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ENGLISH AND IGBO NOUN PHRASES: A BINDING APPROACH

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Dedication

This research work is dedicated to a brother and a friend late Mr. Ikechukwu Kalu who would have been pleased to hear that I went back to school for further studies.

Certification

This dissertation by Ugwumba Patience Chinemerem with Admission Number 14210105022 has met the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Arts (M.A) in English Language of the Department of Modern European Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Arts and Islamic Studies, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge.

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List of Symbols and Abbreviations

N	Noun
NP	Noun Phrase
VP	Verb Phrase
PP	Prepositional Phrase
QP	Quantifier Phrase
D	Determiner
DP	Determiner Phrase
PSRs	Phrase Structure Rules
C	Consonant
V	Vowel
M	Syllabic nasal
H	High tone
L	Low tone
M	Mid tone
BT	Binding theory
GB	Government and Binding
UG	Universal Grammar
GC	Governing Category

. **Abstract**

This work is a comparative study of English and Igbo noun phrases, under the submodule of GB known as binding theory. The study adopts a comparative approach as it compares the structure of NPs of both English and Igbo languages within the framework of Government and Binding theory as proposed by Noam Chomsky (1981, 1986a). Comparative studies between languages help to discover the differences and similarities existing between two languages that may border around the different linguistic systems. Binding theory which is the framework used for this study, is the theory of the syntactic restrictions on where the different NP types can appear in a sentence. The NPs discussed under BT are: Anaphors, Pronominals and R- expressions . As regards the methodology employed in this research, personal intuition, interview and consultation of written materials were used. In the findings, the researcher noted that r-expressions in both languages have the same components: nouns and determiner phrases. Pronominals in both languages perform basically the same functions but their forms differ. Also included in the findings is the fact that duo languages have reflexive markers, these they combine with appropriate pronouns to form their reflexive pronouns. The work is divided into five chapters.

CHAPTER ONE
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The present study is a modest attempt to examine, on a comparative note, the structure of NPs in English and Igbo Languages within the framework of Government and Binding theory proposed by Chomsky (1981, 1986a). Particularly, the study is carried out within the sub- module of GB known as Binding theory (henceforth BT). BT is the component of the grammar that regulates the distribution and interpretation of NPs that are arguments within a sentence, across human languages.

Comparative studies between two or more human languages have been a source of illuminating and remarkable insights for understanding the nature of human languages and the variations that exist. In particular, it has helped a lot in issues of language typology as well as theoretical linguistics, especially in the realm of syntax. According to Cinque et al (2005), comparative syntax, which has grown into an indispensable part of the field of syntax, studies precise ways in which languages differ from one another in their syntax. In so doing, he remarked, it attempts to deepen our understanding of the parameters side of the human language faculty, to discover the form and extent and limits of the syntactic parameters of variation that underlie the extraordinary range and richness of the syntax of human languages. Cinque goes on to state that 'at the same time, comparative syntax provides us with a new and a highly promising tool with which to deepen our understanding of the principles side, the invariant core of the human language faculty. The principles and parameters of universal grammar (UG) can hardly be disassociated from one another. He further argued that what is common to all human languages can hardly be understood in abstraction from an acute understanding of how

those languages can and do differ. It is generally noted in the literature that the 'minimalist' question why UG is as it is has little chance of finding an answer without the kind of work being done by linguists on a comparative note between various human languages.

Comparative Syntax generally involves work on more than one language …. (Kayne 2005: 3). It is essentially a major concern of Principles and Parameters Approach, where attempts are made to characterize and delineate the parameters that ultimately underlie cross- linguistic differences in syntax. This is also invariably tied to the goal of exploiting those differences as a new and often exciting source of evidence bearing on the characterization and delineation of the principles of Universal Grammar (UG)… (Kayne Ibid).

The present study is located within the principles and parameters approach and thus serves as important empirical resource for both theoretical postulations and typological studies across human languages.

Haspelmath (2014: 490) notes that the comparative study of the similarities and differences between the combinatorial systems of language is referred to as comparative syntax or syntactic typology. The syntactic patterns of different languages are often compared with the goal of reconstructing a common ancestral system or changes in a system overtime, this is possible only when we know that the languages are cognate, that is , genealogically related, going back to common ancestors.

The subject of the present study is by contrast, a comparison of non- cognate languages, where similarities are not interpreted as inherited from a common ancestor.

Several goals for the comparative study of syntactic patterns have been in the literature. Below are some of the most salient ones:

1) a. Languages are studied contrastively with the goal of facilitating foreign language learning (eg. Konig and Gast, 2007 on English- German contrasts),

b. detecting area patterns, with the goal of discovering ancient language contact influences (eg. Muysker, 2008),

c. finding invariant patterns among the variation (i.e., syntactic universals, or universal syntactic principles,

d. explaining why languages are the way they are (i.e., explaining the universal grammar),

e. explaining how language acquisition is possible despite the poverty of the stimulus,

f. using universal principles to provide more elegant accounts of the systems of particular languages,

g. using universal principles to explain regularities of syntactic change and language acquisition.

Of these goals, (1a- c) are independent of each other, but (1d- g) all depend on (1c), the goal of finding invariant patterns (or universals) and thus the most prominent aspect of comparative syntax which also constitutes the parlance within which the present study is located.

Government and Binding Theory is the **theoretical framework** adopted for this comparative study, particularly, the study is carried out within the sub- module of GB outlined in Chomsky (1981) and subsequent works, known as Binding Theory which is defined as a part of syntactic theory that is concerned with how the interpretation of NPs is constrained by syntactic considerations. It discusses three types of NPs that can appear in different syntactic positions: Anaphors, Pronominals and R-expressions/ Full Lexical NPs, and the distributions of which are governed by three conditions (A,B and C). Condition A regulates the interpretation of Anaphors, such as reflexives and reciprocals and it imposes that an anaphor must be bound in its governing category or binding domain. Condition B, on the other hand, contains the interpretation of pronouns: A pronominal must be free in its governing category. Finally, Principle C, is the principle that determines the distribution and interpretation of referential expressions like 'David', 'the little boy', 'Emeka', 'nwanyi oma', ' nwoke ogologo', etc. Within the GB theory, a special set of universally applicable comparative concepts is developed that makes it possible to compare languages rigorously even though they have different categories and constructions (Haspelmath, 2010a).

1.1 Background of English and Igbo Languages

In this section, we explore the linguistic affinity of English in contrast to Igbo. In addition, we examined the historical and geographical background of the two languages. This is done with a view to provide a solid background to the discussion that follows in the subsequent sections.

1.1.1 Historical Background

The history of English Language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD (Online Encyclopedia Britanica, 2016). These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders- mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Online Encyclopedia Britanica, (Ibid), notes that the Angles came from "England"(sic) and their language was called "Englisc" – from which the words "England" and English are derived. English went through stages before English today. The stages influenced the phonology and the morphology of the periods.

There have been different accounts as regards the origin of "Ndi Igbo". Archaeological, linguistic, botanical and anthropological evidences suggest that the Igbo and their ancestors have lived in their present homes , that is, around 100 miles north of their current location at the confluence of the Niger and Benue Rivers, from the beginning of human history (Online New World Encyclopedia, 2016:3). Pre- colonial Igbo political organization was based on communities, devoid of kings or governing chiefs. The development of a heterarchial society, as opposed to a hierarchical society, marks Igbo development as sharply divergent from political trends in pre-colonial West Africa. With the exception of Igbo towns as Onitsha, which had kings called obis, and places like Nri and Arochukwu, which had priest kings known as Ezes, most Igbo governments were ruled solely by an assembly of the common people, the Online New World Encyclopedia maintained.

Although title holders were respected because of their accomplishments, they were never revered as kings. Their responsibility in society was to perform special functions given to them by the assemblies, not to make laws or dictate policy. This way of governing was immensely different from most other communities of Western Africa, and only shared by Ewe of Ghana (Online New World Encyclopedia, 2016:6). In the absence of Judicial authority, Onwuka (2002), posits that the Igbo settled law matters by oath- taking to a god. If that person died in a certain amount of time, he was guilty. If not, he was free to go, but if guilty, that person could face exile or servitude to a deity . The Igbo followed a calendar in which a week had four days. A month consisted of seven weeks, while thirteen months made a year; this calendar is still in use in villages and towns to determine the market days (Online New World Encyclopedia, 2016:5).

The arrival of the British in the 1870s increased encounters between the Igbo and other Nigerians, leading to a deepening sense of a distinct Igbo ethnic identity. The British colonized Nigeria and after the independence in 1960, the Igbo developed a sense of identity and tried to secede unsuccessfully in 1967 as the independent nation of Biafra (Gutman and Avanti, 2013:1).

1.1.2 Geographical Background

According to Online Encyclopedia Britanica, (2016), English is now widely spoken in six continents. It is the primary language of the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand, and various small island nations in the Caribbean Sea and the pacific Ocean. It is also an official language of India, the Philippines, Singapore, and many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, including South

Africa. English is the first choice of foreign language in most other countries of the world, and it is that status that has given it the position of a global lingua franca. The Online Encyclopedia Britanica (2016), estimated that a third of the world's, some two billion persons, now use English . Undoubtedly, English is the world's most widely used second language.

The Igbo people occupy the Eastern part of Nigeria , in the Southeastern states of Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo; they are also seen in the southern part of Nigeria especially in the north east of Delta State and south east of Rivers State. There are Igbos in the diaspora. Regions with significant populations are, United Kingdom, United States of America, Cameroon and other African Countries. Prominent Igbo communities outside Africa include those of London England, Houston Texas, California, Atlanta Georgia and Washington DC (Online New World Encyclopedia, 2016: 9).

1.1.3. Linguistic Classification

English is a West Germanic language, a descendant of Indo- European language family and is therefore, according to Online New World Encyclopedia (Ibid), related to most other languages spoken in Europe and western Asia from Iceland to India. The parent tongue, called Proto- Indo- European, was spoken about 5,000 years ago by nomads believed to have roamed the south- east European plains.

Igbo belongs to the Niger-Congo Language family and is classified under the kwa sub- group of languages spoken in sub- Saharan Africa. Thompson (2014), affirms that the language is thought to have originated around the 9th century AD in the area near

the confluence of the Niger and Benue rivers, and then spread over a wide area of southeastern Nigeria.

Igbo is one of the three principal languages of Nigeria together with Yoruba, Hausa and Nupe. Igbo, is often spelled and pronounced 'Ibo' because the Europeans had difficulty making the /gb/ sound (Isichei, 1978) .

1.1.4. The status of Igbo language

Igbo is one of the national languages of Nigeria. It is spoken as first language (L1) in the following **s**outheastern states of Nigeria: Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo. It is also spoken as a second language (L2) in the north-east of Delta State and in the southeast of Rivers State. In these states, it is the main language of trade and commerce and also used in mass media communication such as radio and television. Although Igbo is taught at all levels in eastern Nigerian schools, English remains the principal literary language of the country while it remains a spoken and colloquial language. Reading and writing in Igbo is not very widespread. In many urban areas, Igbo is often replaced by Nigerian Pidgin English. Igbo speakers are typically bilingual in English. The population of the Igbos is about 20-30 million, constituting about 17 percent of the population (On line New World Encyclopedia, 2016:2). Related ethnic groups are Ikwere and Idoma.

The language has approximately 20-30 dialects, some of which are not mutually intelligible (Gutman and Avanti, 2013:2). The major division is between the Onitsha group in the north and the Owerri group in the south. Since the 19th century, there has been several attempts to develop a written standard language: Isuama Igbo (1857-1905) was the first to be developed, followed by Union Igbo (1905-1941), Central Igbo also

was developed (1941-1973), and later Standard Igbo (1973 to present). Standard Igbo, implemented after the independence of Nigeria, is based on the Owerri and Umuahia dialects but it expanded central Igbo vocabulary by incorporating words from other dialects as well as loanwords, concomitantly, according to Gutman and Avanti (Ibid), a written standard was developed.

1.1.5. Igbo Tone Patterns

Tone is a phenomenon of pitch which has received much attention. It is the use of pitch in language to distinguish lexical or grammatical meaning. Tone, according to Ladefoged (1993), is the distinctive pitch level of a syllable. In tone languages, tone is an integral part of a word itself; it plays prominent role in majority of African languages. English is not a tonal language; it possesses what is termed pitch accent like some Indo-European languages. This is a case where only the stressed syllable of a word can have different contour tones. Different pitches of the voice combine to form patterns of pitch variations, or tones, which together constitute the intonation of a language. English is therefore, an intonation language which expresses accentual, grammatical and attitudinal functions (Sethi et al, 2010:187). Regardless of the fact that English is not a tonal language, sometimes Nigerian English assign tone which relies heavily on pragmatic implication to arrive at meaning.

Igbo is a tonal language, it has three tones, high, step, and low; their tone marks are : high tone [/] ; step [/] ; low tone [\ ] (Mbah, 1989:8). The tone marks are located above vowels and syllabic nasals. The tones are phonemic, serving to make lexical, grammatical and semantic distinctions. The step can only follow a high tone and, in consequence, is absent in monosyllables. This essay will employ the tone marking

convention elaborately used by Mbah (1989), which was propounded by Welmers and Nwachukwu (cf. Nwachukwu, 1983a). By this convention, the first syllable of every word/ phrase is tone marked, leaving subsequent syllables unmarked if they have the same tone as the previous one, and marked if they contrast with it. This convention is preferred in this essay because of its economy of diacritics.

Examples:

2) a. ísi (HH) 'head'

b. ìsi (LL) 'blindness'

3) a. ákwa (HH) 'cry'

b. ákwà (HL) 'cloth'

c. àkwa (LL) 'bed' or 'bridge'

A sequence of high tones means that the first is high while the second is a step tone. Consider the following examples:

4) a. nwóké – HS 'proper name'

b. ḿmirí HS 'water'

c. Ónú HS 'proper name'

Tone and intonation are synonyms as they both refer (in a general sense) to patterned variation in voiced source pitch that serves to contrast and to organize words and larger utterances (Atal and Hanauer, 1977).

English exhibits SVO word order as the following examples illustrate:

5)a. John caught some fish.

S V O

b. David slapped the little boy

S V O

c. Kate sbroke the bucket

S V O

Just like English Language, Igbo is a typical subject- verb- object language. It is head- initial and, in consequence, genitives, quantifiers, demonstratives and some adjectives follow the noun (but some adjectives precede it). However, there are some variations in the sentence structure of Igbo different from that of English Language. In some cases, direct literal translation does not make grammatical sense. Consider the following:

6) a. ákpụkpụ ụkwù ya dì ǹmá.

(Shoes his are fine)

'His shoes are fine'

b. Í rìchá ńri kwọ áka gị .

(If finish food wash hand your)

'If you finish eating, wash your hand'.

1.2. Pronominals

Pronominals constitute one of the categories of NPs within Binding Theory. They are NPs that may (but need not) get their meanings from other words in the sentence but they can get their meanings from nouns previously mentioned in the discourse. In contrast to anaphors which must be bound within a certain domain, pronouns are not bound within certain domains. Condition B of the Binding Theory accounts for this binding.

1.3. Statement of the Problems

Parametric variations exist in languages, hence the need for language specific attention. NPs (under BT) exist in all human languages, but they exhibit peculiar features. This research is a contribution to the study of language specific as well as BT in English and Igbo languages.

1.4. Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of the present study is to examine the forms and structures of NPs in English in comparison to NPs in Igbo sentences within the parlance of GB. Accordingly, the study, specifically addresses the following objectives:

7) a. To determine the similarities and differences in the syntactic nature of NPs in English and Igbo,

b. to identify the differences and similarities in the distribution of NPs in English and Igbo,

c. To specify the reflections of the three binding conditions in English and Igbo

1.5. Research Questions

The following research questions are tackled:

8) i. What are the similarities and differences in the syntactic nature of NPs in English and Igbo ?

ii. What are the similarities and differences in the distribution of NPs in English and Igbo?

iii. How are the three binding conditions reflected in the NPs of the two languages?

1.6. Justification of the Study

Within the Universal Grammar proposed by Chomsky's, comparative studies provide the basis for universals and parametric variations which abound in languages. It gives insight into understanding the nature of human languages and the variations that exist. It helps to discover the precise ways in which languages differ from one another in their syntax and the richness of the syntax of human languages. Although the NPs under study exist in all languages, they exhibit peculiar features which can only be ascertained if languages are given specific attention.

1.7. Significance of the Study

The study goes a long way to add to the body of knowledge in matters of linguistic language typology. The work is also useful in determining the nature of universals and parameters of variation cross- linguistically. In fact, a study of this nature also sharpens our understanding of the forms and structures of NPs in human languages.

1.8. Scope of the Study

This study is limited to only NPs in English and Igbo languages. The Igbo dialect that is used is " the standard Igbo", which uses the official orthography called Ọnwụ Orthography recommended since 1961. Standard Igbo is the Igbo dialect used in government publications, newspapers and other media productions. It is also used by such public examinations as the West African Examinations Council (WAEC), the National Examinations Council (NECO) and the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB). The study also employs Chomsky's approach to binding theory in its analysis of the NPs. It is therefore, on this theoretical framework that the work is based.

1.9. Chapterisation

This research work is organized into five chapters. The first chapter focuses on the introductory part of the research, dealing with the historical and geographical background and the linguistic profile of the speakers of both English and Igbo Languages. The second chapter, the core of the work, reviews related literature on the research topic. Since this is a comparative analysis of NPs in English and Igbo languages, it reviews the works of eminent scholars on NPs generally and also NPs under binding theory in both languages.

Chapter three discusses the theoretical framework used is this research and the methods that have been used in carrying out the research. Chapter four covers an analysis of the various data collected from written materials, oral interviews and intuition as a native speaker; at the end of which, explanations are being given. The last chapter, which is chapter five is a summary of the findings of the work within which some conclusions are drawn.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews existing research that is significant to this study, especially on English and Igbo Noun phrases.

An overview of NPs across human languages and previous reviews of NPs by different scholars in the two languages of study is looked into. As this research analyzes NPs based on the theoretical framework of Chomsky (1981), the three conditions or principles (as they are commonly called) governing the distributions of the NPs and the different classifications of these NPs in his BT are also discussed; this is treated comparatively in the duo languages.

2.1 Overview of NPs Across Human Languages

Nouns are of pivotal importance in languages like English and Igbo. It has been observed that along with verbs, they are dominant part of speech, and that the semantic content of sentences is borne mostly by nouns(Algeo 1995: 203). The importance of NP in language was acknowledged by the European Science Foundation, when it made this topic one of the central themes of its Eurotype Project (Programme in Language Typology, 1990:4; Siewierska 1997).

According to Crystal (2008: 333), … 'the constructions into which nouns most commonly enter, and of which they are the HEAD word, are generally called noun phrases (NP) or Nominal Groups. The structure of a noun phrase consists minimally of the noun (or noun substitute, such as a pronoun)', the constructions preceding and

following the noun are often described under the headings of premodification and postmodification respectively. The dictionary of linguistics and phonetics defines Noun Phrase as the construction into which nouns most commonly enter, and which they are the headword.

A noun phrase is a word group that performs the functions of a noun and which has a noun or pronoun as its head. It is by virtue of this headedness that the phrase is called a noun phrase. Noun phrases are very common cross linguistically, and they may be the most frequently occurring phrase type. Basically every language has noun phrase.

The structure of a noun phrase consists minimally of the noun (or noun substitute, such as a pronoun). A noun phrase could be made up of just a word or group of words. Traditionally, a phrase is understood to contain two or more words, however, many modern schools of syntax, especially , those that have been influenced by X- bar theory, make no such restriction (Matthews, 1981:160). Under this theory, many single words are regarded as phrases based on a desire for 'theory internal consistency'. A noun phrase can contain indefinitely any number of satallites. Noun phrases can be accompanied by modifiers which are made up of determiners and adjectives.

Determiners are function words that precede or follow (as in Hausa) noun phrases and serve as signals that nouns are soon to follow. The head of an NP or the head noun is the obligatory part of the NP around which the other constituents are attached. The function of the head is to specify the entity that the head refers to.

Igbo nominal phrase consists of a head noun, demonstratives, quantifiers(such as niile, ufodu, dum),qualifiers and genitives (Uzoigwe, 2011). The head noun comes first

as Igbo is considered a head- initial language. The modifiers postmodify the headnouns except for the cardinal number ‘otu’ ‘one’, and some other units of Igbo traditional counting system such as ohu/ọgụ, ‘twenty’, nnụ ‘forty’, puku ‘thousand’ and nde ‘million’, which premodify as well as postmodify the head nouns (Mbah, 1989). Consider the following Igbo NPs:

9) a. nwanyị òmá
(woman good)
‘good woman’

b. nwòké úkwu
(man big)
‘big man’

c. ósisi ógologo
(tree tall)
‘tall tree’

d. ótū nwòké
(one man)
‘one man’

e. òhú nnụnnụ
(forty bird
‘forty birds’

Examples (9a –c) shows Igbo NPs with head initial structure while (9d-e) are head final because they are being modified by ‘otu’ and one of the traditional Igbo counting systems ‘ohu’ respectively.

On the contrary, English nominal phrase is strictly head final. Adjectives and determiners premodify it. Consider the following English NPs:

10) a. Two beautiful women

(abụọ mara mma ụmụ nwanyị)

'úmu nwànyí ábụò màrá ḿma'

b. That smart boy

(ahụ gara gara nwata nwoke)

' nwata nwòké áhù dị gára gára'

From (10a & b), we can deduce that the English nominal phrase is premodified as a result of determiners and adjectives preceding it.

Hausa language, just like Igbo, has prenominal modifiers as well as post nominal modifiers. This means that Hausa NP can be head initial as well as head final. The pre nominal modifiers are: demonstratives, universal quantifiers (like duka), the isolator daya and adjectives. Post nominal modifiers include numerals, quantifiers and possessives. Consider the following Hausa NPs:

11) a. Kowànè mùtûm

'each man'

b. duk mutà- ne

'all the people'

c. d̃àn kàramin ya-rò

'a little boy'

d. d̃àya mo-tar

(one car)

e. nai-ra dubu

(naira thousand)

'one thousand naira'

f. yamma- ta dukà

(girls all)

'all the girls'

g. mo-ta d̃aya

(car one)

'one car'

In (11a-d), the head nouns are premodified, while the headnouns in (11e-g) are post modified by cardinals and quantifiers. Note that 'duka' and 'daya' have both premodifying and postmodifying equivalents.

On the contrary, English nominal phrase and German NP have the same structure. German noun phrase is head-final, its headnoun is being preceded by determiners and adjectives. Consider the following German Noun Phrases from Carnie (2001:144) :

12) a. Die schlanke Frau aus Frankreich

(the slim woman from France)

' the slim woman from France'

b. Die junge koenigin von England

(the young queen of England)

'the young queen of England'

In the above examples, 'die', in (12a) is functioning as a determiner while 'junge' in (12b) is an adjective.

Japanese has SOV syntactic structure, its head noun is either premodified or postmodified; it is preceded or followed by modifiers just like Igbo and Hausa NPs. Consider the following Japanese NPs also from Carnie (2001:145) :

13) a. Sono hon- ga ookii desu
(that book big is)
'that book is big'
b. Hon- ga akai desu
(book red is)
'the book is red'
c. Bill- ga sono akai hon- o mita
(Bill that red book saw)
'Bill saw that red book'.

From (13a- c), it is obvious that Japanese can be premodified or postmodified. The suffixes '–ga' and '–o' are attached to nouns.

In all the NPs of the languages mentioned above, determiners and adjectives are optional elements. Determiners only help to know the particular things being talked about.

Noun phrases perform the same functions cross linguistically. They function as subjects, objects and complements of sentences. Consider the following functions of English and Igbo noun phrases:

14) a. Give me **a glass of water.**
(nye m otu iko nke mmiri)
'nye m **ótū ìkó mmíri'.**

b. The company bought **a new car.**

(ahụ ụlọrụ goro otu ọhụ ụgbọ ala)

'úlọrū áhù goro **ótū úgbalà óhù'.**

c. Mr. John remains **the company's director.**

(Mazi Jọn ka bụ ahụ ụlọrụ onye ntuzi aka)

'Mazi Jọn ka bụ **ónye ntuzi áka úlọrū àhú'.**

The noun phrases in the above sentences are written in bold. The noun phrase in (14a) is an object noun phrase. In (14b), the NPs are functioning as the subject and object of the sentence; this means that two noun phrases can occur in a sentence. 'Mr John' and 'the company's director' in (14c) are subject and object noun phrases respectively.

2.2. Current Thesis on C- Command

Carnie (2001: 76), avers that c- command is the most useful of all the relations in binding theory. Coreference between an antecedent and an anaphor is a condition on the structural relation of the anaphor with respect to its antecedent. Consider the following examples:

15) a. David i hurt himself i.

b.*David i said [that Mary hurt himself i].

c.*Himself i hurt David i.

The indicated coindexation shows that the first sentence is grammatical, while (15b&c) are not. In (15b), 'David' and 'himself' are not in the same governing category, therefore, there can be no c- command across clause boundary; while (15c) shows that an anaphor within the subject position of a sentence cannot be anteceded by a direct object, therefore,

in (15c), no relation can be established because himself c- commands John. From these facts, we can ascertain that anaphors must be c- commanded by their antecedents.

C- command as a structural relation has been defined by Haegeman (1991:241) thus:

A node A C- Commands a node B

If and only if

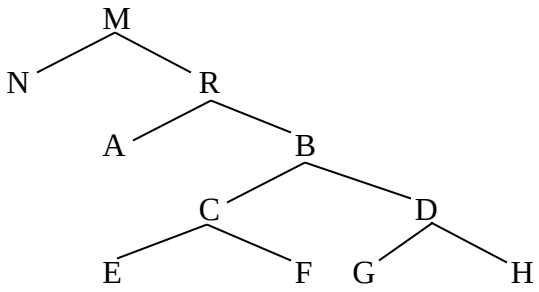
16) i. A does not dominate B;

ii B does not dominate A;

iii the first branching node dominating A also dominates B

Consider the tree in (1) from Carnie (2001: 76)

1)



That is, the node A c- commands node B and all the nodes dominated by B (C,D,E,F,G,H). A is equal and opposite to node B because neither of them dominates the other. Node G c- commands only H. Binding requires both coindexation and c-command.

2.3 Binding Theory

According to Newmeyer (1986), and Horrocks (1987), and Crystal (2008), Government and Binding theory refers to a model of grammar which is a descendent of extended standard theory and ultimately of classical transformational grammar. It is a

radical revision of Chomsky's earlier theories. The name GB refers to two central sub-theories : government, which is an abstract syntactic relation applicable, among other things to the assignment of case; and binding, which deals chiefly with the relationships between pronouns and the expressions with which they are co-referential.

Government and Binding theory is propounded by Noam Chomsky as a result of the inadequacies of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG). In 1971, Chomsky in his book titled 'Remarks on Nominalization' introduced the theory of Principles and Parameters. The theory is named after Chomsky's book: Lectures on Government and Binding (1981). It is made of seven modules or sub- theories which account for wellformedness of grammar. These sub- theories interact with one another to allow just the right structure to be generated. Cook (1988) describes the theory of Government and Binding as an interlocking arrangement of principles and sub- theories which interact in many ways in the analysis of human language .Because of the way these sub- theories interact, GB is commonly described as a modular theory. Proponents of GB suggest that essentially the same principles of syntax are operative in all human languages; although they can take a slightly different form in different languages . This is why GB is often referred to as the Principles and Parameters Approach.

The sub theories are:

17) i. X- Bar Theory
ii. Government Theory
iii. Case Theory
iv. Theta Theory
v. Binding Theory
vi. Bounding Theory
vii. Control Theory

The sub- theories listed above are closely related in their operation as a theoretical framework.

Binding Theory, is defined by Chomsky (1981 and subsequent works) as "the module of the grammar (GB) regulating NP interpretation". It is the part of syntactic theory that is concerned with how the interpretation of noun phrases is constrained by syntactic considerations. BT is primarily concerned with the distribution of NPs in a sentence, determining the situations in which they can or must be co- indexed with other NPs (Crystal: 2008).

The theory essentially examines the relations between NPs in argument positions and it contains grammatical principles which determine the interpretations and distributions of NPs as well as regulate the referential properties of NPs. This is done by means of explicit formulation of the grammatical constraints on NP. The BT essentially examines the relations between NPs in A- positions; it is thus called a theory of A- binding. NPs that are arguments are assumed to fall into three categories . Viz:

18) i.Referring expressions/R- expressions, or Full Lexical NPs (eg. Proper nouns)
ii.Pronominals or pronouns
iii.Anaphors (ie. Reflexives and reciprocals)

These different categories of NPs (listed in 18) exist in every language and can only appear in certain syntactic positions in sentences; anaphors, for example, may not appear in subject positions.

BT contains three conditions (or principles, as they are more commonly referred to), each of which regulates the distribution and interpretation of one specific type of NP. These principles or binding conditions are:

1. **Principle A:**

   An anaphor must be bound in its governing category**.**

2. **Principle B:**

   A pronominal must be free in its governing category

3. **Principle C:**

   An R-expression must be free every where

For the purpose of the discussion and analyses that follow in this study, the following definitions are assumed (adopted from Haegeman 1991: 241) that formally account for structural grammatical relationships within BT:

19) a. A-Binding

A binds B if and only if (iff).

i. A is in an A-position

ii. A c-commands B

iii. A and B are coindexed

b. Governing Category Defined

The governing category for A is the minimal domain containing it, its governor and an accessible Subject/ SUBJECT.

c. Subject/ SUBJECT

i. Subject :NP in [Spec, XP]

ii. SUBJECT corresponds to finite AGR

d. Accessible Subject/ SUBJECT

A is an accessible subject/ SUBJECT for B if the coindexation of A and B does not violate any grammatical principles.

Binding is a kind of coindexation that happens when one of the two NPs c-commands the other. It requires both coindexation and c- command (Carnie, 2007)..

2.3.1 Condition A

Principle A is the principle that regulates the interpretation of elements which are referentially dependent, such as REFLEXIVES and RECIPROCALS. Principle A imposes that reflexives are linked to, or BOUND BY, an NP in an A- position within a certain domain, the BINDING DOMAIN. For instance in a sentence such as 'David hurts himself' , the reflexive 'himself' must be bound by the subject 'David'.

The binding condition in principle A means that an anaphor and its antecedent, using Okeke's (2008) term, must be clause mates. Anaphors are dependent nominal elements which must have a sentence internal antecedent. Unlike pronouns, they cannot (generally) refer to a sentence- external contextual element.

According to Radford (1981:11),anaphor 'is an NP which can have no independent reference, but which takes its reference from some other expression in the

sentence, its antecedent. Anaphors are NPs that obligatorily get their meanings from another NP in the sentence. Unlike pronouns, anaphors must have an antecedent within the sentence. Consider the following:

20) a. Mary's brother$_{\mathbf{i}}$ hurt himself$_{\mathbf{i}}$.

b. Mary's cousin$_{\mathbf{i}}$ helped herself$_{\mathbf{i}}$

c. Mary$_{\mathbf{i}}$ saw herself$_{\mathbf{i}}$ in the mirror.

d. John$_{i}$ slapped himself$_{i}$.

Interpretation of Anaphors

' An anaphor must be bound in its governing category';this means that anaphors and their antecedents must be co-indexed or co-refer.

Governing category is defined as the minimal domain containing an anaphor, its governor and an accessible subject/ SUBJECT (i.e NP in [Spec, XP] / finite AGR). Consider the following examples, some of which are from Carnie (2007)

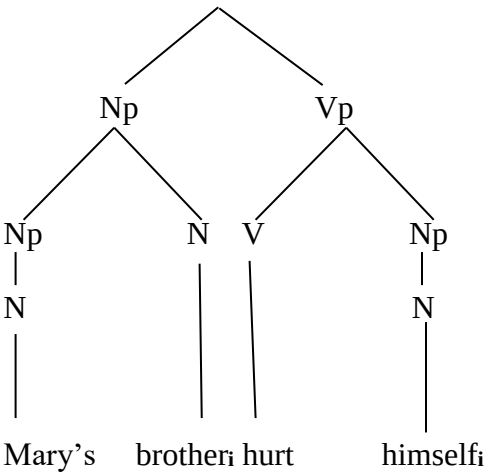
21) a.Mary's brother$_{i}$ hurt himself$_{i}$.

b. John$_{i}$ slapped himself$_{i}$.

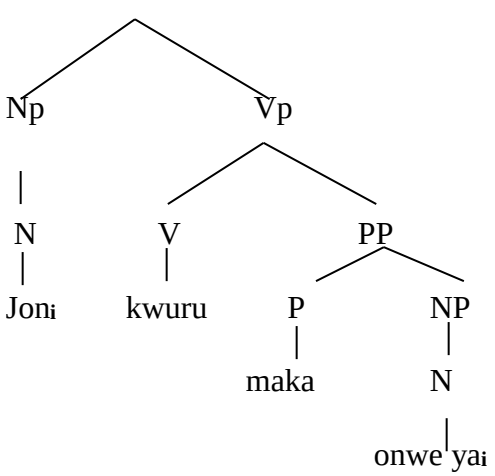
c. My cousin$_{\mathbf{i}}$ helped herself$_{i}$.

d. Mary$_{i}$ saw herself$_{i}$ in the mirror.

2)a.



b.



The anaphors in examples (21a-d) have the same indexes with their antecedents, they are therefore, said to be co-indexed; hence, the anaphors are bound in their governing categories.

Similarly in Igbo, an anaphor must have an antecedent which it must be bound to. Consider the following Igbo examples:

22) a.Okeke$_i$ huru onwe ya$_i$ n' ugegbe.

b.Jon$_i$ kwuru maka onwe ya$_i$.

c. Mary$_i$ mara onwe ya$_i$ ura.

Since 'onwe ya'(that is, anaphor) in (22a- c) refers back to 'Okeke', 'Jon', and 'Mary' (the antecedents); and it has the same indexes with the antecedents, they are therefore, said to be co- indexed. The sentences satisfy principle A because the anaphors are co-indexed with their antecedents, they are bound in their governing categories. The following facts about anaphors are cf. Carnie (2011:94).

- An anaphor must have a c- commanding antecedent.

The anaphors in (21&22) above are c- commanded by their antecedents. Consider the following:

23) a.* Himself$_i$ saw John$_i$ in the mirror.

(onwe ya huru Jon n' eyo)

'ya onwe ya$_i$ huru Jon$_i$ n' eyo'

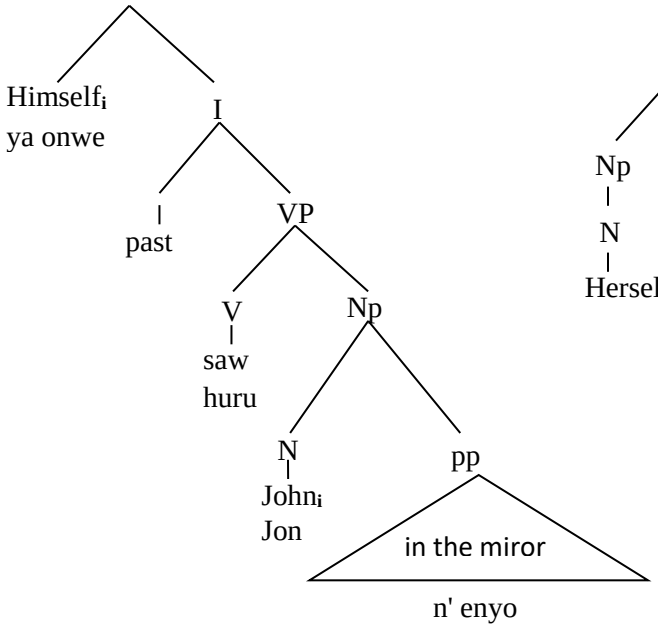
b.*Herself$_i$ likes Mary$_i$.

(onwe ya huru n' anya Mary)

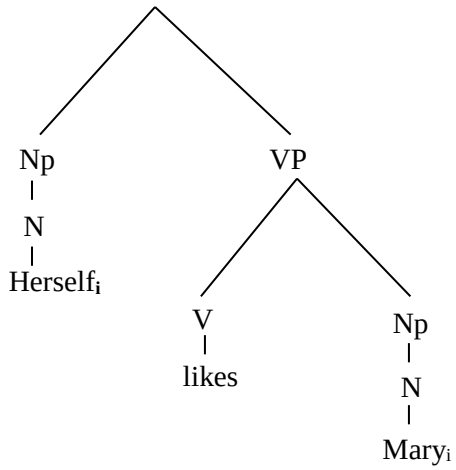
'ya onwe ya$_i$ huru Mary$_i$ n' anya'

c. *Herself arrived.

3)a. * Ip



b. *Tp



In the expressions above, there is nothing which c- commands and is co- indexed with the anaphors in both English and Igbo, therefore, the anaphors are not bound, which violates principle A. This also explains why the expressions are ungrammatical.

- An anaphor must have feature- compatible antecedents.

24) a. Alex! likes himself!.

b.*Mary$_i$ likes himself!.

c.*Susan$_i$ believes himself$_i$.

d. Mary$_i$ likes herself$_i$

Sentences (b and c) are wrong because the anaphors do not have feature- compatible antecedents.

- Locality restrictions on anaphor binding

The antecedent of the anaphor cannot be too far from the anaphor. Examples:

25) a.Mary thinks that [Stephen$_i$ likes himself]$_i$.

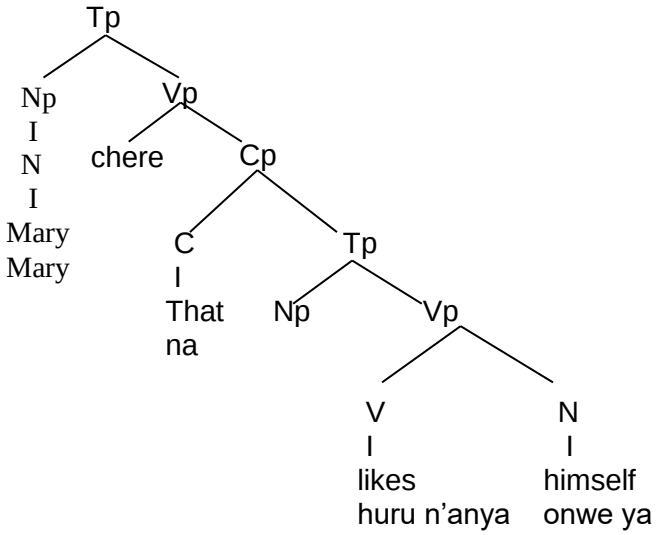
b. Mary thinks that [John$_i$ hurt himself]$_i$.

c*Stephen$_i$ thinks that [Mary likes himself]$_i$.

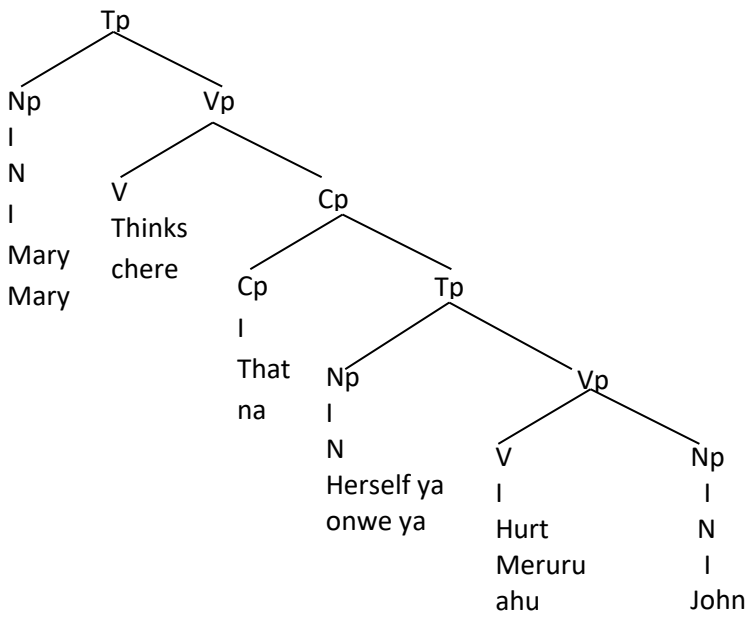
d.*Mary$_!$ thinks that [herself$_i$ hurt John].

e*Alex$_i$ bought some books about himself$_i$.

4)a



b.



The above are embedded clauses. The intuition is that anaphors must have a binder that is 'close enough'. In sentences (25a-b), the anaphors are close enough to their binders (antecedents). The reverse is the case with the anaphors in (c &d), they are not in the same locality with their antecedents. 'Alex' in (e) does not c- command 'himself' because 'himself' is not in the same binding domain with Alex. Sentences (c-e), therefore, violate principle A: anaphors must be bound in its binding domain.

2.3.2 Condition B

Principle B contains the interpretation of pronouns: pronouns should not be linked/ bound to an NP in an A- position within the binding domain. Thus, while the reflexive element 'himself' must be bound by the subject NP 'David' in the example cited above, the pronoun 'him' in the following example must not be bound by the subject 'John': 'John admires him'.

Pronouns constitute the second category of NPs within BT. They are NPs that may(but need not) get their meanings from other words in the sentence. They can also get their meanings from nouns previously mentioned in the discourse, or by the context. Pronouns, just like anaphors are said to lack inherent reference, anaphors need an antecedent for their interpretation and pronouns do not require .an antecedent. Pronouns are said to inherently specify certain properties of the referent; for a complete determination of the referent, contextual information is needed (see Ariel, 1988), Kempson (1988a, 1988b)). Examples:

26) a . Maria said that **she** ate rice.

Maria siri na **ya(o)** riri eresi.

b . The boy sat on **his** chair.

Nwata nwoke ahụ nọdụrụ ọdụ n' oche **ya**

In the above sentences,the pronouns **she** and **his** can optionally refer to 'Maria' and 'The boy' respectively or some other persons not mentioned in the sentences. Some pronouns include: I, me, you, he, she, her, it, them, us, my, our, his, etc.

Interpretation of Pronouns

'A pronominal must be free in its governing category'; i.e. ordinary pronouns and their antecedents must not be co-arguments; where

27) i. The GOVERNING CATEGORY is the minimal domain containing the pronoun, its governor and an accessible Subject/ SUBJECT

ii. Free is not bound

Note that the principles we are setting up here concern A- binding. Consider the following:

28) David$_{\mathbf{i}}$, Miss Victoria doesn't like him$_{\mathbf{i}}$

Nothing prevents the pronoun 'him' from being bound by the NP 'David'. In (28) above, 'David' is not in an A- position, but in an Ā- position. The binding between 'David' and the pronoun 'him' is not A- binding but Ā- binding. Below are more examples on the interpretation of pronouns: a pronoun must not be bound in its governing category.

29) a. John's mother$_{\mathbf{i}}$ saw him$_{\mathbf{j}}$.

(Jon nne huru ya)

'Nne$_{\mathbf{i}}$ Jon huru ya$_{\mathbf{j}}$'

b. John$_{i}$ talked about him$_{j}$

(Jon kwuru maka ya)

' Jon$_{\mathbf{i}}$ kwuru maka ya$_{\mathbf{j}}$'

c.Mary$_{i}$ said that John$_{j}$ dislikes her$_{i}$.

(Mary siri na Jọn ahughi n' anya ya)

'Mary siri na Jọn ahughi ya n' anya'

d.Mary$_{i}$'s brother hurt her$_{i}$

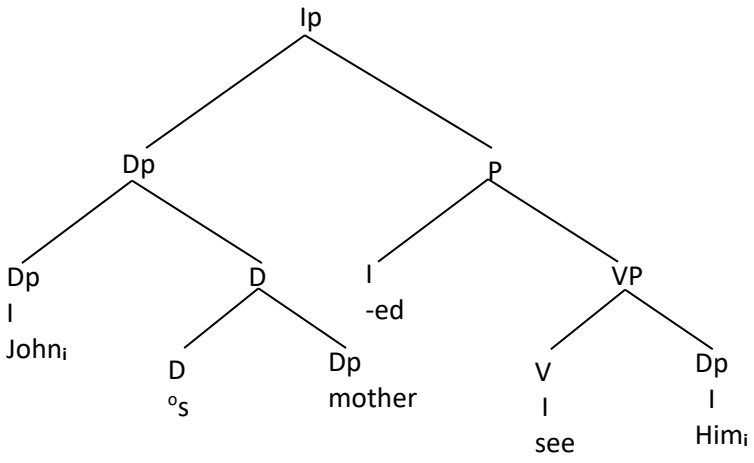
(Mary nwanne nwoke meruru ahu ya)

'Nwanne nwoke Mary meruru ya ahu' .

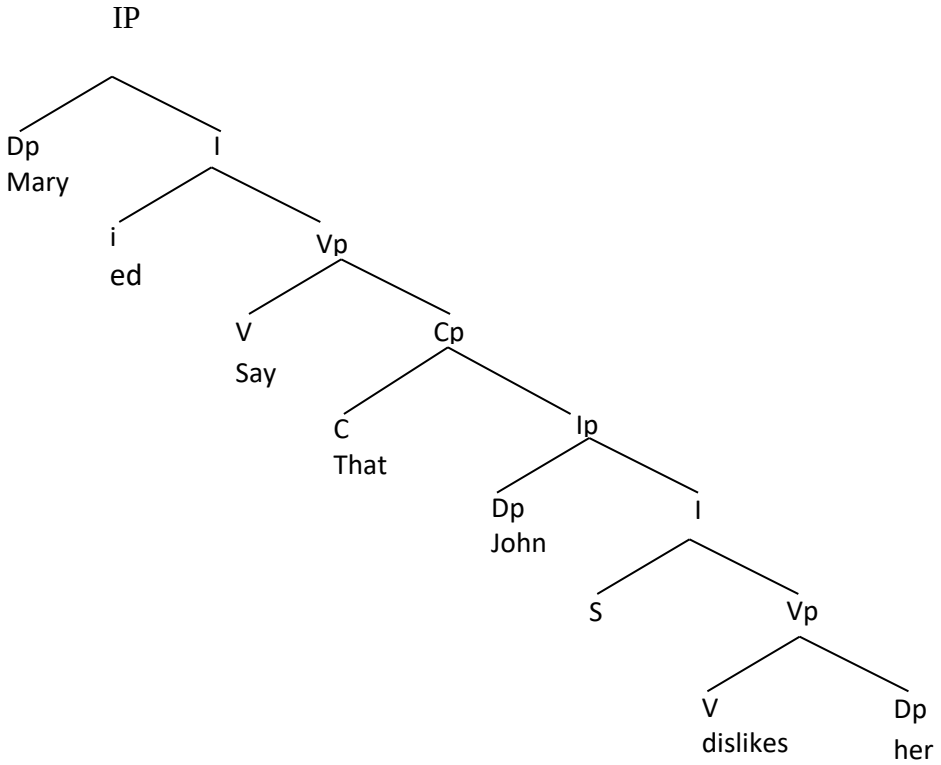
e. John$_{i}$ said that he$_{i}$ is a genius.

f. Alex$_{i}$ saw him$_{j}$ in the park.

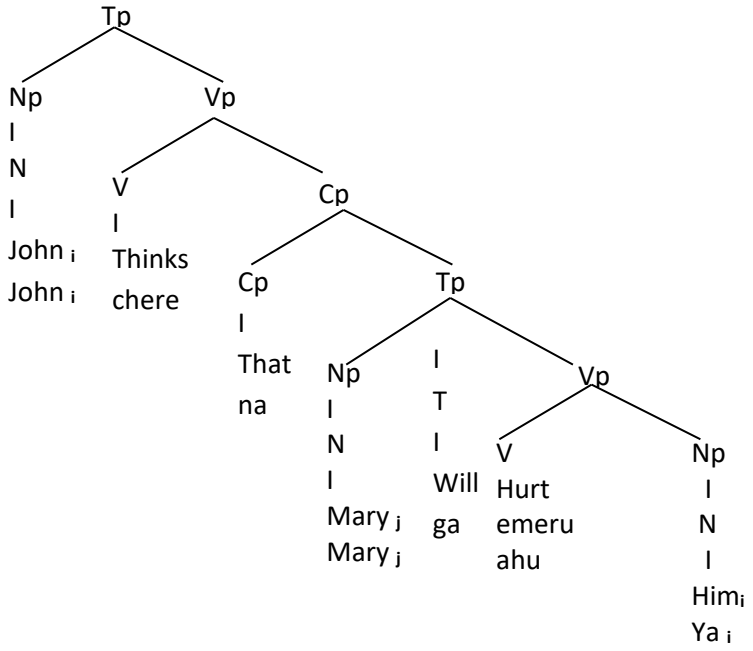
5)a.John$_i$s mother saw him $_i$



b.Mary$_i$ said that John$_j$ dislikes her$_i$



6).John$_i$ thinks that Mary$_j$ will hurt him$_i$



Similarly, Igbo pronominals must also not be bound in their GC; this is what we see in the Igbo examples in (29). The pronouns 'ya' in (29a&b) are not bound by their antecedents 'nne Jon' and 'Jon'.

Just like anaphors, pronouns also have antecedents; the difference between the two is that whereas anaphors must be bound by their antecedents in the same locality, pronouns may or may not be bound by their antecedents. If a pronoun is bound by its antecedent, it must not be in the same locality, a similar case in Igbo. Consider the following examples with their Igbo versions:

30)a. John$_i$ said that he$_i$ is a genius.

(Jon siri na ya bu onye mara akwukwo puru iche)
'Jon$_i$ siri na ya$_i$ mara akwukwo puru iche'

b.Alex$_i$ saw him$_i$ at the market.

(Alex huru ya n' ahia)
'Alex$_i$ huru ya$_j$ n' ahia'

In sentence (30a), 'he' (ya) has an antecedent 'John'(Jon), 'he'(ya) is bound by its antecedent but not in the same locality: the pronoun is in a different domain. 'Him'(ya) in (30b) has a different index, meaning that it does not refer to Alex. The pronoun, therefore, is not bound. Sentences (30a&b) do not violate principle B, they are, therefore, grammatical. Lets consider the following:

31) Claudia$_i$ thinks that Stephen$_j$ likes him$_j$.

In (31) above, the pronoun is being bound by its antecedent in the same locality, which violates principle B. The sentence should have been:

32) Stephen$_i$ thinks that Claudia$_j$ likes him$_i$.

Example (30a) has two interpretations, viz:

33)a. John$_i$ said that he$_i$ is a genius.

b. John$_i$ said that he$_j$ is a genius.

In (a), the pronoun 'he' is bound to its antecedent 'John', but not in the same locality while the 'he' in sentence (b) has a different index, therefore, it is not bound.

Both anaphors and pronouns are said to lack inherent reference, anaphors need an antecedent for their interpretation and pronouns do not require an antecedent (Haegeman, 1991:226) . Pronouns are said to inherently specify certain properties of the referent; for a complete determination of the referent contextual information is needed. See Ariel (1988), Kempson (1988a, 1988b)).

2.3.3 Condition C

Principle C, finally, is the principle which determines the distribution and interpretation of referential expressions like the NPs 'John' and 'Obi'. Principle C says that referential expressions must not be bound by NPs in A-positions. In 'He expected John to feel a little better', for instance, 'John' cannot be interpreted as being coreferential with 'He'. An R- expression must be free every where. They do not get their meaning from another word in the sentence through binding, this is because they do not allow any instances of binding either within or outside the binding domain.

Refering Expressions or full Lexical NPs are another subcategory of NPs. They constitute a third class of NPs. As the label indicates, these elements are inherently referential. R- expressions are NPs that get their meanings by referring to entities in the world. These include: John, Kate, Ogbonna, Awka, the student, the woman in blue skirt, nwoke ogologo ahu, nwanyị ọma, red shoes, the lion, etc. They refer independently and select referents from the universe of discourse, that is , the things we know and talk about. According to Haegeman (1991:204), the use of the full NP indicates that there is, or is thought to be, an entity which is identifiable by the NP. Haegeman (ibid) goes on to say that we can say informally that a lexical NP is able to select a referent by virtue of its inherent properties. Consider the following examples:

34) a.Mary$_i$ slapped him$_j$.

b.John$_i$ likes the student$_j$.

c.*She$_i$ likes Mary$_i$.

d.* He$_i$ likes [the student]$_i$.

We indicate coreferentiality by a 'subscript' or 'index' 'i' on each of the phrases which is interpreted as referring to an individual 'i'. This is just a convenient notation. Two phrases that have the same index, are meant to be coreferential, if they have different indices, they are meant to refer to different objects, or be non- coreferential or disjoint in reference. Thus, the examples provided in (34a&b) above are grammatical because the R- expressions 'Mary'and 'John' do not have the same indices with their antecedents.(34c&d) on the other hand are ungrammatical because the R- expressions contained in them carry the same index with another NP in the same sentence which invariably violates the constraint on R- expressions that says 'Referring expressions are free everywhere'. More explanations on these are on subsequent pages.

Principle of Interpretation of R- expressions

'R- expressions must be free everywhere'. R-expression such as David, John, nwanyi oma, osisi ogologo ahu, teacher, etc do not tolerate any binding. No matter how far the potential binder is located with respect to R- expression, binding is prohibited. Consider the following:

35)a. David$_i$ slapped him$_j$ / *$_i$.

(David mara ura ya)

'David$_i$ mara ya$_j$ /*$_i$ ura'

b.David$_i$ said that he $_i$ / $_j$ is leaving.

(David siri na ya alawala)

'David$_i$ siri na ya$_i$ / $_j$ alawala'

c..He$_i$ said that David $_j$/ *$_i$ is leaving.

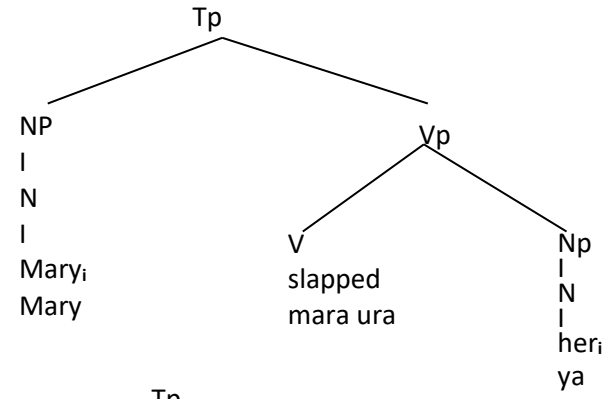
(Ọ sịrị na David alawala)

Ọi sịrị na Davidj /*i alawala

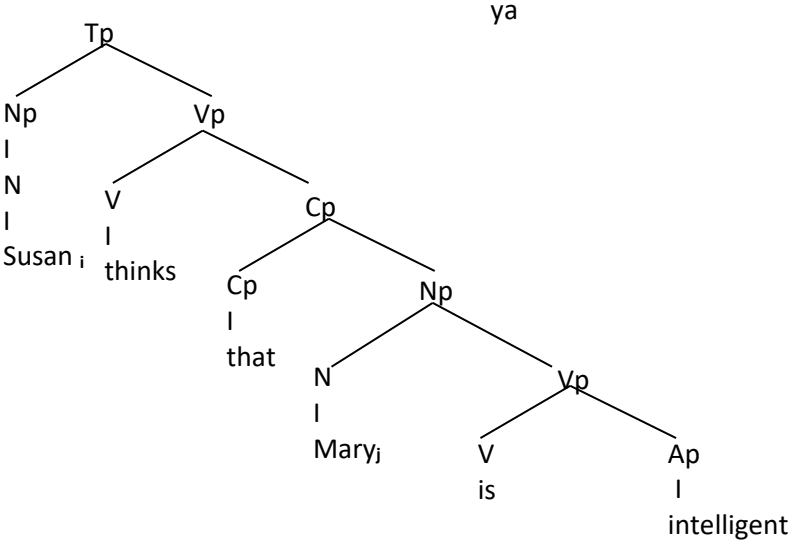
d. Susani thinks that Maryj is intelligent.

e. Maryi slapped herj/*i.

7)a.



b.



Similarly in Igbo,R-expressions must be free everywhere. They must not be C-commanded by any antecedent because they do not get their meaning from any word in the sentence through binding. The Igbo versions of the examples (35a-c) illustrate this.

The pronoun ‘him’(ya) in (35a) and R-expression ‘David’ must have different referents: both are free. In (35b) the pronoun ‘he’(ya) may be bound by ‘David’ since David is outside the GC of ‘he’(ya), the domain in which pronominals must be free. While the NP ‘David’ binds the pronoun ‘he’(ya) (outside the GC), the reverse does not hold: ‘he’(ya)

does not c- command ‘David’, so even if the two NPs are coindexed ‘he’(ya) does not bind ‘David’ according to our definition of binding; David is free.

However, in (35c) the order of pronoun and R- expression is reversed compared to (35b). In this case, ‘he’(ọ) and ‘David’ must not have the same referent: ‘he’(ọ) selects an entity distinct from that referred to by ‘David’. If ‘he’(ọ) and ‘David’ were to be coindexed in this instance, then the NP ‘David’ would be bound by the pronoun and this is not allowed. A further extension of (35c) shows that no matter how far the potential binder is located with respect to the R- expression; binding is not allowed. Consider (36) below:

Heᵢ says[that Mary thinks [that John claimed [that Davidᵢ is leaving]]]

In (36), despite the fact that three clause boundaries intervene between the R- expression ‘David’ and the pronoun, yet, coindexation is prohibited. Coindexation of the pronoun ‘he’ and the R-expression ‘David’ violate the constraint postulated earlier in the outline of Binding Theory.

Examples (35) are contrary to what we see in (37) below, where the R- expressions in the sentences carry the same index with another NP in the same sentence, which invariably violates the constraints on R-expressions that ‘Referring expressions are free everywhere’. Consider the examples below:

37)a.*Sheᵢ likes Maryᵢ.

(*Ọᵢ hụrụ n’anya Maryᵢ)

*Ọᵢ hụrụ Maryᵢ n’ anya’

b. *He**i** likes [the student]**i**.

(*Ọ $_i$ hụrụ n' anya nwata akwukwọ$_i$)

*Ọ$_i$ huru nwata akwukwọ ahu$_i$ n'anya'

c. *He**i** knows that Mary**j** likes Ann**i**

d.*He**i** knows that Mary**j** likes[the student]**i**

All the English examples and their Igbo translations provided in (37) are ungrammatical because the R-expressions are meant to refer to different objects.

It is, therefore, clear from the foregoing discussion that R-expressions do not tolerate any A- binding: they must be free. In contrast to pronominals which must be free locally, but may be bound outside their GC, R- expression must be free everywhere as demanded by the third condition of BT.

2.3.4. An Outline of Binding Theory: Preliminaries,Reference, Coreference and Indexing

To a first approximation, BT restricts the distribution of NPs(or DPs) that have the same referent and non- referential NPs. Sameness of reference is indicated by coreference via coindexing; that is, coreferent NPs carry the same index, represented by either integers or alphabets in lower case.(Buring 2005:1). In this work, small letters '**i'**, '**j'** and '**k'** are used to denote coreferentiality or non- coreferentiality. Thus, in (38) below, the NP 'Baroness' and the NP 'she' are coindexed, which in turn means that they have the same referent - they refer to the same person or thing – namely the actual 'baroness' in flesh and blood:

38) After [NP the baroness]$_i$ had visited the Lord, [she$_i$] left the house.(due to Buring 2005: 1)

Thus, BT is relevant for nominal expressions only, and also for the maximal projections,i.e. NPs.

As a convention, we assume that two NPs corefer if and if(iff) they are coindexed. Contra-indexing (or lack of an index on either NP) indicates non- coreference. This is illustrated in (39) below (taken from Buring 2005:1) :

39) a. After [the baroness]$_i$ had visited the Lord, she$_i$ left the house.
(she = the baroness)
b. After [NP the baroness]$_i$ had visited the Lord, [NP she]$_i$ left the house.
(she ≠ the baroness)

However, it should be noted the actual choice of integer or alphabets is irrelevant. (38) expresses the same coreference pattern as (39a).

In the traditional grammars, the NP ‘ the baroness’ in (38) is referred to as the antecedent of the pronoun ‘she’. For the purposes of the discussion in this study, the following informal definition of antecedent is adopted:

40). Definition : Antecedent
A is the antecedent of B if
i)A precedes B, and (ii) A and B corefer.

Reinhart(1983a: 29) states that two NPs in a given sentence will show one of three logically possible coreference relations viz:

41) a. Obligatory coreference : David hates himself.

b.Obligatory non-coreference: She adores David's teachers.

c. Optional coreference: David adores her teachers.

Based on the discussion in the previous section, grammatical representations for (41) will be like (42):

42) a. David$_i$ hates himself$_i$.

b.She$_i$ adores David's$_j$ teachers.

c.David$_i$ adores her$_j$ teachers.

In (42a) 'David' is the binder and 'himself' is the bindee. In (42b) there is no coreference between 'she' and 'David's teachers'.

Buring (2005:2) noted that the key insight captured in BT is that the (un) availability of coreference between two NPs crucially depends on two factors:

43) a. the morphological shape of the NPs

b. the structural relations between the NPS

However, the above do not preclude the possibility of additional factors that influence coreference options.

The relevant NP types in English and Igbo are introduced in the section below. This is followed by exploring and characterising the syntactic configurations in which they require, allow, or disallow coreference.

2.4. Previous Reviews of NPs in English and Igbo languages

There have been works written on NPs in both languages of study; this section reviews the different views of different scholars on NPs of duo languages.

2.4.1. Quirk and Greenbaum(2012)

Quirk and Greenbaum (2012), wrote extensively on the modifiers of English noun phrases. In their review, they noted that the noun phrase is normally indefinite as it can accommodate any number of modifiers as well as many types of modifiers, including intensifiers and predeterminers. According to them, such intensifiers which may premodify NPs are 'quite' and 'rather', while the predeterminers are 'such' and 'exclamatory what'. They posit that the intensifiers precede any determiners. Consider the following examples from Quirk and Greenbaum(2012):

44) a. He told **such** a funny story.
b. It was rather a mess.
c. He was quite some players
d. What a (big) fool he is.

According to Quirk et al, rather requires a 'gradable' head as a singular count noun. They also discussed 'so' and 'interrogative and exclamatory how' as modifiers. They cited the examples below:

45) a. I didn't realize that he was so big a fool.
b. How tall a man is he?
c. How tall a man he is!

In Quirk et al, the ‘so’, ‘interrogative and exclamatory how’ precede the indefinite article, but require the NP to contain a gradable adjective and the head of the NP to be a singular countable noun, as such, they cause the adjective to move in front of the articles as can be seen in(45a-c).

Quirk and Greenbaum (2012) distinguishes two types of Noun phrases:

46) a. the basic noun phrase; and

b. the complex noun phrase

Under the basic NPs, they discussed noun phrases with the elements that consist of pronouns, numerals, nouns with articles, or other closed- system items that occur before the noun head, such as predeterminers like ‘all’. Meanwhile, in their complex NP, they gave examples of some sentences- simple and complex which they said can become one simple sentence with a very complex noun phrase as subject. Consider their examples below:

47) a. The girl is Mary Smith

b.The girl is pretty

c. The girl was standing in the corner

d. You waved to the girl when you entered

e.The girl became angry because you waved to her.

(47) above can be reconstructed as (48) below:

48) The pretty girl standing in the corner who became angry because you waved to her when you entered is Mary Smith.

In their reconstruction, many changes were introduced and some parts of the verbs were suppressed. In describing complex noun phrases, Quirk and Greeenbaum distinguished three components. Viz:

49)a.The head, around which the other components cluster;

b.The premodification, which comprises all the items like adjectives and nouns placed before the head;

c.The postmodification, which comprises all the items like prepositional phrases, non- finite clauses and relative clauses placed after the head.

From Quirk and Greenbaum's (2012) analyses of the NP, it is obvious that the noun phrase is normally indefinite as there are indefinitely many modifiers that can premodify as well as postmodify it. The modifiers are used depending solely on how brief or detailed we wish to be in our expression.

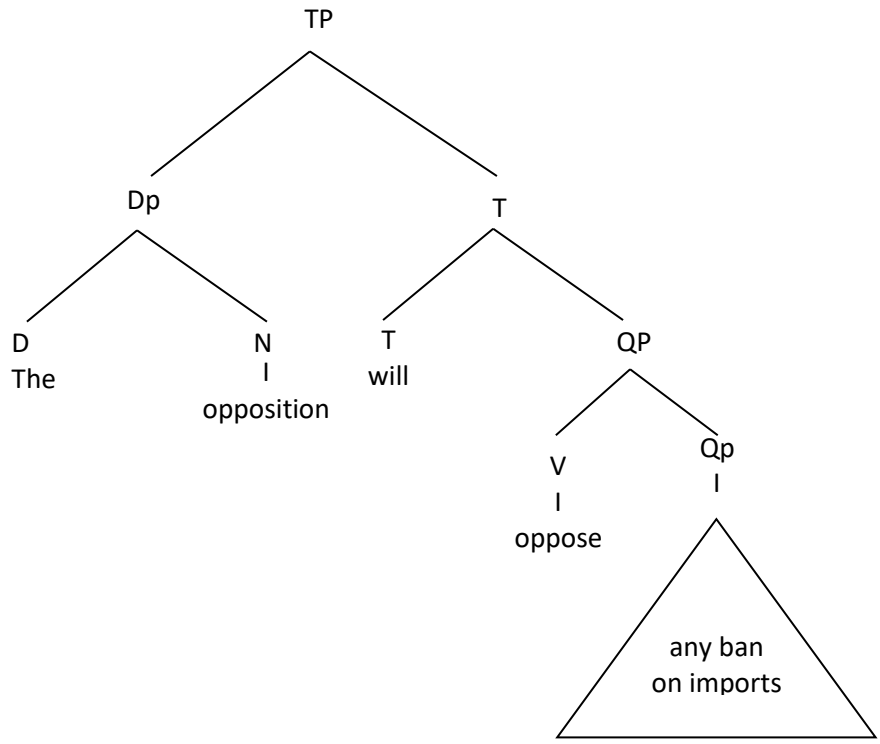
2.4.2. **Radford** (**2004**)

Radford (2004:82) discusses the formation and merging of words to form larger constituents in English NPs. According to him, the simplest way to form a phrase is by merging, which means combining two words together. Consider the following examples:

50)a. The opposition will oppose the/ any ban on imports.

b. The opposition will oppose the/ any government ban on imports.

8).



According to him, the noun ‘ban’ in (50a) and (b) can be merged with a following prepositional phrase complement like ‘on imports’ to form the nominal expression ‘ban on imports’. He goes further to say that the expression ‘ban on imports’ can either serve as a complete noun phrase/ NP on its own, or can serve as an intermediate N- bar projection which is subsequently merged with an appropriate specifier (like the noun government) to form the larger noun phrase/NP ‘government ban on imports’. He affirms that because a noun expression headed by a singular count noun(like ban) must be modified by a determiner or quantifier, the resulting NP in either case must subsequently be merged with a determiner like ‘the’ or a quantifier like ‘any’, so deriving a DP/ determiner phrase like ‘the’(government) ban on imports or a QP/ quantifier phrase like ‘any(government) ban on imports’.

Radford's (2004) analyses show how more and more complex phrases can be built up by a successive binary merger operations, each of which combines a pair of constituents to form a larger constituent. Through his successive merger operations, heads (nouns) can project into an intermediate projection through merger with a following complement, and into an extended projection through merger with a preceding specifier . Radford introduced the term 'maximal projection' to denote the largest expression headed by a particular word. Consider the following alternative answers given by speaker B in Radford (2004: 76):

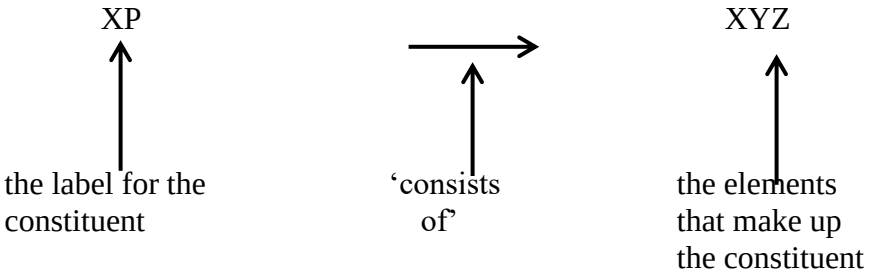
51) Speaker A: Where did she hit him?
Speaker B: (i) On the nose
(ii) Right on the nose

'On the nose' is a prepositional phrase/ pp derived by merging the determiner 'the' with the noun 'nose' to form the 'determiner phrase' 'the nose'. The preposition 'on' is then merged with 'the nose' to form the pp 'on the nose', which forms the intermediate prepositional projection (p- bar, pronounced pee- bar). This is extended into an even larger prepositional expression 'right on the nose' by merging 'right'(which is an adverb). Here, according to Radford, right becomes a modifier which serves to extend the pp 'on the nose' into an even larger prepositional expression 'right on the nose'; this forms the largest expression headed by 'on', that is, the maximal expression.

2.4.3. Carnie (2001)

In Carnie's (2001) analyses of English Noun phrases , he explores the range of materials that can appear in NPs. Carnie gives a format for PSRs as thus:

52)a.



b.NP → N

In his interpretation, he posits that an NP is composed of (written as →) an N and notes that the rule will generate a tree like (52c)

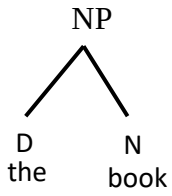
NP

|

N

On the premise that the rule does not account for determiners, he reverses it so that it can account for the presence of determiners as in (52d) below:

NP→ DN. (which can be generated into a tree diagram in (52e) below



Carnie adjusts his rule in (52f) below to show that D is optional. Thus:

NP → (D) N

Since nouns can be optionally modified by adjectives, he revises his rule again to accommodate adjectives in (52sg):

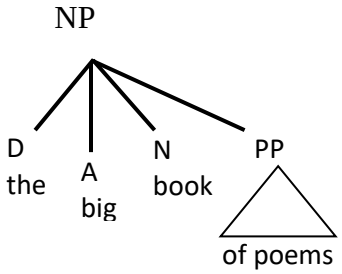
NP → (D) (Adj) N

Carnie did not stop adjusting his rules at (52g). In consideration of the fact that nouns can also take prepositional phrases, Carnie felt it was necessary to absorb this into his rule, in (52h) below:

NP → (D) (A) N (PP)

For concreteness, he applies the rule below:

53).



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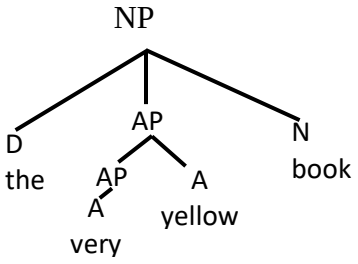


It was obvious that Carnie was not yet satisfied with his rule because it did not account for sentences with more than one adjective and sentences with more than one preposition. He therefore, revises his rule to accommodate structures such as (54a) below:

54)a. The [big] [yellow] box [of cookies] [with the pink lid]

b. NP → (D) + (A+) N (PP+)

In (54a) the noun 'box' is modified by big, yellow, of cookies and with the pink lid. The rule was changed to accommodate this. Carnie further adjusts his rule to accommodate more than one pp modifier by indicating 'A+', meaning, repeat as many times as needed (in 54b above).

2.4.4. Obiamalu(2015)

Obiamalu (2015) analyzes NPs in Igbo using the theoretical assumptions of the DP hypothesis. The DP hypothesis in Igbo claims that the determiner is not actually

inside the NP. Instead it heads its own phrasal projection. The DP hypothesis assumes that the argument nominal phrase is headed by a functional category regardless of whether there is overt D element in the phrase or not. He agrees that the head is obligatory within the Igbo NP but maintains that it does not imply that a head cannot be covert. He identifies D as a head which can have a zero realization.

Obiamalu(2015) posits that English and some other languages have overt determiners that could occupy the D head position and he is of the view that Igbo language which has no article that preceds the noun can have a functional category which may appear null or occupied by a lexical element ‘nke’. ‘Nke’ is a functional element that could optionally appear in any type of Igbo nominal construction.

2.4.5. **Mbah(1989 & 2006)**

Mbah(1989) examined the nature of Noun phrase movement in Igbo within the framework of Government and Binding Theory. In particular, he discussed in detail the structure of Noun Phrase in Igbo. He then explored NP movement evident in the language, in the light of subjacency conditions and the general movement rule move alpha.

Mbah (2006) is an interesting work that examined noun phrase in Igbo. According to him, Igbo is strictly head- initial language. He also argues that within the nominal phrase , nouns are heads of the phrase. This is so because, according to him, it is the only obligatory element within the noun phrase.

However, curiously enough, Mbah cited examples that contradict his claim that nouns normally are heads in any nominal phrase. Consider the following examples from Mbah (2006):

55)a. ótú nwòké
(one man)
'one man'

b. ájo mmádù
(bad person)
'bad person'

c. ógologo ósisi
(tall tree)
'tall tree'

d. nnúkwu úlò
(big house)
'big house'

Consider the postmodifying equivalents of (55a-d) in the examples below:

56)a. mmádù ójọọ
(Person bad)
'bad person'

b. ósisi ógologo
(tree tall)
'tall tree'

c. úlò nnúkwu
house big
'big house'

It is obvious from (55a-d) above that the nouns are supposed to be heads; but Mbah (2006) argued to the contrary. In his view, ajọ, ogologo, nnukwu in (55b-d) are heads,

while the same words are modifiers in (56a-c). For Mbah to have argued thus, is self contradictory. The modifiers in (55b-d) have the same modifying effects as those in (56a-c), the word order not withstanding.

2.4.6. **Emenanjọ (1978)**

Emenanjọ (1978), attempted a rough schematic representation of the structure of a simple Igbo nominal phrase. His view is encompassing as it shows all the possible constituents of an Igbo nominal phrase which are optional, co- occurring in the same NP. The only obligatory constituent in the representation is the Noun, assumed to be the head of the phrase. Below is the representation taken from Obiamalu (2015):

Example 57: ± A + N ± A ± P± Nm ± Q ± D ± Q ± RC

Head Central

Note:

± = Optional Nm = Numeral

\+ = Obligatory Q = Quantifier

A = Adjective D = Demonstrative

N = Noun RC = Relative Clause

P = Pronominal Modifier

He gives an illustrative phrase with all the constituents represented in (58) below:

58). ajọ akwà ọcha ānyị atọ niile ahù furu èfù.

A N A P Nm Q D RC

From the representation in (57) and the illustrative phrase in (58), Emenanjo shows that different types of modifiers can co-occur in the same NP.

2.5 Previous Reviews of Noun Phrases in Binding Theory

Chomsky(1980 and subsequent works) defined Binding theory as 'the module of the grammar (GB) regulating NP interpretation. Following Chomsky's(1981) classification, NPs that are arguments are assumed to fall into three categories. Viz:

59) i.Refering expressions/R- expressions/ Full Lexical NPs
ii.Pronominals or Pronouns
iii.Anaphors(ie reflexives and reciprocals)

We shall therefore, review literature in English and Igbo on these NPs.

2.5.1. The Pronominals

Pronoun is one of the NPs discussed in binding theory. Pronouns are NPs that may(but need not) get their meanings from other words in the sentence. They can also get their meanings from nouns previously mentioned in the discourse.

2.5.1.1. English Pronominals

The English pronouns differ in form from the Igbo pronouns though they perform basically the same functions. Below are the findings of some scholars on the English pronominals.

2.5.1.2. Quirk and Greenbaum (2012)

Quirk and Greenbaum(2012), also wrote on the pronominals in English Language . Their work constitute a heterogeneous class of items with numerous subclasses. They posit that despite the many varieties of pronouns, they have certain things in common which distinguish them from nouns. Such features according to them are:

60) i.they do not admit determiners;
ii.they often have an objective case
iii.they often have person distinction
iv.they often have overt gender contrast
v.singular and plural forms are often not morphologically related

Quirk and Greenbaum distinguish the pronouns into two: items with specific reference and those with more indefinite reference.

Items with specific reference are the common types of pronouns we know: personal, reflexive, reciprocal, possessive, relative, interrogative and demonstrative pronouns; while items with indefinite reference are universal, assertive, non assertive, negative, general and enumerative pronouns.

Quirk and Greenbaum shows the universal and partitive pronouns and determiners in the table below:

Table 1: Universal and Partitive Pronouns

				COUNT		
				Personal	Non-Personal	NON-COUNT
UNIVERSAL		Singular	Pronoun	Everyone everybody each	everything each (*place:* every-where	it (…) all
			Determiner	Every Each		
		Plural	Pronoun	(they (…)) all/both (them) all/both		All
			pre-determiner	all/both		
PARTITIVE	Assertive	Singular	Pronoun	Someone Somebody	something (*place:* some-where)	
			Determiner	a(n)		Some
		Plural	pronoun and determiner	Some		
	Non-Assertive	Singular	Pronoun	anyone anybody	Anything (*place*: anywhere)	
			Determiner	Either Any		Any
		Plural	pronoun and determiner	Any		
	Negative	Singular	Pronoun	no one nobody	Nothing (*place*: nowhere)	
				None		
			pronoun and determiner	Neither		None
		Plural	Pronoun	None		
			Determiner	No		

Source: Quirk and Greenbaum(2012: 121)

The quantifying ‘general’ and ‘enumerative’ pronouns are not included in the table.

` According to Quirk and Greenbaum, general quantifiers are two small groups of closed- system quantifiers:

61) i. many, (a) few, and several which co- occur with plural count nouns;

ii.much and (a) little co- occur only with non- count nouns.

Apart from their determiner function given above, the general quantifiers, Quirk and Greenbaum affirm can also be used pronominally. Those used pronominally as they posited are: (a) the 'multal' many and much, (b) the 'paucal' few and little, and (c) several and enough. They also aver that the enumerative quantifiers are: the numerals (cardinals and ordinals).

We have seen the elaborative work of Quirk and Greenbaum (2012) on pronouns in English and some of their functions above. Items with specific reference, as the name implies, particularise the entity being talked about; on the contrary, items with indefinite reference do not refer to any particular person or thing. The different subclasses of pronouns do not co- occur with determiners except the number 'one' in one of its uses as replacive one. The cardinals admit some determiners: the fifth position, the sixth time, etc.

2.5.1.3. Radford (2004)

Radford (2004) wrote an impressive work on the English pronouns. He categorised them as posited by traditional grammars. According to him, there are a number of different types of pronoun found in English and other languages. The first category he discussed was the 'N- pronoun'(or pronominal noun). He posits that this category denotes a class of words which are said to 'stand in place of' (the meaning of the prefix pro) or which 'refer back to' noun expressions. Consider the following illustrations from Radford(2004):

62)a. John has a red car and Jim has a blue **one**.

b. I'll take the green apples if you haven't got any red **ones.**

Radford affirms that one is a pronoun because it has no descriptive content of its own, rather, it refers back to the noun ‘car’ which is its antecedent. ‘One’, therefore, gets its meaning from ‘car’. He referred to the second category of pronouns as Q- pronouns (or pronominal quantifiers). Consider some of his examples;

63) a. All my guests are welcome/ **All** are welcome.

b. Many miners died in the accident/ **Many** died in the accident.

Each of the sentences in (63a-b) has two parts and the same quantifiers have been used for both parts. ‘All’ in the first part of sentence (63a) has been used prenominally, while the same ‘all’ has been used pronominally in the second part of the same sentence. According to Radford , ‘all’ and ‘many’ in the second parts of (63a-b) above are called Q- pronouns; this is because they are quantifiers acting as pronouns.

The third category of Radford’s pronouns is the D- pronoun and they are evident in the sentences below:

64)a. I prefer this tie/ I prefer this

b. I haven’t read that book/ I haven’t read these

‘This’ and ‘These’ in (64a) and (b) respectively, Radford refers to as D- pronouns (pronominal determiners)

Another type of pronoun posited by traditional grammar according to Radford is the personal pronoun, so called because they encode the grammatical property of person. He avers that personal pronouns encode the grammatical properties of person, number, gender and case as shown in the table below.

Table 2: Personal Pronoun Forms

Person	Number	Gender	Normative	Accusative	Genitive
1	SG	M/F	I	Me	my/mine
1	PL	M/F	We	Us	our/ours
2	SG/PL	M/F	You	You	Your/yours
3	SG	M	He	Him	His
3	SG	F	She	Her	her/hers
3	SG	N	It	It	Its
3	PL	M/F/N	They	Them	Their/theirs

SG = Singular, PL = plural; M = masculine; F = feminine, N = neuter

Source: Radford (2004:46)

Radford is of the view that the genitive pronouns have **weak** and **strong forms**. The weak form according to him is used prenominally(that is, used to modify a following noun expression); while the strong forms are used pronominally(that is as a pronoun). Examples:

65) a.Take my car ('my' used prenominally).

b. Take mine ('mine' used pronominally).

We have looked at Radford's categorisation of the pronominals and have noted that what Radford called Q- pronouns and D- pronouns are actually the indefinite and demonstrative pronouns respectively; the difference is that they have been used pronominally.

2.5.1.4. Igbo Pronominals

Some scholars also wrote interesting works on Igbo pronouns. Below are their findings:

2.5.1.5. Anyanwu (2012)

Anyanwu(2012), categorises the pronominal elements in Igbo into two groups. Viz:

66) i. the independent/ substantive pronouns

ii. the dependent/ non- substantive pronoun

Table 3: Igbo Pronouns:

Person/Noun	Independent/Substantive Pronouns	Dependent/Non-Substantive pronouns
1st Singular	m (ụ)	-
1st Plural	ányì	-
2nd singular	Gí	ị/i
2nd singular	́ụnù	-
3rd singular	Yá	ọ/o
3rd plural	Ha	-
non-definite	-	a/e

Source: Anyanwu, (2012)

Anyanwu (Ibid), examines the dependent pronominal elements in Igbo and reanalyzed them as pronominal subject clitics (PSCS), based on certain syntactic evidence such as pronouns as second objects, pronouns in relation to prepositions, pronouns and enclitics. The PSCS which has also been described by Anyanwu as the short, weak ones are three in number: i,o,e, each has two forms and each form according to Anyanwu is conditioned

by the [ATR] feature of any immediately following verbal element .He posits further that the pronominal element in Igbo can also be categorized into person- number specific and non- person- number specific. Anyanwu calls the dependent pronouns a/e ‘some persons’, and categorized it under non- person- number specific because it can refer to all persons. He avers that the other pronominal elements are person- number specific.

Concerning the dependent, short and weak pronouns in Igbo, Anyanwu further categorized them as special clitics because they appear in some special positions, that is, at the subject / pro- argument positions before verbal elements. Consider the following examples from Anyanwu (2012):

67) a. I rìri nri
(2sgCL eat- past food)
‘You ate food’

b. I tàra ánụ
(2sgCL chew- past meat)
‘You ate meat’

c. Ọ tàra ánụ
(3sgCL chew- past meat)
‘He /she ate meat’

d. é rìri nri
(some person(s)CL eat- past food)
‘some person(s) ate food’

The PSCs in the above sentences are strictly on the subject positions. In the Igbo orthography, the pronominal clitics are written separately from a following verbal

element. This is what we see in (67a-d) above. Anyanwu (2012), affirms that the independent pronouns, perform more functions than the dependent pronouns. According to him, they function as the subject of the sentence, as the second objects of their verbs, as direct or indirect objects of their verbs. Consider the following examples of pronouns as second objects of their verbs from Anyanwu(2012):

68) a. òbí nyere há yá
(Obi give- past 3pl 3sg)
'Obi gave it to them'
b. *òbí nyère a yá
(Obi give- past CL 3sg)
c. *òbí nyère yá a
Obi give- past 3sg CL

From the above examples, Anyanwu avers that it is only the substantive personal pronouns in (68a) that can occur as direct or indirect objects of their verbs and never the 'e/a' in (68b) and (c).

Anyanwu discusses the next function of substantive pronoun as: pronouns in relation to prepositions. Consider these examples from him:

69)a. Ọ bụ na gí/ yá ká Ada dàbere
(It be prep. 2sg/ 3sg that Ada lean- on- benefactive)
'It is on you/ him (her) that Ada relies/ Ada relies on you/ him'

b. Ọ bù n' ànyị/ únù ká Ada dabere
(It be prep. Ipl/ 2pl that Ada lean-on- benefactive)
'It is on us/you(pl) that Ada relies on/ Ada relies on us/you(pl).

c. * Ọ bù n’ a ká Ada dàbere

(It be prep. CL that Ada lean- on- benefactive)

Anyanwu demonstrates in (69a-c) above that substantive personal pronouns can be preceded by prepositions in Igbo. According to him, the ‘e/a’ could not be preceded by preposition in (69c)

2.5.1.6. Nwaozuzu (2007)

Nwaozuzu (2007), calls the impersonal pronoun ‘e/a’ the unspecified pronominal element as she observed that they syntactically behave differently from the substantive personal pronouns in Igbo. Refer to examples (68a-d) and (69a-c) for these syntactic differences. She further notes that there is no reason to separate ‘e/a’ from its hosting verb, concluding that ‘e/a’, the so- called impersonal pronoun in Igbo ‘could be a remnant of the nominaliser or the nominal marker associated with the Niger Congo group of languages to which Igbo belongs.

It is important to note that the syntactic behavior of ‘e/a’ is the same as those of the person specific ones(i/ị, o/ọ) ,they are all subject to the syntactic conditions outlined by Nwaozozu (Ibid).

2.5.1.7. Uwalaka (1995)

Uwalaka (1995), on the other hand, referred to the dependent pronouns as resumptive pronouns because, according to him, they are fully grammaticalised in Igbo occurring in interrogatives(as in 70a below), left dislocated structures(as in 70b),

purpose clauses and complement clauses.. Consider the following examples from Anyanwu (2012):

70)a. Ngozi, ọ gàra áhịa?
(Ngozi 3sg go- past market)
‘ Did Ngozi go to market?’

b. Obi ọ bụ nwóké?
(Obi 3sg be man)
‘(As for) Obi, he is a man’

Resumptive pronouns occur in both English and Igbo.

2.5.2. Reciprocals in English and Igbo Languages

The reciprocal markers, ‘each other’ and ‘one another’ for English and ‘rita’, for Igbo also function as noun phrases. Reciprocals, just like reflexives require antecedents within the same sentence, this is because of the anaphoric relation between the reciprocal markers and their antecedents.

Okeke (2008), made some findings on reciprocals generally, he is of the view that a construction used to encode reciprocal situations may have other non reciprocal functions; this is a similar case with reflexives. According to him, reciprocal constructions may be used to encode situations with more than two participants playing a pair of roles, regardless of whether each of the participants stands in a reciprocal relation to all the others or only to some of them. This he illustrated in (71) below:

71). The members of the ruling party congratulated each other.

According to Okeke (2008), the sentence does not necessarily mean that each member exchanged congratulations with every other member of the party

Hicks, (in Okeke Ibid**),** distinguishes two basic types of reciprocal markers:

72) a. Nominal reciprocals, where, just like the case in reflexives, the marker exhibits properties characteristics of nouns and pronouns, and

b. Verbal reciprocals, where the marker is part of the morphology associated with verbs (an affix, a clitic or a particle).

The English reciprocal markers each other and one another are of the nominal type; they function as noun phrases as well.

Concerning reciprocal constructions, **Asher (**in Okeke, 2008**),** avers that they are not restricted to encoding situations with only two participants involved in mirror image relations to each other.

In consonance with Okeke (2008), Asher (Ibid), also posits that the reciprocal construction in many languages are also used to encode chaining (or linear configurational situation, where (most of) the participants play identical pairs of roles, but not vis- a- vis each other. He uses a Japanese example and its English gloss to illustrate this:

73). Shitai- ga kasanari - a -tte iru.

Corpse be pile on top RECM-PROG PRES

'The corpses are piled on top of one another'

(Where RECM= reciprocal marker, PROG= progressive, PRES= present tense)

Nominal reciprocals exhibit a greater range of uses relative to verbal reciprocals, just like the nominal reflexives. From the above, it can be deduced that reflexives and reciprocals are subject to the same rules.

2.5.2.1. Reflexives in English and Igbo Languages

Reflexivization is a process by which a participant acts on himself or herself rather than on any other. Both English and Igbo languages have reflexive markers : 'self' and 'onwe' respectively. We shall then review the works of some scholars on reflexives in duo languages.

Okeke (2008), in his findings avers that a reflexive pronoun and its antecedent must be clause- mates; that is, they must occur within the domain of the small clause in which they appear. He uses the examples below to buttress his point:

74)a. John said [that $John_i$ loved $himself_i$]

b.*$John_i$ said [that John loved $himself_i$]

From (74a) above, Okeke explains that reflexive pronouns are coreferential with their antecedents. According to him, 'himself' refers back to its antecedent 'John'; 'John' therefore c- commands its antecedent. On this premise, 'John' in (74a) c- commands 'himself' because 'himself' co-refers to 'John'. According to him, this is because they agree in person, number and gender. To explain this agreement in person, number and gender, Okeke (2008) uses examples that he cited from Croft (1991) to buttress his point:

75)a. $Bill_i$ slapped $himself_i$

b. $Grace_i$ complained to Grace about $herself_i$

c. [The boys]$_i$ wounded themselves$_i$

d. We$_i$ deceived ourselves$_i$

Under the assumption that Bill is male and Grace is female, he explains further with below:

76)a. Bill shaved himself

b. *Bill shaved herself

c. Grace shaved herself

d.* Grace shaved himself

The reflexives in (75a-d) above have feature compatible antecedents as Okeke(Ibid), affirms that they agree in person, number and gender; typical of English reflexives.
On the contrary, sentences (76b) and (d) are ill- formed because, according to Okeke, it is obvious that Bill can't shave herself because Bill is a male. Therefore,(76b) and (d) do not agree in gender. Consider the following sentences from Okeke (2008):

77)a. I love myself.

b.*Bill loves myself.

c.*Bill won't talk to myself.

d. *They never leave myself alone.

Okeke is of the view that 'myself' cannot occur in sentences (77b-d) above because it requires another co-referential NP to be present in the overall sentence. In addition to reflexive pronouns co-refering with their antecedents, Okeke (2008), cites Igbo examples as he is of the view that Igbo language reflexives agree in person and number, but not in gender. Consider the examples below:

78)a. Áda hụrụ ónwè ya n' úgegbe

(Ada see- past 3sg in mirror)

'Ada saw herself in the mirror'

b. Áda na Ngozi hụrụ ónwè ha n' úgegbe

(Ada na Ngozi see- past self 3pl in mirror)

'Ada na Ngozi saw themselves in the mirror'.

In his analyses of (78a), Okeke is of the view that the NP 'Ada' is co-referential with the reflexive 'onwe ya', because they both agree in number and person. Ada is 3rd person singular NP and as such, it takes a 3rd person reflexive anaphor 'ya' . In (78b), he adds that the subject is 3rd person plural NP which, therefore, co-occurs with the 3rd person plural reflexive anaphor 'ha' . In Igbo, the reflexive marker onwe 'self' is constant irrespective of the number of persons of the antecedents as can be seen above.

Assibi's findings(in Okeke, 2008) are on possessive reflexives; according to him, a possessive reflexive strategy, is found in, for example, Russian, where the reflexive marker agrees in all the relevant features with the noun it modifies. Example:

79).On Ijubit svoju FEM rodinu

(he he loves REFM.SG. ACC country. FEM. SG ACC)

' He loves his (own) country.

(where SG=singular, ACC= accusative, FEM= feminine)

In Ndimele's(1999) work on reflexivization, he defined it as a process of converting a noun, pronoun, noun phrase or nominal element into a reflexive pronoun. He posits that the distribution of reflexives is somewhat limited in both languages, according

to him, a reflexive may not function as the subject of a sentence. This accounts for why sentence (80b) is ill-formed:

80)a. John slapped himself.

b.* Himself slapped John.

Ndimele (1999: 195) expresses what he calls the reflexivization rule thus:

81). SD: NP_1 – Y- NP_2 > (by Reflexivization Rule)

SC: NP_1 - Y- NP_2

[+pro]

[+Refl]

Condition(i) NP_1 and NP_2 must be coreferential

(ii)NP_1 and NP_2 must be clause- mates

The reflexivization rule above shows that an NP binds another NP that it c- commands and is coreferential with. The conditions explain the relationship between a reflexive and its antecedent; the reflexive must refer back to its antecedent and they must occur in the same clause.

Napoli (1996) in his findings posits that reflexives and reciprocals generally are assumed to be subject to the same rules because they are assumed to be elements of the same kind. To him, the antecedent needs to be to the left of the reflexive as relexives must have feature compatible antecedents, a characteristic also seen in Carnie's (2007)findings . Reflexive pronouns must co- refer with their antecedents.

Asher (1994) ,on the other hand, wrote on reflexive markers , he distinguishes three main types of reflexive markers.Viz:

82) a. Nominal reflexives, where the marker exhibits properties characteristic of nouns and pronouns in the language

b. Verbal reflexives, where the marker is part of the morphology associated with verbs (an affix, a clitic, or a particle), and

c. Possessive reflexives, where the marker exhibits properties characteristic of certain possessive forms, such as possessive adjectives.

Nominal reflexives are found in English and Igbo languages because the reflexive elements exhibit properties characteristic of the pronoun such as gender and number variation (himself, herself themselves) and they function as noun phrases. A verbal reflexive strategy, according to Asher (Ibid), is found in Nkore- Kiga (a dialect of Rwanda), in this dialect, the reflexive marker is a prefix on the verb. Consider the following examples from Okeke (2008:189):

83)a. Nganwa n -aa-ye - sheraka

(Nganwa PRES PROG-he-REFM-hide)

'Nganwa is hiding himself'

(Where PRES=present tense, PROG= progressive,REFM=reflexive marker).

Radford (1981), highlights some characteristics of reflexives; he is of the view that a reflexive pronoun and its antecedent usually occur in the clause. He uses the term 'c-commands' which according to him, means that an entity determines the features and the categorical class of another entity.

Radford (Ibid), in his contribution, makes a clear distinction between nominal reflexives and verbal reflexives; according to him, the distinction, although clear in

theory is not always so in practice. He gives an example using French se, where the reflexive marker is neither purely of the nominal nor purely of the verbal type:

84). Pierre et Jean se sont laves

(Pierre and Jean SE Be washed)

'Peter and John bathed themselves'.

Nominal reflexives have received considerably more attention in the linguistic literature than the other two types because of their great flexibility and the resulting variety of anaphoric relations with their antecedents.

Some languages have reflexive markers; 'self' for example, is a reflexive marker in English. Igbo language reflexives are formed by using 'onwe'(self) plus an appropriate pronominal element. On the other hand, Hausa language has no reflexive marker, thus, 'shi', 'ita', 'namu', are reflexives for 'himself', 'herself' and 'ourselves' respectively. Hausa has no neuter gender. Lawal (2006), posits that Yoruba language has two reflexives, 'òun' and 'ara'; ,the òun is a pronoun which behaves like a reflexive. According to Lawal, the difference between the two reflexives is that òun violates the Binding Theory that an anaphor must be bound within its governing category. Òun may be bound across several intervening clauses. Thus, òun, Lawal notes behaves like an anapsssshor and a pronoun at the same time in the sense that it must be bound, but it must be free in its governing category. He, therefore, calls òun a pronominal anaphor.

According to Lawal (2006), 'Ara' the Yoruba reflexive is formed by combining the word 'ara' 'body/self' with the appropriate genitive pronoun; Atoyebi adds that as a

result of the fact that the reflexive occurs in a genitive frame, the final vowel of ara is always lengthened to reflect possession, hence, 'araa', such as:

Singular		plural	
mi	my	wa	our
re	your	nyín	your
rè	his/ her	won	their

Thus:

araami (myself) araawa (ourselves)

araare (yourself) araayin (yourselves)

araarè (him/herself) araawon (themselves)

'Ara' must be bound in its governing category. Consider the following examples from Lawal (2006):

85)a. Taiwo$_i$ féron araare$_i$/ *òun$_i$

Taiwo like self

b. Taiwo$_i$ wo araare$_i$/ *òun$_i$ ninu díngí

Taiwo looked self in mirror

Taiwo looked at self in the mirror.

c. Ayo$_i$ léri pé *araare/ òun$_i$ le na Bóla

Ayo boasted that self can beat Bola

Ayo boasted that he can beat Bola

d. Ayo$_i$ gbàgbé péki *araare$_i$ / òun$_i$ ti ìlèkùn

Ayo forget that self / he shut door

Ayo forgot to shut the door.

In Lawal's analyses of (85) above, sentences (a) and (b) use of the reflexive 'araare' is acceptable, this is because according to Lawal, the reflexive is bound within the clause. However, in (c) and (d) where the antecedent of the reflexive occurs outside the clause, he affirms that the use of the reflexive is unacceptable. Thus Lawal's examples show that the reflexive pronoun 'araare' may not be bound by an antecedent outside its governing category. The contrary is the case with the pronoun 'òun'. The grammatical contrast between the 'òun' and 'araare' is that the later satisfies the binding condition for anaphors as it is bound within its GC, while the former does not.

2.5.2.2 Anaphors

Languages contain a class of items that are called anaphors. These are said to be elements that have no independent reference, but depend on an antecedent for their interpretation. The core case of anaphoric elements in English are what are traditionally referred as reflexive pronouns.

Anaphors are dependent nominal elements which must have a sentence internal antecedent. Unlike pronouns, they cannot (generally) refer to a sentence- external contextual element.

According to Radford (1981:11), anaphor is 'an NP which can have no independent reference, but which takes its reference from some other expression in the sentence, its antecedent'**.** Scholars like Napoli (1996), Radford (1981) and Chomsky (1981) are of the view that there are two types of anaphors: reflexives and reciprocals; works on these have already been reviewed on pages 66-72 of this study. Reflexives are pronouns like himself, herself, ourselves; reciprocals on the other hand, are words like

each other. Igbo also exhibit a group of elements that falls within the subcategory of NPs called Anaphors. These include: ya onwe ya, mu onwe m, anyi onwe anyi, unu onwe unu, etc.

Napoli (1996) posits that the two types of anaphors are called reciprocal and reflexive pronouns. In his view, reflexives and reciprocals (in government and binding) are assumed to be elements of the same kind, called anaphors (as opposed to pronominals and R-expressions).

Review of NPs in some Nigerian Dialects

Some writers have written on Noun phrases in some dialects used in Nigeria. Below are reviews of some of their works:

Muhammad (2016) examines the distribution and interpretation of NPs in Gbagyi within the preview of Classical Binding Theory proposed by Chomsky (1981,1986a). Basically three distinct categories of NPs are identified and discussed that include full lexical NPs, Pronouns and Anaphors. In the work, he focused only on the syntactic aspect of anaphoric relations, ignoring their morphology and semantics. He concludes that Gbagyi NPs are transparent to the conditions outlined in Binding Theory and that, generally, the constraints govern the syntactic behavior of both referential and non-referential elements in the language.

Another yet very interesting work which has direct bearing to the study is that of Muhammad et al which examines the distribution and interpretation of the various Canonical NP types in English and Kambari. This is carried out with a view to compare and contrast their identifiable morphosyntactic properties within the framework of

binding theory outlined in Chomsky (1986a). They argued that English differ from Kambari in three respects. First, anaphors in English agree in person, number and gender in contrast to Kambari where anaphors, reflexives in particular, agree with their antecedents only in person and number but not in gender. Although this is predictable from the fact that kambari lacks gender distinction. They also claimed that contrary to English, empirical evidence has shown that, reciprocals are nonexistent in Kambari. In the study too we have encountered similar disparities. This is discussed in subsequent chapters.

2.5.3. Referring expressions/ Full Lexical NPs

R-expression is an NP that gets its meaning by referring to an entity in the world. According to binding theory, R-expression must be free every where. Carnie (2001), is of the view that R-expressions are proper names and common nouns. Crystal (in Wikipedia 2015), on the other hand, posits that R-expressions include nouns and definite determiner phrases such as the cat, the last chapter of the book, etc. To him, they are noun phrases that are headed by the definite article 'the'. Since the classes of nouns we have in English are the same with those of Igbo language and since DP in both English and Igbo languages have the same constituents, we shall, therefore, review works on nouns and DPs in both languages.

2.5.3.1. Quirk and Greenbaum (2012)

Quirk and Greenbaum (2012), in their work aver that nouns are among the parts of speech that comprise the sets of items that are said to be 'open class'. 'Open' here, according to them means that it is indefinitely extendable, new items are constantly being

created and no one could make an inventory of all the nouns in English. They posit that nouns fall into different sub classes. Viz:

Proper nouns, count nouns, non- count nouns and nouns which combine with the characteristics of count and non- count nouns(examples, cake, stone, paper, etc). The definite DP, which is the second component of an r- expression according to Crystal, will be treated here as DP.

2.5.3.2. Obasi (in Obiamalu, 2015)

Obasi (Ibid), defined DP as a syntactic category, phrase that is headed by a determiner. He notes that an overwhelming majority of generative grammarians today adopt the DP hypothesis in some form or other. However, he affirms that large numbers of both traditional and formal grammarians consider nouns, not determiners to be the heads of noun phrases.

Obasi's view is contrary to the traditional view that determiners are specifiers of the noun phrase; to him, the determiner is a head that projects into a DP . In this work, determiners will be treated as one of the elements that are found within the domain of the NP.

2.5.3.3. Uzoigwe (2011)

Uzoigwe (2011) conducted a contrastive analysis of Igbo and English determiner phrases. The determiners examined in both languages include: number, adjectives, demonstratives and genitives. He argued that Igbo has a head initial structure where the determiners are positioned after the head contrary to what obtains in English. He

concludes by claiming that the knowledge of the differences in the structures of the mother tongue and the second language will enhance proficiency and good performance in language teaching and learning English as L2.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the issue of research methodology, the method of data collection used in the present study and presents the analytical technique employed in this research.

3.1. Method of Data Collection

A research work of this nature does not require the use of data collection schedules such as questionnaire and was not used . The data used to achieve the aim and objectives of this study were drawn from two main sources : primary and secondary sources.

3.1.1. Primary Data

The sampling technique was used in collecting the primary data.The researcher used her intuition as a native speaker of Igbo language and also included the data collected on the intuition of other native speakers, including an Igbo language teacher who has a sound intuition; this was necessary in order to obtain a reliable information. More so,as the Igbo dialect used in this research work is standard Igbo, coupled with the fact that there are different dialects of the language, it was necessary to get an Igbo language teacher who teaches with the standard variety of the language.

Other informants used, though not language experts, are competent in Igbo language; an ideal speaker of a language can provide correct data concerning that language.

The names and the details of my informants have been written in the appendix.

3.1.2. Secondary Data

The secondary data is gathered from textbooks, owned by the researcher, her supervisors, and some were sourced from Abdullahi Fodiyo Library Complex, UDUS. Several books, including other researched works relating to the topic and different on line files (mostly from pdf) are consulted, all these materials would be acknowledged in the references.

3.2. Instrument for Data Collection

The technique used in data collection in this study is oral interview, this is necessary in order to verify the data for the study. The oral interview was conducted on native speakers of Igbo Language who served as informants.

3.3. Method of Data Analysis

The method of data analysis suitable for a research work of this nature is a non-statistical data analysis; this is employed since no questionnaire was administered. The data collected are transcribed, categorised and subjected to the principles and descriptive tools provided within the framework of Binding Theory propounded by Chomsky (1981). This is used in the analyses of the data generated in the two languages under investigation: English and Igbo.

CHAPTER FOUR

ON THE DISTRIBUTION AND INTERPRETATION OF NPs IN ENGLISH AND IGBO LANGUAGES

4.0 Introduction

This research work is a comparative analysis of NPs in English and Igbo , data involving well- formed and ill- formed expressions are presented and compared, as objective as possible, to find areas of differences and similarities. Chomsky's principles of BT are used in the analysis of NPs in both languages.

4.1 Distribution of NPs under Binding Theory

In this section, the three NPs under BT will be analysed comparatively in the two languages of study.

4.2 Condition A: On the Analyses of Anaphors in English and Igbo

Reflexivisation as has been defined earlier in this research is a process by which a participant acts on himself or herself rather than on any other. This section examines on a comparative note, the reflexives in both English and Igbo languages.

English reflexive pronouns end with the suffix 'self', examples: himself, herself, yourself, itself, etc. On the contrary, Igbo reflexives are formed by using 'onwe'(self), plus an appropriate pronominal element which encodes person and number properties of the antecedent, that is, onwe + appropriate pronoun. Examples, onwe+ m = onwe m; onwe +ya = onwe ya; onwe + ha = onwe ha. Consider the table below for examples of both English and Igbo reflexives:

Table 4: English and Igbo Reflexives

Person	Number	
	Singular	**Plural**
1ST	Onwe m ‘myself’	Onwe anyi ‘ourselves’
2nd	Onwe gi ‘yourself’	Onwe unu ‘yourselves
3rd	Onwe ya himself/herself/itself	Onwe unu ‘themselves’

Source: Okeke, (2008)

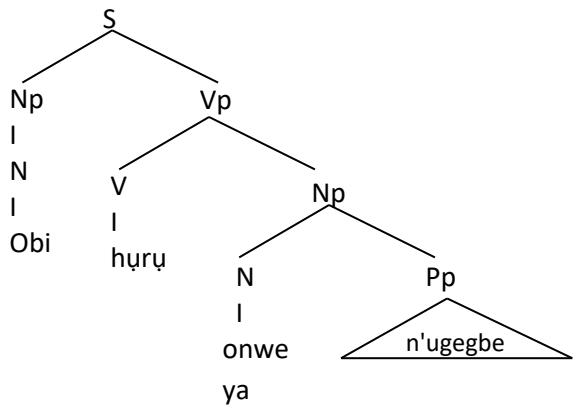
From the table, we can deduce that in English, the reflexive marker ‘self’ takes the plural marker ‘ves’ depending on the number or person of the antecedent. This is contrary to what we see in Igbo where the reflexive marker ‘onwe’ self is constant irrespective of the number or person of the antecedent. This is because Igbo reflexives, unlike those of English and French, agree in number and person with their antecedent; they are not marked for gender. Consider the following examples from Okeke 2008:

86) a. Òbí hụrụ ónwè ya n’ úghegbe
‘Obi saw himself in the mirror’

b. Àdá hụrụ ónwè ya n’ úghegbe
‘Ada saw herself in the mirror’

c. Òbí na Àdá hụrụ ónwè ha n’ úghegbe
‘Obi na Ada saw themselves in the mirror’

9)

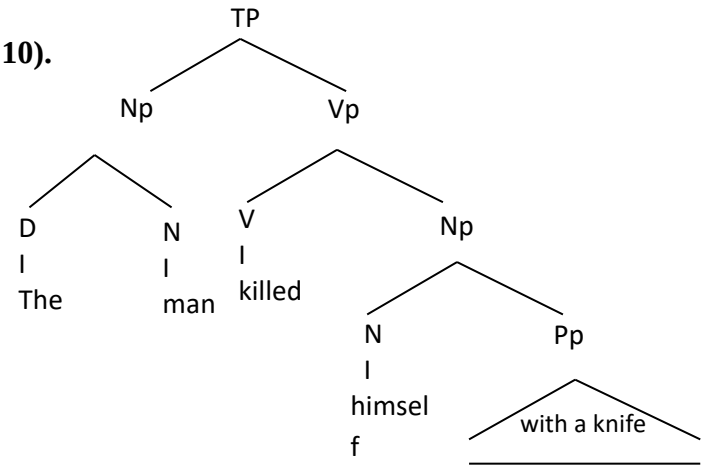


In (86a), the NP 'Obi' is co-referential with the reflexive 'onwe ya', they both agree in number and person. Obi is 3rd person singular NP and as such, it takes a 3rd person singular reflexive anaphor 'ya'; in (86c), the subject is 3rd person plural NP which therefore, co-occurs with the 3rd person plural anaphor 'ha'. Also, 'Obi' in (86a) uses the reflexive 'onwe ya', likewise 'Ada', a female in (86b). This is because the English examples on the other hand have 'himself' for Obi and herself for Ada.

Both English and Igbo reflexives fall under the nominal reflexives. In English and French reflexive situation, one participant plays two (or even more) roles, for example, agent and patient or agent and possessor. Similarly in Igbo reflexive situations, one participant plays two roles. Nominal reflexive constructions highlight the fact that a single participant is involved in a situation of multiple roles (Okeke,2008). Consider the following examples:

87) The man killed himself with a knife
(ahụ nwoke gburu onwe ya jiri otu mma)
'nwoke ahu jiri mma gbuo onwe ya'

10).



English reflexives require a compatible clause- mate antecedent. Similarly, Igbo reflexives require a compatible clause- mate antecedent because of the anaphoric relations between the reflexives, the reciprocal markers and their antecedents. Consider the following examples:

88) a. Mary likes herself

(Mary hụrụ n' anya onwe ya)

'Mary hụrụ ónwè ya n' ánya

b.)*Mary likes himself

(Mary hụrụ n'anya onwe ya)

Mary hụrụ ónwè ya n'ánya

c.)*Obi likes herself

(Obi hụrụ n'anya onwe ya)

'Òbí hụrụ ónwè ya n' ánya

Sentence (88a) is grammatical because the antecedent ‘Mary’ and the anaphor ‘herself’ are compatible clause mates. On the contrary,(88b) and (c) do not have feature compatible clause mate.(refer to pgs.66 and 67 for more explanations).

Igbo reflexives just like English reflexives permit both direct and indirect object reflexives and certain kinds of oblique reflexives. Consider the following examples from Okeke (2008):

89)a. I sent a parcel to myself.

b. She is in love with herself.

c. Ibe nyere onwe ya ego ahu

(Ibe give- past self 3pl money DEM)

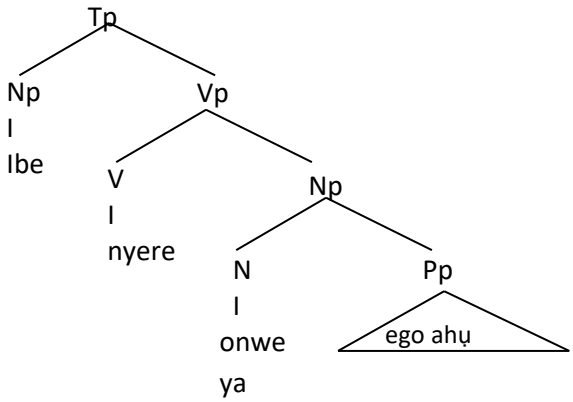
‘ Ibe gave himself the money’

d. Ọ hụrụ onwe ya n’ anya

(She/ he see- past self 3sg PREP-eye)

She/ he loves himself/ herself

11).



Reflexives in English and Igbo have been treated comparatively. We observed that they have areas of differences and similarities. There are differences in their forms but they perform the same functions.

When reflexives and reciprocals are discussed, it is assumed that they are subject to the same rules because they are assumed to be elements of the same kind (Napoli, 1996).

English reciprocals are marked by 'each other' and 'one another' while Igbo reciprocal is marked by- 'rita', a suffix which is attached to the verb. Examples: hụ + rita→ hụrịta; nye + rita → nyerita.

English reciprocal needs to have the right kind of syntactic relationship with its antecedent; the antecedent needs to be to the left of the reciprocal. This is also the case with Igbo reciprocal. Consider the following examples from Okeke (2008):

90)a. Obi and Ada love each other

(Obi na Ada ihunanya onwe ha)

' Obi na Ada hụrịtara onwe ha n' anya'

b. Ha marịtara onwe ha ụra

(3pl slap- each other-past self 3pl slap)

'They slapped one another'.

(90a) and (b) are similar to what we see in reflexivization. This shows that reciprocality in both English and Igbo Languages can also be expressed in the same manner as reflexivization. If the structures are interpreted as 'themselves', then it is a reflexivization structure, whereas if it is reciprocal, then 'each other' or 'one another' is registered as the

meaning (Mbah 2006). He also notes that this similarity of structures crashes once the subject is not plural.

Consider the following examples from Okeke(2008):

91) a. Nyeṛtanụ ónwè unu èkèlé nke údo.
(give one another self 2pl greeting poss peace)
'Give one another a salutation of peace'

b.òbí na úché kpọrọ ónwè ha ásì
(Obi and Uche call- past self 3pl hatred)
'Obi and Uche hate each other/ themselves

Examples (91a) and (b) explains Mba's commentary that it is a reflexive structure if interpreted as themselves, whereas the reverse is the case if any of the reciprocal markers is registered as the meaning

Note that Igbo reciprocal verb structure does not change in relation to different verb forms: copula, stative, aspectual/ habitual and transitive verbs. The following examples illustrate these:

Sentence with copula verb

92)a. òbí na úchē díritara ónwè ha mmá.
(Obi and Uche be- each other self 3pl good)
' Obi and Uche are good to each other'

Sentences with stative verbs are indicated below:

b. Ha ma na ha darịtara onwe ha akakpụ
(3pl know comp 3pl fall- one another self 3pl beauty)
'They know that they are dwarf for one another'.

b. Ada na nne ya maritara onwe ha mma

(Ada and mother 3sg know self 3pl beauty)

'Ada and her mother are beautiful for each other'.

Aspectual as well as habitual sentences

c. Ha na- ekeṛịta onwe ha isi

(3pl Aux- pr-tie self 3pl head)

'They are plaiting each other/ one another's head'.

d. Okey na Okoro na- amaṛịta onwe ha njakịṛị

(Okey and Okoro Aux- pr- slap self 3pl jest)

' Okey and Okoro are jesting between each other'

Sentences with transitive verbs

e. Ha gburịsitara onwe ha mma

(3pl kill- one another self 3pl knife)

'They cut one another with knife'

f. Anyị hụṛịtara onwe anyị n' anya

(Ipl see- one another self Ipl in eye)

'We love one another'.

From the above, we have seen that reciprocals and reflexives have similar structures, especially in the verb structures . We observed that the similarity of structure is no longer possible if the NP is not plural. We have also noted that Igbo reciprocal and its English counterpart perform similar functions. Igbo reciprocal constructions maintain their verb

forms in relation to corpula, stative, aspects/ habitual, and transitive verbs. Examples were cited to demonstrate these.

4.3 Condition B: On Pronominals in English and Igbo

English and Igbo pronouns perform basically the same functions, but they differ in forms. English pronouns have three forms: the normative, accusative and genitive forms and it uses different expressions to represent these forms. On the contrary, Igbo language uses one form to express the three forms of the English pronouns. This is because Igbo is not rich in pronouns like some languages. To form the genitives in Igbo, 'nke' the possessive marker is attached before the pronoun. Examples: ours → nke + anyị = nke anyị; yours → nke + gị = nke gị; mine→ nke + m= nke m, etc. Consider the following Igbo pronouns and their English equivalents:

Igbo pronouns

Singular	Plural
m, mu	Anyi
gi, i	Gi
ọ	Ha

Singular	Plural
m, mu	Anyi
Gi	Unu
Ya	Ha

English has different forms for the 3rd person singular pronouns 'he', 'she', and 'it'; this gender distinction is lacking in Igbo pronouns. From the table above, we can ascertain

that the 3rd person singular pronoun ‘ya’ in Igbo is used to express the different forms of the 3rd person singular pronouns in English: he/ she/ it.

If we are to follow Radford’s (2004) analyses, we can say that English pronouns, just like Anyanwu’s (2012) categorisation of Igbo pronouns have weak and strong forms.This is a striking similarity between the pronouns of the two languages of study. The weak forms are used prenominally, that is, used in modifying a following noun expression, while the strong forms are used pronominally, that is ,as a pronoun. Examples have been given on pg. 61 of this research to buttress these points. In Igbo language, on the other hand, it is the dependent/ non substantive pronouns which Anyanwu (2012) reanalysed as PSCs that he referred to as weak pronouns. They are ‘i, o, e’, each has two forms, thus: ụ/ i, ọ/o, a/e.

4.4. Condition C: On the Analyses of R- expression/ Full Lexical NPs

R- expressions in both English and Igbo languages have the same components. They consist of nouns and determiner phrases. Nouns and determiners are the same in both languages. Determiners in both English and Igbo languages include number, adjectives (qualifiers and quantifiers), demonstratives and genitives. They perform the same functions in duo languages; these functions have been analysed in chapter four of this work. However, there are differences in the structure of DPs in English, contrary to that of Igbo language.

The arrangement of a determiner and its NP complement still conforms to the X-bar syntax parameter (…X…). Different languages of the world have peculiar ways of organizing their phrases, some are head initial (X…), while others are head final(…X).

Igbo belongs to the first group while English, the second. This means that determiners come after the headnoun in Igbo language while determiners precede the headnouns in English (refer to examples under structures of NPs in both languages).

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter, being the concluding chapter of this work is designed to summarize the major findings in this research. It presents the efforts of the researcher in comparing the NPS of both English and Igbo languages and analyzing the NPs using binding theory.

5.1 Summary

Since this work is a comparative study of the NPs of two languages, using BT based on the theoretical framework of Chomsky (1981), the forms and structures of the NPs of the two languages under BT have been studied and their differences and similarities discovered. The NPs that have been studied are: R- expressions or full lexical NPs, the pronominals or pronouns and the anaphors(reflexives and reciprocals).

Below are the findings:

1. R- expressions in both English and Igbo languages have the same components but they differ in structure. They consist of nouns and 'determiner phrases'. Nouns are the same in duo languages, likewise determiners. Determiners in both languages include numbers, adjectives(qualifiers and quantifiers), demonstratives and genitives.

2. Even though their determiners are the same, there are differences in structure of the NPs of the languages. The determiners used with the head nouns in English NPs are pre-posed because English has head- final structure, therefore, its determiners precede the headnouns. On the contrary, Igbo determiners are postposed because its DPs have head initial structure, and as a result, determiners follow the headnouns.

3. The pronominals in both languages perform basically the same functions: as subject of the sentence, as direct or indirect objects of their verbs, as the second objects of their verbs, etc.

4. English pronouns just like Igbo pronouns have weak and strong forms. This is a striking similarity between the pronouns of the two languages of study. The weak forms are used prenominally, that is, used in modifying a following noun expression, while the strong forms are used pronominally, that is ,as a pronoun. Examples have been given on pg. 61 of this research to buttress these points. In Igbo language ,on the other hand, it is the dependent/ non substantive pronouns which have been reanalysed as PSCs that are referred to as weak pronouns. They are 'i, o, e', each has two forms, thus: ị/ i, ọ/o, a/e. They are called weak pronouns because they do not appear in every position in the sentence; they can only appear in some special positions , that is, at the subject/ pro-argument positions before verbal elements.(refer to pg.63 for examples). Also, the independent pronouns perform more functions than them.

5. The pronouns differ in forms. English pronouns have three forms: the normative, accusative and genitive forms , and these have different expressions. In contrast, Igbo uses one expression for the three forms; 'mụ/ m'for example is used for 'I','me',and 'mine', with 'nke' the possessive marker attached before the genitive form. Also, English has different forms for the third person singular pronouns 'she', 'he' and 'it'. This gender distinction is lacking in Igbo as the third person singular pronoun 'ọ' is used to express 'she' 'he' and 'it'.

6. Anaphors, that is, reflexives and reciprocals, which is the last type of NP under binding theory also have areas of differences and similarities in both languages. Both languages have reflexive markers; English reflexive pronouns end with the suffix 'self', while Igbo reflexives are formed by using 'onwe' (self) plus an appropriate pronominal element .In English, the pronoun precedes the reflexive marker such as: him+ self→ himself; my+ self→ myself, while in Igbo, the pronouns follow the reflexive marker, thus:

Onwe + ya → onwe ya; onwe + anyi → onwe anyi, etc.

7. Anaphors in English agree in person, number and gender in contrast to Igbo where anaphors (reflexives in particular) agree with their antecedents only in person and number but not in gender. This explains the reason that the English reflexive marker 'self' takes the plural marker 'ves' depending on the number of persons of the antecedent, whereas the Igbo reflexive marker 'onwe' (self) is constant irrespective of the number or person of the antecedent. Igbo reflexives are not marked for gender.

8. For the reciprocals, the English reciprocal is marked by 'each other' while Igbo reciprocal is marked by 'rita', which is attached to the verb stem. It was also observed that Igbo reciprocal and its English counterpart perform similar functions. Igbo reciprocal constructions maintain their verb forms in relation to corpula, stative, aspects/ habitual, and transitive verbs.

9. Reflexivisation and reciprocality in both English and Igbo languages require a compatible clause- mate antecedent; this is because of the anaphoric relations between the reflexive and reciprocal markers and their antecedents.

5.2 Conclusion

In conclusion, NPs prevalent in Binding Theory occur in all human languages and they have areas of differences and similarities. In the languages under study (English and Igbo), reflexives and reciprocals, which are the two types of anaphors, have reflexive makers but their structures differ; they require a compatible clause- mate antecedent because of the anaphoric relations between them. It was also observed that the pronominals of both languages perform basically the same functions but they differ in form while the R- expressions have the same components but their structures are different. Hence, it is assumed that some crucial questions on this topic have been answered as efforts have been made so that this study will be of immense contribution to those who might want to carry out further research on similar areas.

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APPENDIX

NAMES AND DETAILS OF INFORMANTS

NAME: Caroline Emenogu (Mrs)

AGE: 49

SEX: Female

DURATION: 1hr. 20 minutes

PHONE NUMBER: 07036048886

QUALIFICATION: B.Ed. Igbo Language

NAME: Blessing Uche (Mrs)

AGE: 42

SEX: Female

DURATION: 48 minutes

PHONE NUMBER: 08037413534

QUALIFICATION: HND. Mass Communication