KENYANG ORTHOGRAPHY GUIDE

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Abbreviations

ADJ	Adjective
COND	Conditional
COP	Copula
EX	Exclamation
F1	Future (certain)
F2	Future (uncertain)
FOC	Focus
HAB	Habitual
HORT	Hortative
IMP	Imperative
N	Noun
NEG	Negation
NP	Noun Phrase
P	Past Tense
P1	Recent Past
P2	Far Past
PROG	Progressive
REL	Relative Clause
1S	First Person Singular
2S	Second Person Singular
3S	Third Person Singular
1P	First Person Plural
2P	Second Person Plural
3P	Third person Plural

TABLE OF CONTENTS

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1. Introduction

The present work describes the orthography of Kenyang, a Bantoid language spoken in the Manyu and Meme Divisions of the South-West Province, Republic of Cameroon. Kenyang has three main dialects: Upper Kenyang, Lower Kenyang and Kitwii. Upper Kenyang and Lower Kenyang are situated in Manyu Division, and Kitwii in Meme Division.

Ittmann (1935/36) published the first research work in Kenyang, producing a grammar and a collection of folktales and proverbs. In 1983, Tyhurst carried out a sociolinguistic study of Kenyang and Denya and analysed the phonology of Kenyang. Mbuagbaw and Punches (1990) proposed the first tentative Kenyang alphabet and orthography. The use of these materials over time by Kenyang speakers showed that there were certain inadequacies in the orthography and certain revisions were needed. In 1996 the SIL Linguistics Department, together with speakers trained in reading and writing Kenyang, carried out research on the Kenyang tone system. From a linguistic point of view, some of the problems presented by the Kenyang speakers were quite interesting. The orthography problems were in two areas: First, there was the problem of marking tone, which the Kenyang speakers found difficult. Secondly, there were problems concerning how best to represent certain word configurations. Kenyang litearacy students felt that there were too many tone marks to learn and so their teachers requested a reduction in the number of tones that the students had to learn to read. The teachers wanted only two tone marks, namely the high and rising ones. These tones, according to the teachers, could easily be identified by the students. Faced with this situation, Chris Jackson, Larry Seguin, and I investigated the situation and concluded that the orthography did need revision.

2. Alphabet

The Kenyang segmental alphabet is made up of twenty one consonants and nine vowels. They are represented in upper and lower cases:

A a, B b, Bh bh, Ch ch, D d, E e, Ɛ ɛ, F f, G g, Gb gb, Gh gh, I i, Ɨ ɨ, J j, K k, Kp kp, Mm, N n, Ŋ ŋ, Ny ny, O o, Ɔ ɔ, P p, R r, S s, T t, U u, Ʉ ʉ, W w, Y y.

2.1 Consonants

The consonant phonemes and their allophones are presented in Table I. An attempt is also made to show their use in various positions in the morpheme (a morpheme is the minimal distinctive unit of grammar). The consonants in Kenyang are as follows:

Phoneme	Allophone	Grapheme	Initial position	Medial position	Final position
/p/	[p]	P p	purí push (v)	sɛpʉ camwood	sɛp descend (v)
/b/	[b]	B b	bú cure (v)	nɛbu sky	___
/β/	[β]	Bh bh	bhɛ́p ask (v)	nɛbhɛ́n dance	___
/t/	[t]	T t	tó send (v)	mántɛ́p intestines	sɔt take (v)
/d/	[d]	D d	dók jump (v)	ndɔ́ŋ line	___
/k/	[k]	K k	ku buy (v)	nkɔk fowl	kɔk grind (v)
/g/	[g]	G g	gú die (v)	kɛgwɔ vomit (v)	___
/ɣ/	[ɣ]	Gh gh	ghók hear (v)	kɛghok scabies	___
/tʃ/	[tʃ]	Ch ch	chu red	nɛchi egg	___
/dʒ/	[dʒ]	J j	ji excrete (v)	ɛjɔ water pot	___
/kp/	[kp]	Kp kp	kpɔ́k gaze (v)	ɛkpɔk lump	___
/gb/	[gb]	Gb gb	gbɔ́k beckon (v)	agbɔ name	___
/f/	[f]	F f	fú *go out*	ɛ́fɛ́mɛ́ table	___
/s/	[s]	S s	sɛn burst (v)	nsok elephant	___
/m/	[m]	M m	mɛn swallow (v)	nɛmɔ examination	nɛ́m bite (v)
/n/	[n]	N n	ná cook (v)	kɛnɔŋ bicycle	tɛ́n crack (v)
/ŋ/	[ŋ]	Ŋ ŋ	ŋá chew (v)	kiɲí cross (v)	tɔ́ŋ show (v)
/ɲ/	[ɲ]	Ny ny	nyú drink (v)	kɛnyóŋó worms	___
/r/	[r]	R r	rɛm say (v)	ɛrí bat	___
/w/	[w]	W w	watí rub (v)	nɛwɛn tortoise	___
/y/	[y]	Y y	yɛm pierce	ɛyé leaf	pay read

Table I: Kenyang Consonants

2.2 Vowels

Kenyang has nine vowel phonemes, presented (with their allophones) in Table II. The phonemes are shown as they occur in different positions of the word.

Phoneme	Allophone	Grapheme	Initial position	Medial position	Final position
/i/	[i]	I i	___	nisí refuse *(v)*	ntí head
/e/	[e]	E e	___	beku evening	ɛte pot
/ɛ/	[ɛ]	Ɛ ɛ	sɛnɛn *bird*	ɛsa twenty	nɛné open *(v)*
/a/	[a]	A a	awɔ́ hand	nak *invite (v)*	atá jaw
/ɔ/	[ɔ]	Ɔ ɔ	ɔbhɔn society: *a type*	nsɔk insult *(v)*	mmɔ child
/o/	[o]	O o	___	nnok soup	ntó message
/u/	[u]	U u	___	kutí cover *(v)*	mmu person
/ɨ/	[ɨ]	Ɨ ɨ	___	mmɨk ground	ɛmɨ neck
/ɷ/	[ɷ]	Ʉ ʉ	___	ɛkpʉrɛ native dish	ɛmʉ́ palm nuts

Table II: Kenyang Vowels

3. Tone

Tyhurst (1984) and Mbuagbaw (1994) identified four basic tones in Kenyang: two level tones, high [´] and low [`], and two contour tones, rising [ˇ] and falling [ˆ]. Tone was represented lexically within morphemes, and grammatically within sentences.

3.1 Tonal Contrast

It is fairly easy to find Kenyang words where the only difference between them is tone. For example:

(1) [m̀mú]   'dog'   [ɛ̀βá]   'fence'
     [m̀mù]   'person'   [ɛ̀βà]   'bag'

     [ŋ̀kɔ́k]   'ladder'   [fǎ]   'give way'
     [ŋ̀kɔ̀k]   'fowl'   [fâ]   'here'

[tí]   'to sell'
[tǐ]   'to scrub'

3.2 Grammatical Functions of Tone

Tone also plays an important role in the grammar of the language. Compare the following examples:

(2)   Present perfective   [àtò]   'he has sent'
       Present imperfective   [àtó]   'he sent'
       Present continuous   [ǎꜜtó]   'he is sending'

Thus, if we do not mark tone adequately, the meaning can be ambiguous. The downstep arrow means that the high tone is lowered.

3.3 Representation of Tone in the Orthography

The grammatical functions of tones discussed above make it necessary to represent them in the Kenyang orthography. Longacre (1964:136-7), Nida (1964b:26-7), and Wiesemann (1989:16) agree that when tone changes affect verb tenses and pronominal subjects, they should be marked in the orthography. In the 1990 orthography, tones were marked in the orthography as follows. Since the low tone has a higher frequency than the high tone, the low tone was left unmarked, following the tone economy principle of Williamson (1984). The other three tones were marked as high (´), falling (ˆ), and rising (˘).

The Society for Kenyang Literature (SKL) started producing literature in 1990 after the Linguistics Department of SIL, Yaoundé   approved the initial tentative orthography. In 1991, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), financed the first teachers training seminar. About 55 teachers have now received training on how to teach Kenyang in their respective schools and communities, all using the initial orthography.

After the teachers' seminar in 1991, teaching was started in various schools and community centres. Beginning in 1995, we began receiving feedback from teachers and supervisors. One of the major problems was that of tone marking. Many teachers shared the view that they did not see the difference between a downstepped high and a high tone on the one hand, and an unmarked low tone and a falling tone on the other hand. According to their suggestions, the downstepped high should have been marked as high, while the falling tone should have been left unmarked, like the low tone. Following these suggestions, however, would cause important verbal contrasts to be neutralised, and thereby increase the level of ambiguity in the written forms. The reason was that the falling tone and the unmarked low mark a certain contrast in the verb stem. The same situation occurs between the high tone and the downstepped high. Here are some examples in (3):

(3)   [bátí]   'They sold.' (P1)
         [báꜜtí]   'They are selling.' (PROG)

[máɲɛ́]   'They ate.' (P1)
[má⁺ɲɛ́]   'They are eating.' (PROG)

[bákwɛ́n]   'They fell.' (P1)
bá⁺kwɛ́n]   'They are falling.' (PROG)

[bátô]   'They threw.' (P1)
[bátò]   'They are throwing.' (PROG)

[bákɔ̂]   'They walked.' (P1)
[bákɔ̀]   'They are walking.' (PROG)

[básô]   'They washed.' (P1)
[básò]   'They are wahing.' (PROG)

In order to solve these problems, Chris Jackson, an SIL member working with the Manyu team suggested that the grave accent from French could be used to mark the progressive aspect in Kenyang. We tried this proposal, and it has worked successfully Thus, instead of marking four tones, we mark only three and use the grave accent to indicate progressive aspect in the revised orthography. Teaching the grave accent as the progressive aspect marker causes no problem for people used to the old orthography because the grave accent was previously not used in the old orthography. Mbuagbaw (1997) introduced this new system of marking tone in *Kenyang Primer 1*.

A Teachers/supervisors seminar, organised in March, 1998, was a total success when the teachers received training with the new primer. The new system of marking tone and aspect was satisfactory to both the teachers and supervisors. They remarked that this orthography was easier than the first one because the number of tone marks was reduced from four to three, and the grave accent was only used with the progressive aspect. Below is a chart contrasting the old and new tone orthographies.

(4)

Tones/Aspect	Old Orthography	New Orthography
[´]	´	´
[⁺]	¯	´
[`]		
[ˇ]	ˇ	ˇ
[ˆ]	ˆ	
PROG	¯	`

Table III: Representation of Tone in Old and New Orthographies

One of the main changes with the new orthography is that downstepped high tones, indicated by the macron (¯) are replaced by either a high tone (in a non-progressive sentence) or a grave accent (in a progressive sentence), as in (5).

(5)   Old Orthography   New Orthography   Gloss

        Bá kɛ́   twɔ̄.   **Bá kɛ́ twɔ́ .**   'They should not come.'
        3P NEG come

         A bhɪ́ kɪ́ nyɛ̄.   **Abhɪ́ kɪ́ nyɛ́ .**   'He did not eat.'
        3S NEG eat

        Mmĕ rɔ̄ŋ   ɛtɔk.   **Mmĕ rɔ̀ ŋ ɛtɔk.**   'I am going to the village.'
        1S   go.PROG village

        Ǎ nā   nɛnyɛ́. **Ǎ nà nɛnyɛ́ .**   'He is cooking food.'
        3S cook.PROG food

Another impoertant change is that falling tones are now left unmarked (like low tones), as in (6) below.

(6)   Old Orthography   New Orthography   Gloss

        Sɛ́   rɔ̂ k   ɛbhɪ.   **Sɛ́ rɔk ɛbhɪ.**   'We went to the bush.'
        1P go.P1 bush

        Bǎ sô   ndɛn.   **Bǎ so ndɛn.**   'You washed clothes.'
        2P wash.P1 clothes

As mentioned above, the overwhelming response to these changes in writing tones has been positive.

4. Word Division

Articles, negation markers, tense markers, and modal auxilliaries were written separately in the 1990 orthography as they are in English, and no attempt was made to determine the orthographic word in Kenyang from the native speaker's point of view. Certain problems arose as to whether certain "clitic type" elements had the status of a word or not.

4.1 Subject Marker

In the new orthography, the subject marker is attached to whatever follows it because linguistically, the subject marker is a verbal prefix similar in nature to the noun class prefix on nouns. Compare the following examples in the new and old othography.

(7)   Old orthography   New orthography   Gloss

        Má ń   nê   **Má nne mmɔ.**   'Let them feed the child.'
        mmɔ.
        3P HORT feed child

9

Bá bhí kí twɔ́ ɛ́ yú .	**Bá bhí kí twɔ́ ɛ́ yú .**	'They did not come yesterday.'
3P NEG come yesterday		
Sɛ́ ń dɔ́ k ɛtɔk.	**Sɛ́ ndɔ́ k ɛtɔk.**	'Let us go to the village.'
1P HORT go village		
Mankɔ bá pú fâ .	**Mankɔ bá pú**	'There are no strangers.'
strangers 3P NEG here	**fa.**	

The Hortative marker, (in addition to the subject marker) is attached to the verb in the new orthography.

4.2 Noun Phrase

The noun phrase may consist of a head noun, followed by modifiers such as adjectives and/or determiners. Noun phrases also include NP-NP constructions in which the first NP is "possessed" by the second NP. In Kenyang, this construction is marked by an associative marker between the possessor and the possessed. Typical noun phrases are as follows:

(8)   N   ADJ   N   N
    ɛ-kɛt   ɛ   pɛ́ pɛ́ p   ɛ-te   é   n-nok
    7-house AM white   7-pot   AM   5-soup
        'chief's village'   *'pot of soup'*

4.2.1 Associative Phrase

The associative phrase marker (henceforth AP) is a vowel in Kenyang. For some noun classes it copies the final vowel of the first noun, and for other noun classes, the vowel is different. The tone of the AP is either H or L, depending on the noun class of the head noun. In both the tentative and revised orthographies, the AP is not written because the native speaker reads easily (automatically inserting the correct vowel and tone) even when they are not included, as below:

(9)	Linguistic Forms	Orthography	Gloss
	m̀ -pò k ó ǹ -tɔ́ ŋ	**mpok ntɔŋ**	'teacher's time'
	1-time AM 1-teacher		
	bɛ̀ -tɔ́ k ɔ́ bɛ́ -pâ y	**bɛtɔk bɛ́ pay**	'two villages'
	8-vilage AM 8-two		

4.2.2 Compound Nouns

In some compound nouns, both words are identifiable as individual nouns while in others, one or more of the nouns is not identifiable by itself. In the orthography, the components of all compound nouns are separated by hyphens. We now look at several types.

The major type of compound nouns we will look at are noun-noun sequences, in which the second noun is attributive.

In the orthography, for compound forms that do not take the normal associative marker the hyphen goes between the two nouns. Here are some examples (all of the initial words being vowel final).

	Linguistic Forms		Orthographic Forms	Gloss
(10)	ɛ̀ -bhá 7-fence	mà -nyé 6-case	**ɛbhá -manyé**	'courtyard'
	ɛ̀ -bhá ŋá 7-sacrifice	ǹ -kɔ̀ k 9-fowl	**ɛbhá ŋá -nkɔk**	'rooster'
	ǹ -chyɛ̀ 1-giver	ɛ̀ - sɔ̀ ŋɔ̀ rì 7-trouble	**nchyɛ-ɛsɔŋɔri**	'nuissance'
	ɛ̀ -mì 7-neck	à -wɔ́ 3-hand	**ɛmɨ-awɔ́**	'wrist'
	m̀ -mǔ 1-person	m̀ -fá y 5-top	**mmǔ -mfá y**	'people from the grassfields'

There are a number of compound nouns for which one of the roots is not identifiable in isolation. It is possible that some of these nouns were borrowed from neighbouring languages. In the orthography, the identifiable nouns and those not identifiable are separated by hyphens in the same manner as nouns that are identifiable.

(11)	á -ghɔ́ ŋɔ̀ 3-??	m̀ -mɛ́ n 9-goat	**á ghɔ́ ŋɔ-** **mmɛ́ n**	'sheep'
	à -mà ŋ 3-kernel	ká rá rá ??	**amaŋ-** **ká rá rá**	'coconut'
	ɛ́ -kwá 7-plantain	ǹ -sù rɛ́ 5-??	**ɛ́ kwá -nsurɛ́**	'banana'

For compound nouns that take an associative marker, the hyphen goes between the associative marker and the second noun.

(12)	ɛ̀ -nɔ̀ k 7-stick	kɛ̀ -fɔ̀ 13-chiefdom	**ɛnɔkɔ́ -kɛfɔ**	'throne'
	m̀ -pɔ̀ ŋ 9-cow	ǹ -dɨ́ k 1-whiteman	**mpɔŋɔ-ndɨ́ k**	'horse'
	ǹ -dɛ̀ n 5-cloth	bɛ̀ -kɔ́ k 8-bed	**ndɛnɛ́ -bɛkɔ́ k**	'sheet'

à -mà ŋ	nὲ -bù	**amaŋá -nɛbu**	'hail stone'
3-kernel'	5-sky		
bhá k	mὲ -nwɔ́ p	**bhá ká -**	'important'
'to be'	8-heavy	**mɛnwɔp**	
ὲ -nyìŋ	bὲ t	**ɛnyìŋí -bɛt**	'weapon'
7-thing	??		
m̀ -bò k	bà -chè	**mbokó -bache**	'seminal canal'
5-hole	6-urine		

4.3 Reduplication

Reduplication has a range of forms and functions in Kenyang. There are situations where reduplication is derivational and in that case, a new word is formed. In the orthography, reduplicated words are separated by hypens:

(13) **á yá k**   'quick'   **á yá k-**   'very quickly'
                              á yá k

   bí ŋí r 'round'   **bí ŋí rí -**   'become round'
   í   **bí ŋí rí**
   chu   'red'   **chu-chu**   'flower'
   ɛsa   'twenty'   **ɛsa-ɛsa**   'four hundred
   pɛti   'soft'   **pɛti-pɛti**   'very soft'
   ntí   'head'   **ntí -ntí**   'bony'
   mmɛ   'I'   **mmɛ-mmɛ**   'alone'
   ngó   'fire'   **ngó -ngó**   'full of fire'

4.4 Verb Phrase

The imperative is taken as the citation form of the verb in this study. The verb in Kenyang does not have a prefix or a suffix in its citation, or basic form. The verb root in Kenyang is either monosyllabic, disyllabic or trisyllabic.

Kenyang distinguishes four tenses: near past, far past, future certain, and future uncertain; and four aspect markers: present perfective, present imperfective, present habitual, and the progressive. In the orthography, the tense/aspect markers are written separately if they occur after the verb. If they occur before the verb, they are written together with the preceding subject marker. The examples in 4.2.1 below illustrate this:

4.4.1 Tense
The verb *nisí* 'to refuse' is used to illustrate the orthography for the various kinds of tense marking, as below:

(14)   Linguistic Forms   Orthographic Forms   Gloss

	Linguistic Forms	Orthographic Forms	Gloss
Near past	A-ní sí -ḿ ꜛbʉ́. 3S-refuse-P1	**Aní sí ḿ bʉ́ .**	'He refused recently.'
Far past	A-ní sí -ꜛnyá ká 3S-refuse-P2.	**Aní sí nyá ka̋.**	'He refused a long time ago.'
Future (certain)	Á -chɔŋ-nì sì . 3S-F2-refuse	**Á chɔŋ nisi.**	'He will refuse.'
Future (uncertain)	A -mǎ y-nì sì . 3S-F1-refuse	**Amǎ y nisi.**	'He may refuse.'

4.4.2 Aspect

All of the aspect markers are shown below with the verb *nisí* 'to refuse' in the present tense.

(15)	Linguistic Forms	Orthographic Forms	Gloss
Present perfective	À -ní sí . 3S-refused	**Aní sí .**	'He has refused.'
Present imperfective	À -nì sì . 3S-refused	**Anisi.**	'He refused.'
Present habitual	Á -nì sì -nɔ̀ kɔ̀ . 3S-refuse-HAB	**Á nisi nɔkɔ.**	'He (usually) refuses.'
Present Progressive	Á -nì sì 3S-refusing	**Á nì si.**	'He is refusing.'

4.4.3 Infinitive

The infinitival prefix in Kenyang has two allomorphs, *bɛ́ -* and *mɛ́ -,* which are attached to the verb root. *mɛ́ -* occurs before verb roots that begin with a nasal consonant while *bɛ́ -* occurs elsewhere. In the orthography, both forms are written as they are pronounced and they are written attached to the verb.

(16)	Linguistic Forms	Orthographic Forms	Gloss
	mɛ́ -ní si INF-refuse	**mɛ́ ní si**	'to refuse'
	bɛ́ -ꜛpá INF-spit	**bɛ́ pá**	'to spit'
	bɛ́ -tô INF-throw	**bɛ́ to**	'to throw'

13

| mɛ́ -nyó koti | **mɛ́ nyó koti** | 'to gather' |
| INF-gather | | |

4.4.4 Negation

There are three types of negation in Kenyang. *Pú* marks negation in the present and future tenses, *kɛ* marks negation in the hortative mood, and *bhɨ́ kɨ́* marks negation in the past tense. In the orthography, both the negative marker and the preceding subject marker are represented as one word. Here are some examples:

(17) | Linguistic Forms | Orthographic Forms | Gloss |

| Á -pú -↓twɔ́ . | **Apú twɔ́ .** | 'He is not coming.' |
| 3s-NEG-come | | |

| Á -pú -chɔ̂ ŋ-twɔ́ . | **Apú chɔŋ twɔ́ .** | 'He will not come.' |
| 3S-NEG-FUT-come | | |

Bhɨ́ kɨ́ marks negation in the past tense. Here are some examples:

(18) | Linguistic Forms | Orthography Forms | Gloss |

| Á -bhɨ́ kɨ́ -nyɛ̂. | **Abhɨ́ kɨ́ nyɛ́ .** | 'He did not eat.' |
| 3S-NEG-eat | | |

| Bá -bhɨ́ kɨ́ -kɔ̂ . | **Bá bhɨ́ kɨ́ kɔ.** | 'They did not walk.' |
| 3P-NEG-walk | | |

Kɛ marks negation in the hortative mood.

(19) | Linguistic Form | Orthographic Form | Gloss |

| Á -kɛ́ -↓twɔ́ . | **Á kɛ́ twɔ́ .** | 'He should not come.' |
| 3S-NEG-come | | |

| Bá -kɛ́ -mɔ̂ . | **Bá kɛ́ mɔ.** | 'They should not try.' |
| 3P-NEG-try | | |

4.5 Conjunctions and Subordinators

The conjunctions nɛ and kɛ join equivalent structures such as noun phrases and verb phrases. In the orthography, they are written as separate words.

(20) | Linguistic Form | Orthographic Form | Gloss |

| **nɛ** ŋ̀ kɔ̂ k nɛ̀ ǹ sì | **nkɔk *nɛ* nsi** | 'fowl and fish' |
| fowl and fish | | |

ǹ tà nɛ̀ ɛ̀ ká tì	nta *nɛ* ɛká ti	'cap and book'
cap and book		

kɛ Á -twɔ́ kɛ̀ à - nyɛ́ .	Atwɔ́ *kɛ* anyɛ́ .	'He came then he ate.'
3S-came then 3S-ate		

Subordinators link dependent and independent clauses. There are two types of subordinators, namely, subordinating conjunctions and subordinating adverbs. The subordinating conjuctions in Kenyang are: *mpok* 'when', *ḿ bá k* 'if', *kpá tɛ* 'until, and *bɛ̂* 'that.' Subordinating adverbs include: *kɛ* 'however', and *yɛnɔ* 'nevertheless.' Subordinating adverbs are always followed by a comma in the orthography. The comma in this case shows that a pause is obligatory.

(21) *Kɛ*, bá pú twɔ́ mbwɔ́ rɛ́ .   'However, they will not come tomorrow.'

Yɛnɔ, mfɔ ǎ chɔŋ twɔ́ .   'Nevertheless, the chief will come.'

In the examples of subordinating conjunctions below, there is no comma, thus indicating that there is no obligatory pause.

(22) Achwe amɛm ɛkɛt *mpok* bá twɔ́ .   'He entered the house when they came.'
Arɛm *bɛ́* má ndɔ́ k ɛsyɛ́ .   'He says that they should go to the market.'
Mmɛyá ŋ riŋi *ḿ bá k* yí achí annywɔ́ p.   'I want to know whether he is at home.'
Á chɔŋ chɔkɔ fa *kpá tɛ* má ntwɔ́ .   'He will be here until they come.'

5. Punctuation and Capitalisation

Most, if not, all modern orthographies include punctuation marks. Unfortunately, in many literacy efforts, little effort is made to teach the functions and significance of each punctuation mark. The reason for this is perhaps that they are regarded to be universal. Gleason (1955:432) remarks that "people do not expect to find differences in punctuation from language to language." Nevertheless, languages do differ sometimes in how they treat punctuation (e.g English vs French), and so we will now look at the conventions for punctuation in Kenyang.

The punctuation marks and the rules that govern them in Kenyang are the same as those for English. The punctuation marks used for Kenyang are therefore as follows:
1) Full stop (.)
2) Question mark (?)
3) Exclamation mark (!)
4) Comma (,)
5) Colon (:)
6) Semicolon (;)
7) Quotation marks ("")

5.1 Full Stop

The full stop (.) in Kenyang marks the end of a declarative sentence:

(23)   **Bá kɔ   nɛ bɛkak.**
3P.walk with legs
'*They are walking on foot.*'

5.2 Question Mark

The question mark (?) marks the end of an interrogative sentence

(24)   **Má nyi aku   yi   ɛsyɛ́ ?**
Manyi 3S.buy.P1   what market
'*Manyi bought what in the market?*'

Aku   nnya nɛ bako.
3S.buy   meat and beans
'*She bought meat and beans.*'

5.3 Exclamation Mark

The exclamation mark marks either the end of a command, as in (25a), or is placed following exclamatory words or phrases, as in (25b). It functions to express interjections, surprises, excitement, and forceful comments, as below.

(25a)   **Dɔ́ k!**
go (imp.)
'*Go!*'

Akɛ́   twɔ́ !
3S.NEG come
'*He should not come!*'

(25b)   **Chá !**

Chá expresses negative surprise, especially when one is accused of doing something of which he is unaware. If there is an exclamation in the middle of a sentence, note that the word which follows the exclamation sign begins with a capital letter, as it is a new sentence.

(26)   **Nkwá nɛ! Pú   ngá tí   ḿ bʉ́ wɔ?**
EX   NEG 1S.tell P1   you
'*Nkwá nɛ! (expresses a call to attention) Did I not tell you?*'

5.4 Comma

Commas are used to indicate where a pause occurs or may occur in natural speech. In oral communication, pauses always occur following certain grammatical units such as conjunctive adverbs. The authors should note such pauses in a written text by inserting commas. In Kenyang, the comma (,) serves several purposes:

Words and Phrases

Commas set off conjunctive adverbs that qualify or change the emphasis of a sentence.

(27) **Kɛ,   mfɔ apú   chɔŋ twɔ́ .**
however chief 3S.NEG FUT come
'However, the chief will not come.'

Commas also set off contrasting words and phrases, no matter where they occur in a sentence.

(28) **Tambi, pú   Tambɛ, kɛ   á gú   annyɛ́ n.**
Tambi   NEG Tambɛ   that 3S.die at.water
'It wasTambi, not Tambe, that died in the stream.'

(29)   **Bɛsɛ́ pú   chɔkɔ fa,   sɛ́ chɔkɔ chí   awu.**
3P.NEG stay   here 3P.stay FOC there
'We do not live here, we live over there.'

(30) **Acha   mamyɛ́ ɛsa,   abhak chu, nɛ   asap.**
3S.surpass years   twenty 3S.be red   and 3S.tall
'He is more than twenty years old, red in colour, and tall.'

Commas set off relative clauses. In Kenyang, there is no difference between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

(31) **Mmu   anɛ, á twɔ́   fa ɛ́ yú ,   ă mè .**
person who 3S.come here yesterday 3S.sick
'The man, who came here yesterday, is sick.'

(32) **Ɛtɔk   ɛnɛ́,   ń chɔ́ kɔ́, chí   Tali.**
village where stay.P1 FOC. Tali
'The village, where I stayed, was Tali.'

Commas set off adverbial phrases and clauses when they occur at the beginning of sentences:

(33) **Mpok sɛ́ ghá ká   Ndɛkway, Tambi nɛ Tanyi bá rɔk   annyɛ́ n.**
when 2P.arrive.P1 Ndekwai Tambi and Tanyi 3P.go.P1 INF.stream
'When we arrived Ndekwai, Tambi and Tanyi went to the stream.'

after a spatio-temporal location *tɛntɛp nyá ká* (formerly),

(34) **Tɛntɛp   nyá ká , nnya   ɛ́ chí   nyá ká kɛmwɛrɛ.**

formerly P2   animals it.FOC P2   friendship
'Formerly, animals were friends.'

after *nnywɔp ɛné nfú* (one day),

(35)   **Nnywɔp ɛné nfú , Tambɛ arɔk kɛnté mɛ́ .**
       day   certain Tambe 3S.go hunting
       'One day, Tambe went hunting.'

and after *nkwɔ́* (also) at the beginning of a sentence,

(36)   **Nkwɔ́ , mpok bá só   ndɛn, bá chyɛ   bɔ́   nɛnyɛ́ .**
       also   when 3P.wash.P1 clothes 3P.give.P1 them food
       'Also, when they had finished washing clothes, they gave them food.'

5.5 Colon and Semicolon

Webster's Standard American Style Manual explains that a colon (:) introduces clauses that explain, illustrate, or restate what has gone before. It is also used in dialogue or following a brief heading or an introductory term.

(37)   **Akɔŋ ɛnyɨ̀ŋ ɛ́ mɔt: nɛnyɛ́ .**
       3S.like thing one   food
       'She loves one thing: food.'

The semicolon, on the other hand, pulls related sentences together. Here are examples with a semicolon:

When it pivots a contrast:

(38)   **Kʉ bɛtɨk mpok bɛtɨk; ntok mpok ntok.**
       do work time   work play time play
       'Work when it is time to work; play when it is time to play.'

between related independent clauses when the connection is omitted:

(39)   **Aná   ɛrɨ́ tɨ́ nɛnyɛ́ ɛ́ yú ;   ɛné ɛchɔŋ ɛ́ rɨ   ɛ́ chá .**
       3S.cook.P1 good food yesterday one today it.good it.surpass
       'He prepared a nice meal yesterday; the one today is better.'

5.6 Quotation Marks

Quotation marks ("") occur at the beginning and end of direct speech. It has been argued that quotation marks are not needed in many African languages because some languages already employ quotative markers. Though this is true, quotative marks only *introduce* the quoation. Koffi (1995:8) claims that there is no language where there is a lexical element which indicates the *end* of quotations. If one relies on quotation openers only, one will not necessarily know when a given quotation ends. To avoid such problems, it is better to use quotation marks that clearly indicate the beginning and end of quoted discourse, as below:

(40) **Abhɛ́ p,   " Ɔfu   fá ?"**
      3S.ask.P1   2P.come.out where
      'He asked, "Where are you from?'

Quotation marks also set off special words, such as those that are not normally part of the language.

(41) **Ɛnyìŋ ɛnɛ́   barí k   bá hìŋì bɛ́   "ré dyo."**
     thing   that whitemen 3P.call that radio
     'The thing that whitemen call "radio."'

If the quotation needs a punctuation mark (question mark, exclamation mark, etc), it occurs before the last quotation mark.

(42) **Abɨk   bɛ́ , "Twɔ́   fa!"**
      3S.scream.P1 that come here
      'He screamed, "Come here!"'

In general, all punctuations go inside quotations.

5.7 Capitalisation

Capital letters are used at the beginning of sentences, proper nouns, and after a colon.

The first word in a declarative, interrogative, or exclamatory sentence is always capitalised, as below:

First word in a sentence:

(43a) **Bá rɔ́ ŋ ɛsyɛ́   beku   ɛbhɛn.**
      3P.go   market evening this
      'They are going to the market this evening.'

proper nouns:

(44) **Tambi arɔk ɛká ti abhìŋì: Nsó , Á ko, Nkwa, nɛ Tí ku.**
     Tambi 3S.go school 3S.call.P1   Nso Ako Nkwa and Tiku
     'Tambi went to school and called the following: Nso, Ako, Nkwa, and Tiku.'

after a colon:

(45) **Ɛbbɛ p ɛ́ chí   bɛ́ : Atwɔ́   ɛ́ yú   kɛ abhí kɨ́   twɔ́ ?**
     question it.FOC that 3S.come.P1 yesterday or 3S.NEG come.P1
       'The question is: Did the chief come yesterday or not?'

The first word in a direct quotation is always capitalised.

(46) **Mfɔ achyɛ   ɛyɔŋ: "Yɛ-mmú   á ké   fú   nɛfí ."**
     chief 3P.give voice   no-person 3S.NEG   come.out outside
     'The chief commanded, "Nobody should go outside."'

Names, titles, days of the week, are capitalised in Kenyang as follows:

(47a) **Afu   Má mfé .**
        3S.come.from Mamfe
        '*He/She is from Mamfe.*'

b) **Nnyé n ɛni chí   Ɛ́ tá Tambɛ.**
     name   his COP Mr. Tambe
     '*His name is Mr. Tambe.*'

c) **Ǎ twɔ̀   nnywɔp Chɔ́ kɔ́ -chɔ́ kɔ́ .**
     3S.come day   Sunday
     '*He is coming on Sunday.*'

5.8 Summary

There are two main areas of change in the revised orthography. The first is the tonal change (discussed under section 3.3.1). The present system of marking tone reduces the number of tones which the speaker has to mark. The second area of change concerns the "clitic type" subject morphemes, which are written as prefixes on whichever word follows (discussed under section 4.1) All other conventions discussed in this paper remain the same as in the original tentative orthography.

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