet the communication needs of a multi-lingual society. Similarly Swadish (1941), stated that “a phonemic orthography provides the most adequate, economical and effective method of writing a language. Furthermore, Bamgbose (1965:1) states that “... a good orthography should represent all and only significant sounds in a language”. This therefore implies that the orthography is devised to represent the full meaning in a language, that is, to remove any ambiguity in spelling which also suggest that only the significant sounds are capable of distinguishing meaning in a good orthography. Williamson (1984) is of the view that “a good

orthography must contain symbols familiar to the speakers of a language in question. By this she means that, this will reduce the possibilities of controversy. Orthographic systems can therefore be contrasted with pictographic systems. Pictures and many signs (e.g., a picture of a dog, an arrow sign) represent meaning directly and are characterized by non-arbitrary relations between graphic sign and transcribed meaning. Although in every written language the graphic signs represent phonological units, the manner in which orthographies represent their spoken language depends on the characteristics of each language. Writing systems can be distinguished by the size of the linguistic units that the orthographic units transcribe: phonemes, as in English; syllables (moras), as in Japanese Kana; or morpho-syllables, as in Chinese characters (Frost 2004:274).

2.2 Previous Studies

2.2.1 Edo orthography

The genesis of Edo orthography lies around 1900AD after the British established their colonial administration in Benin. The Christian Missionaries (SMC) established schools and churches in order to transfer

knowledge and communicate their new (Christian) religion. They modified the Latin alphabet and phonetic symbols, which they used to translate the English catechism and Bibles to Edo language so as to be able to teach in schools and preach the gospel in churches. Currently, the Edo orthography consist of twenty-two (22) letters of Latin alphabet a, b, d, e, ẹ, f, g, h, I, k, l, m, n, o, ọ, p, r, s, t, u, v, w, y, z.

Phonetically [p], [b], [f], [v], [t], [d], [s], [z], [ɔ̃], [r], [r], [k], [g], [w], [l], [j], [m], [n], and [h] are consonant oral sounds. Two of the vowel sounds represented as [ɛ], and [ɔ] are represented orthographically as ẹ and ọ (with sub dots) while [ĩ̃], [ẽ̃], [ã̃], [ũ̃], [õ̃], are inherent nasal vowels represented with diagraph orthography to differentiate them from the oral sound or the monograph orthography. Thus, an, en, in, un, on, representing [ĩ̃], [ẽ̃], [ã̃], [ũ̃], [õ̃] respectively.

On the other hand, digraphs are also used to represent eight out of twenty-two oral consonant kp,gb, kh, gh, rh, rr, and vb, and one nasal digraph mw which are represented phonetically as [kp], [gb],[x], [ɣ], [r], [r], [β] and [m] according to Omozuwa (2003:314).

From the above illustration, Edo orthography has only two nasal consonants [m] and [n] which was adopted from the Latin's sound symbols. But Omozuwa (2003) observes that there are other nasal consonants that are not represented orthographically. He observes that [ɲw] and [ɲ] is phonetically present in Edo language but it is not represented orthographically.

However, all sounds put together amount to thirty-five (35) plus two (ny [ɲ] and nw [ɲw]) unrepresented nasal consonant. Edo language is made up of thirty-seven sounds.

Seven vowels: [i], [e], [ɛ], [a], [o], [ɔ], [u]

Five nasal vowels: [ĩ̃], [ẽ̃], [ã̃], [ũ̃], [õ̃]

Twenty-two oral consonants: [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [kp], [gb], [f], [v], [s], [z], [ɸ], [r], [r], [i], [j], [w], [x], [ɣ], [β], and [h].

Five nasal consonants: [m], [ɲ], [n], [ɲw], [ɲ] these sounds are represented orthographically by thirty four letters/ group of letters are added: a, b, d, e, ẹ, f, g, gb, gh, h, l, k, kh, kp, l, m, mw, n, nw, ny, o, ọ, p, r, rh, rr, s, t, u, v, vb, w, y, z.

2.2.2 Igbo orthography

The earliest written form of the language was in 1861 (Oraka, 1983:25), when J.F. Schon, a Christian missionary adopted the Lepsius orthography of 1854 writing his *Oku Ibo:Grammatical Elements of the Ibo language*. The Church Mission Society (C.M.S) published *An Ibo primer*, written by a catechist, F.W. Smart in 1870. According to Oraka (1983), by 1883 about 50 books including the bible has been published in Igbo, all of them based on the Lepsius orthography. However, by 1929, the Lepsius orthography was abandoned for the Africa orthography designed by the International Institute of African Languages and Culture (IIALC). This was because of the enactment of a decree by the colonial authorities which adopted the Africa orthography. This led to the now famous great Igbo orthography controversy that lasted for 32 years. This period was a setback for the development of a standard Igbo orthography. The resolution of this controversy came about in 1961, when the then Eastern Nigerian Government adopted a standard orthography, popularly known as the Ọnwu orthography. This orthography is made up of the following 36 graphemes <a,

b, ch, d, e, f, g, gb, gh, gw, h, I, i, j, k, kp, kw, l, m, n, nw, ny, o, p, r, s, sh, t, u, u, v, w, y, z>. There are 8 vowels in the Igbo and 9 of the consonants are digraphs. They are ch, gb, gh, gw, kp, kw, nw, ny, sh. The rest of them are monographs. Emenanjo (1996) discloses that the consonants <sh> and <v> are not 'freely found in words like others'. They are mostly found in dialect words. Agbo (2013:117)

2.2.3 Ika orthography

According to Aliemeke (2007) the recognition of a language is one of the most important pre-requisites for a successful orthographic reform as well as the development and planning of a language for academic purposes. Ika is a boarder language between Igbo and Edo, so it makes it unique as most of her sounds are as a result of the influence of these languages on her. Every language orthographic symbols was lifted from the International phonetic association (IPA) chart. Ika orthography proposed by Aliemeke (2007) are as follows; a, b, ch, d, e, e, f, g, gb, gh, gw, h, I, i, j, k, kp, kh, kw, l, m, n, n, ny, nw, o, o, o, rr, r, s, sh, t, u, u, v, w, y, z.

As noted by Williamson (1984:10) “that other things being equal, an orthography should be familiar as possible in appearance”. In agreement with this principle, Bamgbose (1965:6) says “a possible spelling reform must make a few changes as possible (otherwise nobody would accept it)”. The same aspect is expressed at length by Pike (1947:211) “a practical orthography should be acceptable to the people of the region where it is to be introduced. In line with these principles, the sounds are all familiar with the Ika people as it is perceived and realized in their speech. The fact that a sound is present in the average speaker’s speech and can easily be pronounced in isolation qualifies such a sound as distinctive sounds in the language. Thus, all proposed sounds for Ika are all distinctive sounds in Ika language since they can be realized in the average speaker’s speech as well as being pronounced in isolation. Ika has thirty-nine sounds present in the sound system. Aliemeke (2007:59).

2.3 Concerns of the present study

This study aims to employ relevant data to show that Igbo sound system and orthography which is presently being used to write and

transcribe Ika language is descriptively inadequate. The concerns are: to produce a list of transcribed Ika lexical items and show how some sounds are not represented in the Igbo sound system; propose a descriptively adequate sound system for Ika i.e. consonant and vowel charts; and propose an adequate orthography for the writing of Ika. Writing can be an important factor in establishing or maintaining a dialect as a standard one. When Ika is represented properly in writing, the language is better able to serve as a model since it has greater permanence. This research is therefore relevant to Ika language studies as it makes available a reference material that captures the possible number of sounds and orthographic symbols in the Ika sound and writing inventory. The data collected for this study showed that there are some sounds present in Ika that are unaccounted for in the Igbo sound system. For instance, nasal vowels which are present in Ika are not found in the standard Igbo sound and orthographic system. As all orthographies represent spoken forms, one major determinant of orthographic systems concerns the specific ways they represent the phonological characteristics of the language.

CHAPTER THREE:

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

This chapter concerns itself with the theoretical framework which has been adopted for the present study. The framework adopted is the basic linguistic theory which is supported with Williamson's (1984) theoretical approach for orthographic studies, i.e., 'Basic Principles of a Good Orthography'. These principles have been recognized by many people in the academic circle. This chapter is divided into three sections. Section one presents a definition of theoretical framework, stating the types and relevance of frameworks. Section two discusses the theoretical framework and approach adopted for this study which is the basic linguistic theory (Dixon 1997) and principles of a good orthography (Williamson 1984). Section three presents the relevance of the frame work and approach to the present study.

3.1 The concept of theoretical frameworks in Linguistics

First, it is important to understand what a ‘framework’ is, within the context of research. Liehr and Smith (1999: 13) see a framework for research as a structure that provides “guidance for the researcher as study questions are fine-tuned, methods for measuring variables are selected and analyses are planned”. Once data are collected and analyzed, the framework is used as a mirror to check whether the findings agree with the framework or whether there are some discrepancies; where discrepancies exist, a question is asked as to whether or not the framework can be used to explain them (Imenda 2014:188). The theoretical framework of a research project relates to the philosophical basis on which the research takes place, and forms the link between the theoretical aspects and practical components of the investigation undertaken. The theoretical framework, therefore, “have implications for every decision made in the research process” Mertens (1998:3). A theoretical framework refers to the theory that a researcher chooses to guide him/her in his/her research. Thus, a theoretical framework is the application of a theory, or a set of concepts drawn from one and the

same theory, to offer an explanation of an event, or shed some light on a particular phenomenon or research problem.

According to Crotty (1998) a theoretical framework discloses the methods, methodology, theoretical perspective (underlying philosophical assumption about the researcher's view of the human world and the social life within that world) and epistemology (the philosophical basis, nature and limits of human knowledge) underpinning the research. Theoretical frameworks provide a particular perspective through which to examine a topic. The theoretical framework provides a well-supported rationale to conduct your study, and helps the reader understand your perspective. A good theoretical framework assures the reader that the type of investigation you propose is not based solely on your personal instincts or guesses, but rather informed by established theory and empirical facts obtained from credible studies (Simon & Goes 2011:1).

Over the years, linguistic researchers (professional and amateur) have often emphasized a difference between what they characterize as descriptive from what they characterize as theoretical. Dryer (1996:1) argues that 'it is

confused to talk about theory and description as contrastive notions but it does make sense to talk about a contrast between description and explanation'. He further argues that there is a need for both descriptive theories and explanatory theories. Descriptive theories are also known as 'Descriptive Theoretical Frameworks' while Explanatory theories are also known as 'Explanatory Theoretical Frameworks'. The distinction between descriptive theories and explanatory theories is not widely recognized in linguistics. The terms 'Theoretical frameworks' and 'Descriptive frameworks' are limited in scope and do not capture the essence of a linguistic work. What should be referred to as stated above should be 'Descriptive theoretical frameworks' or 'Descriptive theories' and 'Explanatory theoretical frameworks' or 'Explanatory theories'. The Structuralist analysis of linguistic phenomenon is a descriptive theoretical framework while the Generative analysis of language is an explanatory theoretical framework. The descriptive theoretical framework analyzes language by collecting data and describing the nature of the data using simplistic terms mostly from traditional grammar, typology and sometimes

from explanatory theories like Generative Grammar. The descriptive theoretical framework does not employ formal signs and notations, there is a serious and conscious downplay on technical terminologies because the descriptive theoretical framework is employed to document and describe language. Explanatory theoretical frameworks on the other hand are formal and explanatory and they require a special training in order to understand the technical lexical items used. An explanatory theoretical framework is more rigorous and notationally scientific in nature. It is mainly used to analyze data that has passed through descriptive theoretical analysis (Dryer 1996:1-3). Since this project adopts a descriptive approach, the section that follows discusses the tenets of a descriptive researches based on a descriptive theoretical framework.

Descriptive theories (or theoretical frameworks) are theories about what languages are like. They are theories about what tools we need in order to provide adequate descriptions of individual languages. Much of the work that is labeled ‘descriptive’ within linguistics comprises two activities, i.e. the collection of primary data and a (low-level) analysis of these data.

According to Himmelmann (1995:1), ‘much of the work that is labeled ‘descriptive’ within linguistics comprises two activities i.e. the collection of primary data and an analysis of these data.’ Originally, the term descriptive was coined to express the distinction between historical or comparative linguistics, which dominated much of 19th century linguistics, and the emerging Structuralist paradigm with its emphasis on the notion of a synchronic system. Structuralist linguistics was also eager to emphasize the impartial and ‘objective’ nature of its approach to language, refraining from taking a stand in matters of linguistic style and ‘good usage’. Descriptive is thus also opposed to the tradition of prescriptive grammars and dictionaries which emerged during the formative period of the modern national languages in Europe. It was only in the sixties, during the rise of generative grammar, that descriptive was used in a third contrast pair, i.e. in contrast to generative, explanatory, or formal, the characterizing attributes of the Chomskyan enterprise. The label descriptive was applied primarily to the work of Bloomfield and his followers, but the term was then later also extended to cover any non-historical, non-prescriptive work outside the

generative paradigm. By way of this extension, the term descriptive has come to be associated with the concept of a generally informal statement of the 'facts' of a given language. The concept of descriptive analysis (in any of the three senses) is, in principle, applicable to any set of data, provided that these data represent the actual usage at a given time in a given speech community. The important point to be noted here is that the descriptive approach is not restricted to little-known languages nor is such languages its central concern. Its central concern is the synchronic, non-prescriptive statement of the system of a given language. The fact that descriptive linguistics is currently closely associated with work on little known languages is primarily due to the following two factors: First, descriptive techniques have been found highly useful and effective when working on little-known languages. Consequently, most work done on these languages is done within the descriptive framework. This, however, does not mean that the descriptive approach is the only approach possible when working on little-known languages. Because of the association of descriptive linguistics with work on little-known languages, descriptive linguistics is also deemed

to be competent for, and ‘in charge of’, the data collection and handling procedures necessary when working on little-known languages. A further extension of this view, then, leads to the widespread belief, that ‘describing a language’ is — in the case of previously unrecorded languages — more or less synonymous with ‘documenting a language’. (Himmelmann 1995:2-4).

According to Evans and Dench (2006:3), “The job of a descriptive linguist is to describe individual languages as perceptively and rigorously as possible, with maximal accountability to a naturalistic corpus of data ideally collected within a broad program of language documentation [...] to ensure that the full spectrum of language structures are represented.” Lehmann’s (1999:10) defines language description as ‘an activity (and derivatively, its result), that formulates, in the most general way possible, the patterns underlying the linguistic data. Its purpose is to make the user of the description understand the way the language works. Elsewhere, Lehmann (1999:4–5) argues that descriptions should aim at three things: (1) essential completeness, (2) intelligibility, and (3) adequacy. “Essential completeness” does not mean that every detail is covered, but rather that all the main

features of phonology, morphology, and syntax are covered, and that there is a dictionary and texts as well. “Intelligibility” implies that the description must be comprehensible to anyone with training in linguistics. Lehmann (1999:4–5) points out that transformational generative grammars written in the sixties are not good models, because they are no longer intelligible. Another matter of intelligibility is the avoidance of idiosyncratic terminology (Lehmann 1999:5, Mosel 2006:51). Idiosyncratic terminology became quite unwieldy in formal linguistics, particularly in later transformational-generative, minimalist, and optimality frameworks. “Adequacy” of course would include what Chomsky (1965) has called observational adequacy and descriptive adequacy, but for Lehmann (1999:5) it also means that the grammar should be written in such a general way as to be typologically comparable but at the same time it should be specific enough “so that the uniqueness of the language is brought out”.

3.2 Relevance of theoretical frameworks

Theoretical frameworks provide the organization for the study and they guide the researcher in the interpretations of the results. The importance

of the theory is dependent on the degree of research-based evidence and level of its theory development. While the words are used interchangeably in the literature, a theoretical framework provides a broad explanation of relationships that exist between concepts.

The theoretical framework provides a well-supported rationale to conduct your study, and helps the reader understand your perspective. A good theoretical framework assures the reader that the type of investigation you proposed is not based solely on your personal instincts or guesses, but rather informed by established theory and empirical facts obtained from credible studies. (Simon & Goes 2011:1). Maxwell (2005) says that your theoretical framework should serve two purposes:

1. shows how your research fits into what is already known (relationship to existing theory and research).
2. shows how your research makes a contribution on the topic to the field (its Intellectual goals). It also informs your research questions and methodology and helps you justify your research problem (shows why your research is important).

3.3 Theoretical Framework and approach adopted for the present study

3.3.1 The Basic Linguistic Theory

Dryer (2006:3) argues that ‘.... A single descriptive theoretical framework has emerged as the dominant theory assumed in descriptive grammars. Dixon (1997) refers to this theoretical framework as “basic linguistic theory.” Basic linguistic theory differs most sharply from other contemporary theoretical frameworks in what might be described as its conservativeness: unlike many theoretical frameworks that assume previous ideas only to a limited extent and freely assume many novel concepts, basic linguistic theory takes as much as possible from earlier traditions and only as much as necessary from new traditions. It can thus be roughly described as traditional grammar, minus its bad features (such as a tendency to describe all languages in terms of concepts motivated for European languages), plus necessary concepts absent from traditional grammar. It has supplemented traditional grammar with a variety of ideas from structuralism, generative grammar (especially pre-1975 generative grammar and relational grammar), and typology. Basic linguistic theory differs from traditional grammar most

strikingly in its attempt to describe each language in its own terms, rather than trying to force the language into a model based on European languages. Conversely, the attempt to describe each language in its own terms reflects the major contribution of structuralism to basic linguistic theory. Another example of a major contribution of structuralism to basic linguistic theory is the notion of the phoneme. Various concepts from generative grammar, such as secondary predication, have made their way into basic linguistic theory. Such notions as ergativity, split intransitivity, internally-headed relative clauses, and evidentiality are notions that have become central to basic linguistic theory and which are referred to frequently in descriptive grammars. Recurrent phenomena that had not been explicitly observed before continue to come up in the literature, such as the notion of mirativity (DeLancey 1997), and thus become added to the substantive concepts of basic linguistic theory. Most descriptive grammars written within the past ten or fifteen years can be described as employing basic linguistic theory as their theoretical framework. The analytical assumptions and the concepts one assumes necessarily constitute a set of theoretical assumptions. If all

work in the field shared the same set of assumptions, the notion of theory might be unnecessary, but it would still be the case that all such work would be assuming the same theoretical framework.

Dixon (2010) argues that linguists should proceed from language data to description and from the descriptions of many languages to theory – the ‘basic linguistic theory’. The theory is based on the cumulative knowledge and insights of descriptive linguists; and any new description of a previously unanalyzed language could potentially modify the theory, if some previously unidentified feature is found or if a feature is used in a previously unrecorded manner. Languages must be analyzed in their own terms; descriptive labels and terminology may be derived from the theory and applied to phenomena in the language under analysis that are sufficiently similar to those in other languages.

Basic linguistic theory is traditional grammar modified in various ways by other theoretical traditions over the years it is therefore an overall theoretical framework encompassing different points of view, and criticisms of specific practices within basic linguistic theory can often be construed as

theory-internal disagreements as easily as criticisms of basic linguistic theory itself. The improvements in basic linguistic theory over the past twenty-five years have not been prompted by specific attempts to improve it, since most linguists have failed to recognize its status as a theoretical framework. Developments have been the side effect of work in typology, and there is every reason to believe that further developments will continue in coming decades, both because of work in typology and quite possibly from new ideas from some other quarter. However, further improvements might develop if more functional, typological, or descriptive linguists recognized the status of basic linguistic theory as a theory.

The basic linguistic theory has emerged as the dominant theoretical framework for describing languages although there is a widespread failure of linguists to recognize its status as a theoretical framework. There are many ways, however, in which the field has suffered from this failure to recognize basic linguistic theory as a theoretical framework and to recognize the need for both descriptive theories and explanatory theories. Givón (2001: xv), in an apparent retreat from his position in some of his earlier work, emphasizes

the need to recognize linguistic structure independent of function; if there are functional explanations for why languages are the way they are, we need to have some way of describing the things that are being explained.

There is another negative consequence of the failure to distinguish descriptive theory from explanatory theory and to recognize basic linguistic theory as a theory. Because of the false contrast many linguists see between description and theory, and because of the higher prestige associated with what is called theory, work in basic linguistic theory is often dismissed as “merely” descriptive. Thus, if a linguist analyzes a set of data using some transient theory like Minimalism, or Optimality Theory, or Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar, the analysis will be characterized as “theoretical”, but if a linguist analyses a set of data using basic linguistic theory, the analysis will be characterized as “descriptive”. But this is simply confused. The analysis assuming basic linguistic theory is just as theoretical in the sense that it assumes a theoretical framework, just like the other analyses. And the analysis in the transient theory is also descriptive in that it provides a description of the data. Now it is true that analyses in other

theoretical frameworks often do more than describe the data, but make some additional theoretical point that the facts they are describing bear on. But this is usually because the transient theory is not only intended as a descriptive theory but as an explanatory theory as well, and the additional theoretical point being made is at least partly of significance to the explanatory goals of the theory. In addition, the theoretical point involves pointing to the need for some modification to the theory. But the analog happens with descriptions in basic linguistic theory: some theoretical significance is drawn from the facts being described. Sometimes, it points to some need to improve the tools we have for describing languages, in which it is analogous to issues arising from analyses in transient theories pointing to the need to change that theory. More commonly, however, it points to the existence of a phenomenon not previously attested. Since basic linguistic theory does not attempt to be a restrictive theory, new phenomena are often easy to describe in basic linguistic theory and do not point to a need to revise the theory, beyond the addition of new concepts. Such discoveries are of obvious theoretical significance to typological theory. It must be admitted that it is often the

case that the primary goal of work in basic linguistic theory is descriptive, without any intended theoretical significance, so that it is theoretical only in the sense that it employs a theoretical framework, namely basic linguistic theory. Furthermore, even if much work in basic linguistic theory is primarily descriptive in its purpose, these descriptions provide the major source of data for theoretical work in typology. In that sense, descriptive work in basic linguistic theory is always of theoretical significance (Dryer 1996).

3.3.2 The Principles of a Good Orthography

The attempt to produce a good orthography assumes the five basic principles of accuracy, consistency, convenience, harmonization and familiarity (Williamson, 1984:7). According to Maxwell (2005:123), “the point is not to *summarize* what has already been done in the field. Instead, it is to ground your proposed study in the relevant previous work and to give the reader a clear sense of your theoretical approach to the phenomena that you propose to study” The framework adopted is Williamson’s (1984) “Principles for developing orthographies”. This framework is more of a

descriptive framework than an explanatory theoretical framework. Hence the present research adopts a descriptive approach to the analysis of the data collected.

Williamson's (1984) principles consist of five components. They are:

- i. Accuracy
- ii. Consistency
- iii. Convenience
- iv. Harmonization
- v. Familiarity

The principle of accuracy entails that an orthographic symbol must agree with the relevant sound of the language for which it is intended. Firstly, it must have different ways to write all the different significant sounds (phonemes) of the language. This implies that if there are eight different vowel sounds (or phonemes) in the language which can make difference to the meaning of words then we need eight different letters or combination of letters with which to write them. And if the language is a tonal language (as

almost every Nigerian language is) then we need some method for indicating the tones so as to distinguish different words. This is so, because according to her, when orthography fails to produce distinct ways of writing all the different sounds of a language, the result is ambiguity. This was what led to the review of the Igbo orthography in 1961.

Secondly, Williamson states that orthography should be accurate by not using distinct letters for minor variations of sounds which cannot make differences to the meaning of words (allophones). However, the principle of accuracy is well summed up by Bamgbose (1955:1) when he states that a good orthography should represent all and only the significant sounds in the language.

Consistency according to Williamson (1984) entails an orthography employing the same letter(s) to represent a sound always whenever writing takes place. She gave two main ways in which consistency should be found in orthography.

First, as Wolf (1954:8) puts it, “consistency means that any letter or letter combination should stand for the same sound or sounds throughout the system”. Putting it the other way round, Bamgbose (1955) says that a good orthography “should have only one symbol for each significant sound”.

Secondly, orthography should divide words consistently. That is a single solid word should be written as a single solid word, not as a compound word. E.g. ‘palmnut’ instead of ‘palm nut’.

Third is convenience. Orthography as an important and sensitive aspect of any language must be convenient to use. By this Williamson meant that a good orthography should not serve as an alien to its socio-cultural setting. That is the symbols should be simplified and agreed alphabets convenient to use in writing, printing etc. Thus, if there are too many symbols in which are difficult to write or type or print, it will be too cumbersome and the native speakers will not bother to write it correctly. As such the principles of accuracy and consistency would be broken. Hence, convenience is an important principle to be considered in writing or reforming of an orthography. This is because it helps to show or rather

brings out differences between certain words in the language e.g. words written the same way in the language, the difference in such words could be shown either by the use of dots (.) under the letter for tone marks, (\) for a low tone and (/) for a high tone etc. for instance in Ika language, the word;

1. a. órimma' [órimma'] 'bad'

b. òrimma' [òrimma'] 'good'

mean different things, though spelt the same way. But by means of the tone mark, one can easily differentiate between the two identical written words.

However with the choice of symbols such as the use of [˜] diacritic, [ɣ^w] diagraph, (.) spelling rule, special symbols such as [ɓ] [d'] and [κ] used for example in Hausa orthography etc. difference between identical words in a language could be established.

The principle of harmonization is well expressed by Wolf (1954:8-9) who calls it the principle of similarity to other orthographies. In Nigeria for instance many different languages are spoken and most Nigerians speak

more than one language. It is important that each orthographies are related as much as possible. According to him, the principle of harmonization will in turn encourage Nigerians to read one another's language by writing them as far as possible in the same way.

On the contrary, if the orthographies of different languages are vastly different, the task of re-adjusting to new orthography may prove very discouraging. He went further to say "it is important, therefore, that the orthographies of Nigerian languages should diverge as little as possible". If a letter is used in one language to represent a certain sound, every effort should be made to avoid using that same letter to represent a completely different sound in another language.

By this, Kay Williamson is of the view that a good orthography must contain symbols familiar to the speakers of the language in question. This will reduce the possibilities of controversy. On the contrary, when there are too many changes, the people will refuse to accept them and the orthography will be controversial. In agreement with this principle, Bamgbose (1965:6) says "A possible spelling reform must make as few changes as possible

otherwise, nobody will accept it. The same aspect is expressed at greater length by Pike (1947:211) “A practical orthography should be acceptable to the people of a religion where it is to be introduced’. He went further to say that it is important therefore that an alphabet receives popular support and specifically some support from bilinguals. Below are choices of symbols (letters) of the Latin alphabet as stated by Williamson that can and has being applied to writing Nigerian languages:

- a. use of special symbol, often taken from the phonetic alphabet e.g. the hooked Б Б and k used in Hausa orthography.
- b. use of diacritics, that is mark placed below, above, before or after a letter e.g. ~ as used in most Kwa languages.
- c. use of digraphs or trigraphs, that is two or three letters representing one sound e.g. In Urhobo ‘ghw’ for [ɣʷ]
- d. use of a single Latin letter in an unusual value e.g. the use of ‘P’ in Yoruba for the voiceless labial velar stop.

e. use of special rule; e.g. the use of a final ‘h’ in Ogah to indicate that all the vowels in a word are narrow or dotted.

3.4 The relevance of the adopted theoretical framework and approach to the present study

We have argued that what Dixon (1997) calls “basic linguistic theory” serves as a descriptive theory which is adopted for the present study. It is posited in Dixon (1997:3) that “the basic linguistic theory differs from traditional grammar most strikingly in its attempt to describe each language in its own terms, rather than trying to force the language into a model based on European languages. Basic linguistic theory differs most sharply from other descriptive theoretical frameworks in what may be described as its conservativeness: unlike many descriptive frameworks that assume previous ideas limitedly and freely assume novel ones, basic linguistic theory borrows as much as is needed from earlier methods and as much as necessary from new(er) methods. It can therefore be argued that it is descriptively traditional grammar excluding the ‘bad features’ (such as a tendency to describe all languages in terms of concepts motivated for European languages) and

including innovative terms absent from traditional grammar. Basic linguistic theory therefore supplements its ‘traditional grammar ‘descriptivism’ (as against ‘prescriptivism’) with a variety of ideas from structuralism, generative grammar, relational grammar and typology (Dryer 2006:3).

The choice for this theory and its relevance to the present study lies in the fact that it is a flexible framework that allows the researcher to stay focused on the data at hand and keep to as much as possible traditional grammar concepts for describing linguistic data and also allows for the ‘borrowing’ of concepts from explanatory theoretical frameworks for the purpose of data analysis. The data collected for this study is analyzed by the use of traditional grammar terms such as; lexical items, sounds, phonemes among others however these are used to describe the Ika and Igbo languages not forcing some prescriptive notions on the language.

The theoretical approach adopted for this study is to explicitly describe how a good orthography can be produced, to guide the researcher in data collection, interpretation and explanation. By using these principles, a greater understanding of what orthography entails is shown. The approach is

used to test the adequacy of the Igbo orthography and sound system for writing and transcribing Ika. The principles are used to guide the presentation and analyses of the data collected as well as develop an adequate orthography and sound system for Ika language.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the data which have been collected are presented and analyzed. That data collected consisted of two hundred lexical terms which were transcribe phonemically and also represented orthographically using appropriate symbols. Thus chapter is divided into three sections. Section 4.1 entails the data presentation and analysis, while the results of the analysis are discussed in section 4.2. In section 4.3 the chapter is summarized.

4.1 Data presentation and analysis

The data collected were transcribed phonemically. The reason for employing phonemic transcription is that it presents the actual structure of the segments and supra-segments without the influence of phonological processes which are represented in phonetic transcriptions. Since the orthography used here is based on alphabets we present and analyze the data

using the following format: Oral vowels, nasal vowels, oral consonants and nasal consonants.

4.1.1 Ika Vowels

From the data collected, Ika has twelve vowels. Seven of these vowels are oral and the remaining five are nasal vowels. The Ika vowels as well as the articulatory and acoustic description of the vowels are presented in table one below:

Table 1: Ika oral and nasal vowels

S/n	vowel	Type/ Acoustic Property	Tongue Position	Lip shape	Tongue Height	Mouth
1.	/i/ 'i'	Oral/Tense	Front	Unrounded	High	Close
2.	/u/ 'u'	Oral/Tense	Back	Rounded	High	Close
3.	/ũ/ 'un'	Nasal/Tense	Back	Rounded	High	Close
4.	/e/ 'e'	Oral/Tense	Front	Unrounded	Mid high	Half close
5.	/ẽ/ 'e'	Nasal/Tense	Front	Unrounded	Mid low	Half open
6.	/o/ 'o'	Oral/Tense	Back	Rounded	Mid high	Half close

/ósúení/ ósúení ‘short’

c. /ũ/ ‘u’ /ázũ/ ázùn ‘fish’

/ókũ/ ókún ‘fire’

d. /e/ ‘e’ /íré/ írré ‘tongue’

/úfíé/ úfíé ‘yellow’

e. /o/ ‘o’ /òtítè/ òtítè ‘far’

/ólú/ ólú ‘neck’

f. /ɛ/ ‘ẹ’ /èsɔ̃/ ẹsọn ‘saliva’

/èkéré/ èkẹrẹ ‘small’

g. /ẽ/ ‘ẹn’ /ósẽ/ ósẹn ‘pepper’

/òniẽ/ ònyien ‘person’

h. /ɔ/ ‘ọ’ /òṣíṣí/ ọchíchí ‘dark’

/ópíà/ ópíà ‘cutlass’

i. /õ/ ‘on’ /íḟõ/ íḟon ‘moon’

/ésõ/ ẹsõn ‘saliva’

j. /a/ ‘a’ /èḉḉá/ ẹjá ‘sand’

/ákpúrù/ ákpúrrù seed’

k. /ã/ ‘an’ /éṙã/ ẹrràn ‘breast’

/èkúárá/ ẹkúárrán ‘egg’

The data above show the vowels in Ika and lexical items in which the vowels occur. Ika therefore has twelve vowels; seven oral and five nasal vowels. Below we present sentences in Ika to further validate the existence of the above vowels in Ika:

2. a. Nní hùn mè ẹkẹ̀rẹ̀.

Food this be-prs-sing small.

Food this is small.

‘This food is small’

- b. Ó jẹ̀n nà àfíá.
 She go-pst-sing-neg to market.
 She go not to market.
 ‘She did not go to the market.’
- c. Wẹ́hẹ́ ním ńnú.
 Bring-prs-sl me salt.
 Bring me salt.
 ‘Bring me the salt.’
- d. Ó yém éhò.
 He give-pst-sl me money.
 He gave me money.
 ‘He gave me the money.’

The above table and data examples show that Ika has eleven vowels. The vowel system of Ika is slightly different from Èdo in that Ika does not have the nasal vowel /ĩ/ which is present in Èdo. The sub-section that follows presents the consonants in Ika as well as their descriptions.

4.1.2 Ika Consonants

Relying on the data collected, the consonants in Ika are a total of twenty-six consonants. They comprise of oral and nasal consonants. Table two below presents the consonants of Ika as well as their descriptions:

Table 2: Ika oral and nasal consonants

S/n	Consonant	Place of articulation	Manner of articulation	Voicing
1.	/p/ ‘p’	Labial	Plosive/stop	Voiceless
2.	/b/ ‘b’	Labial	Plosive/stop	Voiced
3.	/m/ ‘m’	Labial	Nasal	Voiced
4.	/f/ ‘f’	Labio-dental	Fricative	Voiceless
5.	/ m / ‘m’	Labio-dental	Nasal	Voiced
6.	/t/ ‘t’	Alveolar	Plosive/stop	Voiceless
7.	/d/ ‘d’	Alveolar	Plosive/stop	Voiced
8.	/s/ ‘s’	Alveolar	Fricative	Voiceless

9.	/z/ ‘z’	Alveolar	Fricative	Voiced
10.	/h/ ‘h’	Glottal	Fricative	Voiceless
11.	/tʃ/ ‘ch’	Alveolar	Affricates	Voiceless
12.	/dʒ/ ‘j’	Alveolar	Affricates	Voiced
13.	/n/ ‘n’	Alveolar	Nasal	Voiced
14.	/r/ ‘rr’	Alveolar	Trill	Voiced
15.	/l/ ‘l’	Alveolar	Lateral	Voiced
16.	/r̥/ ‘rh’	Alveolar	Tap	Voiceless
17.	/ɲ/ ‘ny’	Palatal	Nasal	Voiced
18.	/j/ ‘y’	Palatal	Approximant	Voiced
19.	/ŋw/ ‘nw’	Labio-velar	Nasal	Voiced
20.	/k/ ‘k’	Velar	Plosive/stop	Voiceless
21.	/g/ ‘g’	Velar	Plosive/stop	Voiced

22.	/ŋ/ ‘ń’	Velar	Nasal	Voiced
23.	/w/ ‘w’	Velar	Approximant	Voiced
24.	/kp/ ‘kp’	Labio-velar	Plosive/stop	Voiceless
25.	/gb/ ‘gb’	Labio-velar	Plosive/stop	Voiced
26.	/ʃ/ ‘sh’	Palatal	Fricative	Voiceless

The table above shows the number of oral and nasal consonants in Ika. The consonants are twenty-six in number with seven places of articulation; bilabial, labio-dental, alveolar, palatal, labio-velar, velar and glottal. The places of articulation are plosive, nasal, fricative, affricate, trill, tap, lateral and approximant. Below are some lexical items in Ika where the above consonants are present:

3. a. /p/ ‘p’ /pàrí/ pàrrí ‘carry’
- b. /b/ ‘b’ /bià/ bià ‘come’
- c. /f/ ‘f’ /òfúfú/ òfúfú ‘swell’
- d. /t/ ‘t’ /òtìtè/ òtìtè ‘far’
- e. /d/ ‘d’ /èdéké/ èdéké ‘blood’

f.	/s/ ‘s’	/ísé/ ísé ‘five’
g.	/z/ ‘z’	/ùzùzù/ ùzùzù ‘dust’
h.	/h/ ‘h’	/éhìù/ éhìù ‘flow’
i.	/tʃ/ ‘ch’	/úfá/ úchá ‘white’
j.	/dʒ/ ‘j’	/édzá/ ‘sand’
k.	/r/ ‘rr’	/èrá/ èrrá ‘madness’
l.	/l/ ‘l’	/ólú/ ólú ‘neck’
m.	/r/ ‘rh’	/rà/ rhà ‘drink’
n.	/j/ ‘y’	/íjú/ íjú ‘you’
o.	/k/ ‘k’	/òkákò/ òkákò ‘dry’
p.	/g/ ‘g’	/ńgígò/ ńgígò ‘rope’
q.	/kp/ ‘kp’	/àkpù/ àkpù ‘cassava’
r.	/gb/ ‘gb’	/úgbó/ úgbó ‘farm’
s.	/ʃ/ ‘sh’	/óʃíʃí/ óshíshí ‘tree’
t.	/w/ ‘w’	/èwùrù/ èwùrù ‘dress’

The above data shows the presence of Ika oral consonants in Ika lexical items. Below are more examples this time showing the use of nasal consonants in Ika lexical items:

4. a. /m/ ‘m’ /óméní/ óméní ‘if’
- b. /m̄/ ‘m̄’ /m̄mùwé/ m̄mùwé ‘room’
- c. /n/ ‘n’ /ònù/ ònù ‘mouth’
- d. /ɲ/ ‘ny’ /éɲà/ ényà ‘eye’
- e. /ɲw/ ‘nw’ /ɲwúhù/ nwúhù ‘die’
- f. /n̄/ ‘n̄’ /ńkíté/ ńkíté ‘dog’

The essence of the present study is to evaluate the inadequacy of the Igbo sound and orthographic systems for transcribing and writing Ika. Ika is regarded as a dialect of Igbo hence teachers, writers and students of Ika tend to use the Igbo sound system and orthography for Ika. In the next section the inadequacies of the Igbo sound and orthographic systems for transcribing and writing Ika are discussed.

4.2 Interpretation of Data results

The data presented in the section above has a number of implications for the present way of transcribing and writing Ika. The implications are that there are a number of consonants and vowels in Igbo that are not present in Ika and there are also a number of consonants and vowels that are in Ika that are not present in Igbo. From the data presented, Ika has twelve vowels; seven oral vowels and five nasal vowels; /i/, /e/, /ɛ/, /a/, /u/, /o/, /ɔ/, /ẽ/, /ĩ/, /ã/, /ũ/ and /õ/. Igbo on the other hand has eight vowels. These vowels are /i/, /u/, /o/, /e/, /ɪ/, /ʊ/, /ɔ/ and /a/.

The Igbo vowel system is only able account for six out of the twelve vowels in Ika. Furthermore, Igbo does not have nasal vowels whereas Ika has five nasal vowels. The Igbo vowel system is therefore inadequate for transcribing Ika vowel sounds as shown in the following Ika data below:

The Ika consonant inventory consists of twenty-six consonants. The Igbo consonant inventory on the other hand consists of twenty-eight consonants, i.e., /b/, /tʃ/, /d/, /f/, /g/, /gb/, /y/, /g^w/, /h/, /dʒ/, /k/, /kp/, /k^w/, /l/,

/m/, /n/, /n/, /ŋw/, /ŋ/, /p/, /r/, /s/, /ʃ/, /t/, /v/, /w/, /j/ and /z/. The consonants /y/, /v/, /k^w/ and /g^w/ are not present in Ika. The consonants are not functional or significant in Ika. From the data presented and the results gotten, the Igbo vowel and consonant systems do not account for the functional and significant sounds in Ika.

Based on the interpretation of the data above, the Igbo orthography which is a direct result of Igbo sound system is therefore inadequate for writing Ika. The inadequacy is more pronounced for the vowel systems than for the consonant system. Below is a table that presents the inadequacy of the Igbo sound system and orthography for transcribing and writing Ika:

Table 3: The inadequacies of Igbo sound system for transcribing Ika

S/N	Concepts (English)	Translation to Ika using Igbo sounds and orthography	Inadequacies of the Igbo sounds and orthography for transcribing and writing Ika
1.	Hand	/ʔká/ ‘ʔka’	The Ika word for ‘hand’ is transcribed as /éka/ ‘ẹka’. /ɛ/ is not present in the Igbo sound system

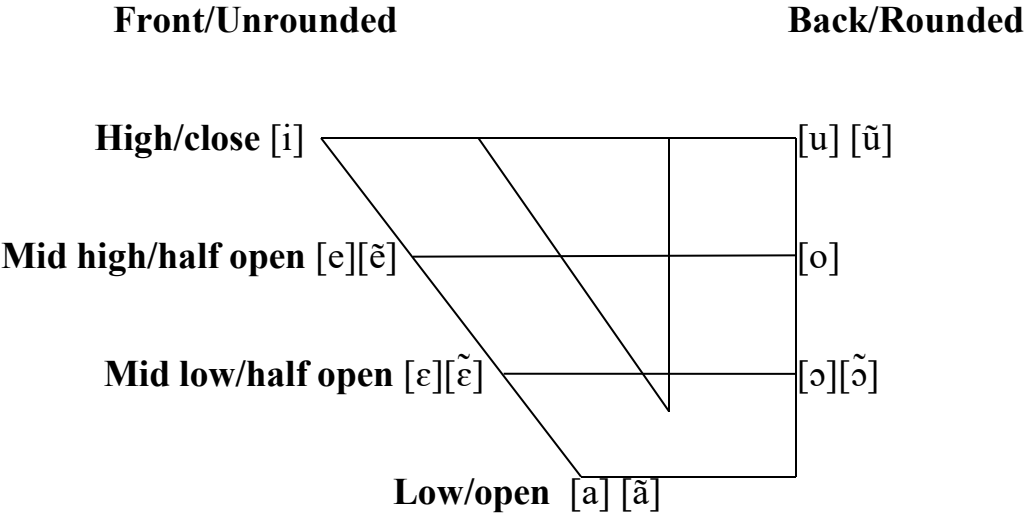
2.	Breast	/ʔrʔ/ ‘ʔrʔ’	The Ika word for ‘breast’ is transcribed as /éṙǎ/ ‘éṙrán’. /ɛ/ and /ã/ are not present in the Igbo sound system.
3.	Here	/ʔbʔ/ ‘ʔbʔ’	The Ika word for ‘here’ is transcribed as /éḃě/ ‘éḃèṅ’. /ɛ/ and /ě/ are not present in the Igbo sound system.
4.	Saliva	/ʔsʔ/ ‘ʔsʔ’	The Ika word for ‘saliva’ is transcribed as /ésǔ/ ‘ésòṅ’. /ɛ/ and /ǔ/ are not present in the Igbo sound system.
5.	Fire	/ǒkʔ/ ‘ǒkʔ’	The Ika word for fire is transcribed as /òkũ/ ‘òkùn’. /ũ/ is not present in the Igbo sound system.
6.	Buttocks	/ikʔ/ ‘ikʔ’	The Ika word for ‘buttocks’ is transcribed as /ikě/ ‘íkèṅ’. /ě/ is not present in the Igbo sound system.
7.	Sleep	/ʔahi/ ‘ʔahi’	The Ika word for ‘sleep’ is transcribed as /rǎhí/ ‘rhàhí’. /r/ is not present in Igbo sound system.

The positions filled with the question mark sign indicates that the sound or letter is not present in Igbo but functional in Ika. Furthermore there are a number of consonants in Igbo that are not functional in Ika. They include /k^w/ ‘kw’, /g^w/ ‘gw’, /v/ ‘v’, /ɣ/ ‘gh’, among others. For the vowels, Ika does not exhibit vowel harmony like Igbo. Hence the lax vowels /ɪ/ ‘i’ and /ʊ/ ‘u’ are not functional in Ika.

The Igbo sound system and orthography are therefore inadequate for transcribing and writing Ika. The Igbo orthography used for writing Ika violates the principles of a good orthography (Williamson 1984). The Igbo orthography is inaccurate for writing Ika because some letters that are functional in Ika are not present in the Igbo orthography, e.g., an, ɔn, ɛn, un, ɛ, rh and rr. These inadequacies make the Igbo orthography to be inconvenient for writing Ika. The sounds on the other are not consistent and in harmony with the Igbo language. Although Ika people may be familiar with the Igbo orthography because that is what is being used, this does not in any way make the Igbo sound system and orthography adequate for the transcription and writing of Ika.

This project will not be complete without proposing a sound system and orthography for Ika. Figure four and five below present the vowel and consonant systems of Ika.

Figure 4: Ika vowel system



Ika Oral and Nasal Vowels’ System

The above vowel chart outlines the vowels that are present in Ika. The vowels are twelve in number and they consist of both oral and nasal vowels.

Figure five below presents the consonant chat of Ika.

Figure 5: Ika consonant system

	Labial	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Labio-velar	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b		t d				
Fricative		f	s z				h
Affricate			tʃ dʒ				
Nasal	m		n	ɲ	ŋw	ŋ	
Trill			r				
Tap			ɾ				
Lateral			l				
Approximant				j		w	
VOICING	v1 vd	v1 vd	v1 vd	v1 vd	v1 vd	v1 vd	v1 vd

Ika Oral and Nasal Consonants' System

The above chart captures the consonant inventory of Ika. The consonants are produced in eight places of articulation and manners of articulation. Most of the sounds are minimal pairs only distinguished by the voicing while the

others like the nasal sounds are inherently voiced sounds. An Ika orthography based on the analysis of the data collected is presented below:

The Ika Orthography.

A	AN	B	CH	D	E	Ě	ĚN	F	G	GB	H
I	IN	J	K	KP	L	M	́M	N	́N	NY	NW
O	Ọ	ỌN	P	RH	RR	S	SH	T	U	UN	W
Y	Z										
an	b	ch	d	e	ẹ	ẹn	f	g	gb	h	i
in	j	k	kp	l	m	́m	n	́n	ny	nw	o
ọ	ọn	p	rh	rr	s	sh	t	u	un	w	y
z											

For the orthography proposed for writing Ika, we have made some modifications for the ease of writing. These are the transcription and writing of the syllabic nasals as /m/ ‘m’ and /n/ ‘n’. Also we have proposed that the

trill /r/ be written as ‘rr’ so that the orthography can be in harmony with other orthographies like the Edo orthography.

4.3 Summary

This chapter examined the inadequacies of the Igbo sound system and orthography for transcribing and writing Ika. The functional sounds in the Ika collected were first brought out after which the words and sentences in which they are found in Ika were also shown. The sound system of Igbo was then checked to see to what extent the sound system and orthography of Igbo captured the sounds and letters in Ika. The results gotten revealed that there were sounds in Igbo that were not functional in Ika and there were also sounds in Ika that were not functional in Igbo. Based on the results gotten, a sound system as well as its corresponding orthography was proposed for the purpose of adequately transcribing and writing Ika.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

The present chapter entails the summary of the study's findings as well as its conclusion. The summary of the findings entail what was found out in the course of the research which also serve as the study's contribution to knowledge. The conclusion presents our personal view on the need for an Ika based orthography and sound system for writing and transcribing Ika.

5.1 Summary of findings

In the course of our study, we discovered firstly that the current Ika orthography which is based on the Igbo sound system has 36 sounds as against the 38 sounds present in the Ika sound system. In other words, there are sounds in Ika that are not adequately represented in the Igbo sound system and orthography such as /ũ̃ / close back rounded nasal vowel, /ẽ̃ / half open front unrounded nasal vowel, /õ̃/ half open back rounded nasal vowel, /ã̃ / open central unrounded nasal vowel, /m̃/ voiced labio-dental

nasal, /r̥/ voiceless alveolar tap. For the orthography proposed for writing Ika, we have made some modifications for the ease of writing. These are the transcription and writing of the syllabic nasals as /m̥/ ‘m̥’ and /n̥/ ‘n̥’. Also we have proposed that the trill /r/ be written as ‘rr’ so that the orthography can be in harmony with other orthographies like the Edo orthography.

Similarly, we discovered that Ika is a boarder language, and thus, most of her lexical items are a combination of both Edo and Igbo languages, although Ika is closer to Igbo as regards the number of phonemes which is more of Igbo phonemic inventory.

It was equally noted, that for a language to have an appropriate system, that will be convenient, accurate and consistent, the sound system in the language must be studied properly before creating a written form for such language i.e. the spoken form of the language should be properly studied in order to get the accurate data for proposing a good orthography. Nearly every Nigerian language have one or more sounds lifted from another sound system as evidenced in our proposed sound system and orthography for Ika which compliments the principle of harmonization.

5.2 Conclusion

This study has attempted to show the inadequacies in the current Ika sound system and orthography, as well as suggesting some meaningful proposals to correct the inadequacies. Also in this study, we proposed a linguistic classification of Ika stating that Ika should be classified under the ‘EGBOID’ language group, this view is maintained because Ika is a language that combines Igbo and Edo at all levels of basic linguistics. Accordingly, the basic linguistic theory (Dixon 1997) and principles of a good orthography (Williamson 1984) which include;

Accuracy

Consistency

Convenience

Harmonization and,

Familiarity

An important achievement of this study is the proposal of a writing system and orthography for Ika language, and also the proposed linguistic classification of Ika. This has been shown to prove that Ika is not a dialect of Igbo, but a language itself. Finally, we have been able to show that accurate writing system is one of the most important prerequisite for a successful use of indigenous as a vehicle for education in modern times.

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APPENDIX

English	Ika	phonemes
I	Me	/Mé/
You	Iyu	/Iju/
We	Enyi	/ÈɲÍ/
This	Wun	/hũ/
That	Nwahu	/ɲáhÛ/
Who	Ony	/Òɲè/
What	Kini	/kÍnÌ/
Not	Eliya	/èlÍjà/
All	Welecha	/wèlétjà/
Many	Welee	/wèlé/
One	Ohu	/ÒhÛ/
Two	Ebuo	/ébuo/
Big	Ohike	/ÒhÍkè/
Long	Osusue	/Òsusué/
Small	Ekere	/èkèrè/
Woman	Okpohoba	/ÒkpÒhòbà/
Man	Okehen	/Òkèhè/
Person	Onyien	/Òɲè/
Fish	Azun	/ázÛ/

Bird	Nnunu	/ɲ̀nũ̀nu/
Dog	Nkite	/ɲ̀kíté/
Lice	Izu	/Ízu/
Tree	Oshishi	/Òʃíʃí/
Seed	Akpuru	/ákpùrù/
Leaf	Ekwukwo	/ékwukwɔ/
Root	Ekwara – oshishi	/ékwàràÒʃíʃí/
Bark	Azu-osshishi	/ázùÒʃíʃí/
Skin	Akpukpo-ehu	/ákpùkpoéhu/
Flesh	Uru-ehu	/Ùrùéhu/
Blood	Edeke	/Edéké/
Bone	Okpukpu	/ɔkpùkpu/
Cat	Nwonyia	/ɲ̀wɔɲ̀la/
Egg	Ekwaran	/ékwárã/
Horn	Mpi	/mpì/
Tail	Odudu	/ɔdùdù/
Feather	Ugbele	/Úgbélé/
Hair	Ntutu	/ɲ̀tútú/
Head	Ishi	/Íʃí/
Ear	Nti	/ɲ̀tí/
Eye	Enya	/éɲ̀á/
Nose	Imi	/Ímí/

Mouth	Onu	/ɔnú/
Tooth	Akpaeze	/Ákpáézé/
Tongue	Ire	/Íré/
Claw	Mbo	/mbɔ/
Foot	Ukwu	/Ùkwù/
Knee	Mkpu-ukwu	/mkpukwu/
Hand	Eka	/Eká/
Belly	Efo	/éfo/
Neck	Olu	/Òhɹu/
Breast	Eran	/Erã/
Heart	Akpobi	/ákpóbí/
Liver	Omeji	/Òméǝǝ/
Drink	Ra	/rá/
Eat	Ri	/rí/
Bite	Ta	/tá/
See	Hu	/Hú/
Madness	Erra	/Erá/
Know	Mmari	/m̩màrí/
Sleep	Rhahi	/r̩hí/
Die	Nwuhu	/ŋwhu/
Kill	Gbu	/gbú/
Swim	Gwu	/gwu/

Fly	Fe	/fɛ́/
Go	Je	/dʒé/
Come	Bia	/bɪ́á/
Lie	Ashi	/áʃɪ́/
Sit	Nodi	/nɔ́dɪ́/
Stand	Wuzo	/wúzó/
Giwe	Ye	/Jé/
Say	Ku	/Kú/
Sun	Enyanwu	/éɲáɲwú/
Moon	Ifon	/Ífɔ́/
Star	Kokoisha	/kókóÍʃá/
Water	Miri	/mírɪ́/
Rain	Miriezeni	/mírɪ́ézénɪ́/
Stone	Omuma	/ɔ́mú má/
Sand	Eja	/édʒá/
Earth	Uwa	/Úwá/
Plantain	Ogede	/ɔ́gédé/
Smoke	Ewuru	/èwùrù/
Fire	Okun	/ɔ́kú/
Ash	Ntu	/ɒtù/
Burn	Duokun	/dúɔ́kú/
Path	Ekere-uzo	/ékéréùzɔ́/

Grown	Ewuruikpoho	/éwúríkphòhò/
Red	Ododo	/Òdódó/
Fowl	Okwukwu	/òkwúkú/
Yellow	Ufie	/ùfíe/
White	Ucha	/ùtjá/
Black	Nji	/ɲdʒí/
Night	Uchichi	/ùtʃítʃí/
Hot	Nuoku	/nuókú/
Cold	Oyi	/òjí/
Full	Oju	/òdʒú/
New	Ohuu	/òhú/
Good	Orimma	/orímá/
Round	Okiriokiri	ókíríókírí
Dry	Okako	/òkákò/
Name	Efa	/éfá/
Stone	Ewuruikehe	/éwúríkéhé/
Pomade	Uden	/úde/
They	Wee	/wé/
How	Nani	/nání/
When	Eleoge	/éleògé/
Where	Elebe	/élebé/
Here	Eben	/ébé/

There	Eto	/ébéàhɿʃ/
Other	Ndihobo	/ndíhɔbɔ/
Three	Eto	/étɔ/
Four	Eno	/éno/
Five	Ise	/Ísé/
Few	Ehikemiwe	/éhikéhiwé/
Sky	Igwere	/Ígwéré/
Day	Uwosi	/ùwɔsɪ/
Frog	Ewo	/éwɔ/
Wind	Ikuku	/Íkúkú/
Flow	Ehiu	/éhiù/
Sea	Iyihini	/ÍjÍhÍnÍ/
Cassava	Akpu	/Àkpú/
Farm	Ugbo	/Úgbó/
Basket	Ukpali	/úkpálí/
Wash	Su	/Sú/
Snake	Agwo	/ágwɔ/
Worm	Okpo	/Okpó/
Back	Azu	/Ázù/
Leg	Ukwu	/Úkwù/
Arm	Eka	/éká/
Wing	Ekakankwu	/ékákákwù/

Lip	Mgbiringbaonu	/mgbírímgbaonù/
Fur	Enere	/énéré/
Navel	Otume	/òtúmé/
Guts	Mbaran	/Mbàrà/
Saliva	Eson	/ésò/
Milk	Eranefi	/érãéfi/
Fruit	Akpuruoshi	/ákpúrũfòfí/
Flower	Flawa	/fláwá/
Grass	Irurue	/Írúrwé/
Room	Mmuwe	/m̩m̩fwè/
In	Ime	/Ímé/
Ant	Ekpisi	/ékpìsì/
If	Omemi	/oméni/
Mother	Nne	/n̩n̩è/
Father	Nnedi	/n̩n̩èdí/
Husband	Di	/Dí/
Wife	Nwunye	/n̩wun̩yè/
Salt	Nnu	/n̩n̩ù/
Dew	Igirigi	/Ígírígí/
Cutlass	Opia	/opíá/
Knife	Ebeke	/ébéké/
Child	Nwa	/Dwá/

Dark	Ochchi	/ɔtʃítʃí/
Cut	Bee	/bé/
Wide	Shapu	/ʃápù/
Box	Ekpeti	/ékpétí/
Far	Otite	/Òtítè/
Near	Nochime	/nɔtʃímé/
Chair	Oche	/òtʃé/
Shoe	Akpukwu	/àkpúkù/
Short	Osueni	/òsùɛní/
Heavy	Onyierua	/ɔníérùà/
Slap	Ora	/ɔrà/
Sharp	Osha	/ɔʃá/
Dirty	Unyi	/únyí/
Bad	Orimma	/ɔrímmá/
Rotten	Rehi	/réhí/
Rice	Osikapa	/Òsíkápá/
Straight	Ozirieziri	/Òdʒíríédʒírí/
Bamboo	Otosi	/ɔtɔsí/
Left	Ekaekpe	/ékáèkpè/
Right	Ekanni	/ékáñí/
Old	Egedi	/égédí/
Bag	Ekpa	/ékpá/

Pull	Ihuepu	/ihuépù/
Push	Nnunu	/ɲnùnù/
Throw	Ma	/má/
Hit	Ku	/Kú/
Kitchen	Ukolu	/ùkÓlù/
Plate	Afere	/àféré/
Dig	Gu	/gù/
Tie	Keme	/kémé/
Sew	Kwa	/Kwà/
Fall	Da	/dà/
Swell	Ofufu	/Ófúfú/
Think	Iroro	/ÍrÓrÓ/
Sing	Bu	/bù/
Smell	Ishi	/ÍʃÍ/
Key	Ugodi	/ùgÓdí/
Suck	Mi	/mÍ/
Blow	Ikpa	/Íkpà/
Fear	Egwu	/égwú/
Squeeze	Magbu	/Mágbú/
Hold	Kwuodo	/kwɔɔ/
Down	Ali	/Àlì/
Up	Elu	/éLú/

Ripe	Ochacha	/ɔtʃátʃá/
Dust	Uzuzu	/Úzúzú/
Alive	Orindu	/ɔrÍŋdú/
Rope	Eriiri	/éiriiri/
Year	Ahua	/Àhuà/