

**PERI CARDIAL ADIPOSE TISSUE OF ALBINO RATS FED
LARD PALM KERNEL CAKE AND TREATED WITH
HERBAL DECOCTION**

BY

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CERTIFICATION

We certify that this project was carried out by **Momah Wendy Chizoba** with Matriculation Number: **BMS1501911** of the Department of Medical Laboratory Science, School of Basic Medical Science, University, Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria and has not been presented in part or full in any diploma or degree awarding institution.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to God Almighty, may I never forget the good things he does for me and his faithfulness towards me and to my parent Barr & Mrs. N.D.F Momah Esq

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ABSTRACT

Pericardial adipose tissues are combined fats from pericardial sac and surrounding external surfaces of the pericardium. Excess deposits often lead to cardiovascular disorders and other heart related diseases. There are claims that an herbal decoction called Aju Mbaise (a combination of medicinal plants wrapped as a combo pack) can be used to treat heart related diseases including obesity which affects many people world-wide. Despite the existing information on Aju Mbaise and its healing claims, there is paucity of scientific data on the effects on pericardial adipose tissues. Therefore, this study was to examine histopathology changes in pericardial adipose tissues of lard-palm kernel cake (L-PKC) diet-fed rats treated with Aju Mbaise herbal decoction. The specific objectives were to investigate the effects of the present herbal decoction on body weight, adiposity indices and lipid profile of experimental rats. Samples of fresh L-PKC were obtained from Uselu market, Benin City while Aju Mbaise was purchased online. Each component was identified and authenticated by an expert taxonomist in the University while voucher numbers were issued for each constituent. Sixteen (16) Sprague-Dawley rats of both sexes, weighing (149-175g) were obtained from a research animal farm in Benin City. Animals acclimatized for 2weeks in Anatomy department University of Benin with ambient temperature ($26\pm 3^{\circ}\text{C}$), humidity (50% - 60%) and photoperiodicity (12:12hr). They were kept in clean steel gauzed cages and coconut husks used as beddings in a light and humid environment. Rats were fed on standard pellets and water provided adequately. Ethical approval (V.1034/40) was obtained from Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources while rats were used in compliance with laydown policies outlined in the Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. L-PKC diet was prepared consisting of 90% super feed, 8% pig fat, and 2% PKC mixed appropriately to make up 100%. Herbal decoction was prepared by placing 296g wrap of it in a clean pot while one (1L) litre of water was added and heated for 30minutes with a gas cooker according to producer's recommendation. After cooking, it was cooled and filtered with a white sterile muslin cloth. The dark-brown decoction (filtrate) was refrigerated to avoid decay at 25°C . LD₅₀ was conducted to ascertain the lethal dose that will serve as a guide in administering the required

dosage. Experimental rats were divided into four (4) groups irrespective of sex, age and weight (n=4). Group A were untreated but received standard rats diet (SRD) and water. Group B was fed with 10% of L-PKC fat diet mixed with 90% SRD and water. Group C was fed 10% L-PKC mixed with 90% SRD and water, and administered 2.5mL/kg body weight of herbal decoction while Group D was fed same way like Group C but treated with 5mL/kg of herbal decoction. Each rat was picked with a hand towel and treated orally for twenty eight (28) days at 2day intervals with a sterile syringe. Average weekly body weights of each rat were recorded with a digital electronic balance. In the end, all animals fasted overnight and were anaesthetized with chloroform. Rats were dissected using scalpel blade while pericardial adipose tissues from the epicardial and paracardial were excised including the myocardium and blotted individually with filter paper prior to grossing while relative tissue weights were recorded. Blood sample was collected from the cardiac region from each animal without anticoagulant with tab gel and centrifuged (BROADBENT, UK) at 3000 rpm for 5 min to obtain the serum content. Sera were stored at -20°C until it was needed for fasting lipid profile using the chemical analyzer. Grossed samples were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formol saline and processed histologically (dehydrated with alcohol, cleared in xylene and impregnated with molten paraffin wax and embedded with the automatic embedding machine. Tissues were de-blocked and sectioned with a microtome at 3-5 μ . Sections were stained using H&E method and viewed with the microscope at x10 and x40 magnifications. Data were statistically analyzed using ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test for multiple comparisons while $p < 0.05$ was considered significant. The effect of the graded treatment (2.5mL/kg and 5mL/kg AJMD) on rats revealed a progressive increase in Group (C and D). All rats experienced increases in weights compared with Day 0 and there was no significant difference in weights within the study period. Total pericardial fat weight was increased in all groups but higher in group B (Lard-PKC). The same condition was seen in total pericardial index with no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in all pericardial weights. Organ weights in L-PKC (Group B) were higher when compared with those in Group A. Those in Group C (L-PKC + 2.5mL/kg AJMD) decreased compared with Group B while Group D (L-PKC + 5mL/kg AJMD) increased with no significant difference in the groups. Lipid profile analysis showed that there is a significant decrease in mean TC (mg/dL) $p < 0.001$ between Group B and A, and between Group C and B. There was no significant difference in HDL and LDL while VLDL showed a significant difference ($p < 0.000$) between Group A and D and between Group B

and C. Pericardial adiposity from Group A showed that adipocytes remained intact without distortions in histological architecture. Adipocytes sizes in Group B though appeared normal but bigger in sizes compared with control animals. Pericardial adiposity in Group C and D were normal but slightly reduced in Group D compared with other groups. Myocardium (Group A) showed normal histological architecture evident with an intact branching muscle fibre. Group B showed evidence of ballooning of branching muscle fibres and nucleus. Group C and D were normal with an intact fibre striation and nucleus. Therefore, Aju Mbaise decoction maintained histological integrity of the myocardium, lipid profile, including reduction in adipose tissue weights and adipocyte sizes of rats in this study. Further investigation from molecular perspectives should be considered to support the current claims.

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

Synonym is a semantic concept of sense relation that depicts sameness of meaning. It is under the scope of semantic field. Synonyms are different words with identical or very similar meanings. In other words, different phonologically realized items or different lexical nomenclatures that refer to one same thing are tagged synonyms. Words that are synonyms are said to be **synonymous** and the state of being a synonym is called **synonymy**. Etymologically speaking, the term synonymy originates from a Greek word sunonumon meaning ‘having the same name’ (Jackson & Amvela, 2000, p. 92). This work is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is an introductory section which involves a preamble of what the work is about, scope, significance of study, geographical location of speech community, and method of data collection. Chapter two examines what different authors say about the concept ‘synonym’, other related concepts and review of previous study. The third chapter spells out the theoretical frame work for this study. Chapter four involves data presentation and analysis which contain a list

of most synonyms in IKA language and the test for validity or authenticity of the lexical items considered to be synonyms. Chapter five is findings and conclusion.

In discussing synonymy, the relation of meaning identity, an initial distinction needs to be drawn between lexical synonymy and phrasal synonymy. By lexical synonymy; it is synonymy between individual lexemes and phrasal synonymy; it is synonymy between expressions consisting of more than one lexeme. However, this work is set out to try looking at synonymous relation present in IKA dialect of Igbo lexically and phrasally.

Meaning Identity (synonymy) is a part of metalinguistic stock-in-trade of ordinary speakers: we often refer to words as “having the same meaning”. However, we usually restrict our statement of the synonymy of two words (of phrases) to the utterance level. According to Lyons (1968:75) “when questions of sameness of meaning arise for unsophisticated speakers, no appeal is made to an abstract entity of meaning: a given word or phrase is accepted as having the same meaning as another word or phrase if it substitution for the other in the given

context yields an utterance which they will accept as having the same meaning at the first utterance.

Synonymy could be context-bound and in many occasion context-free phenomenon. In Igbo language for example:

1. a. **Ukwe** 'song'
- b. **Abu** 'song'
- c. **Mbem** 'song'

are synonymous but cannot be used in the about context to get something like the following:

2. a. **'Ha kwere abu'** 'They sang a song'
- b. **'Haburu abu or Ha mara abu'** 'They sang a song'

A look at synonyms of some African languages always poses to be difficult, unlike the English language with wealth of synonymous words. Also the issue of synonyms poses a major problem to second language learners. This work tends to analyze IKA synonymous relationship of lexemes.

According to Williamson (1968), IKA belong to igboid group. IKA is a dialect of igbo language. Studies will be carried out on the speech community located in Delta state, Nigeria. It is also necessary to note that the language is under the language family of Niger-Congo (Volta-Deltan).

1.1 Geographical Location

The IKA speaking people are found in the north west of Delta State. They share borders linguistically in the west with the ishan speakers, in the east with the Aniocha Language speakers and in the south with Ukwuani speakers. Politically, IKA speakers are mainly found in two local government area; IKA North East and IKA South local government areas, both created in 1991 from a single IKA local government area in Delta State. IKA South and IKA North East local government areas, occupy a land area of 117.4 square km (Delta State Government website, 1999) with a total population of about 240,000 people.

1.2 Methodology

The method of analysis adopted for this research is a correlational research which is a type of descriptive method. It involves procedures that would be outline in this research theoretical framework (chapter three). The bulk of data collected in this research was through oral interview with native speakers of IKA dialect and observations of discourse. I also adopted data collection of the IKA wordlist. So, true synonyms would be derived not only through word list but observations and interview from informant inclusively.

1.3 Purpose of Study

The aim of this study is to examine the nature and manifestation of synonym in IKA language. The objectives are:

- i. To find out the authenticity of the claim or assumption that synonym is rare in natural language (by natural language, the researcher means Nigerian languages in this sense).

- ii. Contributing to the revitalization of the Language (IKA dialect of Igbo) and complementing of other possible works done.
- iii. For a better understanding of the Language
- iv. For the determination of the lexical semantic relation that exists in Ika language

1.4 Significance of Study

In this contemporary time where our indigenous languages are getting endangered, especially the minority languages, Studies such as this is imperative for the sustenance (documentation) of the languages (which is also our cultural identity) as synonyms are very important in all languages because they help to increase the vocabularies of the languages.

The significance of every good research work includes its contribution to the enrichment of scholarship; the research would be beneficial to all language scholars, linguists, language learners and lexicographers; they are of paramount importance to lexicographers.

Individuals interested in IKA Language would find it easier with the knowledge of lexemes that have the same meaning for substitution sentences or conversations. In other word, it would help in the study of IKA language.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Synonym is one of the most basic tools of lexical semantics and semantic relation. It a form of paradigmatic relation which also include others like hyponym, gradable and non gradable antonymy, converseness, polysemy, homonymy and metaphorical extension. Various linguists and language researchers have contributed to the concept of synonyms. English language for example have lists of synonymous relation of lexical items ranging from adjectives, verbs and nouns which lexicographers and linguist took the task to research and document. This chapter delineates the concept of synonym by looking at various works and what authors as well as linguist have said about the concept. The last paragraphs of this chapter contain various assumptions about the concept and the concern of present work.

2.1 SEMANTIC FIELD

There's the school of thought that posit that a word meaning is established only by the network of relations among the terms of its field. The Semantic Fields Theory (Trier, 1931) goes

a step further in the structural approach to lexical semantics by introducing an additional aggregation level and by delimiting to which extend paradigmatic relations hold. The basic assumption of this theory is that the lexicon is structured into Semantic Fields: semantic relations among concepts belonging to the same field are very dense, while concepts belonging to different fields are typically unrelated. The notion of Semantic Field has proved its worth in a great volume of studies, and has been mainly put forward by Trier (Trier, 1931), whose work is credited with having “opened a new phase in the history of semantics” (Ullmann, 1957). Quine (1961: 22) has identified synonymy (along with analyticity) as “the primary business of the theory of meaning”.

As synonymy is considered to be sameness of meaning of different expressions, it is vital for this review to clarify the ‘sameness’ involved and the ‘meaning’ involved.

Harris (1973:11) believes that there are at least four different kinds of ‘sameness’:

- a. Type -1 sameness: The word ‘same’ is used “in connection with various parts of the history of one continuous thing”, for example,

it does not matter what position the chair is moved to, it is still regarded as ‘the same chair’

- b. ‘type-2 sameness’ – there are “two or more instances of non-continuous things, as when we talk about ‘the same dance step’ or ‘the same experiment’, alluding to a repetition of previous actions”
- c. ‘type-3 sameness’ – two or more coexistent copies of one thing are recognized the same, e.g. ‘the same newspaper’
- d. ‘type-4 sameness’ – “at least two continuous things are the same in a given respect” for example, when someone is told to have ‘the same eyes’ as their father

Harris concludes his discourse on ‘sameness’ by claiming that if two expressions have the same meaning then, they are the same according to the ‘type-4 sameness’.

It has been claimed that the lexicon is structured in clusters of very closely related concepts, lexicalized by sets of words. Word senses are determined and delimited only by the meanings of other words in the same field. Such clusters of semantically related terms have been called

Semantic Fields, and the theory explaining their properties is known as “The theory of Semantic Fields” (Vassilyev, 1974).

According to Tohaneanu, having more words on tap, the speaker or the writer submits them to a strict selection process, keeping only one out all of them: “the one which – he hopes – incarnates more exactly and more shading the intimate landscape of his thinking and sensibility” (Tohăneanu, 1976: 11).

Quine in Kempson(1977:30) says “the terms analytic truth, meaning, definition and synonymy, are interdefinable and that in consequence any proposed explanation of one term by means of the others is circular and an essentially empty exercise. So, if we propose to explain synonymy in terms of meaning and meaning in terms of analytical truth, then it is essential that analytic truth be explained in terms of some independent construct if the explanation of meaning is to have any context at all.”

The assertion that synonyms are two or more words having the same or almost the same meaning is correct in its essence but it is far from being a complete definition, because not only words, but also

expressions as well as phrases, sentences or some grammatical forms can be in a synonymy relation (grammatical synonymy); the greater or slighter differences between the components of a synonymic series don't have only a semantic origin, but they can also be of grammatical and stylistic nature. Even though the general definition given to synonyms is "different words in form, but close or identical in meaning" (Serban, 1978: 23), it is far from being accepted and shared by all linguists.

The communication function of the language imposes the existence of a name for each object; therefore this fact does not generate the necessity of synonymy. Speaking about the objective requirements of communication, the academician Iordan asserted that: "the language, through its speaking subjects, *feels* the uselessness of two or more names for the same thing and this is why it eliminates the redundant name, keeping only one" (Iordan, 1978: 43). Besides the objective communication, it is also distinguished the function of language expressiveness, which involves the possibility of choosing between equivalent forms, the fact that postulates the synonymy. The richness of a language means of expression is given by the number of words and

meanings, but also by the quality of these words to name the same notion (the synonyms) and by their frequency. The existence of synonyms in the lexical system is a positive phenomenon because it offers the speaker an ample, diversified and elastic system to express ideas, feelings and realities with maximum accuracy. In the structuralist perspective, the word and the terms semantically related, as well as its adjacent antonyms, form a unitary whole (Frigură, 1980: 32), in other words, wordfield or a field of the linguistic meaning inside of which words condition each other. Because the lexical field is the superior unit of the semanteme (the unity being made up of an ensemble of semes), the significance of a lexical unit is not considered as an undifferentiated whole, but is analyzable at minimal elements level; on the base of some lexical units, they can be easily placed in a synonymic series, taking into account the arhisememe of these units, which actually represents the number of common semes. If the semes totally overlap the synonymys is perfect, but if only a few semes concur, the synonyms are partial. The linguists have not succeeded to delimitate precisely the border between perfect synonyms and partial ones, to show the limits of synonymy or to give a unique definition of

synonyms. What gives validity to the majority of definitions is the common meaning of terms, on the basis of which the synonymy relation is established: “synonyms are two words which have the same meaning”. Most of the definitions include an approximate equivalence of meaning between two or more interchangeable words in the same context, which makes synonymy an objective reality, but also a modality of expression variation or even a modality of refinement of the linguistic expression: “...the stylistic function of synonyms is the one of being an exact communication expressing instrument. Even though synonymy creates large possibilities of stylistic selection for the lexical means, the search for the right word requests a sustained effort from the author... because often it is not easy to establish what makes the synonyms distinct, what meaning or emotional shades they express” (VinNeler, 1980: 36).

Lyons (1981:118) asserts that meaning can be descriptive, expressive and social, and many lexemes combine two of these or all three. If synonymy is defined as identity of meaning, then lexemes can be said to be completely synonymous (in a certain range of contexts) if and

only if they have the same distribution and are completely synonymous in all their meanings and in all their contexts of occurrence.

Palmer (1981: 88) states that synonymy is used to mean ‘sameness of meaning’. It is obvious that for the dictionary maker, many sets of words have the same meaning they are synonymous, or are synonyms of one another of course; dictionaries seldom rely solely on synonymy, but add descriptive details to enlighten the reader. We can, in fact, define synonymy as symmetric hyponymy.

Languages due to some factors like history have different synonyms. Palmer (1981:88) observes that the vocabulary of English in particular have come from different sources from Anglo-Saxon, on one hand, and from French, Latin and Greek on the other. This has resulted in it richness in synonyms. He further outlined reason for no real synonyms in natural languages... and says, if we look at possible synonyms there are at least five ways in which they can be seen to differ.

1. Some sets of synonyms belong to different dialects of the language.

2. There is a similar situation, but with the words that are used in different styles. E.g 'a nasty smell' might be, in the appropriate setting, 'an obnoxious effluvium' or 'an horrible sink'.
3. Some words may be said to differ only in their emotive or evaluative meanings. The remainder of their meaning, their 'cognitive' meaning remains the same.
4. Some words are collocationally restricted, that is they occur only in conjunction with other words. Thus, 'rancid' occur with 'bacon or butter' addled with 'eggs' or 'brain'. This does not seem to be a matter of their meaning but of the company they keep
5. It is obviously the case that many words are close in meaning or that their meaning overlap. That is to say there is a loose of synonymy. This is the kind of synonymy that is exploited by the dictionary- marker. Sometimes, words that are ordinarily opposites can mean the same thing in certain contexts, thus, a 'good' scare is the same as a 'bad' scare and a 'fat' chance is about a likely as a 'slim' chance.

According to Cruse (1986) ‘a systematic relation needs to be at least systematic, in the sense that it recurs in a number of pairs or sets of related lexical units. But even recurrent sense relations are of varying general significance. There are innumerable ‘low-level’ semantic relations restricted to specific areas. Take for example, the relations between lexical items SEE (‘have a visual experience’) LOOK AT (‘pay attention to a static visual stimulus’) and WATCH (pay attention to a potentially changing visual stimulus’). If we examine the lexical units referring to other modes of perception, we find the following correspondence;

3. See	look at	watch
Hear	listen to	
Taste ¹	Taste ²	
Smell ¹	smell ²	
Feel ¹	Feel ²	

Notice that although LISTEN TO corresponds to two different lexical units in the visual mode, it is not ambiguous; the word taste, smell and feel, on the other hand are ambiguous in parallel ways,

their sense standing in a relationship parallel to that which holds between hear and listen to.

According to crystal (1987: 105), synonymy is the relationship of meaning. Example kingly/royal/regal, pavement/side walk, youth/youngster.

The search for synonyms is a longstanding pedagogical exercise, but, it is as well to remember that lexemes rarely (if ever) have exactly the same meaning. There are usually stylistic, regional, emotional or other differences to consider. Context must also be taken into account.

2.2 SEMANTIC RELATION

It is also known as meaning relation. Most words are semantically related to each other. Semantic relation is also called meaning relation. In narrow sense are semantic relations between concepts or meanings. The concept 'School' may, for example, be expressed by the terms or expressions 'school', 'school house' and 'place for teaching'. The relation between 'school' and 'school house' is a (synonym) relation between two words, while relation between 'school' and 'place of teaching' is a

relation between a word and an expression or phrase. The relations between words are termed lexical relations.

Below are some of the ways in which words can be semantically related.

- I. Polysemy:
- II. Synonymy:
- III. Antonyms:
- IV. Homonymy (Homograph, Homophones)

The focus of this study is synonyms.

2.3 SYNONYMS: AN OVERVIEW

Similarity of meaning is “the most important lexical relation”, in the WorldNet model (Miller and Fellbaum 1991: 202) and in philosophy.

Busmann (1996) describes synonymy as semantic relation of sameness or strong similarity in meaning of two or more linguistic expressions. In lexicology, grammar or stylistics, it is a term whose interpretations are as varied as the semantic theories in which it is found.

Synonym is therefore, an integral ingredient of grammar. Let us look at its definition by different grammarians and authors.

Value (1996: 118) view synonym as two or more forms with very closely related meanings, which are often, but not always intersubstitutable in sentences. Examples of synonyms are the pairs broad-wide, hide-conceal, almost-nearly, cab-taxi, liberty-freedom, and answer-reply.

Logicians defined synonymy as mutual entailment, so by definition a characterization of meaning in terms of truth condition will guarantee that when two sentences have identical truth conditions, they will mean the same.

Synonyms have same referent in the case of referential words for example 'Morning Star' and 'Level star' are synonyms because they both refer to the planet Venus. In the broadest sense, any words that have overlapping meanings are said to be synonyms. Example, acquire, set, obtain receive e.t.c (Bussmann 1996: 470).

A corpus-based study carried out by Supakorn, Thammasat University, Thailand in the international Journal of Art and Sciences examined five synonyms in English, i.e. ask, beg, plead, request, and appeal, concentrating on their lexical, syntactic, and stylistic information

including the major similarities and differences between these synonyms according to their meanings, connotations, collocations, grammatical patterns, formality, and dialects. This work gave a dichotomy between strict and loose synonymy. As for strict synonymy, two words are considered strict synonyms if they can be used interchangeably in all of their possible contexts of use. However, the substitution of one word for the other must not result in a change in meaning, style, and connotation of what is being said or written. (Jackson & Amvela, 2000). As a matter of fact, strict synonymy is considered uneconomical since it leads to unnecessary redundancy in a language. Loose synonyms are most commonly found in a language. When linguists talk about synonyms, they generally refer to varying degrees of loose synonymy, “where we identify not only a significant overlap in meaning between two words, but also some contexts at least where they cannot substitute for each other.” (Jackson & Amvela, 2000, p. 94). ‘Clear examples of loose synonyms in English are the words mad and insane, both of which generally mean ‘mentally ill’. They are interchangeable in such a context as the team of psychiatrists found out that he is mad/ insane. However, when mad means

‘angry’ as in Lisa is very mad at Tim now., the word insane cannot be used in this context without a change in meaning, as in *Lisa is very insane at Tim now. Additionally, the use of insane here also violates the grammatical patterns since the combination insane at are not likely to occur in native speakers’ speech’. The above examples indicate that synonyms can be interchangeably used where their meanings overlap, but where a meaning is beyond the shared area, one cannot substitute for the other (Thornbury, 2002).

The work identified criteria for testing synonyms and it states, synonyms in English can be differentiated according to the following criteria:

- i. Dialect; The first criterion one can use to distinguish synonyms is the regions where these words exist
- ii. Style or Formality of the Context
- iii. Connotations
- iv. Grammatical Patterns
- v. Collocations

In the book “*synonyms, A semantic study of Appointment and engagement*”, by Fromkin et al (2003), the degree of semantic similarity between words depends largely on the number of semantic properties they share. ‘Sofa and Couch’ refer to the same type of object and share most of their semantic properties. There are words that are neither synonym nor near synonyms. Yet have many semantic properties in common. ‘Man and Boy’ both refer to male humans; the meaning of boy includes the traditional semantic property of youth whereby it differs from the meaning of man (Fromkin et al 2003: 181). Also when synonyms occur in otherwise identical sentence, the sentences are paraphrases; (except possibly for minor differences in emphasis) for example ‘she forgot her handbag’, she forgot her purse. (Fromkin et al 2003: 182). Finegan (2004: 92) asserted that two words are said to be synonymous if they mean the same thing. In his assertion, to address notion of synonymy more formally, we can say that term ‘A’ is a referent of ‘B’ and vice versa. For example, if every movie is a film and every film is a movie, the terms movie and film are synonymous. The vice versa is important. Without it, we could be defining hyponymy. In the sentences below (a and b);

4.

a. You are too young to drink

b. You are not old enough to drink.

A, and B basically ‘says the same thing’, in that the first describes exactly what the second describes. Finegan (2004) says they are synonymous sentences or that they paraphrase each other. When we assert that two terms are synonymous, we usually base the judgment on linguistic meaning only. However, even though movie, film, flick and motion picture have same linguistic meaning, they differ in social and effective meaning. Therefore, we can consider the terms to be synonymous if we specify that we are taking only linguistic meaning into account. At the social and effective levels, however, they are not synonymous (finegan 2004: 191-192).

In Frank Robert Palmer’s work on semantics, he notes that synonyms often have different distributions along a number of parameters. They may have belonged to different dialects and then become synonyms for speakers familiar with both dialects like Irish English ‘press’ and British English ‘cuboard’ or the words may belong to different ‘registers’

those styles of language colloquial, formal, literary e.t.c. that belong to different situations. Thus, ‘wife’ or ‘spouse’ is more formal than ‘old lady’ or ‘misuses’.

Akmajan et al (2006: 238) points out that not only do words have meaning properties (such as ambiguity), they also bear various meaning as ambiguity), they also bear various meaning relations to one another. By word formation rules, words can be related morphologically as well as they can be related semantically and words related by virtue of meaning from subgroups within the lexicon of a language. For example, one central meaning relation is synonymy, sameness of meaning, or “paraphrase”. Among the meaning properties and relations of words and phrases that carry over to sentences are ambiguity and synonymy (paraphrase) example of synonymy,

i. His pants were too small

His pans were not big enough

Saeed (2007) says, we might compare synonymous pairs,

ii. A big house: a large house

A big sister: my large sister

He illustrates 'A' is synonymous with 'B'. A has same meaning as 'B'.

Saeed also gave a logical definition of synonyms as in P and Q are synonymous when the expression $P=Q$ is always true (Saeed 2007: 87-115). This is shown in the *COMPOSITE TRUTH TABLE FOR SYSONYMY* below:

7.

P	-	Q
T	-	T
F	-	F
T	-	T
F	-	F

This table simply says, apparently, that P and Q always have the same truth value, that is if 'P' describes a situation so will 'Q', vice versa, while if either incorrectly describes a situation so will the other. This true is seen for example, like the following:

8.

Peter owns this book.

This book belongs to peter

In order to investigate synonymy in detail as stated earlier, this paper was aimed at studying five English synonyms: ask, beg, plead, request, and appeal. ‘In terms of meanings, all these words being studied share the same core meaning as they involve an action of “asking someone to do something”. However, when they were investigated in detail, there are some interesting differences lying beneath their surface meaning. According to LDOCE (2009, p. 84), compared to **ask**, which is a basic one, the word **beg** implies anxiety or urgency of the speaker who really needs something to be done as soon as possible. As for **plead**, the word indicates that the matter being asked for is serious and important. It, put differently, shows more degree of seriousness than ask. In addition, the word **request** is concerned with politeness of the speaker as well as the formality of the context or circumstance (LDOCE, 2009, p. 1483). The word **appeal** deals with seriousness, urgency, and formality. Also, it can be used in relation to the matters in court or legal system (CALD, 2009, p. 75).’

Strict synonym as such are extremely rare .(MaCarthy, O’Keeffe, & Walsh, 2010).

2.4 COGNITIVE SYNONYMY

There are different degrees of synonymity, According to Cruse, Cognitive could be defined as follows;

X is a cognitive synonym of Y if

- i. X and Y are syntactically identical and
- ii. Any grammatical declarative sentence S containing X has equivalent truth-conditions to another sentence S, which is identical to S except that X is replaced by Y.

An example of a pair of cognitive synonymy is *fiddle* and *violin*: These are incapable of yielding sentences with different truth-conditions. For instance, he plays the violin very well entails and is entailed by He plays the fiddle very well.

Content of a message conveyed by utterance could be the same or at least very similar in a sense but differ in the way that the meaning is put across. This difference is in respect to what is referred to as semantic mode which is in two state; propositional mode and expressive mode. E.g

9. *I just felt a sudden sharp pain* - *Prepositional mode*

Ouch! - *Expressive mode*

Propositional and expressive meanings are the most important types of meaning in language, and we can think of them as what a speaker principally utilizes and directly manipulates in order to convey his intended message.

2.5 PREVIOUS STUDY

Thecla (2010) carried out a study on synonyms of Igbo language which he presented to the Society for Research and Academic Excellence. The work investigates synonyms of Standard Igbo dialect, assumptions of synonyms in natural language and tend to help language learners. From the academic exercise, it was found out that there are so many Igbo lexemes that have exactly the same meaning. Some true synonyms were x-rayed and tested, and as a result showed that there are so many complete synonyms in the standard Dialect (SD) of Igbo Language. This is due to the fact that many of the vocabularies in the SD were lifted from different dialects of the language and in most cases different names for the same linguistic item were accepted in the SD. He therefore concludes

that there are no true synonym in a natural language is a hyperbole/ overstatement judging from Igbo language examples.

10.

Synonymous lexemes in Igbo Language	English Equivalent
Mkporo/nga	Prison
Uwe/akwa	Clothes
Ekpem/kalana/ololo	Bottle
Ugha/asi	Lie
Omume/ agwa	Character
Ugegbe /enyo	Mirror
Etc.	

2.6 Summary:

In this chapter we reviewed various literature related to synonymy. We examined concepts like semantic field, sense relation, semantic relation, polysemy, homonymy, cognitive synonymy, cohesion and also an overview of synonymy. We took a step also to look at a previous study of Igbo language which centered on the synonymous relationship of

lexemes in the language. This examination leads us to the theoretical frame work of the analysis.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Aikhenvald's (2007:5) describes linguistic fieldwork as one that ideally involves observing the language as it is used, becoming a member of the community, and often being adopted into the kinship system. This description is tantamount to the theoretical framework adopted in this research. This chapter tends to identify the approach of this linguistic study, how it works and its usefulness. The first part will look explicitly at the descriptive approach of which is adopted in this work including the types of descriptive approach and its method of analysis. The last paragraph makes a conclusion with the relevance of this framework to the present study.

3.1 DESCRIPTIVE LINGUISTICS

According to the perceptive introduction to the edited volume on grammar writing by Evans and Dench (2006:3): The job of descriptive linguistics 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. Descriptive linguistics is the task of objectively analyzing and describing how language is actually used by a group of people in a speech community. It aims at observing the linguistic world as it is, without the bias of preconceived ideas about how it ought to be.

The term *descriptive* which has come to be associated with the concept of a generally informal statement of the ‘facts’ of a given language was originally 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. *Descriptive* is opposed to the tradition of *prescriptive* grammars and dictionaries which emerged during the formative period of the modern national languages in Europe.

A European structuralist conception of descriptive linguistics distinguishes two methods of gathering data:

1. collecting a corpus of texts, which is part of what philologists traditionally do in their study of ancient written languages, and
2. Interaction with a native speaker (Mosel 1987:10).

3.2 Descriptive theoretical approach

Descriptive theories are theories about what languages are like. They are theories about what tools we need in order to provide adequate descriptions of Individual languages. The concept of descriptive analysis 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. Descriptive theories are most time misinterpreted as explanatory theories. The difference between both is not farfetched; according to Dryer, Descriptive theories are theories about what languages are like. They are theories about what tools we need in order to provide adequate descriptions of individual languages. Explanatory theories (or theoretical frameworks), in contrast, are theories about *why* languages are the way they are. Dryer also states that “The distinction between descriptive theories and explanatory theories is not widely recognized in linguistics, although it is not hard to identify the historical explanation for this. First, pregenerative theories, such as American structuralism, explicitly disavowed the goal of constructing an explanatory theory. As such they were examples of descriptive theories, but the underlying assumption was

that that was the only type of theory needed. Generative grammar, in contrast, has aimed at being an explanatory theory. Furthermore, a central tenet of generative grammar, especially clear in the work of Chomsky since the mid-1970s (e.g. Chomsky 1973), has been the idea that a single theory can serve simultaneously as a descriptive theory and as an explanatory theory. Such a view follows from Chomsky's ideas about innateness: if one believes that languages are the way they are because of our innate linguistic knowledge, then a theory about that innate linguistic knowledge will simultaneously serve as a theory about what languages are like and as a theory about why they are that way”.

A descriptive research is concerned with conditions, practices, structures, differences or relationships that exist, opinions held processes that are going on or trends that are evident. There are types of descriptive theories which most time overlap. Six types are highlighted below;

- a. Correlational Research
- b. Causal-Comparative Research
- c. Case Study
- d. Ethnography

e. Document Analysis

f. Analytical Method

Although these types of descriptive theoretical frameworks are interwoven, if for the fact that they entrench the descriptive nature, however two types would be adopted for the purpose of this study.

i. Correlational research

ii. Case study

3.2.1 CORRELATIONAL RESEARCH

It is classified as a type of linguistic research based on the fact that it describes what exists at the moment (conditions, practices, processes, structures etc). Comprises of collecting data to determine whether, and to what extent, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. The degree of relationship is expressed in terms of a coefficient of a relation. If the relationships are substantial and consistent, they enable a researcher to make predictions about the variables. Correlational research seeks to determine the nature, degree and direction of relationships between items. Correlational studies typically investigate a number of variables expected to be related to a major, complex variable.

Those variables which are not found to be related to this major, complex variable are omitted from further analysis. On the other hand, those variables which are found to be related to this major, complex variable are further analysed in a causal-comparative or experimental study so as to determine the exact nature of the relationship between them. In a correlational study, hypotheses or research questions are stated at the beginning of the study.

Correlational study is different from causative study or Causal-comparative studies (which studies attempt to identify cause-effect relationships). In other words, Causal-comparative studies involve comparison, correlational studies involve relationship. Correlational study specifies concomitant variations in the scores on the variables. For example, there is a strong relationship between students' scores on academic achievement in Mathematics and their scores on academic achievement in Science. This does not suggest that one of these variables is the cause and the other is the effect.

Correlational research is of the following two types;

1. Relationship studies; which attempt to gain insight into variables that are related to complex variables
2. Prediction studies; are conducted to facilitate decisions about individuals or to aid in various types of selection

Below are steps of a correlational research;

- 1. Selection of a problem:** Correlational study is designed to either determine whether and how a set of variables are related or to test the hypothesis of expected relationship between among the set of two or more variables.

A correlational study is not done just to find out what exists: it is done for the ultimate purpose of explanation and prediction of phenomena. If a correlational study is done just to find out what exists, it is usually known as a 'shot gun' approach and the findings of such a study are very difficult to interpret.

- 2. Selection of the Sample and the Tools**

- 3. Design and Procedure:** The basic design of a correlational study is simple. It requires scores obtained on two or more variables from each unit of the sample and the correlation coefficient between the

paired scores is computed which indicates the degree and direction of the relationship between variables.

4. Interpretation and Findings

Some questions in correlational studies could be;

- i. To what extent are two variables related
- ii. Is there relationships between two items used in the same situation
- iii. What semantic features does variables have in common

3.2.2 CASE STUDY

Case study research is descriptive research that involves describing and interpreting events, conditions, circumstances or situations that are occurring in the present. According to Odum, “The case study method is a technique by which individual factor whether it is an institution or just an episode in the life of an individual or a group is analyzed in its relationship to any other in the group”. Case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships. It seeks to engage with and report the complexity of social and/or educational activity in order to represent the meanings that

individual actors in the situation bring to that setting. Case studies involve a detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships. Social scientists have made a wide use of this qualitative research method to examine contemporary real-life situations and provide the basis for the application of ideas and extension of methods. Yin defines the case study research method as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. The approach of case studies ranges from general field studies to interview of a single individual or group. A case study can be precisely focused on a topic or can include a broad view of life and society. A case study can be conducted to explore, to describe or to explain a phenomenon. It could be a synchronic study in which data are collected at one point of time or it could be longitudinal in nature. It could be conducted at a single site or it could be multi-site. In other words, it is inherently a very flexible methodology.

3.2.2.1 Some peculiarities of case study

- i. It is concern with an exhaustive study of particular instances
- ii. It emphasizes the study of interrelationship between different attributes of a unit.
- iii. Each case study needs to have a clear focus which may include those aspects of the case on which the data collection and analysis will concentrate. The focus of a study could be a specific topic, theme, proposition or a working hypothesis.
- iv. It focuses on the natural history of the unit under study and its interaction with the social world around it.
- v. In order to ensure that the case study is intensive and in-depth, data are collected over a long period of time from a variety of sources including human and material and by using a variety of techniques such as interviews and observations and tools such as questionnaires, documents, artifacts, diaries and so on
- vi. According to Yin, case studies typically involve investigation of a phenomenon for which the boundaries between the phenomenon and its context are not clearly evident. These boundaries should be clearly

clarified as part of the case study. He further emphasizes the importance of conducting a case study in its real life context. The purpose of a case study is a detailed examination of a specific activity, event, institution, or person/s. The hypotheses or the research questions are stated broadly at the beginning at the study. A study's questions are directed towards 'how' and 'why' considerations and enunciating and defining these are the first task of the researcher. The study's propositions could be derived from these 'how' and 'why' questions. These propositions could help in developing a theoretical focus. However, all case studies may not have propositions. For instance, an exploratory case study may give only a purpose statement or criteria that could guide the research process.

3.2.2.2 Steps of Conducting a Case Study

Following are the steps of a case study:

1. Identifying a current topic which is of interest to the researcher.
2. Identifying research questions and developing hypotheses (if any).
3. Determining the unit of sampling and the number of units. Select the cases.

4. Identifying sources, tools and techniques of data collection.

These could include interviews, observations, documentation, student records and school databases. Collect data in the field.

5. Evaluating and Analyzing Data.

6. Report writing.

The table below is from table 1.1 in Hyman (2001) Prototypical versus less prototypical fieldwork

Table 1

	Fieldwork prototype	Fieldwork countertype	Least fieldwork-like
Elicitee	Other	Self	Introspection
Elicitor/Observer	Self	Other	Secondary data
Distance	Far	Near	One's domicile
Setting	Small	Large	City, university
Duration	Long	Short	Brief Stopover
Language	Exotic	Well-Known	One's Own
Subject Matter	A Language in it natural/	Language in general as a	Abstract syntax

Data	cultural context	formal system	
Motivation	Naturalistic Language Driven	Controlled Language driven	Synthetic speech

Succinctly, Descriptive linguistic fieldwork is:

1. Data collection for the purpose of the documentation and description of a language
2. Data collection through interaction with speakers
3. Data collection in situations where speakers are expected to use the language naturally

Descriptive linguistic fieldwork is *not*:

1. Data collection only through introspection
2. Data collection only through examination of written documents or written corpora
3. Data collection only through controlled lab experiments

In view of the nature of descriptive framework, it is useful for the purpose of this study looking at it aforementioned peculiarities. According to Lehmann (1999:10), Description of a language is 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. It describes the language as it is through data collected from the speech community and following the procedures as stipulated by the types of descriptive theoretical framework above.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Based on investigations, this chapter present data of linguistics items assumed to be synonyms in IKA language. The analysis is backed by descriptive research and approach which involves observing the language as it is used at the moment. This work which aim at looking at the nature, degree and direction of relationships between lexemes of IKA dialect, begins with classifying synonyms, with a close look at partial and absolute synonyms. Secondly, we try to examined synonyms and lexical relation in IKA language which is related with the concept of lexical cohesion. This culminates to the data analysis of this work.

4.1 CLASSIFICATION OF SYNONYM

A close examination of the facts of language clearly indicates that any language department (phonetics, vocabulary, morphology, syntax) has numerous opportunities to express the same idea, the same logical content, and the same grammatical relation, in other words, to use

synonyms. Many scholars and linguists have been involved in the quest of classifying synonymy. There is the structural criterion (referring to the lexical unit structure, simple or expanded) and the functional criterion (referring to the total or partial overlap of the senses). Proper lexical synonyms are classified into: perfect synonyms (monosemantic words whose senses overlap completely – e.g. *omeme, omrnife, uzukor*) and partial synonyms or quasi synonyms or parasynonyms (usually polysemantic words whose senses do not overlap completely). Partial synonyms are subclassified into non-figurative synonyms (e.g. *ofu – mbo*) and figurative or stylistic synonyms, which come from popular language, slang, or colloquial style or are creations of the writer himself.

An Academician, named V.V. Vinogradov made a classification of synonymy and in his classification there are 3 types of synonyms:

1. Ideographic; are words conveying the same concept, but different in the shades of meaning

11.

- ai. Iben ‘funny’

O rie mi *iben*

Lexical translation: 'he is do funny'

Free translation: 'he does hilarious things'

aii. emu
 O ria mu *emu*

Lexical translation: 'he is do funny'

2. Stylistic; words different in stylistic characteristics

12.

ai. Ofu 'one'

Yem *ofu*

Lexical translation: 'Give Det. One'

Free translation: 'Give me one'

aii. mbo 'one'

Mbo ru ma, ebuo o ru ma

Lexical translation: 'one is good, two NEG is good'

Free translation: 'The first time is good; the second time may not be good'

3. Absolute; words that coincide in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics.

13.

a. *edeke*

Lexical translation: 'Blood'

Edeke a nu

Free translation: 'Blood of meat'

b. *obara*

Lexical translation: 'Blood'

Obara a nu

Free translation: 'Blood of meat'

From the multiple perspectives and different definitions of synonyms, various kinds of synonyms could be distinguished: phonetical, lexical, grammatical, affixal, mixed, etc., all based on the assumption of binary relations, manifested in phonetics, in vocabulary and in grammar. However, two sub-classifications shall be analyzed.

4.1.1 ABSOLUTE AND PARTIAL SYNONYMS

Synonymy is one of the modern linguistics' most controversial problems. One of the controversies is the question of whether two words are absolutely identical in a language put forward a number of interesting issues to be addressed. Synonymy is distinguished into partial and absolute synonyms. Absolute synonyms are those words which totally substitute each other in every context without any alteration in the notional and emotional meaning. In partial synonyms, words are interchangeable only in some contexts; words are interchangeable semantically, but not emotionally. In Absolute synonyms, although rare, are present under the following conditions:

1. When they are interchangeable in all contexts
2. When their cognitive and affective value is preserved
3. All their meanings are identical
4. They are semantically equivalent (i.e. their meaning or meanings are identical) in all the dimensions of meaning, both the descriptive and the non-descriptive one.

There are a few absolute (identical) synonyms, most synonyms are partial synonyms; in the development of any language, the absolute synonymy is usually disturbed when one of the synonyms acquires a special connotation or when the usage becomes different. Absolute synonymy implies that the synonyms, first, have the same range of meanings and, second, are substitutable for each other in all relevant contexts without changing the meaning of the sentence as a whole. Words are partially synonymous if they are substitutable in one or more but not all of their readings, or if their readings are partially synonymous in the sense defined above.

4.2 SYNONYMS AND LEXICAL RELATION IN IKA DIALECT

The meaning of a word in a construct could be defined as the total set of meaning relations in which it participate. That means, meaning of words are determined based on relations with other words. This is related with the concept of lexical cohesion which occurs in languages including IKA dialect. Lexical cohesion is triggered by synonym. Lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary, that is, through the choice of lexical items. Lexical items are selected in relation

to those that have gone before. There are connections that exist between words. Certain set of attributes are also considered in the linkage of lexical items (like animate, in-animate, etc.)

4.2.1 Some Synonymous Lexemes in IKA dialect

Some of the examples of synonyms in IKA dialect of igbo is as follows;

Table 2:

Gloss/ English equivalent	Synonymous lexemes of IKA
1. Prison	Egan, Nga (noun)
2. Clothes (noun)	Ewuru, Ekwa
3. Lie	Ntu, Ofo (noun)
4. Sin (noun)	Njor, Ejihien
5. Character (noun)	Omime, Amara
6. Meeting (noun)	Mgbako, Nzuko

7.	Evening (noun)	Amayanse, Ehansi
8.	English	Ebo, Oyibo (noun)
9.	Laughter	Iben, Emu (noun)
10.	Poem	Ilu, taita (noun)
11.	Tribe	Ebon, Ali (noun)
12.	Friend (noun)	Owim, Oyenkem
13.	Programme Uzukor (noun)	Omeme, Omenifie,
14.	Branch	Ebu, Agalaba (noun)
15.	Leader (noun)	Oyinshi, Udiokiki
16.	Plate (noun)	Okpan, Afere
17.	Pot	Oku, Ite (noun)
18.	War	Agha, Ogun

(noun)	
19. Mercy	Omiken, ebere
(noun)	
20. Respects	Mgbaye, Ogho
(noun)	
21. One	Ofu, mbo (noun)
22. Accident	Udomidi, nsukume (noun)
23. Fool	nzuzu, ewobi (noun)
24. Blood	edeke, obara (noun)
25. Bell	egogo, mbrigban (noun)
26. When	elogen, elama (adverb)
27. Go	ejen, puo (verb)
28. End	ogo, yoru (verbal noun)
29. Strength	iken, ndu
30. Thunder	amuma, agbagada

The above synonymous lexeme would further be put into test in 4.3 to determine if they are synonymous or the extent of similarities.

4.2.2 Some other synonymous expressions like phrase, clause and sentence

Below are some synonymous relations that exist in IKA dialect beyond the word or lexical level.

14.

ai. Lihi o-to

Lexical translation: 'stand Up'

Free translation: 'stand up'

aii. Turu o-to

Lexical translation: 'stand up'

Free translation: 'stand up'

15.

ai. Gban ki ti

Free translation: 'Shut your mouth'

aii. Gbu kio nu

Lexical translation: 'Close your mouth'

Free translation: 'Shut your mouth'

aiii. E ku zi le oku

Lexical translation: 'Neg. do talk the talk'

Free translation: 'Shut your mouth / Stop talking'

16.

ai. Onyen Ogologo

Lexical translation: 'Person tall'

Free translation: 'Tall person'

aii. Oyen sueh usueh

Lexical translation: 'person tall tall'

Free translation: 'Tall person'

17.

ai. Obolo

Lexical translation: 'fool'

Free translation: 'Foolish person'

aii. Oyen –insusu

Lexical translation: ‘person –foolish’

Free translation: ‘Foolish person’

4.3 Test of Ika Synonymy

Some of the above listed linguistic items assumed to be synonyms in IKA language are tested using the yardstick formulated by Palmer (1981), that is substitution and oppositeness. The nature, degree and direction of relationships between items illustrated with examples of its sentential use below;

18.

We kpo kien ye *egan*

Lexical Translation: ‘They took him to prison’

Free translation: ‘They took him to prison’

We kpo kien ye *nga*

Lexical Translation: ‘They took him to prison’

Free translation: ‘They tok him to prison’

The above lexemes in No.18 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

19.

ai. We kwa ne *ekwa*

Lexical translation: 'They sew him clothes'

Free translation: 'They sew clothes for him'

aii. We kwa ne *ewuru*

Lexical translation: 'They sew him clothes'

Free translation: 'They sew clothes for him'

The above lexemes in No.19 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

20.

ai. *O ria *tuntu*

Lexical translation: 'He is tell lie'

Free translation: 'He is lying'

aii. O bo mo *fo*

Lexical translation: 'he lied on me'

Free translation: 'He lied against me or he's lying'

Synonyms are words with similar meaning, respectively with related meanings. '*Ntu and fo*' are synonymous in respect to their

semantic attribute. However, they are not true or absolute synonyms because they cannot be used in the exact same context. It is classified under stylistic synonyms. Stylistic lexical synonyms have the same meaning, but belong to different functional style.

21.

ai. O me *njor*

Lexical translation: 'he did bad thing'

Free translation: 'He committed sin'

aii. O me *ejihien*

Lexical translation: 'He did sin'

Free translation: 'He committed sin'

22.

ai. O wen ezigbo *amara*

Lexical translation: 'He has good character'

Free translation: 'He has good character'

aii. O wen ezigbo *omime*

Lexical translation: 'He has good character'

Free translation: 'He has good character'

The above lexemes in No.22 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

23.

ai *We zu *nzuko*

Lexical translation: 'They tense-marker meeting'

Free translation: 'They had meeting'

aii. We wen *mgbako*

Lexical translation: 'They tense-marker meeting'

Free translation: 'They have meeting'

'**Nzuko and mgbako**' have same meaning but they are appended with tense marker. While 'nzuko' is used with 'zu' (had), 'mgbako' is used with 'wen'(have)

24.

ai. *Ameyansi* yo gi bia

Lexical translation: 'Evening you now come'

Free translation: 'He came in the evening'

aii. *Eyansi* yo gi bia

Lexical translation: 'Evening you now come'

Free translation: 'He came in the evening'

The above lexemes in No.24 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context and also retaining the meaning of expression.

25.

ai. Ndi *ebo*

Lexical translation: 'Person English'

Free translation: 'English person'

aii. Ndi *oyibo*

Lexical translation: 'Person English'

Free translation: 'English person'

The above lexemes in No.18 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

26.

ai. *O rie mi *iben*

Lexical translation: 'he is do funny'

Free translation: 'He is funny and hilarious'

aii. O ria mu *emu*

Lexical translation: 'He is laughing laugh'

Free translation: 'He is laughing'

It is true that *'iben and emu'* are synonymous but they cannot be used interchangeably in the about context to get something like *'orie mi emu, oria mi iben'*. So, they are not true synonyms.

27

ai. O ria *taita*

Free translation: (he is reciting-poem)

aii. O ria *luihu*

Free translation: 'he is reciting-poem'

The above lexemes in No.27 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

28.

ai. Ndi *ebon* enyi

Lexical translation: 'People tribe us'

Free translation: 'Our people from same tribe'

aii. Ndi *ali* enyi

Lexical translation: 'People tribe us'

Free translation: 'Our people from same tribe'

The above lexemes in No.28 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

29.

ai. *Owim* ro

Lexical translation: 'My-friend he-is'

Free translation: 'He is my friend'

aii. *Oyenkem* ro

Lexical translation: 'My-person he-is'

Free translation: 'He is my friend'

30.

ai. *We wen *omenife*

Lexical translation: 'we do programme'

Free translation: 'We have programme'

aii. We rie me *omeme*

Lexical translation: 'we are doing programme'

Free translation: 'We have programme'

The relationship is not totally synonymous one but it is rather classified under ideographic synonyms. They hear the same idea but not identical in their referential content. They convey same concept, but different in the shades of meaning.

31.

ai. ***Oyinshi*** a lie-in

Lexical translation: 'Leader of land our'

Free translation: 'Leader of our land'

aii. ***Udiokiki*** a lie-in

Lexical translation: 'Leader of land our'

Free translation: 'Leader of our land'

The above lexemes in No.31 are synonymous as a result of undergoing the process of substitution and retaining the meaning of the expression.

32.

ai. ***Okpan*** mi ro

Lexical translation: 'Plate my own'

Free translation: 'It's my plate'

aii. ***Afere*** me ro

Lexical translation: 'Plate my own'

Free translation: 'It's my plate'

The above lexemes in No.32 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

33.

ai. *Ite* ofugbon

Lexical translation: 'pot oil'

Free translation: 'pot of oil'

aii. *oku* ofugbon

Lexical translation: 'pot oil'

Free translation: 'pot of oil'

The above lexemes in No.33 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

34.

ai. O wa ni wo *agha*

Free translation: 'This is war'

aii. Owa ni wo *gun*

Free translation: 'This is war'

Agha and Ogun are partial synonyms. The difference has to do with degree and intensity of the action *agha* has more violent than *gun*

35.

ai. O rie mo *Omiken*

Lexical translation: 'He is have mercy'

Free translation: 'He is being merciful'

aii. O rie mo *ebere*

Lexical translation: 'He is have mercy'

Free translation: 'He is being merciful'

The above lexemes in No.35 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

36.

ai. *N-ria *mgbaye*

Lexical translation: I am respect'

Free translation: I am respecting you)

aii. N-rie ye *ogho*

Lexical translation: 'I am give respect'

Free translation: 'I am respecting you'

The two words *mgbaye* and *ogho* cannot replace each other in the above speech event.

37.

ai. *Ihien *udomidi*

Lexical translation: 'Something accidental'

Free translation: 'An accidental incidence'

aii. We *nsukume*

Lexical translation: 'They collided'

Free translation: 'An accidental incidence'

'Accident / an unexpected incidence took place', 'they collided'

In this context 'udomidi' and 'nsukume' cannot be used interchangeably. Therefore, they are not true synonyms.

38.

ai. O-yen *ewobi* ro

Lexical translation: 'Person stupid he-is'

Free translation: 'Senseless person'

aii. O-yen *nzuzu* ro

Lexical translation: 'Person stupid he-is'

Free translation: 'Senseless person'

The above lexemes in No.38 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

39.

ai. *Edeke* anu

Lexical translation: 'Blood meat'

Free translation: 'Blood of meat'

aii. *Obara* anu

Lexical translation: 'Blood meat'

Free translation: 'Blood of meat'

The above lexemes in No.39 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

40.

ai. O ria kue *egogo*

Lexical translation: 'He is hitting bell'

Free translation: 'He is ringing the bell'

aii. O ria kue *mgbrigban*

Lexical translation: 'He is hitting bell'

Free translation: 'He is ringing the bell'

The above lexemes in No.40 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

41.

ai. *Elama* o gi me

Lexical translation: 'When did it do?'

Free translation: 'When did it happened?'

aii. *Elogen* o gi me

Lexical translation: 'When did it do?'

Free translation: 'When did it happen?'

The above lexemes in No.42 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

42.

ai. *Mbo* ru ma, ebuo o ru ma

Lexical translation: 'one is good, two NEG is good'

Free translation: 'The first time is good, the second time may not be good'

aii. Yem *ofu*

Lexical translation: 'Give Det. One'

Free translation: 'Give me one'

The words *mbo* and *ofu* have same semantic attribute but they cannot be used in the same context. '*Mbo*' is used for abstract entities while '*Ofu*' is used for concrete entity.

43.

ai. *Ejen*

Lexical translation: 'Go'

Free translation: 'Go away'

aii. *Puo*

Lexical translation: 'Go'

Free translation: 'Go away'

The two lexemes above are synonymous. They can be interchanged in any speech act.

44.

ai. *Eben *yoru*

Lexical translation: 'Here finish'

Free translation: 'This is where it ends'

aii. Eben yo ne *ogo*

Lexical translation: 'Here tense-m finish'

Free translation: 'This is where it ends'

Yoru and *Ogo* are synonymous but in this language situation one cannot go in for the other.

45.

ai. O wen *iken*

Lexical translation: 'He NEG strength'

Free translation: 'He doesn't have strength'

aii. O wen *ndu*

Lexical translation: 'He NEG strength'

Free translation: 'He doesn't have strength'

The above lexemes in No.45 are synonymous as they can be substituted in the same context without a change in the meaning of expression.

46.

ai. *Amuma* rie meme

Lexical translation: 'Thunder is happening'

Free translation: 'Thunder stroke'

aii. *Agbagada* rie meme

Lexical translation: [Thunder is happening]

Free translation: (Thunder stroke)

Using the substitution criteria, most of the above mentioned lexemes in IKA language are true, complete and absolute synonyms except for few that are not, as indicated with asterisk. Other lexemes with same range of meaning but not substitutable in relevant or all contexts, are partial synonyms.

4.4 Summary

From the analysis above, it could be seen that IKA language makes use of synonyms which centre on word, phrase, sentence and meaning relationship. This enhances communication and language learning

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 SUMMARY

In this study, we have tried to point out the presence of synonyms in ika language and from this academic exercise; we found out that the general assumption that there are no real synonyms in any natural language is an overstatement. That is so because there are so many IKA lexemes that have exactly same meaning (check table 2 and 4.2.2). Those words can be used comfortably and interchangeably in the same context.

5.2 FINDINGS

From this academic exercise, it was discovered that, the assumption that there is no true synonyms is not strictly applicable to IKA language. Just like the standard dialect of Igbo language there are many complete synonyms in IKA dialect of igbo language.

In the course of this research, it is also discovered that noun class of lexemes are most likely to have synonymous counterpart in IKA language closely examining the data and analysis in this work. Apart from those expressions marked with asterisks in the above collected date, other

utterances are of the same meaning. They can be used interchangeably in the same speech event. Judging from IKA language examples (Chapter four above), conclusively, that there are no true synonyms in a natural language is a hyperbole.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The meaning rendition of synonym is not restrained to one language alone; rather it cut across all natural languages. Individuals interested in IKA Language competence would find it easier with the knowledge of lexemes that have the same meaning for substitution in sentences or conversations as stated earlier in chapter one. One of the pertinent effects of synonyms is that it increases the vocabularies of the language. It enables users of a language with varieties of lexical item to use in an utterance. Synonyms however tend to create problem for a second language learner as he has not mastered the language. Synonyms are a tasty ingredient of language. It helps both the native speakers and language learner to have competence of the language.

Judging from IKA language examples (Chapter four above), conclusively, that there are no true synonyms in a natural language is a hyperbole.

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