Verbal Extensions as a Morphological Productivity Strategy Towards Meaning Creation in Languages

Edmund Werigbelegha[a]; Odingowei M. Kwokwo[b],*

[a]Department of English and Literary Studies, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State.
[b]Department of English and Literary Studies, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State.
*Corresponding author.

Abstract

Languages are said to be productive because of their ability to adopt a variety of morphological strategies of word-formation through which they enrich their lexicon for ease and. facilitation of meaning creation and communication. Universally, sundry such morphological processes available for natural languages to exploit are affixation, compounding, clipping, blending and reduplication. Beyond these strategies, many African languages also adopt the device of verbal extension which seems to be absent in English morphology. This paper investigates the use of verbal extensions as a morphologically productive word-formation strategy in linguistic and communication studies. The data used for analysis in the paper are derived from standard textbooks written in English and from competent native speakers of Izọn language especially of Kolokuma and Gbarain dialects of Izọn both of which have 99% lexical contiguity. This was done through unobtrusive observations and purposive interviews and collation of a list of verbs. These methods were complemented by the researchers' introspection. The study reveals that verbal extensions are used in Izọn as a very creative and productive word-formation and meaning-creation strategy and the ability to use them functionally is part of the linguistic and communicative competence of native speakers of Izọn language.

Key words: Verbal extensions; Word-formation; Morphological processes; Morphological productivity; English; Izọn.

INTRODUCTION

Natural languages adopt a variety of morphological processes that facilitate word-creation. Verbal extension is one of them. A verbal extension is a suffix attached to a verb which substantially changes the meaning and valency of the verb. Robert Hedlinger (1990) describes a verbal extension as a verbal suffix added to the root resulting in a new stem. It has been observed that verbal extensions are a common feature in African languages. Roger Blench (2010) and Blench Kay Williamson (2015) indeed report that "systems of verbal extensions (VE) are widely scattered throughout Africa" and that the system of verbal extension actually compete with other linguistic strategies such as serial verb constructions (SVC) and auxiliaries plus verbal collocations. Hyman (2007:150-1) as cited in Lusekelo (2007/2008) maintains that verbal extensions are a major morphological property of Niger-Congo languages, and this language family has Izọn as a member. Hyman ((ibid)) however, laments that a comparative study of VEs among the Niger-Congo languages has lagged behind comparisons of noun classes and other aspects of language. Verbal extensions are known to create verb stems that add a component of meaning to the base meaning of the verb. In addition, VEs also affect the valency or argument structure of the verb. Indeed, verbal extensions are important morphosemantic, and even morphosyntactic morphemes that enrich the grammar of languages in which they occur.

Purpose of the Study

Scholars have researched into different aspects of languages studies involving English and Ịzọn language.

Notable among these are Williamson's (1969) basic grammar monograph entitled *A Grammar of Kolokuma dialect of Ijo* which lays out the basic grammar of the language. Kwokwo (2012) focused of a comparative study of functional categories in English and Izon. Blench and Williamson (2015) introduced a discussion of VEs in Izon. Some others have concentrated on phonological interference between English and Izon However, because of the productive nature of Verbal Extensions (VE) as one of the morphological strategies languages adopt in creating and expressing meaning, there is need to pay more scholarly attention to them. Therefore, this paper presents a descriptive account of morphological processes in English and Izon with particular attention on the use of verbal extensions in Izon.

1. RELATED STUDIES

Roger Blench (2010) is a study of VEs in Bura. This is an unpublished manuscript which demonstrated the use of VEs in Bura, a language in Central Nigeria. Blench and Williamson (2015) discuss VEs in Izon, a Nigerian language in the Niger Delta. Blench asserts that "systems of verbal extensions consisting of affixes that alter argument structure, are widely reported in the world, and are scattered throughout Africa, where they compete with strategies such as serial verbs and auxiliaries plus verbal collocations". McIntosh (1984) validates this assertion as she reports verbal extensions in Fulfulde, a language spoken by the Fulani people in Nigeria. She states that "verbal extensions occur between the simplex or root and derivative which may affect the valency or voice of a root".

Bantu languages have been the most studied in terms of verbal extension. Studies in this regard include Guthrie Malcolm's (1962) "On the Status of Radical Extensions in Bantu Languages", Lusekelo's (2007-2008) "A Descriptive Account of the Bantu Verbal Extensions in Kinyakyusa" and Gloria Cocchi's (2009) "Bantu Verbal Extensions: a Cartographic Approach". This paper reviews the nature, productivity and combinatory possibilities of VEs in Bantu languages. According to the author, VEs are affixes place between the stem and the fina2l inflection of a verb in order to extend the verbal derivates. Malcolm's (1962) paper explains that VEs are suffixes which are an integral part of the verbal morphology of most Bantu languages and have the potential of modifying the meaning of a basic verb. Malcolm identifies some types of VEs as applicative, causative, passive, reversive and stative. Similarly, Waweru (2011) also states that verbal extensions constitute an aspect of verbal morphology of languages and plays an important role in marking (thematic) relations. According to him, VEs are largely considered as derivational affixes because of the ability to alter the argument structure (or valency) of the host verb. Waweru's comments are in a study on reciprocal verbal extensions in Ndebele, a Bantu language.

Blench and Williamson (2015) identify six types of VEs found in Izon, namely, causative, directional, collective passive, mediopassive, reciprocal and combined extensions. They submit that verbs in Izon take suffixes which extend their meaning and may modify the syntax of the sentences. This echoes McIntosh's idea of valency. Blench and Williamson's study of Izon verbal extensions is quite extensive.

This present study, however discusses VEs within the context of general morphological productivity strategies among languages because verbal extensions constitute only one of these morphological strategies of word formation. Izon belongs to the Ijoid phylum of the Niger-Congo languages *(cf* Blench and Williamson 2000). This study adopts Kolokuma dialect of Izon because it has acquired the status of standard variety. Kolokuma is spoken in Kolokuma and Opokuma clans in Kolokuma/Opokuma Local Government Area of Bayelsa State. Consequently, the findings of this study are largely applicable to all Izon dialects because irrespective of dialectal differences, Izon language has a unified grammatical structure and morphological system.

Methodology

Data on Izon language were collected from native speakers in communities in Kolokuma and Opokuma clans of Bayelsa State where the Kolokuma dialect is spoken. This was done through unobtrusive observations and purposive interviews. These methods were complemented by the researchers' introspection. This study will add to Blench and Williamson (2015) and serve the purpose of providing data on Izon verbal extensions for comparative studies, the way Lusekelo's (2007-2008) study provided data on Kinyakyusa, a Bantu language for similar comparative studies.

2. MORPHOLOGICAL PRODUCTIVITY IN ENGLISH

Standard and universally adopted morphological processes of word-formation abound in English and other languages. The processes are bifurcated into derivational and inflectional processes. The former is within the realm of derivational morphology which involves affixation of prefixes and suffixes meant to create new words. The later involves inflection of nouns for number and verbs for tense and aspect. English is rich in such morphological strategies as derivational affixation, inflections and auxiliaries,

Derivational Processes

Derivation is a process whereby a derivational affix is attached to the root of a word to derive a new meaning or causes a change in the grammatical class of a

word. Katamba (1993) has very elaborate discussion on inflectional and derivational morphology (also *cf* Radford et al 1999). Derivation produces new words in two major ways. A class changing derivational process changes the category or grammatical class of words as well as their lexical meanings when an affix or bound morpheme is added to the root or core of a word. Some affixes are negativizers, some are nominalizers, some adverbialize and some adjectivize. This can be observed in Table 1.

Table 1
Derivation in English

Root	Word class	Affix	Derived words (adjective, Noun or adverb)	New word class
Accept	verb	-able	Acceptable	adjective
desire	verb	-able	desirable	adjective
important	adjective	-ly	importantly	adverb
quick	adjective	-ly	quickly	adverb
educate	verb	-ion	education	noun
derive	verb	-tion	derivation	noun
agree	verb	-ment	agreement	noun
Lead	verb	-er	leader	noun
follow	verb	-er	follower	noun

There are many other affixes which are not necessarily class-changing but are Class-maintaining. Class maintaining or non-class-changing derivational affixes maintain the grammatical class of the word from which a new word is derived. These categories of affixes only modify the lexical meaning of the base word without changing the part of speech. Class maintaining morphemes are mostly prefixes unlike class changing morphemes which are generally suffixes. Most of these class-retaining prefixes actually express negation of the base or root word. Some examples of class retaining morphemes are un-, im-, dis-, mis-, ir-. The examples that follow create words that are opposite to the root words. In other words, the prefixes are negativizers.

Table 2
Negativising Prefixes

Root	Class	Affix	New word	Class
Kind	verb	un-	unkind	verb
Able	"	un-	unable	"
proper	"	im-	improper	"
obey	"	dis-	disobey	"
own	"	dis-	disown	"
embark	"	dis-	disembark	"
inform	"	mis-	misinform	"
behave	"	mis-	misbehave	"

Other morphological productivity strategies include clipping, blending and reduplication. Each of these devices is at the disposal of natural languages to create new words. For instance, clipping entails the chopping off of syllables of a word and using the remainder as a word in itself. Words such as Prof, Doc, bra, croc, gator are clipped forms respectively of professor, doctor, brassiere, crocodile, alligator, Instructively, the derived words retain their word class. Clipping is noticeable more in names in Izọn which are either nominal compounds or intrinsically clausal in structure. Therefore, clipping follows word boundaries. Some examples are Ebiowei (Ebi + Owei), Tariebi (Tari +Ebi), Tonyokoweri (Tonyo + ko +Weri). The tricycle in Nigeria is popularly called kẹkẹnapẹp, a borrowed word from Yoruba language which is generally clipped as kẹkẹ.

Another way that new words can be derived or created is morphological process which moves the base word from one category or class to a sub-category or sub-class. Katamba (1993) affirms that this form of derivation merely shifts a base to a different sub-class with the same broader word-class. There is a root, a stem and a derived new word. There is no change in the categorial status but the resultant new word belongs to a sub-category corresponding to the class of the base. Suffixes such as '-er' and '-ship' perform this role. The following examples show that both the stem and the derived words are nouns.

Leader - leadership
Follower - followership
Statesman - statesmanship
Brinkman - brinkmanship

Extensional affixes fall under this form of derivational process. An extensional affix is a class-maintaining type of derivational affix which, according to Ndimele (1999) modifies or extends the meaning of words they are attached to without changing the categorial status of the derived words. In other words, extensional affixes affect only the meaning but not the grammatical class of the root. For this reason, the derived word also maintains the categorial features of the root verb (or simplex) in terms of tense and aspect. English is rich in derivational affixes which productively enriches it vocabulary but it is lacking in verbal extension in the way the word is understood in the literature. Affixation could adopt both prefixes and suffixes and to smaller degree, infixes. Tables 3 and 4 illustrate

prefixation and suffixation respectively. The prefixes in Table 3 affect the meaning of the base by negativizing them, but the word class does not change. Similarly, in Table 4, the suffixes do not change the word class.

Table 3
Derivational Prefixes in English

Prefix	Meaning	Base form	Derived word
dis-	Negation	appear (v)	disappear (v)
dis-	Reverse	organize (v)	disorganize (v)
re-	Again	examine (v)	re-examine (v)
un-	Reverse	tie (v)	untie (v)

Table 4
Derivational Suffixes in English

Suffix	Meaning	Base form	Derived word
-hood	Status	man (n)	manhood (n)
-ship	condition	friend (n)	friendship (n)
-let	diminutive	pig (n)	piglet (n)
-let	diminutive	play	play let

3. VERBAL EXTENSIONS (VES) IN IZỌN

As we have elaborated in the beginning parts of this paper, verbal extensions are found extensively in many African languages, especially the Bantu languages. Their manifestations in Izọn are discussed in the following sections. It may be restated that verbal extensions constitute a productive morphological process of word-formation. From the discussion above, it is evident that English language does not apply this morphological strategy, but it is ubiquitous in African languages, including Ịzọn. Verbal extensions are class-maintaining derivational affixes which affect or extends only the lexical meaning of the base verbs to which they are attached. Verbs extensions are common with wide variety of verbs in Ịzọn. Verbal extensions found in languages are quite many and varied but those that have been identified in Ịzọn are '**self-action', 'reciprocal', 'causative'** and **'directional'** in nature. Table 5 below provides some general examples of the four categories of VEs in Izọn.

Table 5
Extensional Suffixes in Izon

Suffix	Meaning	Example of base form	Output (v)
-ị	self-action	sanị (v.t.) to melt	sanịi (v.s.) melt (by itself)
-ị	reciprocal	tarị (v.t) to love	tarịi (v. recip.) love each other
-mọ	directional	wẹnị (v.i) to walk	wẹnịmọ (v.dir.) walk towards
-mọ	causative	bụnụ (v.i.) to sleep	bụnụmọ (v.c.s) lay to sleep

3.1 Self-Action Verbs (v.s.)

Self-action verbs (v.s.) express actions that come about by themselves. They are extended from certain transitive verbs but they are not transitive in themselves. Grammatically therefore, self-action verbs do not necessarily have any Agent that generates the action they express. This conforms with Warweru (2011) and Khumalo (2014) that VEs lead to a change in the argument structure or valency of the verb. Self-action verbs are characterized as mediopassive verbs in Blench and Williamson (2015). However, it should be noted that verbal extensions or extended verbs, for that matter, retain the tense features of the root verb. Self-action verbs are formed via two composite morphological processes:

• by adding the suffix –ị (-i)
• by dropping the original subject and moving the original object into the subject position.

The data below illustrate self-action verbs. In the examples, 'simple' means 'simple verb' and 'extended' means 'extended verb' brought about by an extension affix. Some self-action or mediopassive verbs which are analysed below are sanị - sanịi, teri – terii, kịa - kịai, katị - katịi, kpeki – kpekii.

1a. Simplex: **sanị** (v.t.) to melt (something)
Arị pulou sanịmi.
 I   oil   melted
"I melted the oil"

1b. Extended: **Sanịi** (v.s.) to melt (by itself) without an agent
Polou bi sanịimị.
Oil   the melt+pst
"The oil   melted".

The verb 'sanị' in [1a] is transitive. It has two arguments, the subject and an object. Note that Izọn has an SOV clause structure and so the subject and the object are syntactically contiguous as the diagram below illustrates. However, the self-action verb 'sanịi in [1b] not only becomes intransitive as a result of the verbal extension but alters the meaning of the simplex or root verb which nevertheless remains a verb. In terms of theta roles, in spite of the alteration in the morphological configuration of the verb, the noun phrase Pulou bi which is the direct object and complement of the verb maintains its function as theme or patient even though it has moved to the subject position of the sentence.

2a   S
        / | \
       S   O   V
      Arị   pulou sanịmi.

2b   S
        / | \
       S   O   V
   Pulou bi Ø   sanịimị
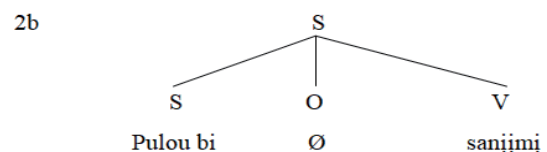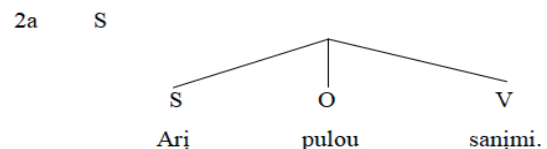
3a. Simplex: terị (v.t.) to close a container with a lid or to shut a door
Eri oguga bi terimi.
He door   the shut
"He shut the door".

3b. Extended: terii (v.s) closed or shut (by itself) e.g a pot, door etc.
Oguga bi teriimi.
Door   the closed
"The door got shut".

4a. Simplex: kịa (v.t.) to filter (e.g. liquid substance)
Ere   ma beni bi kịamị.
Woman the water the filtered
"The woman filtered the water".

4b. Extended: kịaị (v.s.) to ooze out (water oozing out and dried)
Beni   bi   kịaịmị.
Water the drained off
"The water drained off".

5a. Simplex: katị (v.t.) to pluck
Eri alalainda katimi.
He orange plucked
"He plucked an orange".

5b. Extended: katịị (v.s.) to fall (by itself)
Alalaindamọ   katịịmị.
Orange+s +the   fell
"The oranges fell (by themselves".

6a. Simplex: kpeki (v.t.) gather together
Kịmị bị   ọtọko-mọ kpekimi.
Man the mud the+pl gathered
"The man gathered the mud".

6b. Extended: **kpekii** (v.s.) gathered together without and Agent
Ọtọko-mọ waribọ   bọ   kpekimii.
Mud the+pl door   at + the gathered
"The mud gathered at the door".

In the first sentences of each of the examples above, the verbs: *sani, teri, kia, kati* and *kpeki* are simple transitive (v.t.) verbs so much so that each verb has a subject NP and an object NP. This defines the valency of the verb as being able to co-occur with both subject and object NPs. In other words, it has an Agent who causes or initiates the action represented by the verb and a Patient which receives or suffers the action of the syntatic Agent. However, by adding the verbal extensions to the root verbs, not only do the morphology of the roots change but

their meanings are also modified. The verbal extension effectively removes the value of transitiveness from the verbs and makes them intransitive. Consequently, in the (b) sentences of the examples above using VEs, the grammatical object and complement of the verb (the Patient) becomes the grammatical subject but still maintains its semantic role as the Patient and not the Agent. By adding or suffixing –**ị** to their simplex verbs, as in *sanịị, terịị, kịaị, katịị* and *kpekịị,* their meanings are modified, thus, making or changing them into self-action verbs. These are illustrated in the second (b) sentences (extended) examples (1) to (5) above. Significantly, as has been mentioned earlier, in spite of the morphological and semantic changes of the verbs, the category or class of the derived words remain unchanged.

3.2 Reciprocal Verbs

Reciprocal verb extensions (v. recip.) express action done by two or more (persons) to each other. Reciprocal verbs (v. recip.) are also extended from simple transitive verbs in which the subject and the object can be reversed by:
• adding the suffix -ị (-ị)
• combining the subject and object into plural subject
Data for reciprocal verbs are provided below.

7a. Simplex: gbọlụ (v.t.) to box; to give a blow on somebody
Preye Timi gbọlụmị.
Preye Timi boxed
"Preye boxed Timi".

It has to be noted that Ịzọn is a SOV language. This means that, structurally, the subject and the object of the verb are contiguous although they are not necessarily in the same phrasal constituent. This is why in (6a) above the subject 'Preye and the object of the verb 'Timi' seems to be collocated despite the fact that they belong to different phrasal constituents.

7b. Extended: gbọlụị (v. recip.) to box each other.
When the affix '-ị' is attached to the base verb **gbọlụ,** a new word '**gbọlụị'** is derived. This new word remains a verb. The affix is a verbal extension that extends the meaning of the base by expressing **a simultaneously reciprocal action**. Secondly, the meaning of the resultant word also substantially differs from the base. This is illustrated in the sentence below.
Preye mọTimi mọ gbọlụịmi.
Preye and Timi and boxed (each other)
"Preye and Timi **fought."**

8a. Simplex: tarị (v.t.) to love
Ebiowei Ebiere tarịmị
Ebiowei Ebiere loved
"Ebiowei loves Ebiere"

8b. Extended: tarịị (v.recip.) to love each other
Ebiowei mọ Ebiere mọ tarịịmị

Ebiowei and Ebiere and loves   (each other)
"Ebiowei and Ebiere love each other"

9a. Simplex: kpotu (v.t.) tochase
Preye Timi kpotumi.
Preye Timi chased
"Timi chased Preye"
9b. Extended: kpotui (v. recip.) to chase each other
 Preye mọ Timi mọ kpotuimi.
Preye and Timi and chased (each other)
"Preye and Timi chased each other."
10a. **Simple: laba** (v.t.) to embrace
Preye Timi labamị.
Preye Timi embraced
"Preye embraced Timi."
10b. Extended: labaị (v. recip.) to embrace each other
Preye mọ Timi mọ labaịmị.
Preye and Timi and embraced (each other).
"Preye and Timi embraced each other".

Apart from the above reciprocal verbs, there is another category of reciprocal verbs which possess the '-ị' suffix that creates the extended meaning but do not necessarily have a root verb or simplex form from which the extension is derived. These verbs seem to be the base words in themselves because the root may have been lost in the language. It may even be contemplated that the reciprocal verb extensions borrowed the meaning production pattern of these verbs. The following verbs are a few examples.

11. **Ololaị** (v. recip.) compatible; favourable; to have a good relationship.
Bei   taa mo yei   mo ololaịmị
This wife and husband and compatible
"This husband and wife are compatible"

12. Galabaị (v. recip.) This extended verb means 'to be in disagreement (as husband and wife) or friends; disarray, lacks unity of purpose, be on bad terms'. The word could extend its meaning to misunderstanding, quarrelling, fighting and separation. Here is a sentence [13] which brings out the import of the extended verb, and example [14] further illustrates the reciprocity another extended verb.

13. Bei taa mo yei   mo galabaịdọụ
This wife and husband and scattered
"This husband and wife have scattered"

'Gbele' is a verb that means to 'to touch something or somebody'. It is a transitive verb that must take two syntactic argument which function as the subject and the complement of the verb. But when it extended by attaching the '-ị' extension affix, its meaning changes

to 'two persons meeting each other somewhere. In this respect, it becomes a reciprocal verb. Syntactically, however, unlike the mediopassive VEs where the object position becomes a null category, the two arguments in a reciprocal expression are compressed to become a compound subject. However, it can also be argued that 'Gbelei' does not have a simplex in 'gbele' because the meanings of the two words do not logical correspond to a simplex and a derivative.

14. **Gbelei** (v. Recip.) to meet (each other)
Bei ikiaotumọ sẹị tiri kọ gbeleimi
These friends dance floor on met (each other)
"These friends met each other on the dance floor."

3.3 Causative Verbs (v. cs.)

Causative verbs (v. cs.) express action in which one (person) causes another (person) to do something. Causative verbs are extended from all simple verbs by adding the suffix **–mọ** to the simple verb. Causative verbal extensions are exemplified below with a few verbs namely *bile, bụnụ, wẹnị* and *tịtẹ*. The word 'bile' is a base verb which means to sink (especially of an object or person) or to capsize (specifically of canoes and boats). It does not require an overt agentive subject because it simply refers to an occurrence of something sinking of capsizing without the agent or cause of the action being spelt out. The other words all have extant subjects. The word 'bụnụ' for instance means 'to sleep' and it co-occurs with an overt subject, that is, the person who performs the action of sleeping. except in an imperative sentence. Similarly, *wẹnị* (to walk) and *tịtẹ* (to sit) also have agentive participants as subjects. He sentences that follow illustrate these causative verbal extensions.

15a. Simple: bile (v.i) to sink or capsize
Arụ   bị bilemi
Canoe the capsized
"The canoe capsized"

15b. Simple: bụnụ (v.i.) to sleep
Tobou bi bụnụnimi.
Child the sleeping
"The child is sleeping"

16c. Simple: wẹnị (v.i.) walk
Tọbọụ wẹnịmị.
Child   walked
The child walked.

16d. Simple: tịtẹ (v.loc.) sit
Tobou tịtẹnimi.
Child sitting
"The child is sitting"

However, the meanings of these verbs could be extended or modified by the morphological operation of

verbal extension by suffixing them with the morpheme 'mọ'. This is a causative morpheme because its attachment to a verb expresses an action in which one person causes another person to do something. The derived words require overt agentive subjects when used in a sentence as shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5
Causative Verbal Extensions in Izon

Base verb	Extensional affix	Derived verb
bile	mọ	bilemọ
bụnụ	"	bụnụmọ
wẹnị	"	wẹnịmọ
tịtẹ	"	tịteẹmọ

17a. Extended: bilemọ (v. cs.) cause to sink or capsize
Eri arụ bị bilemọmị
He canoe the sank
"He sank the canoe"

17b. Extended: bụnụmọ (v.cs.) lay (e.g. a child) to sleep
Araụ ara tọbọụ ma bụnụmọmị.
She her child the laid to sleep
"She laid down the child to sleep"

17c. Extended: wẹnịmọ (v.cs.) Make to walk
Yenghi ma tọbọụ wẹnịmọmị.
Mother the child made to walk
"The mother made the child to walk"

17d. Extended: tịteẹmọ (v.cs.) Make to sit down
Ere   ma tobou tịtẹmọyemi
Woman the child causing to sit
"The woman is making the child to sit down"

The suffixation of **'-mọ'** in the verbs in the sentences in [17] above modifies the meanings of its host thus changing them into causative verbs in the second (extended) sentences. Causative verbs (V.cs) do not only express action which the subject of the sentence, the Agent causes another person to perform; it also expresses an action performed by the subject. All the examples demonstrate this view.

3.4 Directional Verbs

A directional verb (v.dir) expresses an action done towards something or someone. Directional verbs are extended from certain simple verbs by adding the suffix '-mo'. 'Directional' is a theta role in Systemic Grammar and it does appear that the directional verbal extension facilitates the expression of the performance of this grammatical function by a noun. Therefore, a directional verb co-occurs with two nominal participants where one of them is an performs agentive theta role and the other, a directional theta role. We use a few examples to illustrate this verbal extension.

18a. Simplex: wẹnị (v.i.) walk
Eri wenimi.
He walked

18b. Extended: wẹnịmọ (v.dir.) move or walk towards
Eri kimi bi wẹnịmọmị.
He man the walked towards
"He walked towards the man"

18a. Simplex: kaka (v,t,) to tie, moor or fasten
Arị arụ   bị kakaghimi
I canoe the moor +will
"I will moor the canoe"

18b. Extended: kakamọ (v.dir.) tie, moor to a stick, trees, etc.
Onịnị ọrọ   arụmọ   (akị) tịn kakamọmị
 They their canoes the (take) tree tie to
"They moored their canoes to a tree."

19a. Simple: kaị (v.t.) lock (up) against; also to nail something upon another
Ọrọ daụ warịbọ kaịmị.
Their father door locked
Their father locked the door.

19b. Extended: kaịmọ (v.dir) lock
Eri ọwọụmọ   akị tiri kaịmọmị
He children+the take outside lock
"He locked the children outside"
"He locked out the children"

20a. Simple: fini (v.t.) open
Iniyain warịbọ bị finimi.
My son door the opened
"My son opened the door."

20b. Extended: finimọ (v.dir.) open towards.
Eri warịbọ bị akị wo ọngọ finimọmị
He door the take his body open towards
"He opened the door towards himself."

CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed the various types of verbal extensions as found in Kolokuma dialect of Ịzọn; they are, indeed, a feature of Izọn language. Verbal Extensions, as the study reveals, is a morphologically productive way of word-formation in Izọn. These verbal extensions were found to belong to different functional types because they perform different grammatical functions or theta roles. The categories VEs include self-action or mediopassive verb, as suggested by Blench and Williamson (2015), causative verbs, reciprocal verbs and directional verbs.

From the discussion and the detailed illustration with relevant data, it is obvious that verbal extensions are an important linguistic device in creating meaning in Ịzọn language as it is in many other African languages such as the Bantu languages.

It is the view of the authors that the system of verbal extension which constitute a distinct category of morphosyntactic processes with distinct inherent functions actually compete with such other linguistic strategies as serial verb constructions (SVC), auxiliaries and verbal collocations in Izọn although studies have been scanty. Verbal extensions have strong influence on the syntax of a language, and for this reason we suggest further studies on the syntactic functions of verbal extensions.

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