COMPONENTIAL ANALYSIS OF VERB RELATED ANTONYMS IN IGBO

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Abstract
Antonym is a semantic concept that describes two forms, opposite forms of words. The main objective of the study is to: investigate the existence of antonym as it relates to verbs in Igbo, state the formation of antonyms that are verbs in Igbo and examine if antonym (verbs specifically) can be analysed using componential theory. Data for the study were generated through the observation of the speech of some native speakers and the use of the researcher's intuitive knowledge as an Igbo native speaker. Descriptive survey research design is the methodology adopted for this research. The findings were that in the formation of antonyms that are verbs in the Igbo language, only the negative suffixes "-ghi", "la" and '-beghi' can be added to only the verb stem in order to form opposite in the Igbo language. One can use the suffix '-ghị' for negating simple past declarations. This work will serve as a reference material to all linguists, lexicographers and other researchers, including classroom teachers.

1.0 Introduction

Language is an integral part of human communication. It is species- specific and species uniform because it is coded and encoded by those who belong to a specific speech community. It is only those that belong to a particular community that can use it properly. Any human being participating in a speech community with other humans with common mental, emotional and physical needs develops patterned communicative behaviour which manifests in the form of language.

A distinction is made between human communication and animal communication. Animal communication is without complexity, novelty, multiplicity and creativity which characterize human communication. One major advantage of human communication as a learned symbiotic communication system is flexibility. The study of human communication is the hallmark of linguistics. Linguistics is a scientific discipline that studies all aspects of human language. Though language of the world varies, linguists not only describe the diverse characteristics of individual languages but also seek to discover deeper properties which all languages share.

Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other. Language is the principal system of human communication used by a particular group of human beings within a particular society of which they are members. Principal in the above definition implies how important language is to humans. As fish cannot live without water and so is language to human communication. One of the characteristics of language is uniqueness. Certain salient and particular properties mark out one language from others.

The sense of an expression is its indispensable hard-core meaning. This is to say that the sense of an expression can be thought of as the sum of its sense properties and sense relations with other expressions. Antonym originated from the sense properties of sentence. The sense properties of sentences are the properties of being analytic, of being synthetic and of being contradictory.

An analytic sentence according to Hurford (1993) "is one that is necessarily TRUE, as a result of the senses of the words in it". For instance, "bachelors are unmarried" and "cats are animals" are analytic sentences because the sentences are always true. In other words, analytic sentences are always true (necessarily so, by virtue of the senses of the words in them).

A synthetic sentence according to Hurford (1993) is one which is not analytic, but may be either true or false, depending on the way the word is. Example of a synthetic sentence is: "Mark is from Ireland". There is nothing in the senses of 'John'' or 'Ireland' or 'from' that makes this sentence necessarily true or false. Synthetic can be sometimes true, sometimes false, depending on the circumstances.

A contradiction as seen by Hurford (1993) is a sentence that is necessarily FALSE, as a result of the senses of the words in it. Thus, a contradiction is in a way the opposite of an analytic sentence. For instance, "this animal is a vegetable" is a contradiction. This must be false because of the senses of animal and vegetable.

The notion analytic, synthetic and contradiction, each applies to individual sentences. Analytic, synthetic and contradiction are then sense properties of sentences. For instance: "The man is human" has the sense property of analyticity, "the man is tall" has the sense property of synthetic while "the man is a woman" has the sense property of being a contradiction. The sense structure of a language is like a network, in which the senses of all elements are directly or indirectly related to the other senses of all other elements. For instance, the sense relation between the predicate man and human is known as hyponymy while the sense relation between the predicates man and women is a kind of antonym.

2.0   Literature Review
2.1   The Concept of Antonym

This work intends to look into componential analysis of Antonym (majorly verbs) in Igbo Antonym as seen by Palmer (1995) and Agbedo (2001) is used for "oppositeness of meaning". This means that words which are opposite are usually referred to as antonym. Many scholars assert that when antonyms arc said to be words opposite in meaning, it does not necessarily mean that the denial of one term implies the assertion of the other. The objectives of this study is to briefly state the meaning of antonym that are verbs in Igbo, explain how verbs that are antonym can be formed in Igbo, and also find out if componential analysis can be used in analyzing verbs that are antonym in Igbo. Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme (2010) state that when two words are opposite in meaning, they are said to be anonymous. They also claim that antonyms are usually associated with adjectives. Antonyms are usually levels of gradation in a comparative frame.

Yule (1996) says, two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms. Commonly used examples are the pairs quick - slow, long - short, rich - poor, sad - happy, hot - cold, old - young, male - female, true - false and alive - dead. According to Yule, it is important to avoid describing most antonym pairs as one word meaning the negative of another. Consider the opposite tie/untie. The word untie does not mean 'not tie' but actually means 'do the reverse of tie'. Such pairs are called reversive. Other common examples are enter/exit, pack/unpack, lengthen/shorten, raise/lower, dress/undress.

To Fromkin & Rodman {1993), the meaning of a word may be partially defined by saying what it is not. For instance, female means not male. They are actually supporting other views that words which are opposite in meaning are often called antonyms. Ironically, the basic property of two words that are antonymous in nature is that they share all but one semantic property. Beautify and tall are not antonyms, beautiful and ugly, tall and short are. The property they do not share is present in one and absent in the other.

McGregor (2009) defines antonym as "the relation of opposition in meaning". The theoretical important point in antonym according to Lyons (2009) is that incompatibility and more especially oppositeness of sense is one of the basic structural relations in the vocabularies of human languages.

Ndimele (1999) says that antonym contracts semantic opposition while Crystal (2008) views antonym to be all types of semantic oppositeness. Lyons (1977) in Mbah and Mbah (2008) observes antonyms as not comprising only binary gradable opposition. Pointing to all the definitions, suggestions and observations by various scholars, they are all referring to a particular thing and none has a different definition from others.

Akmajiam, Richard, Farmer & Robert (2003) opine that sometimes words can share other aspects of meaning; such set of words are antonymous. For examples: 'small' and 'large' share the notion 'size' but differ in degree; cold and hot share the notion 'temperature' but differ in degree.

The sense in which words such as hot and cold are 'opposite' is not just that they are incompatible in meaning. Many words are semantically incompatible in the sense that they cannot both be true of something at the same time. For example, words cat and dog are semantically incompatible (they cannot both be truly applied to the same thing at the same time); nevertheless, they are not opposites in the sense of being antonyms. The above examples hot and cold are antonyms because there is a scale containing the 'opposites' at either end, with a midpoint (or midinterval) between them (in this case represented by the word lukewarm, a qword that can be used to refer to things that are neither hot or cold). Lobner (2002: 88-93) observe that two expression are called antonyms if they denote two opposite extremes out of a range of possibilities.

2.2 Kinds of Antonym
Antonyms are usually divided into two main kinds, which are gradable and non-gradable antonyms, other kinds of antonym include directional opposite, converses, reverses and taxonomic sisters.

According to Yule (1996). "gradable such as the pair 'big-small' can be used in comparative constructions like 'bigger than'- 'smaller than.' Also, the negative of one memberof the gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example, if you say that Onyeka is not old, you do not have to mean that Onyeka is young. With comparative constructions, one can differentiate between gradable and non-gradable.

Fromkin& Rodman (1993) say that with gradable pairs, the negative of one is not syonymous with the other. For example, someone who is not happy is not necessarily sad. It is also true of gradable antonyms that more of one is less of another. For example: more bigness is less smallness, wider is less narrow, and taller is less short.

Saeed (2007) sees gradable antonyms to be a relationship between opposites where the positive of one term does not necessarily imply the negative of the other. Examples in English are: fast - slow, near-far, clever -stupid, beautiful - ugly, interesting - uninteresting and young -old.

Sapir (1949:160) opines that the comparative forms of adjectives (those ending in -er or recurring with more) are EXPLICITLY graded since to say that one road is wider than the other is to place them in a graded scale for comparison. Sapir also argues that although these comparative forms are preceded linguistically, the simple forms (that is formed from them by adding -er or more), they precede them logically in that wide, old and big can only be understood in terms of being wider, older, bigger than something. They are thus, said Sapir, IMPLICITLY graded antonym.

What this scholar is saying is that not only are these adjectives gradable, they are graded against different norms according to the items being discussed. For instance, if one says that not many people were present, this might mean five or six if the person is talking about an intimate party, but perhaps as many as twenty thousand if one is talking about the attendance at an important football match at USA (Wembley). The norm here is set by the object being described. Since antonyms are gradable, the gradables are often intermediate terms. Thus, we have not just hot - cold but hot - warm/cool - cold with the intermediate "warm" and "cool" forming a pair of antonyms themselves.

If something is not A, then it is not merely B, it can be C or D or E. To make them become super, they can be modified by "very". Something may be very hot or very cold. And they may have comparative and superlative degrees. They may be expressed by separate words rather than by adding modifiers. For example, the term for the size which is neither big nor small is medium. And between the two extremes of temperature hot and cold, there are warm and cool which form a pair of antonyms themselves, and may have a further intermediate term lukewarm.

In gradable antonym, one is often marked and the other unmarked. The unmarked member is more neutral than the marked one and it is used in questions of degrees. For example, one asks "How old are you?" rather than "How young are you?", "How long is it?" rather than "How short is it?" Thus, old and long arc the unmarked members of old/young and long/short. Of the antonymous pair hot/cold, hot is unmarked and cold marked. In the same fashion, big is unmarked and small marked, tall is unmarked and short marked.

The antonym is graded against different norms. There is no absolute criterion by which may say something is wet or dry long or short, big or small. The criterion varies with the object described; A big fly is intact much smaller than a small plane. A microwave is giant by the standard of microorganism. In this case, there is no such absolute requirement to make a standard of something to say in what grade they should be placed.

2.3   Verb: An overview
Obviously, the verb is very central in all human languages of the world. It is a universal phenomenon. It comes to English through Latin word *verbrum*and old French *verbe*. The verb takes prominent position in the grammatical constructions of many natural languages of the world. It is the main part of the sentence. Every sentence has a verb.

The term *verb* has been variously defined by various scholars and as a result, there is no general acceptable common definition of verb. Traditionally, the verb is "a doing word and a component of a sentence Ikegwuonu (2015). This implies that the verb is the main ingredient of a sentence and without it, no meaningful utterance can be made. It is a word used to describe an action, state or occurrence, and forming the main part of the predicate of a sentence, Eyisi (2004) asserts that a verb is a group of words that is used to tell what someone or something is, does or experiences. Eyisi (2004) defines a verb as a word which expresses action, existence or condition. In her view, a verb is a word which is used to indicate an action, state of being, of existence or possession.

From these definitions, it seems that verbs are very essential in the life of language because they enhance the growth, existence and development of the language in all its ramifications. It is through it, all the important parts of speech are formed, our words take action and we express who we are and how we feel. The verb can express a physical action, mental action or a state of being. It expresses physical actions such as *to write, to swim* and *to climb*. To express mental actions like *to think, to guess* and *to consider,* to express a state of being like *to be, to exist* and *to appear.*

According to Ikegwuonu (2013), "words belonging to verb class in any language refer to a wide range of actions and states. The meaning of a verb can analyze into structure representation of events it designates". Verbs have significant influence on the overall structures of the sentence. They sometimes express action, existence or condition of an entity or object.

Verb in conclusion is an element which can display morphological contrasts to tense, aspect, voice, mood, and person.

2.4   Theoretical Framework
Componential analysis according to Ifeagwazi (2016), "is one of the three specific frameworks for semantic analysis, the other frameworks are formal semantics and cognitive semantics". Saeed (2003) as cited by Ifeagwazi says that one of the earlier approaches to semantics within generative grammar was componential: it appeared in Katz and Forder (1963) and has been refined since, notably in Katz

and Postal (1964) and Katz (1972) and is simply referred to as Katz's theory". This is to say that Katz is the founder of componential analysis within generative grammar.

Ottenheimer (2006) also traces the origin of componential analysis to an American anthropological linguist, Benjamin Lee Whorf. Whom Ottenheimer said proposed it. We can therefore posit that the founders of componential analysis are Kate and Whorf in the area of generative grammar and anthropology respectively.

Another name given to componential analysis by Anyanwu (2008) is feature analysis or contrast analysis. According to McGregor (2009), "there is no consensus among semanticists as to how explanations of the meaning of lexical items are best expressed". In this case, some adopted the technique of componential analysis, in which the semantic meaning of a lexeme is decomposed into small components, or atoms of meaning.

According to Saeed (2007), componential theory is concerned with breaking down or decomposing the sense of a word into its atomic components. Sense of a word in this context refers to the meaning of a word by virtue of place in linguistic system.

Another name given to componential amalysis by Lobner (2007) is decomposition. Lobner opines that decomposition is when the meaning of a lexical item is analyzed by identifying its components and the way in which it is combined. In other words, analysis into meaning components is called decomposition.

2.4.1 Claims of Componential Analysis
The major claims of componential analysis according to Saeed (2003) as cited by Ifeagwazi (2016) are as follows:
- Semantic components allow an economic characterisation of lexical relations and sentence relations like the contradiction in: Ferdinand is dead and Ferdinand is alive or the entailment between Henrietta cooked some lamb chops and Henrietta cooked some meat.
- Semantic components linguistic import outside semantics: that only by recognizing them can we accurately describe a range of syntactic and morphological processes.
- Semantic primitives (components) form part of our psychological architecture; they provide us with a unique view of conceptual structure.
- The word is broken down into meaningful components, which make up the total sum of the meaning in a word.
- Semantic components may be combined in various ways in different languages; yet, they would be identifiable as the 'same' components in the vocabularies of all languages.
- The claim of componential analysis, in the view of Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme (2010), is that the meaning of a thing consists in the lexical entries which make up its sense.

2.4.2 Different ways of Applying Componential Analysis
There are different formats for the presentation of componential analysis and this format differs from one linguist to another. Some analyses with different format shall be studied below for better understanding.

Saeed (2003) applies the kinship terminologies to express componential analysis as shown below.

Man [MALE]	[ADULT]	[HUMAN]		
Bachelor [MALE]	[ADULT]	[HUMAN]	[UNMARRIED]	
Woman [FEMALE]	[ADULT]	[HUMAN]		
Wife [FEMALE]	[ADULT]	[HUMAN]	[MARRIED]	

Applying the binary feature format for the above components, the representation will appear as follows:

Man   [+MALE]   [+ADULT]   [+HUMAN]
Bachelor [+MALE]   [+ADULT]   [+HUMAN]   [+UNMARRIED]
Woman [+FEMALE]   [+ADULT]   [+HUMAN]
Wife   [+FEMALE]   [+ADULT]   [+HUMAN]   [+MARRIED]

Leech (1974) as quoted by Ifeagwazi (2016) has a different version of representing the components of lexemes for componential analysis. His method is presented in the table below.

Binary taxonomy	+ LIVE = live
	-L1VI- -dead
Multiple	*MEIAL- gold
Taxonomy	# METAL –silver
	@ METAL = copper etc
Polarity	^ASIZE= large
	vSIZl> small
Relation	> PARENT = is the parent of
	< PARENT = is the child of (also bidirectional, such as sibling)
Hierarchy	1 LENGTH – inch
	2 LENGTH – foot
	3 LENGTH - yard etc
Inverse	{ POSSIBLE –possible
	} POSSIBLE = necessary (also all/some, allow/compel etc.

Yule (1996:115) also has his application of componential analysis to a set of English words (table, cow, girl, woman, boy, man) and they appear thus:

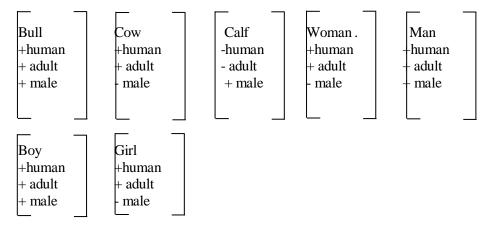|	Table	Cow	Girl	Woman	Boy	Man
Animate	-	+	+	+	+	+
Human	-	-	+	+	+	+
Male	-	-	-	-	+	+
Adult	-	-	-	+	-	+

The analysis according to Yule shows the basic features involved in differentiating the meanings of each of those words by highlighting their crucial distinguishing features.

Fall (2007) opines that the procedure for componential analysis, which is lexical decomposition can be used to describe the basic components of human conceptual structure. He argues that the components that linguistics have traditionally used to perform componential analysis do not reflect in some of the indigenous conceptualisations. For instance, componential analysis of man, woman and child involves concepts for which not all languages have words like male, female and adult. For this reason, Goodard and Wierzbicka (2007) claim that Natural Semantic Metalanguge (NSM) will help to describe the basic components of human conceptual structure.

McGregor (2009:140) also has his format for application of componential analysis. Examine the following small set of nouns: bull, cow, calf, woman, boy girl, man. These words all have in common the concept 'animate'. One could identify (animate) as a semantic feature with a value of either + for animate nouns, or- for inanimate nouns. (It is conventional to put semantic features in square brackets). Continuing the comparison of the terms, we could also identify features (human), (male) and (adult). The seven words could be specified as follows:

Bull
+ animate
+ human
+ adult
+ male

cow
+ animate
- human
+ adult
+ male

Calf
+ animate
- human
+ adult
+ male

Boy
+ animate
+ human
+ adult
+ male

Girl
+ animate
- human
+ adult
+ male

Man
+ animate
- human
+ adult
+ male

woman
+ animate
+ human
+ adult
- male

A feature value is given as + if the word is not specific on that feature. Calf is (+ male). For this reason, inanimate is given the value - not + for the features (adult) and (-male); if a word is specified as (+ adult), (+ male) or (j male) it must also be (+ animate). There is no need to specify the predictable feature values, which can be simply left out from the matrix specification. Thus, one could economise in the above specifications, representing the meanings as follows:

Bull
+human
+ adult
+ male

Cow
+human
+ adult
- male

Calf
-human
- adult
+ male

Woman .
+human
+ adult
- male

Man
+human
+ adult
+ male

Boy
+human
+ adult
+ male

Girl
+human
+ adult
- male

2.4.3 Weaknesses of Componential Analysis
Below are the weaknesses of the componential analysis as noted by many scholars:

- Most lexical items and their meaning components are not distinguishable. Obiora (2008) says, 'The items ˙male and adult' are undoubtedly English words. But the meaning components that apply to them are 'male and adult' respectively. Since the word is not distinguishable from the component, it does not explain the word".
- Lyons (1977) also gives another weakness of this semantic theory as one in which the set of incompatible lexical items may not be restricted to being binary sets and in any case the binary feature notation is quite unsuitable for large areas of vocabulary.
- There is always confusion as to which element is to be marked or unmarked. On the other hand, it is not always easy to decide which are the relevant components of a lexeme and whether they can be applied in a binary (+ or -) way. For instance, would swim be + HURRIED or - HURRIED in this matrix? Or, in other fields, would stew be + EAT or -EAT, and sauce + LIQUID or - LIQUID? Antonyms like boiling, hot. warm, cool, and freeze are difficult to be explained by the analysis.
- Palmer (1976:111) observes that componential analysis is deficient in handling cases of ambiguity. For ambiguous words like 'bachelor' which has four dictionary entries, 'an important question however is. how do we establish which precisely are the markers'? This indicates that componential analysis does not handle all semantic relations well. It is difficult to reduce the

relational opposites to components. The relation 'parent and child' cannot simply be handled by assigning components to each, unless those components are in some sense directional.

- Componential analysis cannot also account for certain idiomatic and figurative expressions that manifest like oxymoron. For instance, an expression like, [k]she looks more masculine than her sister" seems ungrammatical using componential analysis. Anyanwu (2008) says that componential analysis appears to be revealing in determining lexical gaps in human language though it has been overtly criticized because of certain shortcomings.
- It cannot be used to analyse sentences, it concentrates on one word.
- It cannot analyse functional categories like prepositions and conjunctions.

2.4.4 Strengths of Componential Analysis
- Obiora (2008:97) observes truil this approach aids the language learner to acquire or build up more vocabulary items in the language. Obiora adds that componential analysis brings out the universality of some of the semantic features and finally according to her, the over-generalisation of meaning characterised by componential analysis has sometimes been described as semantic development in children language learning.

Other strengths of the theory as noted by Ifeagwazi (2016) are as follows:
- It is a highly valuable approach to learning another language and understanding a specific semantic domain of ethnography.
- Through componential analysis, we can describe meanings, meaning relationships (like entailment, hyponymy, contradiction) and the grammatical behaviour of word classes. Componential analysis seems most useful for the description of words belonging to relatively closed lexical sets such as terminology for kinship, plants, animals and so on.
- It is also useful for the description of grammatical morphemes and words (e.g, pronouns and preposition), union continue the most closed classes in a language.

However, some modifications were made on the componential analysis considering its strengths and these modifications helps to a great extent in nullifying some of the weakness. Below are the some of the modifications.

2.4.5 Modifications of Componential Analysis
Ifeagvvazi (2016: 64) notes that Katz and Postal (1964) and Katz (1972) modify componential analysis that is referred to as Katz theory. The i\u> central ideas of the theory according to Saeed (2003) are:
1. Semantic rules have to the recursive for the same reasons as syntactic rules: that the number of possible sentences in a language is very large, possibly infinite.
2. The relationship between a ^enicnce and its meaning is not arbitrary and unitary, that is syntactic structure and lexical content interact so that "John killed Fred" and "Fred killed John" do not have the same meaning despite containing the same lexical elements; nor do "The snake frightened Mary" and "The movie delighted Horace" despite having the same syntactic structure. In other wools, meaning is compositional.

The way words are combined into phrases and phrases into sentences determines the meaning of the sentences.

To capture the aims of the semantic component, paralleling the aims of syntax based on the above ideas, the Katzian dictionary and a set of projection rules were formulated
as the two components to give:
a. specifications of the meanings of lexical items and
b. rules showing how the meanings of lexical items build up into the meaning of phrases and so on up to sentences.

A typical example of the Katzian dictionary entry for the word *bachelor* as adapted from Katz and Forder (1963), Katz and Postal (1%4) is thus: bachelor N.
a. (human) (male) [one who has never been married]

      b.   (human) (male) [young knight serving under the standard of another knight]

3.0   Research Design

The research design adopted for this study is descriptive survey research design. The descriptive survey research design is the type of design which aims at collecting data on, and describing in a systematic way, the characteristics features or facts about a given topic. In this study, verb related antonyms in Igbo were collected and their features described using the componential theory.

4.0 Data Presentation and Analysis

The linguistic elements that are in the area of study are presented: Data collected from the standard Igbo language are analyzed using the componential theory

4.1. Igbo verbs related antonym

4a. Chụrụ   achụghị as in Nneka chụrụ ya ọsọ/ Nneka achụghị ya ọsọ.
+ legs   + legs
+strength   - strength
+ distance   - distance

4b Gara   agaghị as in anyị gara bee ha / anyị agaghị bee ha.
+ human   - human
+ legs   - legs
+ place   - place
+distance   - distance

4c. Siri   esighị as in esiri m nri/ esighị m nri.
+food   + food
+fire   - fire
+ pot   -pot
+ boil or done   - boil or done

4d. Churu   echughị as in o churu mmiri/ o chughi mmiri.
+ water   - water
+ container   -container
+distance   - distance
+ carry   -carry
+drinkable   - drinkable

4e. Mere   emeghị as in Obi mere ihe ahụ/ Obi emeghị ya
+ doing   - doing
+ thing   - something
+ place   - place
+human   + human

4f. lụrụ   alụghị as in ọ lụrụ nwaanyị/ ọ lụghị nwaanyị..
+ human   + human
+ male   + male
+ female   + female
+ adult   + adult
+ spouse   - spouse
+ marriage   - marriage
+ head   -head
+ householder   - householder

4g. It is also observed that suffic – 'la' can added to the verb stem for negative imperative. Examples
Gụọ   Agụla as in gụọ akwụkwọ/ agụla akwụkwọ.

+ read	<u>+</u> book
+ brain	- read
+ understanding	+ brain
+ book	- understanding

4h. Re   erela as in ree ose ahụ / erela ose ahụ.

+ good	<u>+</u> good
+ money	- money
+ human	+ human
+ exchange	- exchange
<u>+</u>market	<u>+</u> market

4i. Bịa   Abịala as in bịa ebe a / abịala ebe a.

+ place	- place
+ human	+ human
<u>+</u>legs	- legs
<u>+</u> walk	- walk

4j. Ri   erila

+ eat	- eat
+ food	- food
<u>+</u>plate	- plate
+ teeth	- teeth
+ mouth	- mouth

Gba – agbala as in gba egbe / agbala egbe

4k. Gba   agbala

+ gun	- gun
+ sound	- sound
<u>+</u> kill	<u>+</u> kill
<u>+</u>death	<u>+</u> death
<u>+</u>robbery	<u>+</u> robbery

4l. Kụ   akụla as in kụ aka n' ụzọ / akụla aka n'ụzọ.

+ hand	- hand
+ door	- door
+ sound	- sound
<u>+</u>visitor	- visitor

5.0 Summary of Findings and Conclusion

This research work tried to expose the concept of verb related antonyms in the Igbo language and how they are formed. Componential theory was used to analyze the Igbo verbs that are antonym though the researcher does not claim an exhaustive treatment of these verbs in the Igbo language so the research deserves further studies to find out more things on the discussed topic as well as adds to the findings made in this study.

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