DEDICATION

To the Grace of God,

Which has sustained me

and

To my children

Olawunmi and Olaitan

for their unconditional love.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L2	Second Language
SE	Standard English
RP	Received Pronunciation
FL	Foreign Language
MT	Mother Tongue
LI	First Language
CA	Contrastive Analysis
EA	Error Analysis
TL	Target Language
TC	Transitional Competence
IL	Inter-language
PA	Performance Analysis
ESL	English as a Second Language
DA	Discourse Analysis
N	Noun
Pron/Pro	Pronoun
Refl	Reflexive
Recip	Reciprocal
PP	Prepositional Phrase
SD	Structural Description
SC	Structural Change

NP	Noun Phrase
VP	Verb Phrase
Adjp	Adjective Phrase
S1	Matrix Sentence
S2	Subordinate Clause
V	Verb
Det	Determiner
DS	Deep Structure
Rel	Relative
FL2U	Fluent Second Language User (After Begram (1990)
ELT	English Language Teaching
*	Conventionally Used to Indicate a Deviance

GLOSSARY

Oba   -   A King in Yoruba Culture.

Abiku   -   Spirit child believed to shuttle between the world of the

                  living and the spirit world.

Iroko   -   A tropical tree valued as timber.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

<u>The English Language in the Global Context</u>

Kachru (1985) groups speakers of English into three concentric circles. The inner circle is occupied by native speakers in Australia, Britain, Canada, New Zealand and the United States of America. He describes this group of speakers as those who produce the norm, that is, the standard of usage or the principle of right and wrong. The outer circle is made up of speakers who use English as a Second Language. Such speakers of English are found in a number of countries in Africa and Asia. Examples of such countries include Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania, Swaziland and Lesotho in Africa and India and Malaysia in Asia. According to Kachru, speakers in this circle are capable of developing their own norms. The development in turn can force them to recognise their own regional or national standards. The third expanding circle of speakers of English are those who learn English as a foreign language. Countries which harbour the third group of speakers include France, Germany, the Commonwealth of Independent States (i.e the former Soviet Union), etc. Speakers in this circle depend on the norm produced by the native speakers.

Bowen (1975) estimates speakers of English to be about 600 million, comprising 300 million native speakers and another 300 million speakers who have either formally acquired the language or have picked it up to a stage where it can be used for some purpose no matter how limited and instrumental. In a similar observation, Adetugbo (1991: 1) asserts that the English Language is spoken by over seven hundred million people half of whom are native speakers, while for the others it is either a Second Language or a Foreign Language.

The observations of Kachru (1985), Bowen (1975) and Adetugbo (1991) attest to the fact that the English Language can no longer be regarded as belonging solely to the English people. In fact, it becomes less so when we take into consideration the fact that the English Language is the most international of languages.[1]

Commenting on the ubiquity of the English Language, Evans (1984: 1 - 2) states :

> Statistics on the pervasiveness of the English Language are astonishing. 75 percent of the world's cables are in English as is 70 percent of the world's mail. English is the language of countless international organisations, ranging from the International Olympic Committee to the World Council of Churches. Some 300 million people throughout the world learn English as their mother tongue and for a further 350-400 million it is their Lingua - Franca.

Evans concludes by saying that nearly 1,000 million people - a fifth of the population of the globe - are familiar with the English Language.

The English Language attained her global status as a result of the control Britain had over a vast area of Africa and Asia in addition to the expansion of the language through the settlements in Australia, the United States of America, Canada and New Zealand. The influence of the United States of America in world affairs also constitutes a major factor in the spread.

"The vehicular load" that the English Language carries as a medium for science, technology and literature also contributes to its almost universal spread.[2] To buttress this claim, Van Cott (1966: 33) states:

> The great majority of all the publications in any given scientific discipline are written in English. In Physics, for example, over 60% of all publications are in English ... Many scientific articles are accompanied by an English abstract. Actually, more scientific material is translated into English than into any other language. Any scientist today who does not have a working knowledge of English is cut off from half or more of the Literature in his field.

Put simply, the English Language is generally used in international behaviour as the readiest access to world trade, communication and scholarship.

In countries where it is employed as L_2 it is used in education as well as a necessary link with resources beyond the borders of such countries. It is also often associated with important works of great intellectual wealth.

From the foregoing, the English Language can no longer be said to be strictly owned by those who use it as native speakers. This is because it has also become the property of those who employ it as a second or foreign language.[3]

Language Variation

The functions performed by the English Language presuppose the existence of varieties of different types. As a social phenomenon, language is closely related to the social structure of society. This is

because, as members of different societies, we belong to different groups and sub groups in accordance with such criteria as age, education, geographical dispersion and profession.

Like society, language consists of different varieties corresponding to the different, complex patterns of human behaviour. To be an acceptable member of a society, therefore, one needs to know how to use language to suit each occasion.

Language variation is manifested at the different linguistic levels of lexis, phonology and syntax. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 1) identify six varieties of language with a common core in grammar and other linguistic features. These are:

(i) regional varieties;

(ii) varieties according to education and social standing;

(iii) varieties according to subject matter;

(iv) varieties according to medium;

(v) varieties according to attitude;

(vi) varieties according to interference.

For our purpose in this work, only three of these varieties will be relevant. These are:

(a) regional varieties;

(b) varieties according to education and social standing.

(c) varieties according to interference.

Regional variation constitutes the most important variety of language. According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973 :2) it has a well established label both in popular and technical use: "dialects". The term "dialect" is mostly used to refer to differences induced by geographical situation which in the course of time may result in dialects distinct enough to be

designated as different languages. Dialectal variation reveals itself principally in phonology, grammar, lexis and speech rhythm. The most important distinction, especially in the 20th century, between regional varieties of speech in English is to be found at the phonological level. Many dialects of English exist in countries where it is used as mother tongue and new ones are developing in places where English is employed as L_2.

Variation according to education and social standing is recognised within each of the dialect areas of English. This variation is often revealed in speech. Within this variety, a distinction between the uneducated and the educated speech is made. The uneducated identifies almost completely with the regional dialect at all the linguistic levels while the educated one cuts across dialect boundaries. The educated speech is also accorded additional recognition by government agencies, public institutions such as the press, political parties, the law court and the pulpit. This brand of English has come to be regarded as Standard English (SE) by virtue of the political and social value accorded it.

The issue of standardization according to Adetugbo (1991 :1) dates back to the 16th century when the English Language claimed no more than six million native speakers. The concern for a standard at this time caused Puttenham (1589) to advise that " the usual speech of the court and that of London and the shires lying about London within LX myles be emulated as the standard."[4]

The role assumed by "standard" dialect is social in its origin. Often it is the language of a social class or of the educated or intellectual community or of a dominant clan that fits into this role. Generally, Standard English is believed to have developed out of the English dialect used in and around

London, modified through the centuries by scholars from the universities, speakers at the court, writers and public schools. It possesses a widely accepted codified grammar and vocabulary imparted through formal learning in schools. In addition, it has more prestige than any other dialects and confers political, social and economic benefits on its users.

However, the term "Standard English" means different things to different people. To some, it is nothing more than a regional dialect which has become prestigious as a result of playing various cultural, political, social and geographical roles. Others see it primarily as a model which comes in handy when we want to communicate with members of the wider community outside our own immediate environment. To this group of people Standard English has a high degree of unanimity.

Various definitions of Standard English have been given. Among these are the ones given by Trudgill (1974), Nwabuwe (1983) and Strevens (1981). Trudgill (1974:17) defines SE as:

> that variety of English which is normally taught in schools
> and to non-native speakers learning the language. It is
> also the variety which is normally spoken by educated
> people and used in news broadcasts and other similar
> situations.

Nwabuwe (1983: 9) says it is a variety of English that is not regionally restricted. In other words, Nwabuwe says that this variety stands in contrast to all other varieties of English and differs from them politically, socially and linguistically.

Standard English, therefore, is a universal form of English used and understood everywhere by educated people. It constitutes the official form

employed for public information and administration. It appears in its written form in all public documents in countries where English is used as an official language.

Strevens (1981:7) sums up the different facts about Standard English as:

> one dialect which possesses no "paired" accent of its own; it is encountered with only trivial variation throughout the English using world in its grammar and lexis; almost universally accepted by native speakers of English as a suitable model of English for teaching their own young and for teaching foreign learners.

The idea of "standard" also aims at correctness and acceptability. However, linguists do not regard Standard English as "better" than any other regional or national dialect but concede that its peculiar educational and social status may require that it be studied more and in greater depth than any other dialect of English.

British and American English are the two national standards that enjoy an overwhelming importance both in terms of the number of distinctive usages and in the degree to which these distinctions are "institutionalized" (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973:4). Other prominent national varieties identified are those used in Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand and Scotland. In countries where English serves as either L_2 or FL, the SE employed is patterned after the British or American standard depending on a number of historical or political factors.

It has also been observed that the English spoken and written in countries where English is used as L_2 differs considerably from the native

standard models having been exposed to geographical, linguistic and socio-cultural environments different from those of Britain and America. Commenting on this fact, Kachru and Quirk (1981:XVI) state:

> the use of English around the world does not entail the global emergence of a single, homogeneous and mutually intelligible English speaking community.

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:7) further identify interference varieties based on the realization that many users of English have their own L_1 which interfere with their L_2. He refers to these interference varieties as the trace left by someone's native language upon the target language he has acquired. In some L_2 situations, these interference varieties have become so widespread over a long period of time that they may be thought of in Quirk's word as "stable and adequate enough to be regarded as varieties of English in their own right rather than stages in the way to a more native-like English".

The phonological, syntactic and lexico-semantic features of these non-native varieties of English are being actively debated in a number of countries in Africa and Asia. These countries include Ghana, Malaysia, Nigeria, India and Pakistan.

In order to properly discuss these non-native varieties within the Nigerian context, there is the need to consider some events that brought Nigeria in contact with the English Language and how this contact has resulted in the current debate going on about a variety that can probably be called Nigerian English.

The History of the English Language in Nigeria

A meaningful discussion of the history of the English Language in Nigeria must take into account three important events related to the early contact of Europeans with Africa and how these events directly affected the entrenchment of English in Nigeria. These three important events are:

(a) commercial activities in the 15th century between the Portuguese and   the people of West Africa;

(b) missionary activities; and

(c) British colonial rule.

In Nigeria, the coastal people of the Niger Delta and some parts of Igboland benefited from the first of these events as new opportunities for trade were opened up resulting in the acquisition of power and material gains. In exchange for their goods, the Portuguese bought pepper, ivory and slaves (Spencer, 1971).[5]

The Igbo and Delta people acted as middlemen in this trade. By the 18th century the economy and the traffic in slaves expanded. With this expansion, the indigenous middlemen realized the need to have a knowledge of the English Language. The Efik of old Calabar became the first set of people who attempted to speak and write English in this connection in the late 18th century. According to Spencer (1971) they sent their sons to acquire a knowledge of the English Language and to learn the rudiments of book keeping. Those sent later came back to be interpreters between their people and the Portuguese traders. This development gave rise to English-based pidgin in the Niger Delta and around the mouth of the Cross River. According to Elugbe (1995: 286) the pidgin centres were, for a long time, Warri/Sapele, Port Harcourt and Calabar. Elugbe and

Omamor (1991) offer us a detailed account of the development of pidgin in Nigeria.

The second event, the missionary activities, were inspired in Nigeria in the main by the success recorded in Freetown.[6] Two delegations were sent to the Niger. Ajayi (1965) believes that the first one in 1853 led by Rev. Edward James failed because the boat could not go upstream - the Niger River. The second expedition was in 1854 and it succeeded under the leadership of Dr. William Baikie.

Consequently, two missions were established: one at Onitsha and the other at Igbede near Lokoja. With the missionary activities, what was considered a more refined version of English emerged, compared to the crude language of commercial exchange. Churches and schools were also established where English was employed. A lot of attention was paid to the education of children, adult literacy and Sunday schools. The first attention to education was aimed at making the children teach their parents to read the Bible while the last two were aimed at producing converts capable of reading the Bible.

The efforts of the missionaries led to the establishment of primary and grammar schools saddled with the responsibility of producing literates in English. The missionaries also promoted the study of Nigerian languages even though the idea behind this was to teach adult converts to read the Bible in their native languages.

Colonial rule, the third event which affected the entrenchment of English in Nigeria, is believed to have started by the Act of 1821, in which Britain took over all British trading settlements. The need for education became all important at this period because of the increased awareness of its benefits. With this awareness, the English Language

became highly prestigious. Moreover, educated Nigerians were needed to fill the lowly posts in the colonial administration. The acquisition of proficiency in English was thus seen as a step to becoming a member of the elite class.

Artisans and clerks were also needed in the commercial arm of government. The need for staff, both commercial and administrative, led to the establishment of schools and the training of workers on a subsidized basis. For the first time, therefore, education in English became an avenue for the attainment of economic, social and political opportunities.

Apart from the three events mentioned above, the attainment of political independence by the former British colonies marked the beginning of another important phase in the evolution of the English Language in West Africa. These former colonies include countries like Ghana, Sierra Leone, Nigeria and Gambia. Prior to the attainment of independence the majority of the citizens in these colonies had no opportunities or access to formal education. This was because the educational institutions available were not many. Political independence, however, brought about an increase and a rapid expansion of educational institutions. These opportunities allowed the citizens in turn to acquire "correct", "bourgeois" English referred to by Spencer (1971) as "literary and book learned English". The post-independence era in West Africa entrenched the English Language in the multilingual context of some of the countries in the region. This is particularly the case in Nigeria. The English Language has since acquired a slow social penetration and functional diffusion mostly marked "in terms of confidence in creativity and innovations" (Kachru, 1995 LVII). This penetration has also given West African societies a chance to talk in terms of their own variety of English. Nigeria

became independent in 1960, but the English Language remains and continues to be perpetuated by subsequent Nigerian governments.

One of the major reasons for the retention of English Language is the multilingual nature of the Nigerian society which makes it difficult to adopt one of the native languages as a national or official language. Writing about this multilingual situation, Bamgbose (1971: 36) estimates that there are about 400 different local languages in Nigeria. Of these, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba are the major ones but very few persons speak more than one of them. In his own estimation, Adetugbo (1979) puts the number of indigenous languages in Nigeria between 150 and 300. Even today, it is difficult to state the exact number of languages in Nigeria.

The adoption of any of the indigenous languages as a national language is also less attractive as this will call for the compulsory re-education of the enlightened populace, especially officials and teachers, and the massive translation of political, economic, social and educational documents into the adopted language. The indigenous languages do not also seem to have the same status as English in terms of the degree of standardisation, the number of people who speak them and the use to which they are put. It is in the light of this complex language situation that the English Language has come to be accorded its special status and utilisation value.

The English Language is a second language in Nigeria. As L_2, it is the official language of the country. It is the language of education, right from the second half of the primary school to the university level. As the language of government it is used as the working language of administration.

The English Language also serves as the language of commerce, the judiciary, a greater percentage of the mass media and of business. In addition to this, it is the language employed for inter-ethnic communication. Above all, it is the language for the expression of national identity and therefore serves as a unifying factor in the country, while also functioning as the medium of communication with the external world. The use of English has produced a fast growing body of Nigerian literature. Because of the unique status of the English Language in Nigeria, an essential part of formal education involves the acquisition of a good mastery of English. English symbolises prestige, elitism and modernity.

In spite of the various functions of English highlighted so far, some authors express negative attitudes towards the language. According to Ikiddeh (1986:377):

> whatever advantages English has conferred on us not only
> as an international language, but also as, up to now, the
> language of our national unity, whatever level of our
> competence in its use and the rigour of our energies in its
> promotion, it unfortunately remains true that it was a
> language of conquest and therefore of imposition.

In a similar vein, Ikara (1987:21) affirms that English in Nigeria has hindered genuine nationalistic concerns and socio-cultural integration.

Language Contact in Nigeria

The co-existence of the English Language and the various indigenous languages of Nigeria is an example of the linguistic situation which

Weinreich (1963:1) describes as "Language contact".   Adetugbo (1979a:128) states that contact between two languages results in a situation where an individual learns elements from a linguistic system apart from his native language or mother tongue. The language-using individual and the society constitute the locus of the contact. Language contact within the Nigerian context is demonstrated by the average educated Nigerian. This is because English functions as an indispensable complement to his mother tongue.

An obvious consequence of language contact is the alternate use of two or more languages by the same person depending on the topic of discourse, purpose and the relationship that exists between those participating in the discourse. This practice of alternating between two languages is what is referred to as bilingualism (Weinreich, 1963). When the alternation occurs between more than two languages we have multilingualism.

The concept bilingualism, according to Beardsmore (1982:1), has open-ended semantics. Explaining this fact, he says that definitions are numerous and are continually being proffered without any real sense of progress being felt as the list extends. However, he advises that bilingualism must be able to account for the presence of at least two languages within one and the same speaker, remembering that ability in these two languages may or may not be equal, and that the way the two or more languages are used plays a significant role in determining the degree of bilingualism.[7]

Within the Nigerian multilingual situation, a classification of bilingualism may include three types. The first involves indigenous languages and pidgin. This type of bilingualism involves the use of

English based pidgin in addition to an indigenous language. Bilinguals of this type may be found in some parts of Edo, Delta, Rivers and Kogi States. These bilinguals are usually not educated, but pidgin English is employed as a sort of lingua franca in their societies due to their early commercial contact with European traders.

The second is referred to as autochtonous bilingualism (indigenous bilingualism). This results from exogamy, commerce, job mobility and geographical or linguistic contiguity between two or more ethnic groups. This type of bilingualism involves the ability of a Nigerian to speak and understand two indigenous languages, sometimes, in addition to English.

A third and more prevalent one, especially among educated Nigerians, is that which involves an indigenous language and English. Asserting the predominance of this type of bilingualism, Adeniran (1986:362) says bilingualism in Nigerian languages is not as prestigious in Nigeria as billingualism in English and Nigerian languages. Apart from these three types, bilingualism involving foreign languages such as French, Spanish, Russian and German also exist in Nigeria. Such bilinguals, however, are not common.

Bilingualism within the Nigerian situation can be referred to as functional. According to Beardsmore (1982:12) "the emphasis that has been placed upon what the speaker has to do with his languages in the society in which he lives leads to the idea of functional bilingualism". By virtue of the status and functions of the English Language it is more often used than the indigenous languages. The language situation in Nigeria also demonstrates bilingualism by diglossia. Thus, in any communication event, two choices are often open for use - the English Language and the local indigenous languages - depending on the situation, the topic and the

level of interaction between those participating in the communication event. For instance, the local languages are more often employed in linguistically homogenous situations while the English Language is used in situations where those involved in a communication event are from different ethnic groups or social backgrounds. The indigenous languages are also commonly identified with informal situations such as cultural expression and intimate interactions. On the contrary, the English Language is associated mostly with formal or semi-formal situations such as administration, commerce, education, politics and trade. From the foregoing, therefore, the English Language has acquired the <u>High</u> status while the indigenous languages have come to assume the <u>Low</u>. The observation above is also made by Fishman (1966:141) in the following words:

> the situation where English is chosen instead of any of the Nigerian indigenous languages is like choosing between highly stylised classical variety of the language called High... and one of another vernacular variety which has usually been considered unworthy of serious attention for serious purpose called Low.

Oyeleye (1985:200) also says that the English Language has acquired a status analogous to Ferguson's H category.

An important characteristic of bilingualism in the Nigerian situation is that the average educated Nigerian has acquired a reasonable mastery of his mother tongue before coming into contact with the English Language. The tendency is therefore very strong for him to apply the rules of his

mother tongue in speaking and writing English. This type of situation is what linguists have referred to as linguistic interference. Explaining the reason for this linguistic consequence of bilingualism, Todd (1982) says it is due to the fact that the second language is often acquired at school and is strongly influenced by the first language of the speakers.

Interference is defined by Weinreich (1963:1) as:

> instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech (writing) of bilinguals as a results of their familiarity with more than one language.

This definition by Weinreich suggests that interference is a negative result of bilingualism and, therefore, a major problem as it affects almost every bilingual. In his own remarks, Mackey (1965:240) says interference is dependent on whether the learner is speaking the language or simply trying to understand what he reads. If the learner attempts the former (i.e. speak the language) the ingrained patterns of his mother tongue (MT) will interfere with those of the language he is learning. Here, the stronger associations of his first language will unconsciously respond and this may be an explanation for the difficulty encountered in learning to speak a second language. If, on the other hand, the learner attempts the latter (i.e, understands what he reads), then, the greater the similarity between the L_1 and L_2, the easier it is to understand the L_2.

Interference manifests itself at all the levels of linguistic analysis, i.e, phonology, syntax and semantics. At the phonological level, interference occurs when a bilingual identifies the phonemes of the secondary system (L_2) with those of the primary system (L_1) and, in reproducing them,

subjects them to the phonological rules of the primary system. For instance, in Yoruba there are only these voiceless fricatives (f, s,) while English distinguishes between voiced and voiceless fricatives in the same places of articulation (f,v,s,z, ,). A Yoruba speaker of English may find it difficult to make the voicing distinction which is very important in English. Our Yoruba speaker might pronounce both fan and van with /f/ and both <u>sip</u> and <u>zip</u> with /s/ thus ending up in realizing <u>van</u> as <u>fan</u> and <u>zip</u> as <u>sip</u>.

Semantic interference can be subdivided into lexical and non-lexical types. Lexical interference deals with the meaning of individual words; that is, the meaning equivalence that exists between words in the two languages in question. For example in talking about kinship relationships, the English Language makes far more distinction than Yoruba. In English, we have such words as brother, sister, uncle, aunt, nice and nephew. These examples portray an important feature of the English kinship terms - the use of gender distinction as well as emphasizing the degree of relationship. In Yoruba language, however, only two words 'Egbon' (Senior relative) and 'Aburo' (Junior relative) are identified for expressing the whole range of meanings covered by the six English words. Unlike the English words, the Yoruba words draw attention to seniority (respect) and not to gender or degree of relationship.

Non-lexical interference concerns the type of semantic interference that has to do with the entire meaning of an utterance in context. For example, the meaning of "June 12" and "M.K.O." in the Nigerian political discourse will depend on the context of their use.

Syntactically, interference occurs when a bilingual transfers the grammatical structure of his L_1 to that of his secondary system (L_2) or vice versa. For instance, tense in Yoruba is not morphologically marked whereas in English it is. Thus, the idea of tense in Yoruba is often carried over to the second language. Quite often we find a sentence such as "I go to school yesterday" which translates to the Yoruba expression "Mo lo sí ilé ìwé lánàá. Here the action "Mo lo" suggests that the action had already taken place but unlike English this is not morphologically reflected.[8]

Bilingualism also engenders certain sociolinguistic consequences. These include cod-switching and code-mixing. Code-switching is generally regarded as the constant switching between two languages in the speech of a bilingual. According to Akere (1981:19):

> Code-switching among bilinguals reflects the nature of the
> shared set of social norms among inter-locutors and the
> two languages involved in the alternation become the
> indices of the socially relevant pattern of verbal interaction
> in the community.

Code-mixing, according to Strevens (1981:31), implies the use of one or more languages for consistent transfer of linguistic units from one language into another, and by such a mixture developing a new, restricted or not - so - restricted code of linguistic interaction. These two phenomena are conditioned in any discourse by such factors as topic, participants, purpose and appropriateness.

The variety of English spoken and written in Nigeria differs in some ways from the native speakers' English. This distinction is induced and determined in part by linguistic interference and some socioliguistic

features. The persistent and habitual occurrence of some peculiar features in the English Language in Nigeria at all the linguistic levels has led to the ongoing debate as to whether or not there is a variety of English that can be called Nigerian English.

Nigerian English

The term Nigerian English has been variously defined by many authors among whom are Achebe (1965), Adekunle (1974), Adetugbo (1979a), Akere (1978) and Ikonne (1986).   For our purpose, we will adopt the definition given by Akere because we consider it representative enough to describe this variety of English. According to Akere (1978:409) Nigerian English can be regarded as:

> an aggregate of heterogeneous grammatical structures common to Nigerian usage, several pronunciation peculiarities and socio-culturally constrained usage of certain lexical items and the semantic interpretations and the generalization given to items.

Early attempts at identifying features of Nigerian English focused on variety differentiation. This pioneering effort started with the work of Brosnahan (1958). Other works on variety differentiation include those of Banjo (1971), Adesanoye (1973), Adekunle (1974), Odumuh (1981) and Akere (1981).[9] In all of these efforts the general consensus is that the educated elite of Nigerian society should be used as the model for evolving a standard national variety.

Major studies carried out on Nigerian English also include Spencer (1971); Ubahakwe (1979); Jowitt (1991) and many other scholarly articles aimed at practical problems encountered by Nigerian learners of English,

teachers and examiners. Other articles and conference papers focus on features identification. Such works include: Adekunle (1974); Adetugbo (1979); Akere (1978); Omolewa (1979); Kujore (1985); Ayoola (1986).

The various issues and facts discussed in the works quoted above have provided enough reason to talk about a distinct variety of English that can be called Nigerian. In other words, the existence of Nigerian English may no longer be considered a controversy even though Kujore (1990: 2) expresses the view that it may be true to say that the question whether a national standard variety of English has indeed evolved or is in literal existence remains a matter of attitude or opinion. This is especially so as there has not been an official stamp on what constitutes Nigerian English at the various linguistic levels, even though some expressions and usages have become widespread among educated Nigerian users. Part of the reasons for the lack of official stamp on this variety of English is the lack of adequate and comprehensive definition of the precise features and distinguishing characteristics that mark off this variety of English from all other varieties of English in the world. In addition, Jibril (1982) states that Nigerian English is not a single variety of English but a conglomeration of many varieties which relate to one another in sufficient respects to qualify for a common cover term. Even then, Jibril asserts that such a single claim has not yet been empirically tested.

The features which obviously mark off the English of the educated Nigerian are most obvious at the phonological level. This level of analysis (according to Bamgbose (1971); Adetugbo (1987)[10] has attracted much attention among analysts as the area in which the Nigerianness in English is most noticeable. Issues that have been discussed at the phonological level include national and social acceptability, international intelligibility

and acceptability as well as the question of which standard to teach in our educational institutions. These issues have been adequately discussed by Banjo (1971;79); Ekong (1982); Jibril (1982); Atoye (1984, 1987); Adetugbo (1984); Afolayan (1985); Amayo (1985, 1986, 1988); Okoro (1986) and Dairo (1988). The general consensus in all of these works seems to be towards the teaching of a model that will accommodate the second language features but which should be nationally and socially acceptable and at the same time intelligible and acceptable internationally.

The lexico - semantic level comes next to the level of phonology. At this level the features of Nigerian English identified include those that may be traced back to the influence of the local languages. This includes the transfer of first language proverbs, idioms, metaphors and wise-cracks into English. For example:

    (1) Thanks for the other day (an appreciation of a favour
       done   at some time in the past).

    (2) The wicked have done their worst (used in obituaries
    to express the fact that the deceased's death was not
    natural).

    (3) Kia kia bus (a fast bus - Yoruba + English).

Lexical items that have developed special usage are another example: A 'motor park' for instance is synonymous in most Nigerian speech and writing with 'garage' or 'station', whereas in British English, a motor park is an open space where cars and other vehicles may be parked, sometimes for a small payment, while a garage is a building in which motor vehicles can be kept and a station, a building on the railway (or bus) line where passengers or goods are taken to their destination.

There are also examples of idioms that have evolved in Nigerian English. Thus:

(4) Let me land (Do not interrupt my speech).

(5) to move with (to associate with).

Instances of semantic extension, restriction and shift have also been identified especially in the usage of English kinship terms which are given broad semantic sense to express our cultural concepts. For instance 'mother' denotes not only one's maternal progenitor but sometimes all relations as old as she. 'Kola ' could also be either kolanut or 'bribe' in Nigerian usage depending on the context. "Rug" is also used in place of "carpet" and "carpet" in place of "linoleum".

Lexical borrowing from the indigenous languages is also common in Nigerian English.

For example:

(6)*(a)   Oba.

(b)   Iroko.

 (c)   Abiku.

In addition new lexical items have developed out of coinages, collocations, blends and compounding. Examples include:

(7) First born   -   a compound word for eldest child.

(8) Buka + (Cafe) teria   - a blend of the Yoruba word "buka" and the English word "cafeteria". It is used in Nigeria to refer to an eating house of modest standard.

(9) son of the soil   -   a coinage which refers to an

                                        indigene of a place.

At the syntactic level, the following features are identified: pluralization of non-count nouns; omission of determiners, especially articles; wrong use of prepositions, absence of infinitival 'to' after some verbs; wrong hyphenation of phrasal verbs and the use of universal tag question 'isn't it' irrespective of person, tense or main clause auxiliary. Thus the following examples according to Kujore (1985) could be found in the written English of Nigerians:

(10)   *cutleries, furniture.

(11)   *she has gone to '∠' secretariat.

(12)   *Bayo benefited 'from' his promotion.

(13)   *Neither Paul nor James 'are' here.

(14)   *fly-over, look-out.

(15)   *he has gone home, isn't it?

All these examples are outright deviations or misuse of codes and are not in any way accepted as positive features of Nigerian English.

At the level of communicative competence, it has been observed that Nigerians make use of some inappropriate expressions in relation to greetings and politeness. For instance, Bamgbose (1971:44) draws attention to such locutions as 'sorry' and 'well done' which "are often used as greetings - the former as an expression of sympathy (e.g. to a person who sneezes) and the latter as a greeting to anyone at work."

It has also been noted that Nigerian English lacks register differentiation between formal and informal situations. For instance, the

formal variety in Nigerian English is used in most situations (formal or informal). Inappropriateness in expressing politeness, honorific and titles for polite discourse has also been identified by Adetugbo (1986).

Also noticed in Nigerian English is a feature that has been referred to as Americanism. This has to do with the influence of American standard form on Nigerian English. This influence is most noticeable in the orthography and vocabulary.

The following are some examples:

(16)   British   American

              centre   center

              theatre   theater

              colour   color

              programme   program.

The British lexical item "flat" is referred to as "apartment" in American English. In Nigerian usage we find a mixture of these usages.

Despite the different features of "Nigerian English" highlighted so far, it seems that we can never achieve an all-purpose 'Nigerian English'. We make this observation because the features identified as 'Nigerian English' have not been seen to have an overwhelming impact on world standard English. It seems therefore that there is not much to be gained by overflogging the idea of Nigerian English. An all-purpose 'Nigerian English' is also less desirable if we consider the fact that educated Nigerian speakers of English will prefer some form of world standard English to a regional variety in formal situations.

The status of the English Language in the world as noted in the first section of this chapter makes it even more desirable that educated

Nigerians should cultivate a form of English, especially at the syntactic level, which has international currency rather than a regional variety which is yet to gain the world's recognition. The syntactic level is particularly mentioned because it is a level of linguistic analysis where people are not willing to endanger their social status in a bold attempt at linguistic innovation or in a sort of "easy and unguarded linguistic habit that might result in "impure or foreign English" (Sey, 1973). In fact, an educated Nigerian user of English should be disgusted if he realized that the English he uses is short of the world's standard particularly at the syntactic level if not at the phonological and lexico-semantic levels. But as we shall see in the next section the syntax of English usage in Nigeria has deteriorated so much that it calls for attention.

In our discussion of Nigerian English so far, it is observable that the differences between the English Language in Nigeria and the native speaker variety of English have been induced by linguistic as well as socio-linguistic factors. Notable among these factors are the dynamic nature of language which leads to variations, the Nigerian multilingual situation which causes interference features; the acquisition of the English Language mainly at school and through textbooks; and the existence of other dialects of English in the world.

We are concerned in this study with deviant forms at the syntactic level and with particular reference to pronominal anaphora (coreference). The word 'deviant' is used here to imply that the data to be analysed violate some rules of the World Standard English at the syntactic level and thus are unacceptable to all normal users of the English Language.

Research on the syntax of English in Nigeria has been scanty compared to works that have been done on the phonological and lexico-semantic levels. Explaining the reason for this, Adeniran (1986:360) says the syntactic processes of English are reducible to rules even though they are complex, and because the structural patterns are less flexible they are more easily learnable in their underlying forms and do not constitute serious acquisition problems. Adeniran also notes that educated written Nigerian English still largely conforms structurally to World Standard English.

This observation by Adeniran is supported by Amayo (1986:315) who asserts that speakers of English in Nigeria are so conscious of correctness in respect of the non-phonological features of English that members of an audience would not hesitate to show their disapproval whenever a speaker makes what they consider to be a grammatical mistake.

Adeniran and Amayo's observations above can no longer be held to be totally correct for present - day users of English in Nigeria. This is because a general decline in the standard of English grammar usage has been noticed in the performance (speech and writing) of Nigerian English users. A notable example of this decline is presented by Adesanoye (1990).

Using a six-year data base of one hundred masters' students in the form of essays written at home and five doctoral proposals/theses, he highlights the errors prevalent in forms of faulty concord, pattern failure, misplaced modifier, lexical deviances and a number of orthographic mistakes. That so many deviations surfaced in the writing of these future university lecturers after over ten years of intense exposure to the English Language

points to the fact that there must be serious deficiencies at the undergraduate, secondary and primary school levels.

Similar problems have also been identified in the variety of English used in Singapore and Malaysia concerning the deviations among university and college teachers, lawyers, journalists etc. For example, Tongue (1974) notes that though the average Malaysian speaker of English attempts to employ "correct" English, inadequate comprehension of what the "correct" English implies and insufficient exposure to this correct version result in the several fundamental deviations prevalent among the educated elite.

In Nigeria, a significant number of English users is less informed on what the "correct" forms should be because more deviations are increasingly being found in the language of those who are looked up to as the model for English usage in the country.

Making the point above, Ayoola (1988:61) says:

> in the use of English in Nigeria, there is a natural awareness among educated users concerning correct and incorrect usage. This notwithstanding, it is interesting to note that many incorrect forms are still used in ignorance by educated users with such forms gaining widespread currency even in formal usage.

The quotation above confirms further that the kind of attention given to grammatical correctness in the past is on the decline. This new attitude should not be encouraged given the importance of grammar to language. Broook's point is appropriate here. According to him, "grammar is to language what anatomy is to human body."[11]

From the point of view of the importance of grammar in language, Nigerian English syntax should conform with the syntax of most other standard varieties the world over. Adesanoye (1990) aptly notes that the deteriorating state of English syntax in Nigeria calls for "<u>immediate attention</u>" (emphasis mine) especially as the educated Nigerian elite saddled with the responsibility of evolving a standard model are themselves of doubtful competence at the syntactic level. Ayoola (1988:61) advises that when some non-standard forms start to catch on and gain widespread currency among educated users, the English teacher has to start thinking seriously of taking a bold step to distinguish between the correct and incorrect forms. Our task in this work is to distinguish between the correct and incorrect forms noticeable in relation to the usage of pronominal anaphora among educated Nigerian users of English.

Generally, it has been observed that lack of competence in the mastery of grammatical concepts such as number, gender distinction, case, person, tense and aspect is responsible for the majority of the problems faced by Nigerian educated users of English.[12]

Unfortunately, the concepts mentioned above (number, gender, case, person, tense and aspects) cannot be taken for granted. In fact, an understanding of the forms and functions of these concepts within English sentence structure almost amounts to what is needed to be proficient in English grammar.

We have chosen to work on selected coreferential phenomena (personal, reflexive and relative pronouns) given the realization that coreference elements exhibit special restrictions and properties. These restrictions and properties are concerned, largely, with the linguistic

concepts already observed as problematic for Nigerian educated users of English. Our analysis of coreferential errors, therefore, becomes a testing ground for the linguistic principles and properties behind these concepts [number, gender, case, and person]. This submission will become adequately manifested in the later discussion of the various structural conditions which allow for coreference between two noun phrases in the processes of pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization. In other words, our analysis will afford us an opportunity to see the forms and functions of the concepts earlier identified in actual usage. It is hoped that this in turn will alleviate some of the problems observable in the grammatical component of the English of some educated Nigerians.

Objectives

This study attempts to accomplish the following objectives:

(i) discuss the concept of coreference with particular attention to pronominal anaphora and the processes of pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization;

(ii) itemize the structural conditions that permit coreferentiality between two noun phrases in the processes of pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization;

(iii) identify and analyse errors of coreferentiality manifested in the writings of Nigerian users of English;

(iv) evaluate the impact these errors have on the overall competence of educated Nigerian English users;

(v) provide a number of suggestions that can help in improving the teaching and learning of English as a second language.

<u>Methodology</u>

Our data were drawn over a period of time from the random collection of the written works of 'educated' Nigerian English users.

Selected texts include final year senior secondary school English examination (paper I) Oct./Nov. Examination scripts of 1988, 1989 and 1990; written compositions of senior secondary school students in their final year; undergraduate written assignments and examination scripts; long essay/project drafts of final year undergraduates; seminar papers/handouts originating from university teachers; personal letters and materials from newspapers and magazines.

From the above selected texts, the term 'educated' in this study is used in a loose sense to refer to the written performance of those who have attained the school certificate level and above.

We consider the written English of final year secondary school students as educated in spite of the fact that this is objected to by some Nigerian scholars. We feel justified in doing this because next to the primary school, secondary school education is a foundation stage for learners. The likelihood is that most errors not corrected at this stage may fossilize and remain throughout life. Although those in the universities and other tertiary institutions go through some remedial programmes like the Use of English courses, the lack of personal attention and the assumption by teachers at this level that some errors should have been overcome make my hypothesis fairly reasonable.

The constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria requires for example that a presidential candidate, a gubernatorial aspirant and a prospective member of the federal parliament should have attained a minimum of school certificate.

We also take Banjo's (1981:97) position: that a secondary school leaver should be considered an educated person. In fact, Mohammed (1995:147) notes that "the educated Nigerian" is defined by Banjo (1984) broadly as "one who has had at least (full) secondary education" which is equivalent to twelve years of continuous formal education, most of it through the medium of English. Odumuh (1984:26) locates the "common cut-off point" of the discussions on standard Nigerian English in "West African School Certificate standard". He interprets the opinions of writers as pointing to holders of West African School Certificates as "exhibitors of standard Nigerian English".

In spite of the fact that the errors recorded in our data occur more frequently at the senior secondary school final year level than at any other level, the errors are also manifested in the written expression of those who are supposed to have attained the peak of literacy. The high frequency of occurrence noticed at the SSSCE level should be understandable because that level constitutes the bottomline for those considered educated. Not only that, those used are not necessarily the best and may not attain at least a credit level which is the minimum requirement for entry into higher institutions.

In order to achieve the objectives set for this work, deviations in the use of pronominal reference are identified, recorded and classified into the three selected coreferential phenomena to be considered. The samples are found to exhibit problem features associated with number, case, gender

and persons. Each of the chosen aspects of English syntax in which coreferentiality is manifested is examined, taking into consideration those structural conditions which occasion such referential identity. Thereafter, errors recorded among Nigerian users are analysed by highlighting those structural conditions which have been violated in each case. The analysis is carried out within the framework of Transformational Generative Grammar and it involves an adequate theoretical linguistic categorization.

Limitations of the Study

In this study, not all the areas where the phenomenon of coreferentiality is manifested in English are addressed. Such areas that are left unaddressed include complement structure (Equi-NP deletion) and the possessive pronoun 'own'. Coreferentiality also underlies some essential transformations which have to do with complex linguistic phenomena. For example, coreferentiality is a condition for such deletion and movement rules like super-equi, whiz-deletion, gapping, subject to object raising etc. These areas are left unaddressed in order to limit the scope of our study to those areas where errors are most noticeable in the data.

The study has also not considered other areas of English syntax where errors are frequently recorded in educated Nigerian English usage. Our focus is limited to the specific areas addressed in this work in order to limit the scope of our study to the set out objectives and methodology. It is in fact possible that some of the areas left unaddressed also pose problems to the future of second language learning in the country than the areas we have focused upon.

In the evaluation of our errors only Yoruba language is given adequate attention among the numerous indigenous Nigerian languages. Again, this

is done with the aim of providing a specific focus in the presentation of our discussion.

Moreover, we cannot claim to have said all that is necessary to be known about the coreferential phenomena addressed in this study in relation to educated Nigerian usage. We say this because the structural conditions for the three processes considered are complex and educated Nigerian users may have been avoiding them.

Notes

(1) In fact, the English Language is at the moment being described as the world's premier language and therefore, constitutes one of the world's most important languages. See Adesanoye (1985:154) and Quirk et al (1972)

(2) The English Language has also continued to be associated with countries that are not only powerful politically, but are also leaders in technology and science (Quirk et al, 1972:1-2).

(3) In countries where English is used as a second language, it is used in education as well as a necessary access to resources beyond the borders of such countries. The English Language in such countries is also associated with important works of great intellectual wealth.

(4) Standard identification in language did not start with the English Language. Before the active call for standard English, there have been bodies set up in some countries to regulate their languages. Notable among these bodies were: Accademia della Crusca set up in 1582 for the codification of Italian; the Academie Francaise in 1635 for the promotion and regulation of French; and in 1714, the Real Academia Espanoia for the codification of Spanish.

(5) Spencer reports that the traffic in slaves was very low at this time compared to the transaction which later flourished with the discovery of the Americans by Columbus in 1492.

(6) The foundation of the Freetown community in 1791 marked an important period in the history of the English Language in West Africa. This new community served as the base for the educational and evangelical activities of the missionaries throughout the 19th century.

(7) One of the most important things to bear in mind in discussing bilingualism of any type is that a notion of relativism must be introduced by which the degree of bilingualism under analysis can be ascertained.

(8) The Yoruba speakers of English, for example, may not inflect the verb 'go' for its past tense form and may

consider this exercise unnecessary or redundant since the word 'Yesterday' and 'Mo lo' meaning "I go" already suggest that the action being described had taken place. Thus the error: * "I go to school yesterday".

(9) Brosnahan's and Banjo's works were based on the spoken form while Adesanoye's work was on the written form. The forms identified by Akere and Odumuh were based on a hierarchy of educational attainment and the one identified by Adekunle was on stylistic considerations. See references for details.

(10) Bamgbose (1971:42) remarked that the major differences between English in Nigeria and English in other countries are to be found mainly in the spoken form of the language. Various features of Nigerian English phonology have been identified, for example, at the segmental (vowels and consonants) and the supra-segmental (syllable structure, stress and intonation) levels.

(11) The quotation is taken from Oluikpe (1979b:48).

(12) Information is derived from research works and general observation on the performance of educated Nigerian users at the syntactic level. See Tomori (1967),

Afolayan (1968), Banjo (1969), Durojaiye (1970), Adesanoye (1973, 1980, 1990), Odumuh (1981), Ofuokwu (1982, 1984), Dukiya (1984, 1986), Opata (1984), Kujore (1985) and Jowitt (1991).

CHAPTER TWO

<u>MODES OF INQUIRY IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING</u>

<u>Applied Linguistics and Second Language Learning</u>

Applied linguistics is concerned with the process of applying linguistic knowledge to real-world problems.[1] According to Kaplan and Widdowson (1992:76) whenever knowledge about language is used to solve a basic language related problem, one may say that applied linguistics is being practised.   They buttress this claim by defining applied linguistics (henceforth AL) as a technology which makes abstract ideas and research findings accessible and relevant to the real world; it mediates between theory and practice. In other words, AL is borne out of the realization that the gains in the quest for "pure" knowledge should be useful in one way or the other to everyday human experience.

An apt description of what AL is all about is given by Kaplan and Widdowson (1992:80) in the following words:

> Unlike general linguistics - which studies language in
> dissociation from its content in order to devise formal
> models accounting for all and the only possible structures
> of a language to unearth language universals, and to
> investigate the relationship between language and mind
> AL restores language to its context of social actuality. It
> concerns itself with how real people in real situations
> achieve communicative objectives, and why they do so; it
> seeks to establish the relationship between what is said and
> the social roles of the sayers, so that the manipulations and
> motivations of language users may be more clearly
> understood. AL concerns itself with what can reasonably

be taught; the circumstances under which it can be taught; the activities through which it can be taught; the political, social and economic structrues that will permit the teaching and learning to occur; and the real costs and benefits of the entire enterprise.

The explanation above shows that AL in the widest sense relates to other disciplines such as: Sociology, Psychology, Anthropology, Biology, Computer Science, Stylistics, Economics, Information Theory, Learning Theory and a variety of other disciplines, depending on the sort of problem being solved. Kaplan (1980) notes the interdisciplinary nature of AL and concludes that AL is the stage upon which all the human (social) sciences coalesce in the solution of human problems based on language.

Because of its interdisciplinary nature, Kaplan and Widdowson (1992:80) declare that AL is in a sense, a misnomer. They assert that AL is not specifically the application of linguistics to anything, rather, it is an independent area of inquiry with its own conditions of adequacy, drawing upon linguistics and other disciplinary areas, but not determined by them.[2]

The misnomer noted above is explained by the two authors as an inevitable consequence of the mediating role that AL plays between theory and practice and its adherence to the linguistic principle of relevance. However, they caution that as an area of inquiry which is accountable to this principle, AL is itself also capable of opening up avenues of theoretical study.[3]

An applied linguist in the light of our discussion so far is one described by Halliday, Mcintosh and Strevens (1964:XV) as a kind of middleman who exists to bridge the gap between theory and newly acquired

knowledge on the one hand and the everyday problem of teaching a language on the other.

The main areas of interest in AL include: speech therapy, communicative interactions - essentially, the relationship of power and language; language planning and language policy; language in education and language teaching and learning.[4] The importance of AL has, however, become apparent in recent times largely in the area of language teaching and lately in the area of language learning. This claim is supported by Kaplan and Widdowson (1992:78) in the following words:

> AL has been, for most of its current incarnation, associated with language teaching, it is the area of greatest development.

They also note that second language acquisition research had the general effect of shifting the emphasis in pedagogy from teaching to learning.

In his review of the history of the field of AL, Streven (1992:80) says AL focuses mainly on systematic ways of improving the learning and teaching of English as a foreign language in developing countries. Foreign language is used within this context to refer to any language that is not a native language in a country; 'second language', according to Crystal (1987:368), is also commonly used in this way. However, we identify in this study with linguists who distinguish between foreign language and second language on the basis of major differences in the learning aims, teaching methods, and achievement level involved. We are concerned here only with the restrictive sense of the use of second language.

A second language as distinct from a foreign language is a non-native language that is widely used for purposes of communication, usually as a

medium of education, government or business. English, for example, has FL status in Japan, but L_2 status in Nigeria. It is also often described as a language acquired by a person in addition to his mother tongue (UNESCO). Perhaps, it is in this latter sense that L_2 is also used with reference to immigrants and indigenous groups whose L_1 is a minority language. In the United States of America, for example, English is L_2 for millions of immigrants from a wide range of language backgrounds as well as for speakers of American Indian languages (cf. Crystal, 1987: 361).

The learning of a second language refers to the conscious processes for internalising the rules and structures of a second language at all the levels of linguistic study - phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It is necessary at this point to clarify the distinction often made between language acquisition and language learning. According to Littlewood (1984:3) language learning refers to conscious processes for internalising a second language, whereas language acquisition refers to subconscious processes. The former is used for the processes employed by adults in learning a second or foreign language while the latter is used to describe the processes employed by children in acquiring their first language. In this study, second language learning is used in the sense of the explanation given above.

Cook (1991:5) offers us an explanation of what is second language learning. According to her, second language learning looks at the underlying principles of learning in an attempt to see how teaching relates to learning. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:2) also observe that the study of second language learning is fascinating in its own right. They describe it as a true conundrum because it draws upon knowledge of

psychology, linguistics, sociology, anthropology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and neurolinguistics among others.

A major preoccupation of linguists and applied linguists has been the difficulties inherent in learners' use of English as a second language. In fact, a central focus in applied linguistics as earlier on stated has to do with the learning of a second language, in our case, the English language. The difficulties are apparent in the performance of second language learners and are manifested in terms of interference features, errors and inappropriateness. In order to solve these problems, current applied linguistics and pedagogical theories have come up with different types of approaches to second language learners' performance. These approaches include contrastive, error, performance and discourse analyses.

Types of Data Analysis

We are concerned here with reviewing the modes of inquiry that researchers have employed in an attempt to come to a better understanding of the second language learning process and the issues that have evolved through these modes.

Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive Analysis is traced to the study of determining the formal similarities and differences between languages - a process which was central to linguistic studies notably in 19th century Europe under the name "comparative philology".

From the 1940's to the 1960's, contrastive analysis constituted the pre-occupation of second language researchers (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 52). Contrastive analysis is also an approach represented by the

audio-lingual and behaviourist theorists. It derived from the prevailing view that language is acquired by a process comparable to habit formation. In this view, language learning involves acquiring a new set of habits.

Simply put, contrastive analysis is the act of systematically comparing two languages.[5] It is based on the premise that languages are different and because of this, the learner will encounter problems. The researchers were encouraged by the hope of being able to show points of similarity and difference between particular native languages and target languages. The belief was that an effective pedagogy would result when the differences and similarities were taken into account. According to Fries (1945:9), "the most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner".

Lado's publication in 1957 marks an important beginning in the application of contrastive analysis to second language learning. In this publication, he provides the reason why language materials were seen as more efficient when based on contrastive analysis. According to him:

> individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and
> the distribution of forms and meanings of their native
> language and culture to the foreign language and culture -
> both productively when attempting to speak the language
> and to act in the culture and receptively when attempting
> to grasp and understand the language and culture as
> practised by natives (Quoted in Gass and Selinker (1983:
> 1).

Since Lado's publication, large-scale projects have been undertaken in the comparative study of languages with the justification that the results will prove significant for language teaching. Among the well known works are: Moulton (1962), Kufner (1962), Stockwell and Bowen (1965), Stockwell, Bowen and Martins (1965a), Agard and Di Pietro (1965a, 1965b).

Contrastive analysis is an effective means of looking at language learning as a task of discovering the differences between the L_1 and L_2. These differences in turn constitute the linguistic syllabus. This position is expressed by Lado (1957). Lado (1957:2) assumes that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements which are similar to those of his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. The belief that linguistic differences could be employed to predict learning difficulties and errors brought about the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis: that is, positive transfer occurs where two languages are similar and negative transfer or interference results where two languages are different. According to Littlewood (1984:17) positive transfer occurs when the first language habits are helpful in acquiring the second language habits. Negative transfer or interference occurs when differences between the two languages hinder the learner. This latter phenomenon is often the cause of learning difficulties and errors.
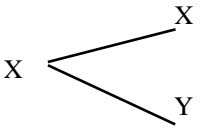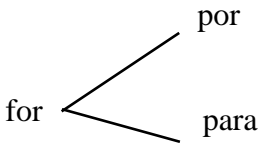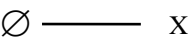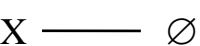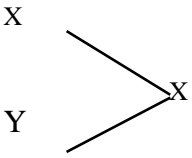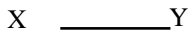
The implications of the learners' problem as summed up by Lado above, for second language instruction are outlined by Littlewood (1984:18) and are paraphrased here as follows: The predictions made in the process of carrying out a contrastive analysis are used to determine

which items need to be given special treatment in the courses that we teach or the materials that we write. Furthermore, for these items in particular, intensive techniques such as repetition or drills can be used in order to overcome the interference and establish the necessary new habits.

From the foregoing it is apparent that learning a second language from the contrastive analyst's point of view is essentially an attempt to overcome the difficulties identified. In addition, levels of difficulty in second language learning can be determined through contrastive analysis. This is because varying degrees of differences are identified between language items and thus varying levels of difficulty. Contrastive analysis also identifies the fact that languages are related in varying degrees as they share certain features.

Before we go on to discuss the shortcomings of this type of analysis, it is important to state that the works carried out under contrastive analysis were not simply of the 'binary predictions - similarity/difference = ease/difficulty.' Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:53) give the example of Stockwell et al. (1965a) where the authors present a hierarchy of difficulty reproduced and slightly altered by us here as in Table 2.2.1 overleaf.

Table 2. 2. 1: Stockwell et al's Hierarchy of Difficulty (as modified)

Type of Difficulty	L1: ENGLISH L2: SPANISH	Explanation	Example
1. Split	X < X / Y	A Single form in the L_1 manifests as two or more in the L_2.	for < por / para
2. New	$\emptyset$ —— X	A form absent in the L_1 but new to the L_2.	Marking grammatical gender.
3. Absent	X —— $\emptyset$	a form present in the L_1 but absent in the L_2.	Do as a tense carrier.
4. Coalesced	X / Y > X	several forms in the L_1 collapse as one in the L_2.	Him/her is realized as a single form 'SU'
5. Correspondence	X ——— Y	a form in the L_1 corresponds with a form in the L_2 structurally/functionally and semantically	ing = ndo as a complement with verbs of perception.

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According to this table, the easiest linguistic point for the learner to master is expected to be (5); progressively more difficult are (4) (3) and (2). The most difficult of all is (1). Contrary to Lado's view, the greatest difficulty is not predicted in (2) and (3) where it is obvious that the differences between the two languages are the greatest. Similarly, Buteau (1970:138) also discovers that the French sentences which correspond literally to their English equivalents are not necessarily the easiest to learn.

Also commenting on Stockwell et al, Littlewood (1984:18) makes the following remarks:

> Their 'hierarchy of difficulty' is based primarily on comparing what linguistic choices the learner must make in:
>
> (a) his native language.
>
> (b) the language he is learning.

Littlewood goes further to say that three types of choice are distinguished by them:

> (a) no choice at all.
>
> (b) optional choice.
>
> (c) obligatory choice.

According to these distinctions, the highest level of difficulty occurs when no choice exists at all in the learner's L_1 while an obligatory choice exists in the L_2 (Type (1) difficulty). The lowest level of difficulty is when there is an obligatory choice in both the L_1 and L_2 (Type (5) difficulty). It was also remarked that sixteen combinations of the three types of choice are

possible because the scheme takes into consideration, grammatical, functional and semantic correspondences.

The merits of contrastive analysis outlined so far notwithstanding, it has met with all sorts of criticisms. The first of these came with Chomsky's (1957) classic publication and review of Skinner's <u>Verbal Behaviour</u>. This major work challenged the behaviourist view of language acquisition, thereby eroding the academic theory underlying contrastive analysis.

Commenting on the numerous demerits, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:56) state that the most fatal of all the flaws as pointed out by Long and Sato (1984) was the dubious assumption that one could depend solely upon an analysis of a linguistic product to yield meaningful insight into a psycholinguistic process.

Closely connected with the above remark is the claim that 'difference' and 'difficulty' are not the same concepts. According to Nickel (1971) as quoted in Corder (1973:229):

> it does not follow that when a particular feature of the
> target language is different from the mother tongue (L_1) it
> will be difficult to learn.

The argument is that 'difference' and 'difficulty' cannot correlate in a dependent way. This is because 'difference', derives from linguistic descriptions while difficulty derives from psychological processes. Arguing further, Corder (1973: 230) says indeed, there is evidence that something totally different may prove easier to master than something which is slightly different. For example, where a very similar sound exists in two languges but in different phonetic environments it is believed that

there may be a greater learning problem than in the case of a totally new sound.   This is because subtle difference often leads to confusion and interference.   However, this criticism of contrastive analysis may not be entirely justified as contrastive analysts have not always stuck to the principle of "similarity/difference = ease/difficulty (eg Stockwell et al (1965a).   Still on this issue of 'difference'/'difficulty', Corder concludes by saying that we can only note the overall relation between difficulty and difference but not measure the psycholinguistic learning difficulty of particular linguistic differences.

This last remark by Corder also faults the basic assumption that degrees of difference correspond to levels of difficulty or that errors are reliable indicators of difficulty. Thus it is often alleged that contrastive analysis yields poor results as it fails to capture many types of difference that can exist between two languages. In addition, there is the argument that more difficult aspects of learning could stimulate the learner to pay greater attention and draw on extra resources, thereby avoiding errors.

The process of conducting contrastive analysis is also time consuming especially with some of the complex schemes employed. In some cases the scheme becomes so complex that it is difficult to grasp and therefore difficult to apply.

From the studies consulted on second language learning and teaching, it is clear that interference from the L_1 is not the sole cause of error. For example, Whitman and Jackson (1972), as reported in Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), tested the   predictions of four different contrastive analyses of English and Japanese secondary school students on a multiple choice and a close test and concluded that contrastive analysis was inadequate to predict the interference problems of a language learner. They

confirmed that interference plays an insignificant role in language learning performance, that no contrastive analysis, no matter how well conceived, could correlate highly with performance data, at least at the level of syntax.

Similarities between languages are also never complete. They may either be very general or abstract on the one hand or superficial and trivial on the other. Corder (1973) notes that there are two general points about the comparison of languages. Firstly, within what is a broadly equivalent system in two or more languages the correspondences are very patchy and irregular, and consequently, it is only at a more general and abstract level that we can expect to find equivalence or identity between languages. Secondly, the absence of a systematically equivalent term in a target language does not in any way imply that the notions that are expressed by it in one language cannot be expressed at all in the other.

Finally, the claim by the behaviourist that predictions by means of contrastive analysis can be confirmed by empirical results has not been strongly supported by empirical evidence. In Alatis (1968), for instance, there are reported cases of over - and under-prediction. Over-prediction refers to errors which were predicted but which did not materialise in practical term, while the latter refers to actual errors which manifested empirically but which were not predicted.[6] This further confirms the fact that even though errors were predicted on the basis of contrastive analysis as can be seen in certain studies (Duskova, 1969; Chamot, 1978; Arabski, (1979), CA never adequately anticipated all errors. The observations from the studies mentioned above have been attributed to faulty procedures by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:55). For example, they state that the way an error was classified, that is, due to first language interference or not, differed from study to study. The subjects employed for the investigations

also varied in terms of language proficiency, age, motivation and attitude. All these have been shown to have an impact on the proportion of errors committed through interference (Taylor, 1975).

These criticisms notwithstanding, contrastive analysis continues to be conducted especially in Europe. This is because the desire to know when and where exactly interference can be expected to occur continues to generate interest. CA may also not have been abandoned as a methodological option because the behaviourist theory on which it was based plays an important role in the strategy of the process of learning.

In his remarks on contrastive analysis, Wardhaugh (1970) proposes a distinction between a `strong claim' and a `weak claim'. The former is that contrastive analysis can reliably predict difficulty and errors. This claim, however, is not supported by empirical evidence. The "weak claim" is that after we have observed what errors learners actually make, contrastive analysis can then help to explain some of these errors as due to interference. This position met with more acceptance than the strong claim. This perhaps is the underlying argument for a complementary approach between Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis in which Contrastive Analysis becomes part of the wider undertaking of Error Analysis. This explanatory attribute of contrastive analysis shown in its capacity to detect the source of errors is also one of its enduring qualities. The weak claim of contrastive analysis is employed in chapter five as one of the means of evaluating the analysis carried out in chapter four.

Error Analysis (EA)

Error Analysis is rooted in the rationalist theory of language learning. Prominent among its exponents is S. Pit Corder. Error Analysis, otherwise

referred to as the linguistic description of errors, has been described as a special case of Contrastive Analysis. This is because, like contrastive analysis, it is a comparative process which starts by the comparison of similar utterances in the learner's performance and the target language he is learning. However, in error analysis, we do not have a description of the learner's performance in order to make our comparisons. Thus, error analysts are faced with the same tasks that linguists face when trying to fashion out a description of a language that has never been recorded or described. In other words, an error analyst does not compare two languages which are already known and described. Rather, he compares the learners' performance at some particular point in the course of his learning the target language with an ideal form of the target language.

The analysis of errors is conducted by a two-step operation. First, the learners' performance is studied with an attempt to describe it. Secondly, the description of the learners' performance is compared with the description of the target language. The differences between the two constitute the remaining learning tasks for the learner.

Generally, it is believed that an average learner of a second language can hardly perform accurately as a native speaker of the same language (TL). This belief is reinforced by the glaring fact that most L_2 learners live far away from the environment of the TL and therefore do not have an adequate exposure to it. In addition, when L_2 learners happen to live in the same environment as native speakers of the TL, they are most often inhibited socially or economically from interacting fully with the native speakers. For instance, in Nigeria, most native speakers of the English Language are expatriates who live in "reserved" areas and hardly interact socially with the majority of the populace. Besides, they are mostly of high

economic standing and can afford to put their children in international schools where the children have less contact with people outside their social class.

As stated earlier, the performance of the learners constitutes one arm of the comparison process required in an error analysis. Thus all performances of the L_2 learner are relevant as data. For instance, error analysis can be performed on any language material produced by the learners. This may include: free oral compositions, speeches, essays, stories and other written texts. Of particular importance are the errors made by the learners. This is because it is on such errors that the sort of comparison carried out in an error analysis is based. A fairly large quantity of such actually occurring errors are needed as data to convince us that the patterns observed are regular before we can proceed to hypothesize. However, guessing is still unavoidable.

What constitutes an error has been perceived in different ways. Before the late 1960's, the utterances of L_2 learners were regarded mostly as faulty versions of the TL. This view is further reinforced by the interference phenomenon. Thus errors are perceived as signs of learning failures and therefore not acceptable (Littlewood, 1984:22).

In 1967, however, Corder (as quoted in Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:59) made a distinction between a mistake and an error. A mistake is:

> a random performance-slip caused by fatigue, excitement,
>
> etc. And can be readily self corrected.

An error on the other hand is:

> a systematic deviation made by learners who have not yet
>
> mastered the rules of the second language. Unlike mistake,

error cannot be self corrected because it is a product reflective of his or her current stage of second language development or underlying competence.

Again, in 1973, Corder further dwells on the performance of L_2 learners and opines that L_2 learners, like native speakers, are liable to lapses and mistakes. He describes lapses as:

slip of the tongue, pen, false start, or the substitution, transposition or omission of some segment of an utterance such as speech sound, a morpheme, a word or even a phrase. Failure to match the language to the situation. (258)

However, he states that a great deal of L_2 learners' errors are of different kinds and result in unacceptable utterances (breaches of the code). He describes breaches of the code as:

speech or writing which we could call grammatically or lexically unacceptable and produce unacceptable utterances. (258)

Corder argues that L_2 learners' errors are not physical failures but the sign of an imperfect knowledge of the code. In other words, the learners are yet to internalize the formation rules of the TL or in some cases their proper application within sentence construction.

Whereas native speakers are able to recongnize deviant sentences, L_2 learners who still demonstrate an imperfect knowledge of the formation rules of the TL cannot. Corder argues, therefore, that it is erroneous to regard learners' errors as breaches of the code because a rule can only be

broken when it is known. He sums up his argument by saying that the term 'error' tends to be:

> reserved for wilful or negligent breaches of the rule which
> is known or ought to be known or is thought to be known
> by the offender.

He says further that some of these circumstances used to describe an error fit the case of a learner of a language. Apart from Corder other researchers in L_2 learning have also argued against the designation of SL learners' language as purely errors which should be avoided.

Learners' language has therefore been described variously as:

(a) "Transitional Competence" (TC) (Corder, 1967). This term was used to focus on the fact that learners are developing their underlying knowledge of the L_2. In other words, TC describes the system of rules that a learner has developed at a particular stage and emphasises the temporary nature of it.

(b) Idiosyncratic dialect (Corder, 1971) - This term emphasises the fact that at any given time, the learner operates a self-contained language unique to him.

(c) Approximative system (Nemser, 1971). The attention here is drawn to structural aspects of the learners' language, which approximate more or less closely to the full SL system.

(d) Interlanguage (Selinker, 1972). This term has been employed most frequently to describe the language of the L_2 learners. It is often abbreviated as IL and draws attention to the fact that the learner's language system is neither that of the mother tongue, nor that of the L_2, but contains elements of both.

Of all these terminologies, the term "Interlanguage" is most widely used. According to Sridhar (1980) IL entered common parlance because of its neutrality of attitude. This is because it does not connote a TL-centred perspective like the other terms.

With the interlanguage approach, errors are chracteristically regarded as "potentially facilitative" rather than "inhibitive". This is because the sentences of learners conform to their temporary language systems at the moment they produce the sentences, rather than to the native speakers' version of the language. Nonetheless, what seem like overt mistakes conform to regular rules in the learners' own knowledge of English and are therefore not wilful distortions of the native speaker's system. The L_2 learners are seen as active recipients who are constantly engaged in testing the new language by inventing their own systems. In this sense, the L_2 learner is compared with the native speaker of English in that he uses errors to test hypotheses about the language, thereby learning from them.

The notion of IL also offers another explanation, (apart from interference), for the incorrect forms produced by learners in the sense that direct reference can be made to the TL in an effort to explain the wrong notions created.

It is pertinent, however, to mention here that Selinker himself stated that he was concerned with a psychological perspective rather than sociolinguistics, and his `IL' would not be applicable to stable second language regional varieties of English such as Indian English and West African English (Selinker, 1972:216). It would appear therefore that the term IL may not be absolutely appropriate to describe the performance of Nigerian learners of English. Defending this claim, Jibril (1982:16) explains that the Nigerian child begins to learn English quite early at the

age of six and continues to receive formal instruction in it until he leaves secondary school at the age of seventeen or eighteen. In all this time, Jibril asserts that the English Language is used intensively as the medium of instruction, as official language and, at the level of the elite, as the language of cross-ethnic communication and the mass media.

Besides, it is assumed that a learner progresses further along the learning continuum so that his IL moves closer and closer to the system of the TL. However, a major and continual thorn in this assumption is the observation by some researchers that some errors will probably not disappear entirely in the performance of the L_2 learners. These errors persist in spite of the fact that the learners have been instructed for several years and are assumed to have understood the rules of the L_2 by their level of exposure and the degree of their education. Worse still, even the knowledge that the L_2 and the first language operate differently for expressing certain syntactic and semantic meaning has not helped in eradicating these sets of errors. Such ingrained errors have been referred to as fossilized errors. Defining the phenomenon of fossilization, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:60) state as follows:

> Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules and subsystems, which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language;

also explaining the phenomenon, Corder (1973:269) says it is an indication that the learners have stopped to learn in certain areas of the TL. In other

words, such errors have become permanent features of the learner's speech. Obvious examples according to Littlewood (1984:34) are the pronunciation errors which constitute part of the "foreign accent" retained by most adolescent and adult learners.

The reasons for fossilization have been mainly speculative. However, among the possible causes that have been adduced are interference; an assured realisation by the learner that he can communicate and understand well for all his usual needs; a resort to the common learning strategy of drawing on what one knows; and the lack of form-based instruction and error correction as part of the language teaching/learning context. Lightbown (1990:90) states that learners who lack form-based instruction and error correction fail to attain mastery of the language.

In the course of analysing L_2 learners' errors, different types of errors have been identified. Basically, errors are distinguished interlingually or intralingually. Interlingual errors, according to Richard (1971), are those that could be traced to first language interference. Littlewood (1984:25) also identifies such errors as those due to the transfer of rules from the mother tongue. These types of errors result from the underlying learning strategy employed by learners to draw upon the knowledge of what they know to make sense of new experience. With inter-language errors, therefore, the learners draw on the previous knowledge of their mother tongues as an instrument of organising the SL data.

Commenting on these types of errors, Barry Taylor (1975) finds this error to be more frequent with beginners than with intermediate students. According to him, the beginner has less previous experience of the L_2 on which to draw in making hypotheses about rules; he therefore has no alternative but to draw upon his mother tongue experience.

Unlike interlingual errors, intralingual errors, according to Richard (1971), refer to errors committed by SL learners regardless of their mother tongues. Writing about intralingual errors, Littlewood (1984:23) says they are errors which show that learners are processing the SL on its own terms. Littlewood compares these type of errors to those produced by the child when acquiring the mother tongue and suggests that the SL learner is employing similar strategies notably generalization and simplification. Intralingual errors include general characteristics of the rule of learning such as overgeneralization or faulty appreciation of rules or conditions and simplification by omission of elements.

The significance of identifying and categorizing errors according to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:58) stems from the new stature ascribed to `errors' by Corder (1967) in which he describes an error as a systematic deviation made by the learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the $L_2$ as opposed to `mistake' which can be self-corrected because it is a random performance slip which may be caused by fatigue, excitement and some other factors.

The study of learners' errors has both practical and theoretical implications for L_2 learning. The most practical use of the analysis of errors according to Corder (1973:265) is to the teacher. Teachers are informed in part about the effectiveness of their teaching methods and materials. This knowledge in turn serves as guide to the teachers as it reveals what part of the syllabus needs further and detailed attention.

The analysis of errors also helps in determining the principles of selecting material for a syllabus. This is because the information we get from the study of errors is in part useful for the construction of appropriate syllabuses and teaching materials. Error analysis also provides the input

for fashioning a remedial programme of reteaching with a new group of learners. In addition, EA shows in part that many of the deviant forms in the performance of the SL learners can be explained through direct reference to the TL itself.

The study of learners' errors has also been theoretically referred to as part of an experiment to confirm or disprove the psycholinguistic theory of transfer (Corder, 1973:266). The confirmation or disproof of the theory of transfer has a feedback to both descriptive linguistics and psycholinguistics. This is because EA provides a check on the predictions of bilingual comparisons and serves as an important additional source of information for selecting items to be incorporated in the syllabus.

The study of errors is also compared with the study of the acquisition of the MT in that EA is seen as part of the psycholinguistic search for an internal syllabus for learning a second language which would represent the psycholinguistically natural route between MT and the TL, determined by the inherent congnitive properties of the two languages involved (Corder, 1973:268).

Another theoretical objective of EA is to describe the nature of the learner's IL and to compare this with the TL. Through the linguistic description and classification of the learner's errors a picture of the features of the language that serve as impediment to his learning process is built up. This helps to discover what aspects the learner still has to learn. It is in this respect that EA is a brand of comparative linguistic study.

EA also provides psychological explanation for the occurrence of errors. In providing this explanation, learners' errors are prevented from fossilising and the learners in turn are helped to master the TL adequately. In recognition of this fact there is the call to restore form-based instruction

and error correction as part of the language teaching/learning context (Lightbown, 1990:90).

In tune with the current idea of focusing on class-room-centred research in SL teaching, EA is a means of detecting how successful teachers and learners have been in achieving their goals. In the words of Allen <u>et al</u> (1990:77), EA is a major and inevitable means of motivating students to use language accurately, appropriately and coherently.

In spite of the benefits of EA outlined above, EA is still being criticised. The shortcomings are summarised in Schachter and Celce-Murcial (1977). According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:61), researchers were denied access to the whole picture because of the narrow focus on errors alone. Besides, error analysts were interested in what learners were doing wrong and not what made them successful. It was also difficult and in some cases impossible to pin down a unitary source of errors.

Most important of all the failures is the inability to account for all areas of difficulty encountered by learners. Schachter (1974) reported some cases among which is the fact that contrary to expectations based on a prior CA, Chinese and Japanese speakers committed fewer errors in English relative clause production than Spanish and Persian speakers.[7] However, Schachter discovered that this was so because Chinese and Japanese speakers avoided producing relative clauses because they knew they would be problematic. Other cases of the avoidance of the English passive by Arabic speakers (Kleinmann, 1977) and of English phrasal verbs by Hebrew speakers (Dagut and Laufer, 1985) have also been confirmed. In all these cases and some others cited by Larsen-Freeman

and Long (1991:61) the analysis of errors seems inadequate to discover these areas of difficulty.

Commenting on the weaknesses of EA, Harley (1980:4) states:

> the study of errors that L_2 learners make can certainly provide vital clues as to the competence in the TL, but they are only part of the picture... It is equally important to determine whether the learner's use of `corrrect' forms approximates that of the native speakers. Does the learner's speech evidence the same contrasts between the observed unit and other units that are related in the target system? Are there some units that he uses less frequently than the native speaker, some that he does not use at all?

The narrowness of perspective observed in connection with EA did not stop its being used, rather it led to its incorporation into performance analysis, an analysis which is not limited to the errors committed by learners.

Performance Analysis (PA)

According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:62), performance analysis is an analysis of the learners' interlanguage performance which goes beyond the mere attempt at analysing errors. Among the earliest works that can be referred to as performance analysis are studies which were regarded as morpheme studies and which were carried out by Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974). In this study, L_2 researchers scored the speech of their subjects for the supply of grammatical morphemes in obligatory contexts. Such grammatical morphemes include inflections such as the

plural marker 's', the past tense marker 'ed', the 's' marker for the third person singular verb in the present tense and the 's' for the possessive. A scoring scheme awarding different point values, depending on whether a morpheme was correctly supplied or supplied but not well formed or omitted completely, was then fashioned out.

The studies of morphemes elicited a lot of attention and excitement from researchers who were in search of evidence of an innate learner generated or built in syllabus (Corder, 1967). However, the methodology and claim of minimal first language interference came under severe criticism. Wode et al. (1978:176) express the criticism in the following way:

> The problem is that the morpheme order approach misses what makes language acquisition attractive for, and subject to, developmental investigations, namely to discover how language is processed by the child for the purpose of acquisition. This processing is reflected in the way that children decompose complex structural patterns and then rebuild them step by step until they finally reach target like mastery.

A more elucidating approach than the morpheme studies that can also be considered as performance analysis is what is referred to as developmental sequence. This involves a longitudinal study in which the speech of one or more subjects is recorded and analysed for particular structures. Unlike the morpheme studies, this approach takes into consideration pre-target like regularities as an essential part of the total process leading to the acquisition of a language.

A major discovery of this type of study is the resemblance between first language and second language developmental sequences. For instance, Raven (1968, 1970) tracked the development of English negation and wh-question in the speech of his Norwegian-speaking children and found striking resemblance in the developmental sequences of those of Brown (1973) and his associates, who studied the acquisition of these structures by children acquiring English as a first language. Other studies which confirm these similarities are Milon (1974) and Dato (1970).

Like the morpheme studies, the claim of similarity between first language and second language developmental sequences came under criticism. Wode (1976) studies the ESL acquisition of four German-speaking children aged between four and ten and concluded that there were differences which were not only systematic but also due to the children's relying on their first language only under a structural condition where there was a crucial similarity.

In spite of the criticisms expressed above, developmental studies led to the identification of strategies employed by SL learners. Such strategies include formulaic utterances, rule formation, reduction to simpler syntax, relexification, prefabricated routines and patterns, and incorporation (cf. Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:67). The study of the developmental sequences of SL learners, therefore, provides important insights into SL acquisition process. This study, however, runs into problem when researchers maintain an exclusive TL perspective. Adjemian, for instance, cautioned in 1976 that the learners IL must be a product of a unique set of linguistic rules and should be studied as a fully functioning language in its own right. In other words, researchers should seek to discover how an IL

structure which appears to be non-standard is being employed meaningfully by a learner instead of adopting a normative TL perspective.

As a mode of inquiry, PA reveals that the mapping of function on form or form on function is an evolving process. For example, Bahns and Wode (1980) demonstrate that learners do not learn all the functions of a particular form at the same time. From their conclusion, it is obvious that one cannot generally claim that the function is acquired before the form or that the form is acquired before the function (Bahns and Wode, 1980:92). What is generally accepted is that learners attempt initially to maintain a relationship between one invariant surface linguistic form and a single function.

L_2 acquisition benefits from PA but like CA and EA, it was also found to be too limiting especially as it focused on children's utterances. Researchers who adopted this approach are also accused of treating learners' performance without reference to the input preceding such performance.

Discourse Analysis (DA)

The term 'discourse' according to Ochs (1992:358) refers to the set of norms, preferences, and expectations relating language to context, which language users draw on and modify in producing and making sense out of language in context. Commenting on the use of this 'term', Chafe (1992:356) says it is used in somewhat different ways by different scholars. Brown and Yule (1983) in the preface to their book Discourse Analysis provide some of the sense in which the term 'discourse' is used from the perspective of the sociolinguists, psycholinguists, philosophical linguists and formal linguists. While noting the different ways in which

this term is used, Chafe (1992:356) observes that underlying the differences is a common concern for language beyond the boundaries of isolated sentences. He notes the usage of the term 'text' in similar ways. Both terms 'discourse' and 'text' in Chafe's view may refer to a unit of language larger than the sentence. For example, one may speak of a 'discourse' or a 'text'. Discourse, according to Chafe, may also refer to the study of such a unit, co-ordinate with morphology or syntax. It is also possible to talk about a linguist who specializes in discourse. Thus, the terms 'DISCOURSE (or TEXT) ANALYSIS or DISCOURSE (or TEXT) LINGUISTICS.

Bell (1981:134) defines discourse analysis as a term which has been used for two distinct activities: the study of the narrative structures of literary texts (Barthes, 1966; Todorov, 1966; Chatman, 1969) and study of the rhetorical coherence of records of interaction in which the locus of attention is the way the communicator draws on the resources of the language to participate in the exchange of information (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). According to Brown and Yule (1983:1) the analysis of discourse is necessarily the analysis of language in use.

The earliest reference to this branch of modern linguistics may be located in a remark, by Firth (1935:3), in which linguists were urged to study the total verbal process in the context of situation. He regards this kind of study as the key to a better understanding of what language is and how it works. In spite of this remark in 1935, the study of discourse emerged as a distinct and established branch of linguistics only in the 1970s (Chafe, 1992:356). The emergence according to Chafe witnessed within the period between 1977 and 1983, two major journals, <u>Discourse Processes</u> (1978) and <u>Text</u> (1981), and at least five major textbooks

(Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981; Brown and Yule, 1983; Coulthard, 1977; Edmondson, 1981; Stubbs, 1983). Published shortly after these texts was the four-volume Handbook of Discourse by van Dijk, 1985. Larsen-Freeman (1980b) sees the desire for this new mode of inquiry in the recognition of the need to examine not only the learner's performance but also the input to the learner.

The studies available on DA in journal articles, textbooks and contributions to anthologies on discourse show a great heterogeneity of approaches. This is supported by Chafe (1992:356) when he asserts that:

> the data investigated, the theoretical positions taken and
> the overlap with other disciplines are diverse enough to
> sugest that discourse constitutes more than one distinct
> subfield of linguistics.

With respect to data, a strong tendency exists for discourse analysts to depend more heavily on observations of naturally occurring language than to focus on invented sentences and intuitive judgements of grammaticality or acceptability which are characteristic of sentence-based studies. In their pursuit of natural language data, discourse analysts have paid considerable attention to possible differences betwen spoken and written language; in addition to being more conscious of differences among diverse styles, genres and modes of language use. Discourse research also lends itself to quantitative methods drawing especially on techniques developed in psychology, sociology and statistical studies of text. The choice of the quantitative methods is understandable if we consider discourse analysis as dealing with large bodies of diverse data.

The studies in discourse have generally been focused more on some variety of functional explanation than on abstract formalism. Making this claim Chafe (1992:357) states: discourse can be studied in terms as varied as are the forces and functions responsible for language itself. According to him, discourse constitutes the area of language most subject to influence from psychological and social factors.[8]

The major areas of research in DA have included the extension of grammar beyond the boundaries of the sentence (Harris, 1952; Pike, 1967; Grimes, 1975; Givon, 1983; Longacre, 1983; Fillmore, 1985 and Halliday, 1985b); the use of discourse to illuminate psychological structures and processes (Bartlett, 1932; Mandler and Johnson, 1977); and the study of discourse as a way of gaining insights into social interactions. The examples of works reflecting the attention to language as a vehicle of social interaction include: Gumperz, 1982; Labov's work on the negotiation of social meaning through the use of evaluative devices, the study of discourse competence in children and anthropologically oriented studies pursued under the heading 'ethnography of speaking'. The works of Becker, 1979; Friedrich, 1986 and Tedlock, 1983 represent more humanistically oriented approaches. Another area of focus is in a number of studies which have looked at language use during interactions between clients and the practitioners of various professions. For instance, law and language; medicine and language; psychotheraphy and language. Other domains include education, advertising and politics.[9]

Of all the major areas highlighted above, the most active of all of them in the consideration of language as social interaction is what has come to be popularly referred to as conversational analysis (Hatch, 1978b; Gaskill, 1980; Schwartz, 1980). Conversational analysis takes a look at such

features as turn-taking, interruption, silence and examines how co-participants orientate to such features. According to Chafe (1992:357):

> much of this work comes out of, or is relevant to sociological concerns; in fact, most of sociolinguistics can be seen as a branch of discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis has opened up many new areas of investigation for second language learning. Such new areas are mentioned in Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:71). They include: foreign talk discourse, coherence and cohesion, communicative strategies, contextual analysis and classroom discourse analysis.

The following remark by Chafe (1992:358) may serve as an appropriate statement to complete our discussion of discourse analysis. According to him.

> discourse provides a focus and meeting ground for all investigations of language as it really is. Its diversity, reflecting as it does the diversity of language and the human mind, offers a liberating challenge to a linguistics freed of the bonds of parochial concerns.

Our discussion in this chapter, of the different modes of inquiry in second language learning, shows a theoretical evolution from CA through EA to PA and DA. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:XIII) for example, note how different data analysis procedures evolved with each successive type of analysis reflecting a new stage of awareness of what second language learning entails.

Having discussed those four modes of inquiry, we find it pertinent to draw attention to the reasons of preferring error analysis.   Without

prejudice to the obvious strengths of the other three modes of methodological analysis discussed earlier, we have adopted EA for the fact that it is best suited to handle structures not above the sentence. In addition, since this work is interested in the "performance" of learners of a second language, EA has an advantage over CA, PA and DA.

In this work, we are isolating the errors of performance of the subjects and comparing those errors with the `ideal form' of the English Language. The features of EA already discussed in 2.2 equip it best to handle the present undertaking. Furthermore, since our study has obvious implications for pedagogy, we have adopted EA because of its usefulness for teaching and learning purposes.

Notes

(1) Kaplan and Widdowson (1992:76) assert that the kind of real-world problems typically addressed by applied linguistics are provided by the cumulative indices of the *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, the *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, the descriptors in the dictionary used to access the ERIC educational resources system, and the list of the Scientific Commissions of the International Association for Applied Linguistics (AILA).

(2) According to Strevens (1992:80) applied linguistics is neither "linguistics applied" nor "application of linguistic theory."

(3) Avenues of theoretical study that have been opened up by applied linguistics is evident from such activities as ethnographic description

conducted without fixed preconceptions. The quest for understanding of real-life problems itself raises issues of theoretical significance which, in its current state, theory might not envision. See Kaplan and Widdowson (1992:80).

(4) An overview of these main areas of interest can be seen in the *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics* edited by William Bright (1992) (Vol. 1) p. 77-80.

(5) In comparing the two languages the dimensions or categories used must be applied to both languages. Corder (1973) identified three dimensions for making comparisons between languages. They are: nomenclature, form and meaning.

(6) See Hyltenstam (1977).

(7) See Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:61).

(8) Details are provided by Chafe (1992:357).

(9) See Law and Language; Medicine and Language; Psychotheraphy and Language in *International Encylopedia of Linguistics*.

CHAPTER THREE
PRONOMINAL REFERENCE

3.1 <u>Background</u>

Our discussion of pronominal reference will be conducted within the Transformational Generative model of Grammar. This choice is informed by the fact that pronominal reference has been given considerable and explicit treatment within this framework. Wasow (1979: 13ff) provides and apt summary. Chronologically, Lees and Klima (1963) pioneered the study of personal pronouns and reflexive pronouns. Their main concern was with distinguishing the occurrence of reflexives, reciprocals and ordinary pronouns. This study produced two major ideas: the pronominalization transformation and the treatment of reflexives as a special kind of anaphoric pronoun.

A follow-up to their work is what is referred to as the Katz-Postal hypothesis (1964). Roughly put, the hypothesis argued that the operation of both the reflexivization and pronominalization transformations cannot affect meaning because meaning is determined by the deep structure.

In response to this hypothesis, Chomsky (1965) modified the identity condition of the pronominalization and reflexivization transformations to include identity of reference by assigning an index to every noun phrase in the deep structure. This index proposal allowed two noun phrases to be interpreted as coreferential when and only when they are assigned the same index, thus making two noun phrases with different indices non-coreferential. This modification allowed identity of reference to be determined in the deep structure.

Another significant development is that connected with the conditions for backward pronominalization excluded in Lees and Klima's (1963)

treatment. Backward pronominalization is that in which the pronominal precedes the

antecedent in a sentence. The following sentence contains an example of backward pronominalization.

(1) Before she$_2$ wrote the assignment, Bose$_2$ went to the Library$_1$.

This type of pronominalization, according to Langacker (1969), is possible
    unless:

(a) the anaphor and the antecedent are in different conjuncts of a co-ordinate conjunction or

(b) the anaphor commands the antecedent.

Wasow further asserts that the initial ideas of Lees and Klima were elaborated upon in a number of papers which include those of Postal (1966) and Ross (1967). However, the indices and the precede-command condition are the only two modifications that gained acceptance as part of the Standard Theory.[2]

3.2 Coreference

The linguistic device of reference refers to the fact that certain entities in language cannot be semantically interpreted except they make reference to some other entities present. In addition, the device informs the hearer that the information relevant for the interpretation of a sentence must necessarily be regained from somewhere else.

In discussing referencing, Halliday and Hassan (1976: 33) present the following scheme:

Fig. I: Reference Scheme

```
                          Reference
            ┌─────────────────┴─────────────────┐
      [Situational]                         [textual]
       Exophoral                            Endophora
                              ┌─────────────────┴─────────────────┐
                    [ to preceding text]                   [ to following  text]
                         anaphora                               cataphora
```
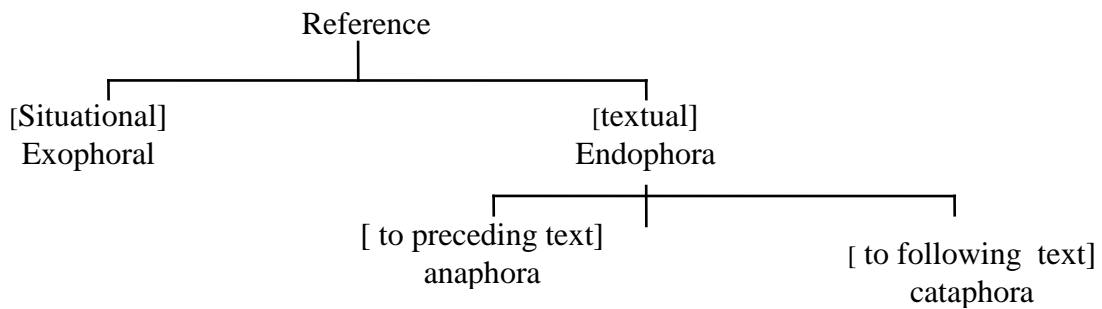
A reference is exophoric when the information necessary for interpretation is situational. For example, in this statement from Achebe's Arrow of God:

(2) <u>We</u> must not destroy the African atmosphere, the African

mind,. The whole foundation of <u>his</u> race ... (P.56);

the information necessary for the interpretation of the pronoun 'we' is regained outside the linguistic context. In other words, as a referring element, the antecedent of 'we' cannot be retrieved by referring to any of the linguistic elements that constitute the statement. However, a reference is endophoric when the information is retrievable from the linguistic context. For instance, the information necessary for the interpretation of 'his' in example (2) is retrievable by referring back to the linguistic context - 'African'. That is, example (2) can be interpreted as:

2 (a)   We must not destroy the African atmosphere, the African

mind, the whole foundation of the <u>African</u> race.

In 2(a) above, we need not refer back to anything except the linguistic context in order to interpret the pronoun 'his' . A distinction is made, however, within the endophoric type of reference; namely, anaphoric and cataphoric reference.

Anaphoric reference can be demonstrated by the following sentences:

3 (a)   Mufty went to Lagos after he received the phone call.

(b)   When Bose sold her cloth Bisi lost hers.

(c)   I have a black belt while Funmi has a red one.

In each of 3 (a-c), the pronoun which is the referring element occurs after the noun phrase to which it refers. In these instances, the information to be regained is at the back of the referring element.

We   have cataphoric reference if the pronoun, that is, the referring element, comes before the noun phrase   the item being referred to. Thus:

4 (a)   After he received the phone call, Mufty went to Lagos.

(b)   Bisi lost hers, while Bose sold her cloth.

(c)   While Funmi has a red one I have a black belt.

An essential phenomenon underlying the examples in 3 and 4 is coreference.   At this point, we should modify the reference scheme provided in Fig. I as Fig II below, in order to properly put in place the devices of referencing in relation to pronominal coreference to be discussed in the rest of this chapter.

Fig. II: Modified Reference Scheme

Reference

Exophoric (Situation) — Endophoric (textual)

Exophoric: Independent (Deictic) / logical (inferential)

Endophoric: Anaphora (Backward reference) → Forward Pronominalization ; Cataphora (Forward reference) → Backward Pronominalization
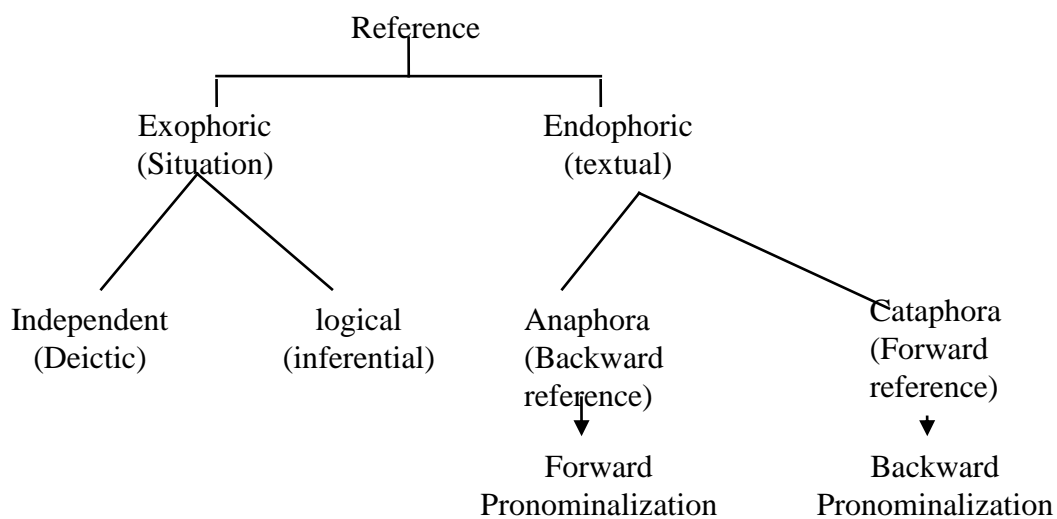
According to Lasnik (1976), pronominal coreference has been one of the more persistent topics in research on grammar. This fact is shown in the prevalent literature available on the concept as indicated in the works of Lees and Klima (1963), Pfeifer (1966), Dik (1968a), Lasnik (1976) and Wasow (1979). In these works, there are arguments for the existence of rules which allow the replacement of a noun phrase with a pronoun under conditions of syntactic and semantic identity with another noun phrase.

Coreferentiality or referential identity is a natural property of sentences which results from interacting semantic and grammatical facts. According to Chomsky (1965: 145):

> transformations which are contingent on the identity of two noun phrases require not merely that the noun phrases be syntactically identical but also that they have the same 'intended referent'.

The concept of coreferentiality, therefore, exhibits a semantic phenomenon with a direct bearing on many aspects of grammatical structure (Dik, 1968a).

Specifically, coreference is used to denote a situation in which two or more noun phrases refer to the same person, object, event or entity. However, the English language, like other languages, adheres to principles which dictate the conditions under which a coreferential relationship may or may not hold between two or more noun phrases.

The nature of coreferentiality can be illustrated with the following examples:

5(a)   Funmi hurt herself.

 (b)   The Rev. Father who went to the United States is back.

(c)   Ebun is eager to scold the student.[3]

In 5(a), it is obvious that 'Funmi' and 'herself' refer to the same person. In 5(b) a   necessary referential identity exists between the <u>Rev. Father</u> and <u>who</u> and in 5(c) the subject noun phrase of the complement sentence has been deleted because it shows referential identity with the subject noun phrase of the matrix sentence. Thus, the two constituent parts of (5c) are:

(6) Ebun is eager

(for Ebun) to scold the student.

The examples just considered show that two noun phrases are coreferential if they both refer to the same entity. In addition, the relations between 'Funmi' and 'herself' in 5(a); 'Rev. Father' and 'who' in 5(b) and 'Ebun' and the deleted subject of the complement sentence in 5(c) involve reference in addition to being an integral part of the semantic and grammatical structure of the sentences. The relation between the noun phrases under consideration is a semantic fact because the identity of reference between the noun phrases in each of the cited sentences is part of the information contained in these sentences, no matter how they are used. The relation is a grammatical fact because the selection of the reflexive in 5(a), the relative pronoun in 5(b) and the equi-deleted subject noun phrase of the complement sentence in 5(c) are made possible by the property of referential identity.   Considering the relevance of both semantics and syntax in relation to coreference, Hutchins (1971: 1) says:

no really effective information retrieval system is possible

if only syntax is taken account of.

The following sentence also provides us additional insight into the concept of coreference.

(7) Laide promised that he would go.

This sentence can be summarised in two ways as either:

   8 (a) Laide promised that he (Laide) would go OR

      (b) Laide promised that (someone else) would go.

If sentence 7 is taken as having the meaning in 8(a) then there is a referential identity between 'Laide' and 'he'. If it is taken as 8(b), a referential difference between 'Laide' and 'he' exists. We can go on to assert that there is a possible, but not a necessary referential identity between Laide' and 'he' as it is obvious that sentence 7 difference is ambiguous between sentence 8(a) and 8(b) on account of referential identity and difference.

   (9) The policeman struck the criminal.

In sentence 9 above, it is clear that a case of referential identity between 'the policeman' and 'the criminal' can never be established. This example gives us a clear case in which there is a referential difference between two noun phrases. It further establishes the fact that the intended referent of two noun phrases must be the same before they are coreferential. To say, therefore, that a sentence has a coreferential reading is to say that it has a meaning in which one of its pronouns is specified as referring to the same entity as one of the other noun phrases in the sentence, as is clearly shown in 5(a) and (b).

   However, it has also been established that, depending on the context, a pronoun can generally refer to an entity not mentioned in the sentence, that is, to some other logical referent known to the speaker but not contained in the sentence. For instance:

   (10) Peter told me <u>she</u> must be crazy.

In this sentence the pronoun 'she' refers back to somebody known to Peter and the hearer but who is not mentioned in the sentence. In other words, the pronoun 'she' refers to some other logical referent known to the speaker within the context of his utterance. This example (sentence 10) shows that two noun phrases can be coreferential when each is used as a referring expression.

Studies on coreferentiality have also shown that there is a difference between presupposition of coreferentiality and an assertion of coreferentiality. This point is made against the background of the relationship that exists between pronominal reference and antecedent. The following sentences will illustrate our point.

11 (a) Tobi spoke to herself about herself.

(b) A student came into my office and he stole my book.

(c) The student who came into my office is Tunde.

In 11(a) the two occurrences of 'herself' are presupposed to be coreferential, but neither is the antecedent of the other. 11(b) is an example of non-equational sentence which also gives us an example of presupposed coreference except that in this case the occurrence of an antecedent relationship exists between the two coreferential noun phrases: 'a student' and 'he'. An assertion of coreferentiality is exhibited in 11(c) which is an equational sentence where the two coreferential noun phrases are not in an antecedent relationship.

Perhaps, the significance of coreferentiality for any grammar is best summed up by Postal (1971:6):

Coreference is by its very nature fundamental to the nature

of language.   This in itself makes it of the utmost

importance for linguistic theory.   But this property of

sentences becomes even more significant as a testing ground for linguistic principles and theories when it is realized that coreferential elements involve a host of special restrictions and properties.

A reflection on our discussion of coreferentiality so far reveals that coreference is manifested in the relationships between noun phrases. Jacobson (1986) identifies three kinds of noun phrases on the basis of their referential properties. These are anaphors, pronominals and lexical noun phrases.

A noun phrase that obtains its reference from another noun phrase in a sentence is an anaphor. In other words, an anaphor cannot possess an independent reference as it must necessarily have an antecedent. For example:

(12)   The lecturers are annoyed with themselves.

Here the pronoun 'themselves' is only meaningful as long as it shares identical referential properties with 'the lecturers' . Two types of anaphors are distinguished - reciprocals and reflexives. Examples of reciprocals are 'one another', 'each other' etc. while examples of reflexives are 'themselves', 'himself', 'yourself' etc.

A noun phrase is a pro-form when it has an independent reference or when its reference can be obtained from another antecedent noun phrase. It is the latter in:

(13) The Lord inspires me to praise him.[4]

Here, the pronominal 'him' would be said to be used anaphorically. If it has an independent reference as in:

(14)   She allows Ola to travel.

then the interpretation necessary for decoding the pronominal 'she' is not retrievable within the linguistic context of the sentence. This means that the pronominal 'she' in 14 is used as a deictic reference.

A lexical noun phrase is a nominal with an independent reference. For example, 'The Lord' in 13 and 'Ola' in 14 are examples of lexical noun phrases because they are neither of the two other types of noun phrases (anaphors and pronominals).

The three noun phrases are distinguished in subcategorization terms as follows:

15 (a)　　Anaphors　　$\begin{bmatrix} +N + pron,, +Refl \\ +N, pron,, +Recip \end{bmatrix}$

　(b)　　Pronominals　$\begin{bmatrix} +N, +Pron, -Refl \end{bmatrix}$

　(c)　　Lexical NPS　$\begin{bmatrix} +N, -pron,, -Refl \end{bmatrix}$

Both pronominal and lexical noun phrases may occur as the subject of a sentence, the object of a sentence or as a complement in a prepositional phrase as in the following example respectively.

16 (a) <u>Mufti</u> travelled last Saturday.

　(b) <u>They</u> travelled last Saturday (as the subject of a sentence).

　(c) We taught <u>the students</u>.

　(d) We taught <u>them</u> (as the object of a sentence).

　(e) Stand beside <u>the gate</u>

　(f) Stand beside <u>him</u> (as a complement in a pp).

Both noun phrases also function as head noun in a noun phrase with modifiers. However, only the lexical noun phrase permits both pre and post modification as in 17 (a) and (b) below while pronominals permit only post modification as in 18 (a) and (b) which may be either a relative construction or a prepositional phrase. For example:

17 (a) The five notorious robbers ran away.

   (b) Students who are versatile write well

18 (a) We who prayed hard got God's blessings.

   (b) They in the house travelled out.

Pronominals are also taken as elements used in place of the noun phrase, in which case they can either replace a whole noun phrase or part of a noun depending on the sentence in question. In the two sentences below:

19 (a) Our beautiful daughter said <u>she</u> could do it.

   (b) Bisi bought the white shoe but I like the black <u>one</u>.

The pronoun 'she' in 19(a) stands for the whole of the noun phrase 'our beautiful daughter' while in 19(b) the pronominal 'one' is used as a substitute for the noun 'shoe'. The basis for the substitution in 19(a) is referential identity while in 19(b) the substitution is based on lexical identity.

In Standard English, the phenomenon of coreferentiality is manifested in different grammatical processes such as pronominalization, reflexivization, relativization and complement structure (Equi-NP deletion). The phenomenon is also slightly manifested with possessive pronoun 'own' and the reciprocal 'one another'. Wiredu (1990) also acknowledges the fact that coreferentiality underlies some essential transformations (in English) which have to do with complex linguistic phenomena. For instance, he states that it is a condition for such deletion and movement rules as super-equi, whiz-deletion, gapping, subject to object raising, pied-piping, subject to subject raising etc.

In this study, however, we shall concern ourselves with three of these processes, namely pronominalization (personal pronouns), reflexivization and relativization.

3.3 <u>Pronouns</u>

Obviously, most of the grammatical processes which exhibit coreference in Standard English have direct bearing on pronouns. For this reason we shall briefly consider the nature of pronouns as an elaboration of our previous discussion of noun phrases.

Etymologically, pronouns are words used in place of nouns. According to Lees and Klima (1963) pronouns are recognised as "function words" with special inflections. They are used together sometimes, with a wider class of words which are called pronominal; all are often classified as a subset of nouns. Strang (1968) also states that pronouns are like nouns in syntactic functions and in their capacity to follow prepositions, but they differ in their collocations, in morphology and in being a closed system.

Pronouns are essentially useful in creating variety, thus breaking the monotony of writing. Different kinds of pronouns are identified. They include the following:

Personal pronouns (I, her, we, them...).

Possessive pronouns (its, yours, theirs ...).

Demonstrative pronouns (this, that ...).

Interrogative pronouns (whose, what, who, whom) (only

when they replace nouns).

Indefinite pronouns (any, some, several, anybody.....)

(when they stand instead of nouns).

Distributive pronouns (each, either, every...).

Emphatic and Reflexive pronouns (myself, yourself, ourselves....).

Relative pronouns (who, whom, whose, that ...).

In this study, however, we are interested in personal, reflexive and relative pronouns. The three pronouns will be discussed under the following processes:

pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization.

3.4 Pronominalization

In order to discuss the process of pronominalization, it is essential to start by considering personal pronouns. Personal pronouns are pronouns that stand for persons.

3. 4. 1   Personal Pronouns

The list of personal pronouns in English is provided by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) in the following table:

Table 3.4. 1: List of Personal Pronouns

PERSON	NUMBER		CASE		
			subjective		objective
possessive 1st Person	Singular		I	me	my
	Plural		We	us	our
2nd Person	Singular		You		Your
	Plural				
3rd Person	Singular	GENDER			
		Masculine	he	him	his
		Feminine	She	her	her
		Non Person	it		its
	Plural		they	them	their

As shown in the table, the personal pronouns possess the following features:

(i) Person: This includes first person - (the speaker), second person (the person spoken to) and the third person (the person spoken about). The following sentences show the communicative roles assigned by the use of these persons:

    20 (a) I beat the boy - 1st person.

       (b) You beat the boy - 2nd person

       (c) He beats the boy - 3rd person.

(ii) Number: This is reflected in terms of singular and plural. Singular means one while plural refers to more than one item; i.e. two and above. Number is morphologically marked in subject - verb concord. Thus:

21 (a) <u>They</u> know the story (plural).

    (b) <u>He</u> knows the story (singular).

Here the pronoun 'they' refers to more than one person, while the pronoun 'he' refers to only one person.

(iii) <u>Gender:</u> A difference of gender is also marked in English. The pronouns that stand for males belong to masculine gender while those that stand for females belong to feminine gender. Those that stand for things belong to neuter gender. For example:

22(a) Masculine - <u>He</u> knows the story.

    (b) Feminine - <u>She</u> knows the story.

    (C) Neuter - <u>It</u> is a story.

Gender is strictly marked only for third person singular pronouns. Third person plural, and first and second person pronouns are not marked for gender as they could be masculine/feminine or neuter depending on the context in which they are used, e.g.

23 (a) The women have just arrived. Greet <u>them</u> when <u>they</u> come out
      (Feminine).

    (b) The rivers are dry. <u>They</u> will have water in <u>them</u> by the rainy season
      (Neuter).

     (c) The men have just arrived. Greet <u>them</u> when <u>they</u> come out
      (Masculine).

(iv) <u>Case:</u> The pronoun system operates the subjective, objective and possessive cases. The subjective case in a sentence is the word or group of words that we speak about. The objective case is a noun or a pronoun which tells us the person or thing to whom the action of the verb happened.

The possessive case indicates possession. With the possessive case, the pronoun is used as modifier of a noun and cannot, therefore, stand alone because it does not function as a noun phrase. The following examples illustrate the different cases:

24 (a) <u>We</u> know the story (the pronoun at subject position).

(b) The man saw <u>us</u>.

The man stays near <u>them</u> (the pronoun at object or complement position).

(c) <u>My</u> mother went late (the pronoun used for showing possession).

In sentence 24(c) the pronoun 'my' is a determiner and therefore a modifier to the noun 'mother'. The four features (person, number, gender and case) are employed for the expression of the syntactic and semantic relation between noun phrases in a sentence.

Another feature is the referential function of personal pronouns. In this case, there are three main uses.

(i) coreferential use.

(ii) non-coreferential use.

(iii) coreferential/non-coreferential use.

The coreferential use can be exemplified in the following sentence:

(25) Before James$_2$ was ordained he$_2$ was in Lokoja.

Here 'James' and 'he' are assigned the same referential subscript because they share the same syntactic and semantic properties of [+subjective, +noun, +masculine, + 3rd person + singular].

The non-coreferential use demonstrates the fact that personal pronouns may not always have antecedent reference. In other words, they may be employed for arbitrary reference. This is the case for the 1st and 2nd

person pronouns (we, us, I, me, my, our, you and your) as can be seen from the following sentences:

26 (a) The mosquitoes bit <u>us</u> (1st person).

   (b) <u>You</u> travelled home (2nd person).

According to Halliday (1985a) these pronouns (1st and 2nd persons) can be interpreted by recourse to the extra-linguistic context of situation. Thus the context of situation will show that the reference in 26(a) is to the persons speaking whereas in 26(b) the reference is to the person listening to the speaker.

The coreferential/non-coreferential function is exemplified by the third person pronouns (he, she, him, her, it, they and them). This usage is illustrated in sentence 27.

(27) Jumoke said that she gained admission to the college.

A referential reading of (27) above will lead us to assign the same referential subscript on the two noun phrases in the sentence as follows:

27(a) Jumoke$_2$ said that she$_2$ (Jumoke) gained admission to the college. Here the pronoun 'she ' is selected based on the syntactic and semantic features it shares with the noun 'Jumoke' in the sense that, like 'Jumoke', it occurs in the subjective case in addition to sharing the features [+ noun, +feminine, + 3rd person + singular].

A non-coreferential reading of (27) will yield two distinct referential subscripts as in 27(b):

27 (b) Jumoke$_1$ said that she$_2$ (another person) gained admission to the college.

Sentence 27 then, can be described as having an ambiguous reading between 27(a) and 27(b).

One other characteristic of personal pronouns is that unlike nouns, they do not occur with demonstratives, relative construction and articles. As a result, it is wrong to have the following constructions:

28 (a) *this she came.

   (b) *the he came.

   (c) * the pretty girl she who won the prize is here.

3.4. 2   Structural Conditions for the Process of Pronominalization

In the English language, pronominalization operates in two directions: forward and backward. The first (forward) must be capable of replacing a noun phrase to the right of an identical noun phrase with a pronoun while the latter (backward) must be capable of replacing a noun phrase to the left of an identical noun phrase with a pronoun. Certain sentences, however, allow for either forward or backward pronominalization as can be seen in the following sentences:

29 (a) That $\underline{Ade_2}$ left late worried $\underline{him_2}$.

   (b) That $\underline{he_2}$ left late worried $\underline{Ade_2}$

On the contrary, only forward pronominalization can occur in the example below:

30 (a)   it excited the $actors_2$ that $they_2$ performed the play.

   (b) *it excited $\underline{them_2}$ that the $\underline{actors_2}$ performed the play.

In the same vein, only backward pronominalization is possible in:

31 (a)   Knowing that $\underline{they_2}$ performed the play excited $\underline{the\ actors_2}$.

   (b)   *Knowing that $\underline{the\ actors_2}$ performed the play excited $\underline{them_2}$.

The   core   assumptions   underlying   the   process   of pronominalization are provided by Soames and Perlmutter (1979:324-326) as follows:

(i) The meaning of a sentence including coreference information is represented in underlying structure.

Therefore, a pronoun and another noun phrase can be coreferential in a sentence only if the two noun phrases concerned are marked for coreference in the underlying structure.

(ii) pronominalization applies to structures containing two coreferential, identical non-pronominal noun phrases.

The application of pronominalization to such a structure leads to the substitution of a pronoun (in the case of personal pronoun) for one of the two noun phrases. The personal pronoun that results from this process must share identical syntactic and semantic reference with the other noun phrase.

With the 3rd person singular pronouns in particular, both noun phrases involved in the pronominalization process must agree in person, number and gender.[5]

(iii) Every pronoun that is coreferential with a full noun phrase (non- pronominal) in the same sentence is produced by pronominalization.

That is, the two noun phrases must be in the same sentence but not in the same clause.

(iv) Pronouns that are not coreferential with a full noun phrase in the same sentence are present in the underlying structure.

To illustrate assumptions (i-iii) above, let us consider this sentence.

(32) Ronke said that she was happy.

In the pronominalization process, the deep structure of sentence 32 will be:

(33) Ronke$_2$ said that Ronke$_2$ was happy;

90

while the tree-diagram of the structural description in (33)

is shown in:

(34)

```
                        S¹
            ╱                    ╲
         NP                       VP
          │              ╱              ╲
          N            V                 NP
          │            │                  │
          2           said               S²
        Ronke                      ╱            ╲
    ┌                ┐            NP              VP
    │ + noun         │         that │         ╱        ╲
    │ +proper        │              N        V          Adj p
    │ +subjective    │              │       was          │
    │ +3rd person    │              4                   happy
    │ +Feminine      │            Ronke
    │ +singular      │       ┌                ┐
    └                ┘       │ + noun         │
                            │ +proper         │
                            │ +subjective     │
                            │ +3rd person     │
                            │ +Feminine       │
                            │ +singular       │
                            └                ┘
```
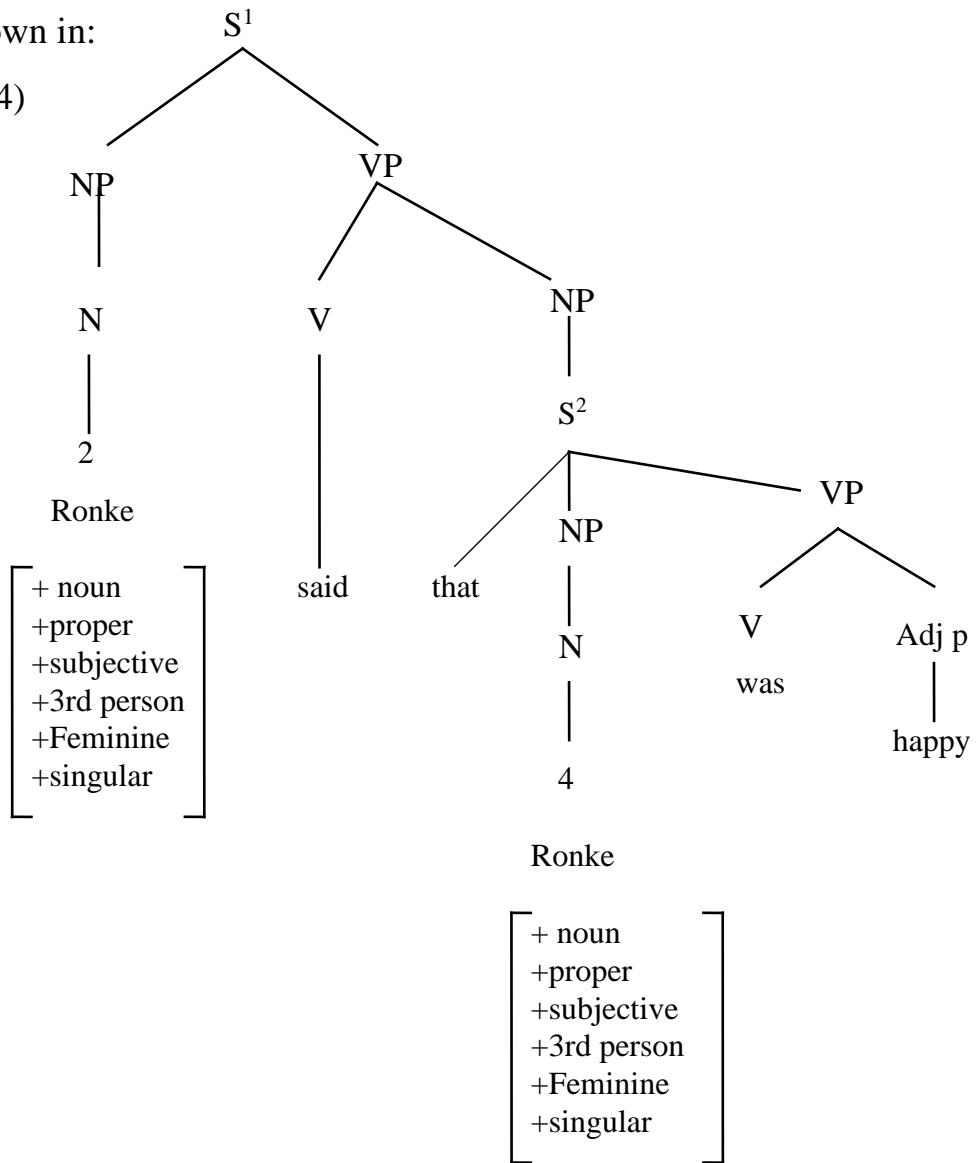
The following structural change will be derived after the pronominalization rule has been applied:

(35)

```
                          S¹
                ┌──────────┴──────────┐
               NP                     VP
                │            ┌─────────┴─────────┐
                N            V                  NP
                │            │                   │
                2          said                 S²
                                         ┌───────┼───────────────┐
              Ronke                     that    NP              VP
                                                 │          ┌────┴────┐
          ┌─────────────┐                        P          V      Adj p
          │ + noun      │               said                │        │
          │ +proper     │                                    P       was    happy
          │ +subjective │                                    │
          │ +3rd person │                                    4
          │ +Feminine   │
          │ +singular   │                                   She
          └─────────────┘
                                                  ┌──────────────┐
                                                  │ + pronoun    │
                                                  │ +personal    │
                                                  │ +subjective  │
                                                  │ +3rd person  │
                                                  │ +Feminine    │
                                                  │ +singular    │
                                                  └──────────────┘
```
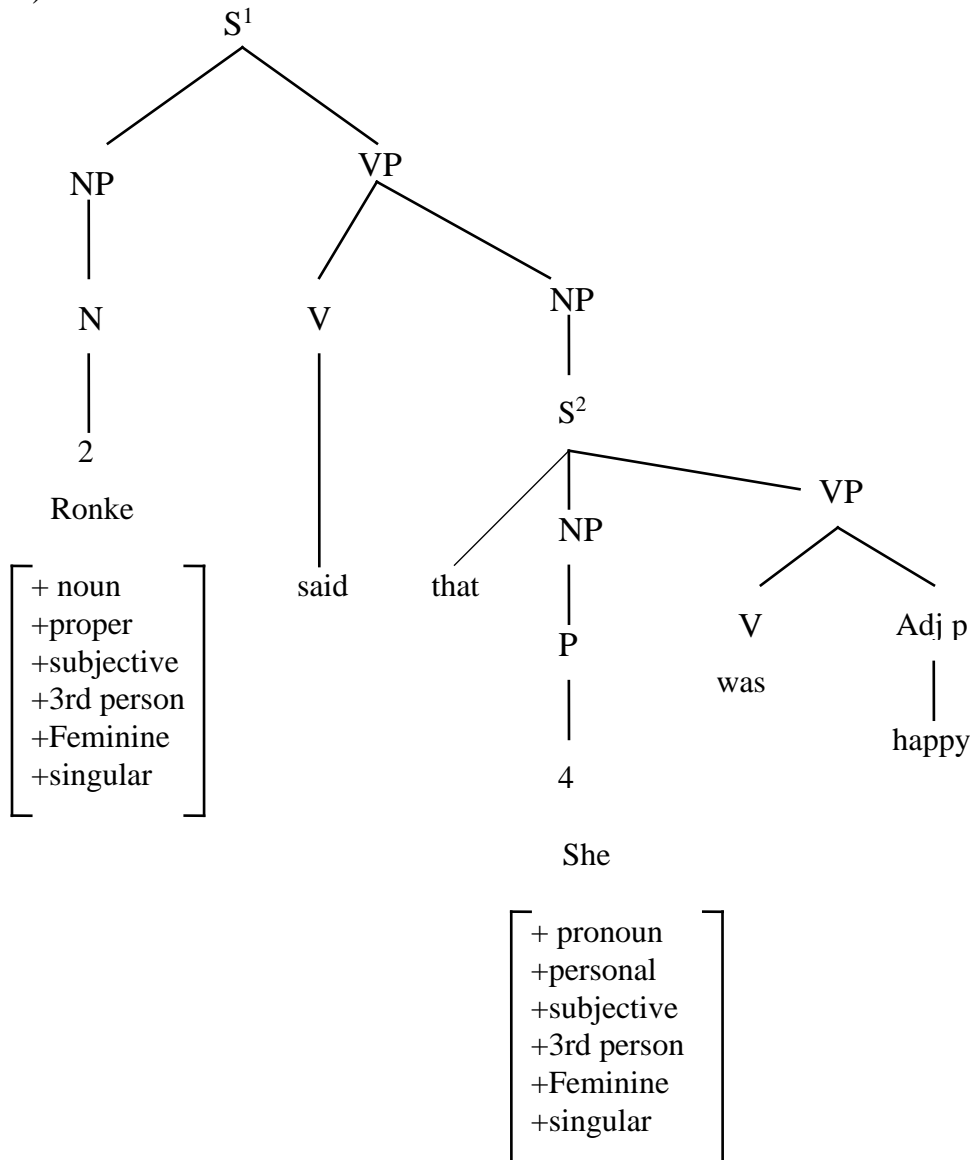
The rule which changes the second occurrence of Ronke in 34 to 'She' in 35 may be expressed as:

(36)

SD: X   - $\begin{bmatrix} NP \\ -Pronoun \end{bmatrix}$ - Y - $\begin{bmatrix} NP \\ -Pronoun \end{bmatrix}$ - Z

　　　　 1　　　　 2　　　　 3　　　 4　　　 5

SC　　 1　　　　 2　　　　 3　　　 4　　　 5
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　 [+Pronoun]
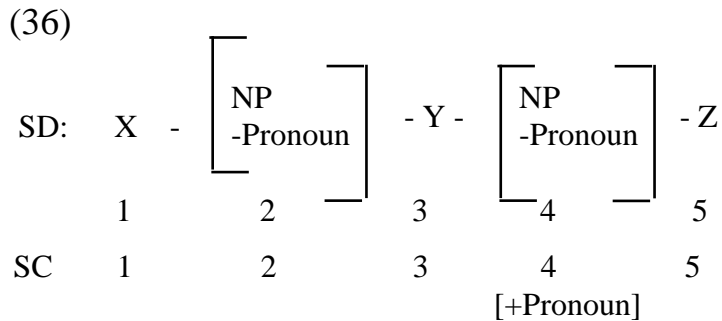
Conditions:

(a)   2 = 4

(b)   2 is in a matrix S

(c)   4 is in an S embedded in the matrix S

(Less and Klima, 1963).

The pronominalization rule can apply to the deep structure in (34) to produce the structural change in (35) because the personal pronoun 'she' shares a referential identity with the noun 'Ronke'.

Besides, the condition in 36 (b) and (c) demand that the two noun phrases in the pronominalization process must not occur in the same clause though they must occur in the same sentence. From our tree diagram, the first appearance of the noun 'Ronke' is in a matrix sentence while the second appearance is in an embedded sentence in the matrix sentence as we can see in 34.

In 35, (the tree diagram showing the structural change), the fact that 'she' appears in the same sentence with 'Ronke' and, is at the same time coreferential with 'Ronke' means that the pronoun 'she' was derived as a result of the pronominalization rule stated in 36.

For backward pronominalization as in a sentence like:

(37)   That she$_2$ failed the exam bothered Yewande$_2$

the only condition is that the pro-NP should precede but not command the lexical NP. Thus, the pronominalization rule that produces backward pronominalization is presented as:

(38)

$$\text{SD:}\quad X \; - \begin{bmatrix} \text{NP} \\ \text{-pronoun} \end{bmatrix} - Y - \begin{bmatrix} \text{NP} \\ \text{-Pronoun} \end{bmatrix} - Z$$

$$\qquad\qquad 1 \qquad 2 \qquad\quad 3 \qquad 4 \qquad 5$$

$$\text{SC:}\quad 1 \qquad 2 \qquad\quad 3 \qquad 4 \qquad 5$$
$$\quad\;\; [\text{+ pronoun}]$$

Conditions:

        (a) $2 = 4$

        (b) the structural change is possible only when the noun phrase in '2' of the deep structure is dominated by a subordinate clause which does not dominate the noun phrase in '4' of the deep structure.

This condition is demonstrated in the deep structure tree diagram below:

(39)

S¹

NP

S²

that

NP

N

2

Yewande

+ Noun
+ Proper
+ Subjective
+ 3rd Person
+ Feminine
+ Singular

VP

V

failed

NP

Det

the

N

exam

VP

V

bothered

NP

N

4

Yewande

+ Noun
+ Proper
+ Subjective
+ 3rd Person
+ Feminine
+ Singular
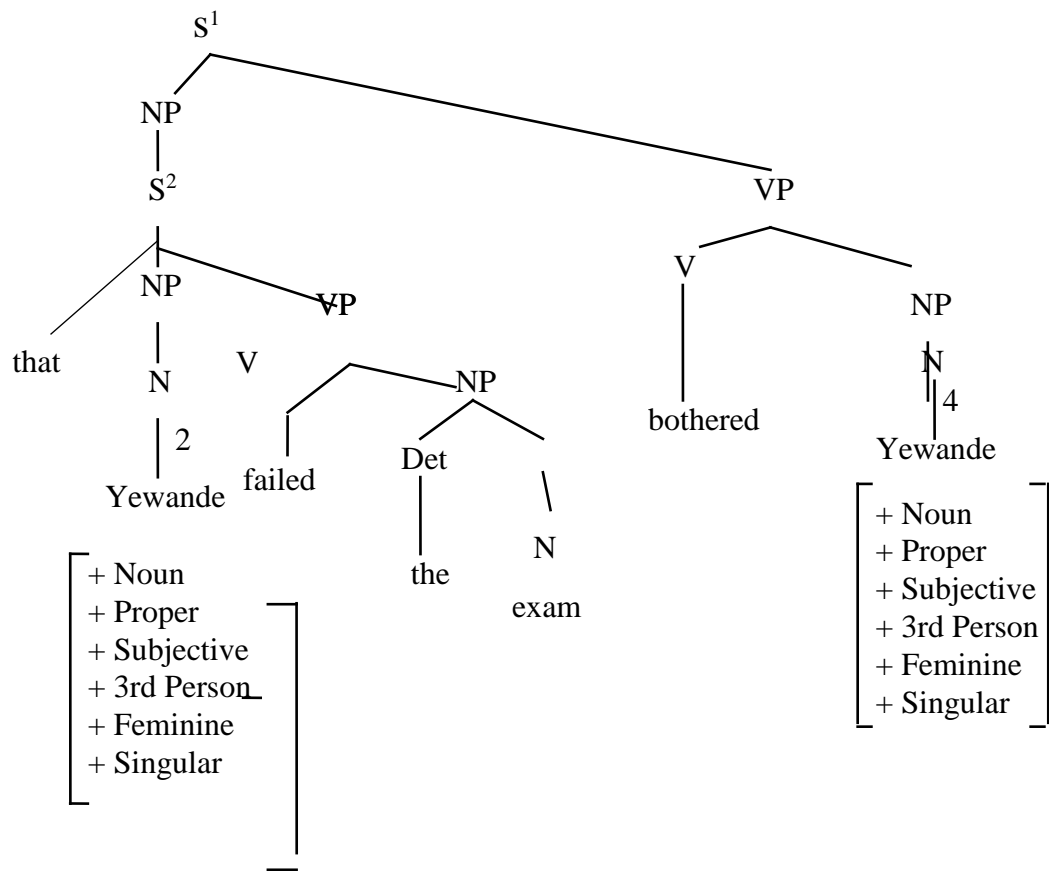
As we can see the NP in '2' of this deep structure 39 is dominated by a subordinate clause which does not dominate the NP in '4'. Thus in the structural change that takes place in this deep structure, after the backward pronominalization rule has applied in 40, the pro-NP 'she' precedes the lexical NP but the S² node that dominates the pro- NP does not command the lexical NP.

(40)

S^1

NP   VP

S^2 VP   NP

that

NP   VP   V   NP

pro

V   NP   bothered   N   4

2   failed   Det   N   Yewande

she   the   exam
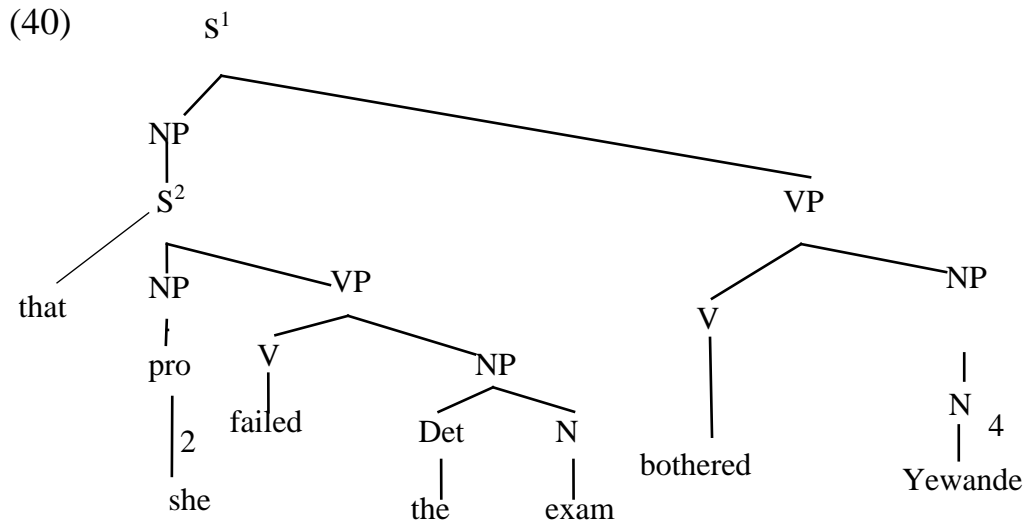
The rule for forward and backward pronominalization can be joined together as:

(41)

$$
\text{SD:} \quad X - \begin{bmatrix} NP \\ \text{-pronoun} \end{bmatrix} - Y - \begin{bmatrix} NP \\ \text{-Pronoun} \end{bmatrix} - Z
$$

$$
\phantom{\text{SD:}} \quad 1 \qquad 2 \qquad 3 \qquad 4 \qquad 5
$$

$$
\text{SC: (a):} \quad 1 \qquad 2 \qquad 3 \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ +\text{pronoun} \end{bmatrix} \qquad 5
$$

or

$$
\text{SC: (b):} \quad 1 \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ +\text{pronoun} \end{bmatrix} \qquad 3 \qquad 4 \qquad 5
$$
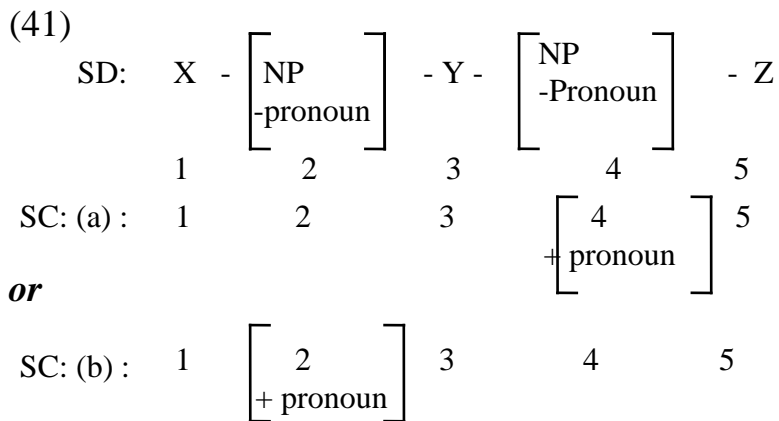
Conditions:

(a) $2 = 4$

(b)   2 is in matrix S.

(c)   4 is in an S embedded in the matrix S.

(d)   2 is dominated by a subordinate clause that dose not dominate 4.

(After Ross, 1969).

Conditions **b** and **c** are exclusively for forward pronominalizations while condition **d** is <u>only</u> for backward pronominalization. Condition **a** applies to both forward and backward pronominalization.

The rule in 41 only applies to sentences with the following subordinate clauses:

(i)   Subordinate clauses starting with the sub-ordinators **although**, **after**, **before**, **since**, e.t.c.

42 (a) After <u>he</u>$_2$ travelled my <u>husband</u>$_2$ wrote me a letter.

(b) After <u>my husband</u>$_2$ travelled <u>he</u>$_2$ wrote me a letter;

(ii)   Complement clauses with 'that' or infinitival or gerundive complementizer:

43 (a) That <u>Mary</u>$_2$ befriended the priest disturbed <u>her</u>$_2$.

(b) That <u>she</u>$_2$ befriended the priest disturbed <u>Mary</u>$_2$.

(iii)   Complement clauses in apposition to abstract nouns like proposition, idea, theory, fact etc.;

44 (a) The fact that <u>the princess</u>$_2$ won pleased <u>her</u>$_2$.

(b) The fact that <u>she</u>$_2$ won pleased <u>the princess</u>$_2$.

The last assumption earlier stated as:

> pronouns that are not coreferential with a full noun phrase in the same sentence are present in underlying structure.

is exemplified in a sentence like:

(45)   <u>She</u>$_1$ said that <u>Ronke</u>$_2$ was happy.

Here, the pronoun 'she' cannot be said to be coreferential with 'Ronke' because 'she' in this context must necessarily refer to some other person apart from 'Ronke'. In other words, the pronominalization rule did not

produce the pro-NP 'she', rather it has been a pronoun in underlying structure.

3.5 Reflexivization

This is one of the processes that allow for coreference in Standard English. Our concern here will be with reflexive pronouns otherwise known as reflexive anaphors.

3.5.1 Reflexive Pronouns

The following table provides us with the list of reflexive anaphors in English.

Table 3.5.1: List of Reflexive Anaphors

			NUMBER	
			Singular	Plural
PERSON		1st Person	myself	ourselves
		2nd Person	yourself	yourselves
		GENDER		
	3rd	Masculine	himself	
	Person	Feminine	herself	{
	Non-Person	itself		

These forms are referred to as reflexives or anaphors when they have a noun phrase referent in the same clause:

46 (a) I have cut myself with the blade.

(b) Mofe hurts herself everyday.

(c) Ade took himself to the church.

In these sentences, we see that the subject of the sentence is the same person or thing as the object of the sentence. According to Ogundipe, Eckersley and Macaulay (1983), the action in each of these sentences does not go from one person to another. "it comes back again - like the reflection in a mirror - to the doer of the action".

The forms of the reflexive pronouns are said to be emphatic in the following sentences:

   47 (a) I will do the work myself.

      (b) He, himself, will drive the car.

      (c) She weaves the cloth herself.

Example 46 (a - c) exhibits coreference phenomenon and also shows that reflexive pronouns are inherently anaphorical as their occurrence is mostly described as conditioned by identity. On the contrary, the reflexive pronouns in 47 (a - c) function as intensifiers to create emphasis. What we have in these sentences is a case where 'myself' modifies 'I' in 47 (a); 'herself' modifies 'She' in 47(c) and the expression 'he himself' in 47 (b) has a referential potential identical to 'He', the reflexive 'himself' serving to emphasize the subject. Ogundipe et al (1983) affirm that emphasizing pronouns sometimes have the meaning of 'alone' and often have 'by' with them. They give these examples:

   48 (a) I went there all by myself.

      (b) This is an engine that goes by itself.

      (c) George made that model aeroplane all by himself.

   Apart from functioning as the direct objects of verbs as in 46 (a-c) and as intensifiers as in 47 (a-c), reflexive pronouns also fulfil the following functions:

(i) Indirect object:

(49)   Jane bought <u>herself</u> a nice dress.

(ii) Object of prepositions:

(50)   He looked <u>at himself</u> in the mirror;

(iii) predicate complement:

(51)   She was not <u>herself</u> when she got there.

The reflexive pronouns have the morphological ending self (or selves for the plural). Apart from this number distinction, the reflexive pronoun also makes a distinction of person. A distinction of gender is further marked for the third person singular forms. There is, however, no case distinction.

Anaphors as we can see from examples 46, 49, 50 and 51 perform a phoric function and must always have an antecedent noun phrase. It is this reason that renders the following sentence ungrammatical:

52(a) * I taught herself

(b) * James paid themselves a visit.

Like all pronouns, the reflexive pronoun is used as substitute for a noun phrase under certain conditions. These conditions permit the process of reflexivization.

3.5.2 <u>Structural Conditions for the Process of Reflexivization</u>

The following contexts generate the reflexivization process in standard English:

(i)   If the direct object of a verb is coreferential with the subject   in the underlying structure of a sentence.

The following example will suffice:

(53) Ronke$_2$ loves herself$_2$.

The underlying structure for sentence 53 is understood as 54:

(54) Ronke$_2$ loves Ronke$_2$.

where the two occurrences of the noun phrase 'Ronke' have the same referential identity. This explains why the reflexive pronoun 'herself' in 53 shares a referential identity with 'Ronke'. However, a case of coreferentiality cannot be established between the pronoun 'her' and 'Ronke' in sentence 55:

(55) * Ronek$_2$ loves her$_2$.

This is because 'her' in this context must necessarily refer to some other person apart from 'Ronke'.

Examples 53 and 55 further show that a third person object pronoun can either be reflexive or non-reflexive in the context being considered depending on whether the subject and the object of the sentence in question are coreferentially marked in the underlying structure or not.

Sentence 54 (i.e the underlying structure of sentence 53) demonstrates the fact that reflexivization occurs if non-pronominal noun phrases are coreferential in their underlying structure. Thus, the subject and object in 54 are marked coreferentially whereas in sentence 56, which gives us an idea of the deep structure of 55, the subject and object, are non-coreferential as the object refers to some person other than 'Ronke'.

(56) Ronke$_2$ loves x$_3$ (x$_3$ - some person other than 'Ronke' herself).

However, this 'other person' shares the features:

$$\begin{bmatrix} + \text{ Noun} \\ + \text{ 3rd person} \\ + \text{ Feminine} \end{bmatrix}$$

101

with Ronke but not the name'Ronke'.

  (ii)   When a noun phrase is not the direct object of the verb but is
          coreferential with the subject in the underlying structure.

For example:

  57 (a) Bisi is annoyed with herself.

    (b) Bisi often cares about herself.

    (c) John told Susan about himself.

  (iii)   Noun phrases other than the subject can trigger reflexivization as
in:

  (58) I discussed with Funke about herself.

In sentence 58, 'herself' refers to 'Funke' and not 'I'. This situation also
shows that a noun phrase that is coreferential with a preceding noun phrase
in the deep structure undergoes reflexivization.

  In addition to the above contexts which generate the reflexivization
process, the distribution of reflexives is governed by some rules:

  (i)   both noun phrases involved in the reflexivization
          process - the antecedent (that is, the controller or the
          noun phrase that triggers reflexivization) and the target
          (the noun phrase which undergoes the reflexivization
          process) must agree in terms of: (a) number, (b) person
          and (c) gender (if 3rd person singular).

This fact explains why the (a) sentences in the following examples are
grammatical and the (b) ones ungrammatical.

    59 (a) John loves himself.

      (b) * She loves himself.

60 (a) Bimpe hurts herself.

   (b) * The student hurts themselves

(ii) reflexives cannot occur in subject position within the sentence:

This condition renders the following sentences ungrammatical:

61(a) * herself hurts Mofe.

   (b) * Themselves are coming.

   (c) * myself visited him.

(iii) reflexivization rule operates from left to right, the controller being located   to the left of its target.

This condition is reflected in:

(62) Ola spoke to Bode about himself.

(63) Ola spoke about himself to Bode.

Sentence 62 is ambiguous because either 'Ola' and 'himself' may be coreferential or Bode and himself. Sentence 63 on the other hand, exhibits no such ambiguity because it is clear that himself can only be coreferential with Ola.

However, example 64 shows that not just any noun phrase to the left of the reflexive pronoun is coreferential with it.

(64) Ola wants Wale to drive himself.

The underlying structure for the sentence will be:

65 (a) Ola wants

   (b) Wale$_2$ drives Wale$_2$.

In 64 above 'Ola' and 'Wale' are to the left of 'himself', but the reflexive pronoun is only coreferential with Wale. This is so because reflexivization operates only for noun phrases which are within the same clause. This

condition is referred to as 'the clause mate' restriction and was first identified by Lees and Klima (1963:19):

> When a second occurrence of a noun phrase is part of the same simplex, the pronominal replacement is always reflexive; but when the two occurrences are from different component source sentences, the subordinate noun phrase is replaced by the simple pronoun.

The significance of this restrictions is that two noun phrases may induce reflexivization if they share clause membership in addition to referential identity. Thus:

  66 (a) $Tola_2$ says that Sesan dislikes him_2.

     (b) *$Tola_2$ says that Sesan dislikes $himself_2$.

  67 (a) $Ibukun_2$ wishes that everybody would like her_2.

     (b) *$Ibukun_2$ wishes that everybody would like $herself_2$.

The (a) sentences in 66 and 67 can be understood as either that the pronoun is coreferential with the first noun phrase in the sentence or the pronoun refers to some other person not mentioned in the sentence. For this reason, the two interpretations will have different underlying structures. The sentences in the (b) examples, are ungrammatical because these examples consist of two clauses.

3.6 <u>Relativization</u>

This is the last of the processes we shall be considering in our examination of coreference. As in the other two processes (pronominalization and reflexivization) earlier discussed, we shall state

what relative pronouns are and go on to discuss the structural conditions for the process of relativization.

3.6.1 Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns, otherwise known as wh- pronouns, are used to introduce relative clause construction in standard English.   The most commonly used relative pronouns are:

who, whom, whose, which and that[6]

who, a subjective form, is the most central of them because it has the objective case 'whom' and the possessive case 'whose'.   'who' and 'whom' are restricted to noun phrases in which the head nouns have the feature [+human].   'Which' occurs only if the deleted noun is [-human]. 'That' and 'whose' are used for both human and non-human nouns. 'Which' and 'that' also have the same forms for subjective or objective.

According to Ogundipe et al (1983), a relative pronoun does the work of a pronoun and of a conjunction.   It stands in the stead of a noun and joins an adjective clause to another clause in a complex sentence.   To illustrate this point, let us make the two sentences below into a compound one and then to a complex one.

68 (a) This is Fr. Barry

(b) He can play golf.

Compound Sentence: This is Fr. Barry and he can play golf.

Complex Sentence: This is Fr. Barry who can play golf.

If we compare the complex sentence with the compound one, we see that both the conjunction 'and' and the pronoun 'he' in the compound sentence have been replaced with the relative pronoun 'who' in the complex one. In

making a complex sentence such as we have made, the adjective clause must be put next to the noun it describes as much as possible.

A relative clause has been defined by Stockwell et al (1973:421) as:

> a sentence embedded in surface structure as modifier of a noun phrase, the embedded sentence having within it a wh- pronominal replacement for a deep structure noun phrase which is in some sense identical with the head noun phrase.

The following sentences which are typical of relative clause structures can be used to explain this definition.

(69) I caught the girls <u>who were cheating</u>.

(70) The cat <u>which ate the food</u> died.

(71) The carpenter <u>from whom I took the chair came.</u>

The underlined parts are the embedded sentences which constitute the relative clause and are all acting as modifiers for the noun phrases 'the girls', 'the cat' and 'the carpenter'. These noun phrases have in turn been replaced by the wh- pronouns in the embedded sentence on account of referential identity in the deep structure.

The relative clause acts as post modifier to the noun it is attached to. In performing this role, it provides additional information about a noun. Thus in the sentences below:

(72) I saw the students who sang well.

(73) The sheep which we bought has escaped.

The relative clauses are:

(74) who sang well.

(75) which we bought.

In example 72 the noun phrase 'the students' is modified by the relative clause in 74 just like the noun phrase in 73 'the sheep' is modified by the clause in 75. In both cases, we have additional information given about the noun phrases concerned. For example, in 72 the relative clause answers the question 'which students did you see?' while the relative clause in 75 answers the question 'which sheep escaped?'. This is possible because the sentences in 72 and 73 normally consist of two constituent parts as follows:

72' I saw the students

The students sang well.

73' The sheep has escaped

We bought the sheep.

Because the relative clause acts as a modifier, it is possible in many instances to replace an expression that has a relative clause. This can be seen in the sentences below:

76 (a) Tai is a frank old man.

(b) Tai is an old man who is frank.

In addition, the idea of a relative clause serving as a modifier has also led to the notion of restrictiveness versus non-restrictiveness as in:

77 (a) Mothers who love children bake a lot.

(b) Mothers, who love children, bake a lot.

Sentence 77(a) is an example of restrictive clause. This kind of clause provides more information about the noun phrase being modified (the antecedent noun phrase) thus making it more meaningful. As can be seen from sentence 77(a) the relative clause 'who love children' supplies information which exactly specifies the noun being modified. Without this

information we will not know which 'mothers' are being referred to. The clause therefore has restricted the meaning of the noun modified to a particular referent.

Generally, when the information supplied by the restrictive clause is omitted the meaning of the sentence may be impaired. For example:

(78) Any student <u>who scores seventy percent</u> will get a present.

(79) Iyun is the lecturer <u>who travelled abroad</u>.

If the underlined relative clauses are removed, we will have incomplete information in the sentences as is apparent from these sentences:

(80) Any student will get a present.

(81) Iyun is the lecturer.

Restrictive relative clauses are said to be 'defining clauses' for this reason. Because they are defining clauses they describe the noun they modify, distinguishing them from other nouns of the same class.

It is possible for the infinitive to replace the relative pronoun in some restrictive clauses if the noun is modified by an ordinal numeral such as third, eight, eleventh etc. Or if the noun is modified by a superlative adjective or an absolute modifier. Thus:

(82) The <u>third </u>visitor who came is my friend.

(83) The <u>greatest</u> artist who performed at the exhibition.

(84) The <u>only</u> female student who got a first class; could become:

82' the third visitor to come is my friend.

83' the greatest artist to perform at the exhibition.

84' the only female student to get a first class.

This process, however, is only possible when the relative pronoun is a subject. For instance, it cannot occur in the following examples:

(85) The student to whom I gave the book.

(86) The book which I took from the study.

because the relative pronoun in 85 and 86 are in the objective form.

When the restrictive relative clause occurs in a prepositional phrase structure two things may happen: (i) the preposition and the relative pronoun can be brought to occupy clause initial position or (ii) the preposition is separated from its accompanying relative pronoun and placed at the end of the clause. For example:

(87) The priest in whom we hoped travelled.

(88) The box in which she locked her gold was stolen.

From these two examples we see that the preposition and the relative pronoun occupy clause initial position; if we examine the underlying structures of the two sentences:

87' The priest (we hoped in the priest) travelled.

88' The box (she locked her in the box) was stolen.

It is the underlined prepositional phrase in 87$^!$ and 88$^!$ that is moved to clause initial position to give us the sentence in 87 and 88. However, in 89 and 90:

(89) The priest whom we hoped in travelled.

(90) The box which she locked her gold in was stolen;

the preposition is separated from its accompanying relative pronoun and placed at the end of the clause.

An exception to the first option (i) above is the relative pronoun 'that'. This is because this pronoun cannot be brought to clause initial position with its accompanying preposition. This fact makes the following sentence ungrammatical.

(91) *The student with that she stays has finished;

rather than (91) we have:

(92) The student that she stays with has finished.

Very often, the relative pronouns in the objective case in restrictive relative clause construction are omitted. Thus we can have:

93 (a) The priest <u>we hoped in</u> travelled.

(b) The box <u>she locked her gold in</u> was stolen.

(c) The student <u>she stays with</u> has finished.

According to Lyons (1977:761) restrictive clauses, semantically, are used to provide descriptive information which is intended to enable the addressee to identify the referent of the expression within which they are embedded.

Sentence 77(b) earlier stated is given as an example of a non-restrictive clause.   According to Jespersen (1927:82), a non-restrictive clause is defined as:

> a clause which might be discarded without serious injury
>
> to the precise understanding of the sentence as a whole.

In other words, a non-restrictive clause does not specify or supply any additional information to the noun it modifies. What it does is to merely add extra information. For this reason, non-restrictive clauses are said to be non-defining as 77(b) can be interpreted as:

(94) Mothers (generally) bake a lot and in addition, love children.

The removal of the clause 'who love children' hardly affects the meaning of the sentence.

In writing, non-restrictive clauses are separated by commas from the nouns they are attached to as in:

(95) The boy, who threw the stone, has disappeared;

whereas restrictive clauses are not so separated from the nouns they modify. Thus:

(96) The boy who threw the stone has disappeared.

It is also observed that omission of the relative pronoun is allowed in restrictive relative clauses if it is in the objective case whereas, such omission is prohibited in non-restrictive structure. For example:

97 (a) The girls whom we met read Law.

(b) The girl we met read Law.

98 (a) The girl, whom we met, read Law.

(b) *The girl, we met, read Law.

Our discussion in this study is restricted to the restrictive relative clause because it is the one that is more commonly used among Nigerian users of English.

3.6.2 <u>Structural Conditions for the Process of Relativization</u>

The process of relativization takes place in standard English only when the noun phrase to which the wh-marker is attached in the embedded sentence is coreferential with a noun phrase in the matrix sentence or conversely when a noun phrase in the matrix sentence is coreferential with the noun phrase to which the wh- marker is attached in the embedded sentence. This fact is exemplified in the three earlier examples given in 3.6.1 as:

(69) I caught the girls who were cheating;

(70) The cat which ate the food died;

(71) The carpenter from whom I took the chairs came.

Let us illustrate this point further by using sentence 69 and 71. The deep structure of 69 is given as:

(99) DS: I caught the girls (the girls were cheating).

In this sentence, 'I caught the girls' is the matrix sentence while the sentence in bracket, is the embedded sentence. In addition, the noun phrase which acts as the object of the matrix sentence (the girls) is coreferential with the subject of the embedded sentence. Example 71 has the following deep structure:

(100) DS: The carpenter (I took the chair from the carpenter) came.

The embedded sentence in 100 is 'I took the chair from the carpenter' while the matrix sentence is the carpenter came'. Apart from this, the subject of the matrix (The carpenter) is coreferential with the noun phrase in the prepositional phrase which functions as the indirect object of the embedded sentence.

In deriving the surface structure of these sentences we need:

(1)   a rule that fronts a noun phrase.

This rule is necessary because it is impossible to have a relative clause that has the relative marker in a position other than the clause initial. The rule that fronts a noun phrase is known as wh- fronting. This rule ensures that the wh- noun phrase appears at clause initial position. In other words, there is always a noun phrase missing somewhere after the wh- fronting has applied except when the wh- prefixed noun phrase is a subject as in example sentence 69.

The fronting of a noun phrase also explains why there is no noun phrase after the verb 'saw' in the following sentence:

(101) Tokunbo told a student (whom I saw).

Where the underlying structure is:

101'   Tokunbo told a student (I saw the student).

From the underlying structure, it is obvious that the verb 'saw' has the syntactic feature:

(+ .... NP).

It is also for the same reason that the following sentence is ungrammatical.

102'   *We saw a girl who I know her.

Another significant structural condition that permits relativization in English is:

(ii) morphophonemic rules that dictate the final shape of the
       relative pronoun to be selected.

This is necessary because the selection of the appropriate wH- relative pronoun is dependent on two context features: gender and case. The following specification rules will explain our point further:

103 (a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} +\text{ Noun} \\ +\text{ Pronoun} \\ +\text{ Relative} \\ +\text{ Human} \end{bmatrix} + [+\text{ subject}] - who$$

(b)
$$\begin{bmatrix} +\text{ Noun} \\ +\text{ Pronoun} \\ +\text{ Relative} \\ +\text{ Human} \end{bmatrix} + [+\text{ object}] - whom$$

(c)
$$\begin{bmatrix} +\text{ Noun} \\ +\text{ Pronoun} \\ +\text{ Relative} \\ \pm\text{ Human} \end{bmatrix} + [+\text{possessive}] - whose$$

For [- Human] nouns, there is no distinction of case. Thus the following rule:

(104)

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
+ \text{ Noun} \\
+ \text{ Pronoun} \\
+ \text{ Relative} \\
- \text{ Human}
\end{bmatrix}
- \text{ which}
$$

The selectional rules in 103(a-c) mean that in (a) <u>who</u> is selected for an antecedent noun which is the subject of the relative clause and at the same time stand for a person. For instance, in the sentence:

(105) Tokunbo is the student who made a second class upper,

'who' refers to 'Tokunbo' and is the subject of 'made', the verb in the relative clause.

In (b) <u>whom</u> is selected because it stands for a human referent which acts as an object.

(106) Tokunbo is the student whom we encouraged.

In 106 'whom' stands for the noun phrase 'Tokunbo' which is a human referent in addition, it is the object of the verb 'encouraged' in the relative clause.

The underlying structures of 105 and 106 will exemplify this fact further:

105'   Tokunbo is the student

(Tokunbo made a second class upper).

106'   Tokunbo is the student

(We encouraged Tokunbo).

In (c) <u>whose</u> is selected because it is the possessive form for all instances of possessive clause construction.

107(a) This is the student <u>whose</u> grade was cancelled.

  (b) The teacher <u>whose</u> lecture students love does not come late.

  (c) The dog <u>whose</u> tail was cut.

Sentences 108 and 109 explain the rule in 104:

(108) The dog which bit the baby was mad;

(109) The book which I bought is blue.

In both sentences <u>which</u> has been used because <u>dog</u> and <u>book</u> are non-human. 'Which' is also used because it functions both as the subject and object of the respective relative clauses. Thus the underlying structures:

108' The dog (The dog bites the baby) was mad.

109' The book (I bought the book) is blue.

The relative pronoun 'that' can be used instead of 'who', 'which' or 'whom' because like them it is used as subject, object and in a prepositional phrase structure. The following sentences will illustrate our point:

110(a) The beggar that won the lottery was happy [+Human].

  (b) The students killed the snake that had tormented them
           [+Non-human].

  (c) The security man that came to the house stole the money
        [+ subject].

  (d) The box that she bought was taken to Lagos [+object].

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(e) We washed the bucket that the girl vomited in
[prepositional group].

From the foregoing, it is observed that the English rules that permit relativization are so controlled to the extent that the final shape of the relative pronoun is determined by:

(i) the semantic features of the deleted noun phrase;

(ii) the grammatical relation of the noun phrase in the
phrase marker of the insert.

The condition in (i) above constitutes the semantic information that allows the process of relativization to take place while the condition in (ii) fulfils the coreferential relationship that must exist between the two noun phrases involved in the relativization process.

3.7 <u>Remarks</u>

In this chapter, we have established the concept of coreferentiality in the structural conditions that permit the processes of pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization. This is with a view to bringing out the salient requirements underlying the processes so discussed.

Of significance to this study, however, are the structural conditions discussed for each process respectively. This is because the structural conditions are to serve as the background information for the analyses and discussion, in the next chapter, of deviations which are attested among Nigerian users of English in respect of coreferentiality.

NOTES

(1) The possibility of this type of pronominalization in certain environments necessitated some linguists working separately, among whom are Lakoff, Mathews Ross, Postal, Gross and Langacker, to determine the environments and structural conditions that permit backward pronominalization.

(2) Wasow (1979) also presented the different theoretical and linguistic arguments against pronominalization. However, this work will not delve into these arguments.

(3) The sentence "I met <u>John</u> <u>the bastard</u> called me a fool" also gives us another insight into the nature of coreferentiality. The noun phrases <u>John</u> and <u>the bastard</u> share identical reference but are lexically different.

(4) The sentence in 10 is ambiguous. The pronoun 'him' in the sentence can either be interpreted without referring back to any other element in the sentence or by referring back to some other element within the sentence.

In other words, the sentence can be read as:

     (a) The $Lord_1$ inspires me to praise him_2 (somebody).

<div align="center">OR</div>

     (b) The $Lord_2$ inspires me to praise him_2 (The Lord).

We take account of only the reading in (b) because it is the one which is relevant to the point we want to make.

(5) Depending on the context, the assumption of agreement for the third person singular pronouns under discussion may or may not hold for the feature - 'case'.

(6) Ogundipe, P., Eckersley, C. And Macaulay, M. (1983) Book 4 recognise 'what' as a relative pronoun. According to them this relative pronoun has no antecedent as it seems to be antecedent and relative pronoun all in one and usually means "the thing which" or "that which". These authors also assert that 'As' is often a relative pronoun when it is used after the words 'same' and 'such'. They gave these examples:

Meet me at the same place as you did yesterday.

and

I never buy such books as you do

in place of :

Meet me at the place that you did yesterday

and

I never buy the book that you do respectively.

CHAPTER FOUR

ERROR ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

4.0 Preamble

Errors of coreferentiality recorded in the performance of Nigerian users of English are described and assigned to the three grammatical concepts exhibiting the coreferentiality principle in standard English discussed earlier in chapter three; namely, pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization.[1]

The description of the errors shall be in purely linguistic terms within the framework of Transformational Grammar. There will be no explanation, therefore, as to the sources of the errors until the next chapter.

The number in bracket after each example in this chapter refers to the appendix. Other examples which are not analysed are referred to by their numbers in the appendix.

Apart from the linguistic description of the errors, the analysis in this chapter is also to test our claim in chapter one that fundamental to most of the errors recorded in the performance of Nigerian users of English is the inadequate mastery of grammatical concepts such as number, gender, case, and person among others. The analysis is also aimed at establishing the fact that the concepts mentioned above (i.e. number, case, gender, person...) are necessarily manifested in the various structural conditions that permit the process of coreferentiality in Standard English grammar.

4.1 Errors of Pronominalization

The errors collected reflect the fact that our informants are aware of the core assumptions as well as the rules and conditions underlying the process of pronominalization. However, what is usually violated is the selection of the personal pronouns that result from the process.

As explained earlier, assumption (ii) given by Soames and Perlmutter (1979) in 3.4.2 as:

> Pronominalization applies to structures containing two coreferential, identical non-pronominal noun phrases;

implies that the personal pronoun which results from the process of pronominalization must share identical syntactic and semantic reference with some other noun phrase. With the third person singular pronoun in particular, we further stated that both noun phrases must agree in person, number, gender and case.

The basic problem, therefore, is the wrong selection of personal pronouns. This is reflected in the fact that the personal pronouns wrongly selected do not agree with their antecedents in number, case, gender and person.

171 errors are analysed from the 170 sentences in our data which have errors of pronominalization. The errors are categorized under the appropriate sections in the course of our analysis. All error sentences collected are examples of forward pronominalization.

In the analysis of these errors, the personal pronoun table provided by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) and labelled as Table 3.4.1 is employed to supply the details of the forms of the personal pronouns wrongly selected and the ones which ought to have been selected. The errors are

categorized under the following headings: Number, Case, Gender and Person.

4.1.1 Number

The personal pronouns in English, like the nouns they replace, operate a system of number, in terms of singular and plural. The errors analysed here reveal the wrong selection of the singular/plural form. In all, 47 errors appeared under this heading and they are analysed under the following sub-sections:

(i) Wrong selection of the singular form, and

(ii)   Wrong selection of the plural form.

4.1.1.1 Wrong Selection of the Singular Forms

In this subsection, 29 errors are analysed. The errors are broken into six sub-types as: wrong selection of:

(i)   Its instead of their

(ii) His instead of their

(iii) He instead of they

(iv) It instead of them

(v) His/her instead of their and

(vi) It instead of they.

The example sentences corresponding to each of these sub-type are:

1(a) Formal languages are non-verbal forms of languages that convey its[a] meaning through certain principles designed by logicians or mathematicians for their selves[b] (54a).

(b) These two examples are subjected to different meanings

according to <u>its</u> uses (64).

2(a) <u>Some of the students</u> who do not read well for <u>his</u> education will end up badly (5)

(b) English in Nigeria is not a mother tongue language. This is because <u>the users</u> have already acquired <u>his</u> mother tongue 'that is, the first language (62).

3 (a) <u>Many people</u> have no occupation so their next option is to look for where to farm because with this <u>he</u> will be able to afford three square meal (12).

(b) <u>Our forefathers</u> that cannot read will be hard to convince on the importance of agriculture rather <u>he</u> would prefer to offer sacrifice to please the gods of the land for a good and plenty harvest (25).

4 (a) <u>The books</u> are few in number and students have to photostat them before they gain access to <u>it</u> (20).

(b) Moreover, <u>some words</u> have another meaning given to <u>it</u> (65).

5. <u>Some students</u> are the cause of <u>his/her</u> failure in the examination (41).

6. <u>Many views</u> were expressed about the phonology of Nigerian English, <u>it</u> include that of Amayo, Atoye, Dairo etc. (59).

In all the example sentences cited above, the choice of the singular pronoun forms: <u>its</u>, in (1a and b); <u>his</u> in (2a and b); <u>he</u> in (3a and b); <u>it</u> in (4a and b); <u>his/her</u> in (5) and <u>it</u> in (6) is wrong because the underlined have the feature specification [+ singular] and cannot be used to refer back to antecedent noun phrases which have the feature specification [+ plural].

Let us illustrate this point further by highlighting the antecedent noun phrases in our example sentences:

1' (a) Formal languages

   (b) These two examples

2' (a) some of the students

   (b) the users

3' (a) many people

   (b) our forefathers

4' (a) The books

   (b) Some words

5'   some students

6'   many views

All the antecedent noun phrases are specified for the plural form and they are expected to be replaced by plural pronouns and not singular ones. In subtype (i, ii and v) the third person plural possessive from their ought to have been selected instead of its (the third person singular non-person possessive form); his (the third person singular, masculine, possessive form); and his/her (the third person singular masculine/feminine possessive form) respectively. The error in subtype (v) is similar to that of (ii). The difference between them is in the fact that the antecedent noun phrase 'some students' in (5) is unspecified between the feature [+ masculine] and [+ feminine]. This means that among the students being referred to, some will carry the feature specification [+ masculine] while others will be marked [+ feminine]. The pronoun their ought to have been selected in spite of the fact that the antecedent noun phrase is not specified for gender.

In subtype (iii) and (iv) the third person plural subjective form, 'they', is the appropriate pronoun needed instead of He (the third person singular,

masculine, subjective form) and <u>it</u> (the third person singular non-person subjective form).

The third person plural objective form, <u>them,</u> ought to have been chosen in subtype (iv) instead of the choice of '<u>it</u>' (the third person singular non-person form).

The highest number of errors under this subsection is recorded under subtype (i). Other examples of this subtype are 47, 48, 52, 53, 57 61, 63 and 129 in the appendix. Examples 13, 17, 50 and 87(a) of the appendix are errors of subtype (ii). Other examples in the appendix belonging to this sub-category are: 117, 122, 128, 134, 150, 159 and 166.

4.1.1.2 <u>Wrong Selection of the Plural Forms</u>

Errors of this type recorded in our data are 18 in number. In the 18 cases, the antecedent noun phrases are in their singular forms while, the resulting personal pronouns from the process of pronominalization are pluralized. In other words, the plural forms of the personal pronouns have been wrongly used. The errors are found in the following sentences.

(7) <u>A child</u> will not care to pick up <u>their</u> books after school (10).

(8) A farmer who does not know how <u>a particular</u> machine should be used find it so difficult to use <u>them</u> (11).

(9)   If <u>the person</u> don't want any problem with them <u>they</u> give out money (27).

(10) If <u>any country</u> would develop at all, <u>they</u> should first of all develop <u>their</u> agricultural sector (28).

(11)   The people <u>I</u> met there told <u>us</u> that he has moved from that house (36).

(12)   <u>My father</u> informed his friend that <u>they</u>^{a} should lend

he^b money <u>they</u>^{a} refused (39a).

(13)   <u>Free morpheme</u> is a morpheme that can stand on

<u>their</u> own (49).

In sentence 7 the third person singular masculine/feminine possessive form, <u>his/her</u>, ought to have been selected instead of <u>'their'</u> (the third person plural possessive form).   The antecedent noun phrase in this sentence is: "a child" and this carries the feature specification [+ singular]; it is therefore wrong to have selected a pronoun marked for the plural form. Either his or her ought to have been selected depending on whether the child being referred to is a boy or a girl.

The antecedent noun phrase in 8 carries the feature specification [+ singular] and [+ non-person]; it is expected that the personal pronoun which results from the pronominalization process should be the third person singular non-person objective form 'it' instead of the third person plural objective form 'them'.

'The person' which is the antecedent noun phrase in 9 is not specified for the feature [+ masculine] or [+ feminine] but it is specified for the features [+ singular / human]. Depending on the context therefore 'he or she' is the appropriate personal pronoun to select. The selection of the third person plural subjective form, <u>they</u>, is wrong in this instance.

In example 10, the third person plural subjective form, "<u>they</u>", and its possessive counterpart, "<u>their</u>", are wrongly selected in place of "<u>she</u>" and "<u>her</u>", the third person singular feminine subjective and possessive form respectively.   Apart from the fact that the antecedent noun phrase '<u>any country</u> is specified for the feature [+ singular], it is also the case in standard English usage that the feminine pronoun 'she' or 'her' is used to

refer to a country depending on whether the subjective or objective possessive form is employed.

In sentence 11, what is required is the first person singular objective form 'me' and not its plural counterpart, <u>us</u>. The antecedent noun phrase in this sentence is the pronoun 'I'. It is marked as the first person singular subjective form.

The error sentence in 12 is very close to that analysed in 9. The difference is in the fact that the feature [+ masculine] is implied for the antecedent noun phrase in 12 in addition to its being specified for [+ singular] [+ human]. Unlike 9 where the choice of personal pronoun could either be 'he' or 'she', the choice here is specified. In sentence 12, the antecedent noun phrase is "his friend" and is specified for [+ singular] because the noun 'friend' is not marked for the plural form. The feature [+ masculine] is implied because the informant is talking about his father's friend and in the absence of further information on the gender of the word `friend' the masculine pronoun will normally be used. In the two instances where 'they'- (the third person plural subjective form) is used , the third person singular masculine subjective form 'he' ought to have been selected.

In sentence 13, '<u>their</u>' - the third person plural possessive form-is employed instead of <u>its</u> which is the appropriate personal pronoun. The choice of <u>its</u> is informed by the fact that the antecedent noun phrase in sentence (13) is marked for [+ non-person] in addition to [+ singular]. The antecedent noun phrase here is:

$$\text{Free morpheme} \quad \begin{bmatrix} + \text{ singular} \\ + \text{ non - person} \end{bmatrix}$$

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The use of 'their' - a plural personal pronoun-is therefore inappropriate if we go by the structural condition that states that the personal pronoun must agree with its antecedent in terms of number, person, case and gender. Other errors recorded here include 68, 71, 75, 82, 85, 116, 136, 139, 140, 141 and 161 in the appendix.

In all the instances stated under Wrong Selection of the Singular Forms (4.1.1.1) and Wrong Selection of the Plural Form (4.1.1.2) the antecedent noun phrases and the resulting personal pronoun do not agree in terms of number.

4.1.2 <u>Case</u>

The feature specifications for 'case' in standard English grammar are subjective, objective and possessive (see Table 3.4.1). Personal pronouns functioning at subject position are the ones referred to as subjective while those functioning as object or complement are designated objective. The possessive pronoun functions as modifier in a noun phrase and can therefore not function as the head noun.

In general, the basic problem of the subjects is the inability to distinguish which personal pronouns are marked for the subjective as opposed to those marked for objective or possessive.

Errors recorded in this category are 39 in all. They are divided into three sub-categories according to the feature specifications identified under case. They are:

(i) Wrong selection of the subjective forms.

(ii) Wrong selection of the objective forms.

(iii) Wrong selection of the possessive forms.

4.1.2.1 Wrong Selection of the Subjective Forms

Two types of errors are identified. The first type concerns the use of the subjective form instead of the objective form while the other type has to do with the use of the subjective form instead of the possessive form. In all, 19 errors are recorded, 17 belonging to the first type and 2 to the second type.

4.1.2.1.1 The Subjective Forms Selected Instead of the Objective Forms

The 17 errors under this heading are further subdivided into four types.

(i) "He" instead of "Him"

There are, 11 instances of this error. In all of them, the personal pronoun 'him' ought to have been selected because the noun phrases which undergo pronominalization in all these sentences function at the object/complement position and not at the subject position. The following sentences contain examples of this error:

(14) They promised he when he got there (15).

(15) He went to a friend to borrow some amount from he and

   this friend agreed to lend he the money (26).

(16) The name of the man is Mr. Okoro and they nickname

   he as "Mihero" (35).

(17) My father informed his friend that they[a] should lend he[b]

   money they[a] refused (39b).

Other sentences containing the type of error under this category are 16, 19, 32, 33, 37, 38 and 109.

(ii) "They" instead of "them"

4 errors are recorded. In all the four cases, the third person plural objective form, "them", ought to have been selected instead of "they" - the

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third person plural subjective form. The choice of the third person plural objective form is informed by the fact that the noun phrase being pronominalized functions in the object position and must be replaced by an objective pronoun which corresponds with the antecedent noun phrase in terms of "person" and "number".

The example are:

    (18)   I will appeal to <u>all students</u> to schedule their time-table to enable <u>they</u> read well (18).

    (19)   It is now very rampant among secondary school teachers not to teach <u>their</u> <u>students</u> instead they will ask <u>they</u> to bring money (21).

    (20)   <u>Most of them</u> stay away from school and this makes <u>they</u> to fail when they later come to study (31).

Another example of this type of error is 112.

(iii)   <u>"He/she" in place of "He/her"</u>

    2 errors are recorded here.

    (21) By bribing the teacher <u>the student</u> will have it in mind that   <u>he</u> has someone who is to help <u>he</u> or <u>she</u> (34).

    The subject of the above sentence is the noun phrase "the student". In referring back to this noun phrase the third person singular masculine subjective form 'he' is selected as is evident from the choice of 'he' and not 'she' in the clause:

        "that <u>he</u> has someone..."

The choice of 'he' in this clause as opposed to 'she', its feminine counterpart, has specified the subject - "the student" with the feature [+ masculine]. However, in referring back to "the student" in the clause:

who is to help <u>he or she</u>

the third person singular masculine subjective form "he" is not only wrongly chosen but is further alternated with its feminine counterpart 'she' even when the noun phrase which serves as the antecedent has been specified as [+ masculine]. The pronoun which ought to have been selected in this sentence is "him" - the objective form of the third person singular, masculine. A similar error is also recorded in :

   (22) For instance <u>a student</u> who does not respect <u>his</u> parent

       talkless of the elders or people senior to him or <u>she</u> (43).

In 22 the choice of the third person singular feminine subjective form, '<u>she</u>, is not only inappropriate, it is also unnecessary. This is because the antecedent noun phrase, 'a student', has been specified for the feature [+ masculine] with the choice of the third person singular masculine possessive form, "<u>his</u>, as the modifier of "parent" which is obviously related to student.

(iv) <u>"My" in place of "Mine"</u>

   In the error recorded here, the first person singular possessive form 'my' has been wrongly used in the object position where the form "mine" is required. This can be seen in 22(a):

   22 (a)   Though I gave a friend of <u>my</u> to assist in completing my

       registration (147).

4. 1. 2. 1. 2 <u>The Subjective Forms Selected Instead of the Possessive</u>

       <u>Forms</u>

Two errors are recorded under this sub-category. They are :

(23)   They don't even care to correct <u>they</u> children (29).

(24) While in class a teacher may ask <u>he</u> students to bring out

their

mathematical set for construction work (44).

In 23 above, the selection of the third person plural subjective form -"they" as a means of showing possessive is wrong. In its place "their" -the possessive form of the third person plural - ought to have been used.

In 24 the third person singular masculine possessive form, "his", ought to have been selected instead of, "he", - the subjective form of the third person   singular masculine. In these two instances, the possessive pronouns "their" and "his" which ought to have been chosen respectively function as modifiers and not as a noun phrase.

4. 1. 2. 2 <u>Wrong Selection of the Objective Forms</u>

Two types of errors are identified here. In the first type, the objective forms of the personal pronouns are wrongly selected instead of the subjective forms which are required. In the other type of error, the possessive form is required but the objective form has been selected. Of the 16 errors recorded 9 belong to the first category of error while 7 are identified for the latter.

4. 1. 2. 2. 1 <u>The Objective Forms Selected Instead of the Subjective Forms</u>

The errors recorded under this sub-category are:

(25) If this student should continue with this bad attitude <u>him</u>

or <u>her</u> is bound to fail his or her WAEC/GCE exam (24);

(26) My father sent for his friend who lives in Kano that <u>him</u>

should send some money (9);

(27) <u>me</u> and my family haven't had any problem since then

  (1);

(28) <u>me</u> and <u>him</u> came to your house yesterday (2);

(29) The students continue in their bad ways. Whereas at the

  end <u>them</u> find themselves to blame (30).

In each of these error sentences, the objective pronoun has been selected to occupy the subjective position. In sentence 25, for instance, the subjective pronoun "he or she" ought to have been selected in place of "him or her". In 26, the choice of the third person singular masculine objective form "him" is also wrong. What ought to have been selected is 'he', its subjective counterpart.   In 27, the first person singular subjective form "I" ought to have been selected because the first person singular objective form "me" <u>cannot</u> and <u>should</u> not function in the subjective position. In addition the conjoined noun phrase "my family" should have also come first before the appropriate pronoun "I" .   In other words, the sentence should have read:

(30) my family and I haven't had any problem since then.

Sentence 28 also ought to have been:

(31) He and I came to your house yesterday.

In 29, "They" ought to have been selected instead of "them". Other errors in this sub-category are found in examples 3, 4, 113 and 115 in the appendix.

4.1.2.2.2   <u>The Objective Form Selected Instead of the Possessive Form</u>

  7 errors are recorded here. The following are some examples:

  32 (a) How really can a student in a school without science

  equipment pass <u>him</u> or her examination (14).

(b) Sango is accompanied on stage with lighting (fire) which gives a kind of cinematic effect in the appearance and departure <u>of him</u> (15b) .

(c) By and large the drama is commendable not minding some of <u>it</u> shortfalls (163).

In sentence 32(a), the third person singular masculine objective form, "him", is

wrongly selected. What is needed in this position is the possessive form of the third person singular masculine functioning as a modifier.

In 32(b), the form "of him" is inappropriately used.

The sentence should have read:

32(b') Sango is accompanied on stage with lighting (fire) which gives a kind of cinematic effect in <u>his</u> appearance and departure.

In other words, the third person singular masculine possessive form is what is needed.

The sentence in 32(c) is wrong because the third person singular non-person objective form 'its', the non-person possessive counter part, is required. Other examples in the appendix are 123, 138,158 and 167.

4. 1. 2. 3   <u>Wrong Selection of the Possessive Forms</u>

In the two of the three errors recorded here, possessive pronouns have been wrongly selected where subjective pronouns ought to have been appropriate. The examples are:

(33) I think taking my problems to him will be too much for him because <u>his</u> is the backbone of the family (8).

(34) mother is used to refer not only to one's maternal

projenitor but any relation as old as <u>hers</u> (66).

As we have remarked in chapter three, personal pronouns in their possessive forms function as modifier and can therefore, not operate as full nouns like their subjective and objective counterparts. In 33 what is required in place of 'his' is the subjective form, "he". In sentence 34 also, the subjective form of the third person singular feminine - "she"- should have been selected instead of <u>hers.</u> The addition of "s" to "her" in our example shows that our informant in this particular sentence selected the possessive form because the possessive form is also marked in English by an apostrophe and an 's' for singular subject and an apostrophe after plural subject. Sentence 149 in the appendix is another example.

The third error is ("The types of language used by any individual depends on the environment or situation he or she finds <u>his</u> or herself"). In this sentence, the third person singular masculine objective form, 'him', is required where 'his', the possessive form, has been used.

4.1.3. <u>Gender</u>

A significant feature of the third person singular personal pronouns as we can see in Table 3.4.1. is the distinction made in terms of gender - masculine, feminine and non - person. 35 errors are recorded under this category.   These errors are   further divided into three different sub-sections reflecting the feature specifications under gender.

4.1.3.1 <u>Wrong Selection of the Non-Person Forms</u>

11 of the 35 errors recorded belong to this sub-category. From these 11 errors, three types of errors are identified.

(i)   The Selection of "it" instead of "He"

There are two errors recorded here:

(35) I hope that the boy will not die at this time because <u>it</u> is
       very good at games (22).

(36) when the government gave gun to Iyamu as Inspector, <u>it</u>
       will sell it to Anini (24).

In both cases the antecedent noun phrases "the boy" in 35 and Iyamu in 36 have the feature specification [+ masculine]. It is therefore expected that the third person singular masculine subjective form <u>'he'</u> would be selected in order for the personal pronoun 'he' in both sentences to conform with their antecedent noun phrases. However, the non-person subjective form, "it", has been wrongly selected. Sentence 169 in the appendix is another example.

(ii) The Selection of "its" instead of "His/Her"

In the 7 error sentences recorded, the third person singular masculine or feminine possessive form "his or her" is required depending on whether the antecedent noun phrase in each sentence is specified for [+ masculine] or [+ feminine]. However, " its", the non-person possessive form has been wrongly selected. The examples are:

(37) The relationship between the speaker and the hearer, if
       it is between a lecturer and <u>its</u> student in the classroom
       the relation will be formal (55).

(38) Individual bilingualism: this is when an individual has
       two languages for <u>its</u> communication needs (60). Other
       examples are 74, 80, 121, 142 and 154.

(iii) The Selection of "it" instead of "His/Her"

Only one error is identified in this sub-category:

(39) If a child is taken into isolation, that is, taken away from

it environment into a forest where he cannot interact

with human beings ...(57).

In place of the third person singular non-person subjective/objective form - "it", "his or her" - the third person singular masculine/feminine possessive form should have been selected depending on the feature specification given to the antecedent noun phrase "a child" which could either be specified for [+ masculine] or [+ feminine]. Alternatively, 'its', could have been used here, as it is normally used for very young babies.

4. 1. 3. 2 Wrong Selection of the Masculine Form

The errors here are:

(40) It simply means the type of morpheme which cannot

stand on his own (45).

(41) Morphological conditioning is a process whereby we

change the form of a word not according to its

surrounding or his relations with other morphemes (46).

(42) Standard English can be written or spoken.

Under spoken form we can hear it on the English

programme (BBC) in his written form it is also made

use of on the television (58).

(43) Mother has also been looking for money by selling some

of his property (7).

In sentences 40 - 42, "its," the non - person possessive form in the third person ought to have been selected but, "his", the masculine possessive form, has been wrongly selected.

In sentence 43 the possessive form that ought to modify the noun "property" should have been "her" - the feminine possessive form - because the antecedent noun phrase "mother" has the feature specification [+ feminine]. Similar errors in the appendix include 67 ,69, 72, 73, 76, 77, 78, 79, 84, 144 and 151.

4. 1. 3. 3 Wrong Selection of the Feminine Form

7 errors are recorded under this sub - category. Examples are:

(44) There was a time a policeman killed an innocent fellow and when he got home he told her wife that he has caught a grasscutter (6).

(45) Even with my dad old age I still discussed the matter with her (23).

In (44), the personal pronoun "his" ought to have been selected as modifier for the noun "wife" since the antecedent noun phrase "a policeman" has already been marked for the feature [+ masculine] by the selection of "he" and not "she" in the clause: "when he got home" The choice of "her" is therefore wrong.

In 45 the personal pronoun required is the third person singular masculine objective form - "Him". This choice is informed by the fact that the pronoun is used in this position to refer back to a [+ masculine] noun phrase. Other examples are 70, 81, 83, 118, 133, 143 and 153.

4. 1. 4 Person

Under personal pronouns in 3.4.1 we observed in the explanation of the Table that one of the features possessed by personal pronouns is the feature - person. This feature is specified for:

the first person - the speaker.

second person - person or audience being

addressed.

third person   - the person being spoken about

but who is not present.

In this category, only 2 errors are recorded. One of the errors involves the wrong selection of a second person pronoun when a third person pronoun is what is required.

In this error:

(46) We poured water on her but <u>you</u> refused to respond to

the water (40).

The choice of <u>her</u> as the object complement presupposes that the person on whom water is being poured is specified for the feature [+ feminine]. A recourse to the context in which this sentence is used also indicates that our informant in this sentence is reporting an event which happened to someone, the third person singular subjective form "she" is what is needed in the context where, "you", the second person subjective form, has been used. The other error is the one identified in the appendix as 108. In that error, the first person singular subjective form 'I' has been wrongly used where 'he' - the third person singular subjective form is needed.

4.1.5 <u>Others</u>

The errors under this heading are those that cannot be specifically classified under any of our previous headings - number, case, gender and persons. The errors have been sub-divided into five subsections.

4. 1. 5. 1 <u>The Use of Noun Instead of Pronoun</u>

In our discussion of pronouns in chapter three (3. 3) we remarked that etymologically, pronouns are words used in place of nouns. We also stated that they are like nouns in syntactic function and in their capacity to follow prepositions. In 47, the only sentence containing this error, a pronoun ought to have been used in the place of the noun selected.

(47) Sango appeared later and everyone bowed in awe of

<u>Sango</u> (160).

Here, the third person singular masculine objective form, "him", is required instead of repeating the noun - 'Sango'.

4. 1. 5. 2 <u>Omission of the Pronoun</u>

The errors described under this sub - heading involve the omission of personal pronouns where they are required. The following are some examples:

(48) The bridegroom was so happy that ∠ couldn't say

anything but

he was just laughing (106).

(49) Thanks the bride and bridegroom for making him the

chairman of the day and ∠ prayed for them (114).

(50) ... I started dreaming of what ∠ want to become in

future

(170).

In sentences 48 and 49 the third person singular masculine subjective form - he - is required. In 50 the pronoun that has been omitted is the first person singular subjective form - 'I'. Six errors were recorded in all. The others are: 107, 110 and 126.

4. 1. 5. 3 <u>Unnecessary Use of the Neuter Form</u>

In the only error recorded here, the use of the third person singular non-person form, 'it', is redundant.

> (51) ... but the utterance rather than refer to a section in the
>
> constitution <u>it</u> is used by people to refer to the criminal
>
> or person found guilty of the offence (124).

4. 1. 5. 4 <u>Wrong Usage</u>

Two types of errors are identified under this heading. the first deals with the wrong use of the possessive forms while the second deals with the wrong use of the subjective form. Examples of the first type of errors are:

> 52 (a) it also gives a beautiful aroma in addition to its good
>
> quality while <u>its</u> being cooked (127).
>
> (b) <u>Their</u> was a police man around (98).
>
> (c) <u>Their</u> characters were okay although they could do
>
> better, not all of them were serious enough (168).
>
> (d) ... matching pairs of statements and responses etc.
>
> accompanied by precise instruction to the texts on how
>
> to record <u>his</u> responses (137).
>
> (e) What a miracle <u>his</u> this (103).

In all of the sentences above, the personal pronouns underlined ought not to have been used at all. The grammatical form required in 52 (a) is 'it's' the short form of 'it is' and not 'its' - the third person singular non-person possessive form. In 52 (b), the introductory subject 'there' is required. The definite article 'the' is the grammatical form appropriate for 52 (c) and 52 (d); while the singular third person present tense form of "the

verb to be", 'is', is required in 52(e). Other examples in the appendix are: 148, 164, 99, 100(a), 101, 102, 104, 105, 130, 131, 165.

The second type of error is exemplified in:

(53) They <u>we</u> joined together (III).

The choice of the first person plural subjective form, 'we', is completely out of place in this sentence. What is required here is, 'were,' the plural third person past tense form of 'the verb to be'.

4.1.5.5. <u>The Use of Other Grammatical Forms Where Personal Pronouns</u>
         <u>are</u> <u>Required</u>

The examples recorded are:

54 (a)   And <u>will</u> just wave for the motor (86).

   (b) Fixed the date of <u>there</u> marriage (91).

   (c) When <u>the</u> got there, the programme started (93).

   (d) 'The prodigal son': The play 'bends' away from the
       course charted by <u>it's</u> biblical parallel (115).

   (e) Aircraft   as   we   know   is   the   fastest   means   of
       transportation and <u>is</u> does not usually involve in hold-
       up (125).

   (f) He is the managing director and chief executive officer
       of a fictitious import and export firm which has <u>is</u> head
       office in Lagos (132).

In all the sentences cited, personal pronouns are required where other grammatical forms have been used.   'We'   is the pronoun that is appropriate in 54(a). In 54(b) the possessive form 'their' is required in place of the introductory subject - 'there'. The definite article 'the' is also wrongly selected in 54 (c); the third person plural subjective form, 'they',

is what is required. In place of the contracted form 'it's' in 54(d), 'its',
the third person singular neuter possessive form, ought to have been used.
The choice of 'is' in 54(e) is also wrong. In its place 'it' - the third person
singular neuter subjective form - is required. Finally in 54(f), the third
person singular neuter possessive form - 'its'- is the appropriate
grammatical form instead of the choice of, 'is', the singular, third person
present tense form of 'the verb to be'. Other errors recorded in this
category are: 87, 88, 89, 90, 92, 100(b), 145, 146, 152, 157, 94, 95, 96, 97,
162 and 119.

4.2 Errors of Reflexivization

    From the data, sentences reflecting deviations in the use of reflexives
among Nigerians have been categorised with a view to showing how the
structural conditions for reflexivization discussed in 3.5.2. have been
violated. 55 sentences are recorded in this category. However, a total of 66
errors are analysed here because some of the error sentences exhibits more
than one deviation.

4.2.1 Wrong Selection

    The error in this category are analysed under two subsections:

    (i)   Use of reflexives instead of personal pronouns, and

    (ii) Use of a personal pronoun instead of a reflexive

26 errors are recorded under this heading.

4.2.1.1 Use of Reflexives Instead of Personal Pronouns

    25 of the 26 errors recorded are analysed under two types of error:

    (i) Conjoined Noun phrases, and

(ii) Single Noun Phrase.

4.2.1.1.1 Conjoined Noun Phrases

From the data collected, this deviation is the most prevalent among Nigerian users of English as 22 of the 25 errors recorded belong to this sub-category. The following are some of the examples:

(55) The driver and <u>myself</u> went upstairs (171).

(56) On the bench outside was <u>myself</u> and twelve others (172).

(57) The bank manager was good to <u>myself</u> and my people (174).

(58) <u>Myself</u> and my family are happy (176).

(59) The Oba persuaded the police to detain <u>himself</u> and his people (177).

(60) Alhaji Arisekola Alao and myself went to see him around 10.00p.m. Saturday, March 12 (180).

(61) <u>Myself</u> and all our children wish you many happy returns of the day (182).

(62)   <u>Myself</u> and the personnel manager were busy discussing (187).

(63)   <u>Myself</u> and a friend were in front, so we got captured (200).

A look at these examples reveals that there is a violation of some of the structural conditions that permit reflexivization identified in 3.5.2 and ultimately the resultant reflexive pronouns are wrongly selected.   In examples 55, 60, 61, 62, and 63, there is the violation of the constraint that states that a reflexive pronoun cannot function as the subject of a simple

sentence.   In standard English usage, personal pronouns are more acceptable in <u>these</u> cases. For example:

55[!]   The driver and I went upstairs.

58[!]   My family and I are happy.

The left to right operation of reflexivization is violated in example 59:

The Oba persuaded the police to detain <u>himself</u> and his people.

The underlying structure of this sentence can be written as:

(64) The Oba persuaded the police

The police detained <u>himself</u> (the Oba) and his people.

From this underlying structure it is obvious that in 59 there is no preceding noun phrase in the embedded infinitival complement 'S' which has a referential identity with the reflexive pronoun in the object position. In addition, the deep structure underlying this sentence also reveals a violation of the clause-mate restriction since <u>himself</u> and its intended referential noun phrase, <u>the Oba</u>, are in two separate clauses.

In examples 56 and 57 the reflexive pronoun, 'myself', is used without an antecedent which is a necessary pre-requisite for reflexivization (cf 3.5.2)

Other examples that can be categorized under conjoined noun phrases are: 173, 175, 179, 181, 183, 184, 185, 189, 190, 202, 204, 206 and 225.

4. 2. 1. 1. 2 <u>Single Noun Phrase</u>

Unlike conjoined noun phrases, the reflexive pronouns in this subsection occur alone as noun phrases without being conjoined by another non-reflexive noun phrase. The example sentences that reveal this deviation in our data are three.

(65)   <u>myself</u> was very happy that you received the letter

        (178).

(66)   I am a civil servant and <u>himself</u> was jobless (186).

(67)   I myself is looking forward to see the photograph of

        <u>your</u>-<u>self</u>^b (193^a).

The structural condition that forbids a reflexive pronoun from functioning as the subject of a sentence is violated in 65. The sentence should have read:

(68) I was very happy that you received the letter.

In sentence 66 two simple sentences are conjoined.

69 (a) I am a civil servant.

    (b) He was jobless.

69(b) shows that the third person singular masculine subjective personal pronoun 'he' ought to have been used as the subject of the second sentence instead of the third person masculine singular reflexive pronoun, 'himself', which has been used. Again, this is a violation of the constraint that reflexives cannot occur in the subject position of a sentence.

In example 67, the selection of the second person singular reflexive form <u>your</u>^(a)- <u>self</u>^(b) is inappropriate in that context, the second person singular possessive form, 'your'ought to have been selected. Thus the phrase:

the photograph of <u>your</u>^(a) - <u>self</u>^(b)

ought to have been:

        Your photograph.

4. 2. 1. 2 Use of a Personal pronoun Instead of a Reflexive

Only one example of this type of error is reflected in our data.

(70) When one has acquired the basic knowledge of Agricultural Science in school he will be able to help him[a] survive this present economic predicament and also make one-self [b] relevant (19la).

An understanding of this sentence shows that the selection of the third person singular masculine subjective form 'he' in the clause:

he will be able to help him.

is used to refer back to the indefinite form 'one'in the clause:

when one has acquired the basic knowledge...

It follows from this premise, that the subject of the clause: "when one has acquired the basic knowledge..." and the subject of the clause: "he will be able to help him" should be coreferential. It is expected therefore that the direct object of the clause:

He will be able to help him

should be "himself"- (the third person masculine singular reflexive pronoun) - instead of 'him'- (the third person singular masculine objective personal pronoun).   The choice of 'him' instead of 'himself' in this sentence, gives the impression that a different person, that is, a third person other than the person "who acquired the basic knowledge", is being referred to.   In addition, the choice of "one-self" is also wrong.   In its place we should still have the reflexive pronoun 'himself'.   The sentence should have been:

(71)   When one has acquired the basic knowledge of Agricultural Science in school he will be able to help

himself survive this present economic predicament and

also make himself relevant.

4.2.2 <u>Wrong Usage</u>

In the errors analysed here, the reflexive pronouns concerned have been used wrongly as emphatic forms. Three errors are recorded. In 3. 5. 1, we stated that reflexive pronouns can function as intensifier in order to create emphasis. The three errors recorded reflect this fact. The examples are:

(72) <u>Myself</u>, Arthur we will go to Aso villa, we discussed the

next plan (205).

(73) There are various terms that are being used by them

which ordinary laymen cannot understand by <u>they</u>

<u>themselves</u> (198).

When reflexives function as intensifier they either modify the subject or they have a referential potential, identical to the subject while the reflexive pronoun involved serves to emphasise the subject.

In sentence 72, the subject 'I' ought to have come before the reflexive 'myself' since 'myself' is used here as an intensifier and should serve to emphasise the subject of the sentence with which it has a referential potential.

The use of the third person plural subjective personal pronoun 'they' in 73 is not necessary because of the apparent coreferentiality between the noun phrase 'ordinary laymen' and the reflexive pronoun 'themselves'. Another example can be found in 74:

(74) Also some indigenous languages <u>itself</u> are not

universally accepted among themselves (199).

The meaning that can be read into this sentence is that the reflexive pronoun 'itself' serves to modify the noun phrase, 'some indigenous languages', which serves as the subject of the sentence. Since the subject is marked for plurality even an emphatic reading of the sentence will not still justify the use of 'itself' since there is still no agreement between the subject and the reflexive pronoun that serves to modify it. This is because 'itself' is a singular reflexive and cannot be used to refer to a noun phrase marked for plurality. The use of 'itself ' is therefore wrong in this context.

4.2.3 Improper Selection of the Reflexive Forms

In the errors recorded the reflexive forms selected do not agree with their antecedents in certain features.

One of the structural conditions stated in 3.5.2 is that the two noun phrases involved in the reflexivization process (The antecedent and the target NP) must agree in terms of number, person and gender. In all the examples recorded under this categorisation this restriction is violated. Examples are:

(75) If everybody should involve <u>themselves</u> in going to farm (194).

(76) When one has acquired the basic knowledge of Agricultural Science in school he will be able to help <u>him</u>[a] survive this present economic predicament and also make <u>one-self</u>[b] relevant (191b).

The subject of sentence 75 is 'everybody'. In standard English 'everybody' is specified for [+ singular] [+ third person]. However, a plural third person reflexive pronoun, <u>themselves</u>, is improperly selected

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because the choice does not agree with the subject 'everybody' in terms of the feature [+ singular].

Sentence 76 is the same sentence considered as 70 under 4.2.1.2. The choice of 'one-self', an indefinite form, does not correlate with the correct antecedent noun phrase, 'himself' which is specified for the features: [+ singular] [+third person]   [+ masculine]. However if, 'one', had been used in place of, 'he', in the clause - he ill be able to help him - (as some authorities insist) the use of, oneself', could have been justified.   Other examples in the appendix are 209a, 219, 220, 221, 223 and 224.

4.2.4   <u>Wrong Realization</u>

The deviations considered under this heading have some morphological bearing as they have to do with the formation and spellings of reflexives. Some of the sentences recorded exhibit more than one deviation and they have been appropriately specified alphabetically. Three types of error are identified as follows:

4.2.4.1   <u>Wrong Specification of Reflexives</u>

A look at the "Reflexive Pronouns" section of Table 3.5.1 reveals that reflexive pronouns are not specified for the subjective and possessive forms. However, in the errors recorded here, the reflexive pronouns selected are wrongly specified for the feature [+ possessive]. Examples are:

(77) Formal languages are non-verbal forms of languages

that convey <u>its</u>[a] meaning through certain principles

designed by logicians or mathematicians for <u>theirselves</u>[b]

(54b).

(78) Those from poor parents will like to achieve his[a] own aim and to protect his[a]- self[b] (188b).

(79) If Agricultural Science is not made compulsory in the secondary school, young school leavers will not engage their[b] -self[a] (192a).

(80)   The agric science which they learnt in school will help them to have thier[b] - self[a] employed   (196a).

The forms, 'theirselves', "theirself" and "hisself", which are used in these examples do not exist in English. Other examples are 216, 217 and 218 in the appendix.

4.2.4.2 Wrong Graphological Realization

The errors are:

 (81)   Those from poor parents will like to achieve his[a] own aim and to protect his[c] self [b] (188c).

(82) When one has acquired the basic knowledge of Agricultural Science in school he will be able to help him[a] survive this present economic predicament and also make one[c]-self[b] relevant (191c).

 (83) If Agricultural Science is not made compulsory in the secondary school, young school leavers will not like to engage their[b]-self[a] (192b).

(84) I myself is looking forward to see the photograph of your[b]-self[a] (193b).

 (85) It will help most of the lazy students to participate in farming especially the children from rich homes who will never like to do any work by them[b] - self [a] (195b).

(86) The agric science which they learnt in school will help

them to have their [(b)] - self [(a)] employed (196b).

Graphologically, the reflexive pronouns are compound words written without a hyphen or separation. In other words, the reflexive pronouns in English are written as one word. In the error sentences above, the hyphen has been employed to separate the pronouns: 'his', 'their', 'your; and 'them' and their reflexive ending - 'self'.

4.2.4.3 <u>Wrong Inflectional Ending</u>

One basic difference in the form of the personal pronouns and the reflexive pronouns is the fact that the reflexive pronouns have inflectional endings - self and selves. The former (self) is the singular form while the latter (selves) is the plural. In the errors recorded here the singular inflectional form, self, has been wrongly used.

(87) It will help most of the lazy students to participate in

farming especially the children from poor homes who

will never like to do any work by them [(b)]- self[(a)] (195a)

(88) When educated people discuss among <u>themself</u> they use

the word they understand (201).

In sentence 87 and 88 the pronoun 'them' is specified for [+ plural], it is therefore appropriate to use the inflectional ending - 'selves' which is also marked for [+ plural] instead of its singular counterpart. A similar error is also recorded in the inflectional endings employed in error sentences 192(a), 196(a), 208(b), 209(b), 211, 212 and 222(b) of the appendix.

Another error recorded under this subsection is the wrong realization of the singular inflectional ending as 'selve' instead of the appropriate spelling 'self'. The example here is:

(89) Code switching involves the bilingual individual
making use of the two languages simultaneously in
expressing <u>himselve</u> (197).

4.2.5 <u>The Third Person Plural Reflexive Pronoun Selected Instead of the Reciprocal Pronoun</u>

In the English language the reciprocal pronoun shows an exchange of action from one person to another or from a set of people to another set. Hodges and Whitten (1984: 553) maintain that the reciprocal pronoun is a compound pronoun expressing an interchangeable or mutual action or relationship.   Reciprocal pronouns therefore are used when the action expressed by the verb is shared by those concerned. When two people are involved, the reciprocal pronoun "each other" is used; while the reciprocal 'one another' is preferred when more than two people or things are involved.   In the errors recorded under this categorisation, the reflexive pronoun 'themselves' has been selected where "each other" or "one another" is required. The errors are analysed under two sub-sections as:

4. 2. 5. 1 <u>"Themselves" Instead of "Each other"</u>

5 errors are identified in this category. The following are three of them:

(90) How   Yetunde and Michael came across   <u>themselves</u>
(207).

(91) The couple had agreed to marry <u>themselves</u> (210).

(92) In sonnet about repetition in "line 10 and 11" he lay
emphasis on wherefore to show that the two of them
know that they were deceiving <u>themselve</u>[a] [b] (222a).

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In all the three examples above, "each other" instead of "themselves" is the appropriate form to use because the action expressed by the verb is shared by two people. Other examples are 208a and 215.

4.2.5.2   "Themselves" Instead of "One another"

In the errors under this heading, the action expressed by the verb in each of the sentences is interchangeable and mutual between more than two people. The reciprocal "one another" is therefore needed in place of "themselves" which has been selected. 3 errors are analysed. They are:

(93) Also some learned occupations and professionals do borrow terminology from themselves to their slang (203).

(94) After this, they introduced the couple's parents to themselves (213).

(95) The family of the bride and bridegroom introduced themselves (214).

In sentence 93 the reciprocal, "one another", should have been used instead of the reflexives "themselves".

4.3   Errors of Relativization

The violation of the specification rules in the subsection titled "Structural Conditions for the Process of Relativization" (3.6.2) are basically responsible for the errors recorded and analysed. In all, 75 errors are analysed. They are categorized as follow:

4.3.1 Errors of [± Human] Relative Pronouns

The errors under this category have been sub-divided into two sub-sections:

4. 3. 1. 1   Use of [+ Human] Relative Pronoun Instead of [-Human] Noun;

and

4. 3. 1. 2   Use of [-Human] Relative Pronoun Instead of [+Human].

4.3.1.1 Use of [+Human] Relative Pronoun Instead of [-Human]

The errors identified under this sub-section violate the specification rule stated as 104 in 3. 6. 2. The following are some examples:

(96) Some of these sources are Newspapers <u>who</u> often make mistakes (226).

(97) I am here this afternoon to further promote the proposal <u>who</u> says that the police are not to be blamed for the rise in crime in our society (237).

(98) Countable nouns are nouns <u>who</u> are easy to measure, weigh or evaluate (240).

The example sentences cited reveal that the antecedent noun phrases involved in the relativization process namely Newspapers , the proposal and countable nouns are all [-Human] nouns.

The specification rule stated in Structural Conditions for the Process of Relativization (3. 6. 2) as 104 should have applied to yield the following acceptable sentences:

96' Some of these sources are Newspapers <u>which</u> often make mistakes;

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97' I am here this afternoon to further promote the proposal <u>which</u> says that the police are not to be blamed for the rise in crime in our society;

98' Countable nouns are nouns <u>which</u> are easy to measure, weigh or evaluate.

but in all these cases, the specification rule designated as 103(a) in 3.6.2 has been used. Other examples from our data include sentences 239, 241, 263, 267, 275, 290 and 293 in the appendix.

Still under this sub-section we have the following examples:

(99) NACB is accused by critics of having obtained only signatures of government owned agencies for the proposed market, neglecting private institutions <u>who</u> will make the market work (260).

(100) That re-imbursement of the travelling allowance from the club to the national camp should be borne by the NFA <u>who</u> should make available such money through state FA's upon invitation to the national camp.... (261).

Sentences 99 and 100 may be wrong or correct depending on whether the noun phrases are considered as [+human] or [-human]. If the noun phrases - 'private institutions' in 99 and NFA in 100 are considered as [+ human], then the sentences are correct. If, on the other hand, they are conceived of as [-human] then, they will be wrong for the same reason given for sentences 96 - 98.

4.3.1.2 <u>Use of [- Human] Relative Pronoun Instead of [+Human]</u>

The example sentences in this category show a reverse deviation of what we have in 4.3.1.1. In these sentences, the selectional rule 103(a) in 3.6.2 has been violated while selectional rule 104 has been inappropriately used. Examples are:

(101)   Mostly all [the new students] which have never been
         to the University before were excited (235).

(102)   An Egba couple, who have stayed all their life in the
         Northern part of Nigeria might have [children] which
         grow up to acquire Hausa dialect as their first language
         (242).

(103)   The [milesians] which gave material things as
         originature substance (248)

The noun phrases [in bracket], relativized in these sentences have the feature specification :

$$\begin{bmatrix} +N \\ +Pro \\ +Rel \\ +Human \end{bmatrix}$$

It is expected that the specification rule in 103(a) will apply, but rule 104 in 3.6.2 has been used. This has yielded the ungrammatical sentences in 101, 102 and 103. Other examples in our data are 236, 247, 277, 291 292, 294 and 296 in the appendix.

4.3.2 Case Errors

The errors considered here are those which exhibit deviations in the use of the subjective, objective and the possessive relative pronouns. For the

purpose of our analysis this category of error has been further classified into three.

4.3.2.1 <u>Selection of the Subjective Relative Form Instead of the Objective</u>

The following examples illustrate this error type.

(104) The individual <u>in who</u> these two languages meet and are being used is known as the locus of contact (228).

(105) A policy must make clear pronouncement on the welfare of athletes <u>without who</u> most of the sports council officials will be unemployed (246).

(106) We enjoyed the company of those people <u>around who</u> we stayed (266).

The underlined words in sentences 104 - 106 above are prepositional phrases. As stated in chapter three, in a prepositional structure 'whom' is selected for persons while 'which' is selected for non human nouns. This is evident from examples 87 and 88 given earlier under the sub-title: 3.6.1. In addition, we also observe that the whole prepositional group occupies clause initial position. The selectional rule in English for prepositional structure, therefore, is that the noun phrase constituent of a prepositional phrase must be in the objective case.

On the basis of the foregoing, it is expected that a prepositional relative objective [+human] pronoun would have been appropriate for sentences (104 - 106) in which case we, would have:

107 (a) <u>in whom</u> in 104.

(b) <u>without whom</u> in 105.

(c) <u>around whom</u> in 106.

In selecting the subjective relative pronoun form, 'who', in 104 -106 the morphophonemic rule marked 103(b) in 3.6.2 has been violated while that of 103(a) has been wrongly applied.

In the following sentences, a slightly different deviation from the above is revealed:

(108)   Language is used to suit the occasion <u>in whom</u> the
          language user is (243);

(109)   There has been various contributions on this issue
          from various linguists <u>amongst which</u> are Banjo,
          Adetugbo, Effiong, Amayo, Ayotunde etc. (244).

In 108 the subject is aware of the fact that the objective form should be selected because the pronoun is a constituent of a prepositional phrase hence the choice of 'whom'. However, since "occasion" is a non-human noun, <u>which</u> is the correct pronoun to be selected. This is because as rule 104 in 3.6.2 specifies, the relative pronoun for non [-human] referents does not have case distinction, and, the relative pronoun 'which' therefore has a common form whether it is functioning as subject or object. The situation in 109 is a reverse of that in 108. This is because the noun phrase, "various linguists" which is the antecedent noun phrase has the feature specification [+ human]. It is expected that 'whom' should have been selected instead of 'which', which is restricted to only [-human] noun phrase. The feature specification rule identified as 103(b) in 3.6.2 ought to have been applied. Further examples are 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 274, 276, 281, 286, 287, 288, 289 and 295.

4.3.2.2 <u>Selection of the Objective Relative Form Instead of the Subjective</u>

Errors recorded under this sub- section are:

(110)   The boy <u>whom</u> is supposed to be reading will be sent here and there (229).

(111)   It was my father <u>whom</u> was retired (231).

(112)   Also, we made arrangement to inform the parents <u>whom</u> are not aware (234).

(113)   I hope they are fine and healthy especially your first child Oseremen <u>whom</u> aunty Ekiomo said looks like me (262).

In all these cases, the objective relative pronoun form 'whom' has been wrongly selected. This means that the specification rule in 103(b) has been wrongly applied where the specification rule 103(a) would have been appropriate. In 110 - 113, therefore, the relative pronoun 'who' ought to have been selected. Other errors in the appendix are 230, 232 and 238.

4.3.2.3 <u>Errors relating to the Possessive Relative Form</u>

The example sentences under this heading have been further sub-categorised into four sub-sections.

4.3.2.3.1 <u>The Non-Selection of the Possessive Form</u>

(114)   The vision exhibited by Kihika who was not trained in a missionary school, is more valuable than that which is gained by Karanja <u>who</u> <u>his</u> society does not benefit from his education (227).

(115)   This was the case of Inspector General Omoeben

          whom they killed the driver (233).

(116)   They started many projects <u>which</u> they stopped their

          construction half way (253).

In the examples cited above, there is a basis for the use of the possessive relative pronoun 'whose' but it is not selected. This means that the specification rule 103(c)

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
+ \text{Noun} \\
+ \text{Pronoun} \\
+ \text{Relative}
\end{bmatrix}
+ [\text{ possessive}] \text{ - whose}
$$

in 3.6.2 is violated. What we have in 114, 115 and 116 is the application of specification rules 103(a):

103b:

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
+ \text{Noun} \\
+ \text{Pronoun} \\
+ \text{Relative}
\end{bmatrix}
+ \; [+ \text{subject}] \text{ - Who}
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
+ \text{Noun} \\
+ \text{Pronoun} \\
+ \text{Relative}
\end{bmatrix}
+ \; [+ \text{object}] \text{ - Whom}
$$

and 104

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
+ \; \text{Noun} \\
+ \; \text{Pronoun} \\
+ \; \text{Relative} \\
- \; \text{Human}
\end{bmatrix}
\text{ - Which}
$$

respectively.   Other examples from our data include sentences 251, 252 and 279 in the appendix.   The correct version of the sentences above should have been:

114' The vision exhibited by Kihika who was not trained in a missionary school is more valuable than that which is gained by Karanja from <u>whose</u> education his society does not benefit.

115' This was the case of Inspector General Omoeben <u>whose</u> driver they killed.

116' They started many projects <u>whose</u> construction they stopped half way.

The sentences in 117 to 119 below also exhibit a similar error by the fact that there is the omission of the relative possessive pronoun where it is appropriate.   The omission is indicated by the dash in the error sentences.

(117)   Blessed are the poor, for these are the people - God will fight their cause (256).

(118)   An anthropologist must spend time with the people - he is trying to learn <u>their</u> language (257).

(119)   Where is the dress ? The one - I have the blouse (258).

The relative pronouns omitted in 117 - 119 are 'whom' in 117 and 118 and 'which' in 119. The omitted pronoun 'whom' and the noun phrases 'their cause and 'their language' in 117 and 118 respectively provide the basis for the application of the specification rule marked 103(c) in 3.6.2 and repeated in: "The Non-Selection of the Possessive Form" (4.3.2.3.1). In 119, the relative pronoun, 'which', which is omitted and the subject and predicate 'I have' of the sentence 'I have the blouse' provides basis for

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the use of the possessive relative pronoun. Sentence 119 should have been:

119$^!$ Where is the dress whose blouse I have.

The errors discussed under this subsection: "The Non-Selection of the Possessive Form" (4.3.2.3.1) can be attributed to the nature of the possessive wh - prepositional phrase. Whereas all other wh - prepositional phrases function as noun phrases in their embedded sentences, the possessive wh - prepositional phrase functions as modifier and is therefore transferred to the determiner slot of a noun phrase in the embedded sentence. The inability to discern this fact (by our subjects) has led to their treating the possessive wh - pronouns as noun phrases and not as modifiers. This accounts for the selection of 'who', 'whom' and 'which' in 117 to 119. Wiredu (1988: 58ff)[2] provides further explanation about some of these errors.

4.3.2.3.2   <u>Wrong Selection of the Possessive Relative Form Instead of the Subjective Form</u>

Only one error is recorded here. In sentence 120, there is no basis for the selection of the possessive relative pronoun 'whose', in preference to the subjective form "who"

(120)   There were even those <u>whose</u> believe that there is no

need for delimiting, because this is not without its

problems (245).

The selectional rule 103(a):

$$\begin{bmatrix} + \text{Noun} \\ +\text{Pronoun} \\ +\text{Relative} \end{bmatrix} +[+ \text{subject}] - \text{who}$$

has been violated while 103(c):

$$\cdot \quad \begin{bmatrix} + \text{Noun} \\ +\text{Pronoun} \\ +\text{Relative} \end{bmatrix} +[\text{ possessive}] - \text{whose}$$

has been wrongly applied.

4.3.2.3.3 Wrong Selection of the Subjective Relative Form Instead of the Possessive

The error sentences are:

(121)   The other character <u>who</u> level of knowledge is
         deficient (249).

(122)   Such a woman <u>who</u> dowry was not paid became an
         object of derision (250).

In the two sentences the specification rule 103(a) in 3.6.2 (repeated earlier in 4.3.2.3.2), has been wrongly applied. In these sentences, what is needed is the specification rule 103(c) (also repeated under 4.3.2.3.2). The possessive relative pronoun should have been used, as illustrated in 121' and 122'.

121' The other character whose level of knowledge is
     deficient.

122' Such a woman whose dowry was not paid became an
     object of derision.

The error in sentences 121 and 122 can also be accounted for by the nature of the possessive wh- pronoun because it functions as modifier and

not as a noun phrase. The phrase structure rule that produces the possessive form can be specified as follows:

(123)   PSR 1:   PP---------P + NP

         PSR 2 :   NP-------- Det + NP

         PSR 3:   DET

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
+\text{ Noun} \\
+\text{ Pronoun} \\
+\text{ Relative}
\end{bmatrix}
$$

$\pm$ Human

It is these feature specifications for DET that yield the possessive form 'whose' after rule 103(c) of 3.6.2 would have applied. The error in 121 and 122 arises because the wh- pronoun has been treated as a noun phrase and not as a determiner. In addition the specification rule 103(c) repeated in 4.3.2.3.2 is violated. The other error under this heading in the appendix is 300.

4.3.2.3.4   Wrong Selection of [-Human] Relative Form Instead of the
             Possessive

   The deviation recorded under this heading violates the specification rule designated 103(c) while wrongly applying, the specification rule denoted as 104 in 3.6.2 as:

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
+\text{ Noun} \\
+\text{Pronou} \\
\text{n} \\
+\text{Relative}
\end{bmatrix}
- \text{which}
$$

The examples are:

(124)   On the other hand comprador elements refer to the class of the bougeoise <u>which</u> existence is dependent on its role as a subordinate agent of international finance capital (259).

(125)   The grammatical words are functional words <u>which</u> meaning are derived from their usage (264).

(126) We have two codes <u>which</u> usage is determined by the situation (265).

In 124 - 126 what is required is [± human] possessive form, 'whose', and not, 'which', which is marked for, [- human], and is therefore used for [- human] noun in the subjective or objective case.

4.3.3 'That' Errors

(127)   Afolabi Adesanya is one reporter <u>that</u> Newswatch mourned <u>his</u> exit on the magazine's photo pages (254).

(128)   These are the words <u>that</u> one cannot find <u>their</u> meaning in the dictionary (255).

In these sentences the possessive relative pronoun 'whose' should have been used as is evident from the correct versions of these sentences as:

127' Afolabi Adesanya is one reporter whose exit Newswatch mourned on the magazine's photo pages.

128' These are the words whose meanings one cannot find in the dictionary.

The choice of 'that' in 127 and 128 is wrong because as earlier indicated in chapter three 'that' as a relative pronoun cannot be used in the possessive case.

In 129 below, the use of 'that' is also uncalled for:

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(129) <u>Só o damò</u>

This is a Yoruba phrase which ask the question <u>that</u> "do you know it?" (284).

4.3.4 <u>Others</u>

Under this heading, some other errors in the use of the relative pronoun will be cited. They are analysed under two sub-headings - omission of relative pronoun and unnecessary use of the Relative Pronoun.

4.3.4.1 <u>Omission of Relative Pronoun</u>

The only example here is ungrammatical because the relative pronoun needed to make the construction grammatical is omitted. The error is:

(130) Slangs colourful metaphors are generally directed at respectability and it is this succinct, sometimes witty, frequently impertinent and <u>social criticism   gives slang its characteristic flavour (283).

In this sentence, the [- Human] relative pronoun 'which' or the [$\pm$ human] 'that' ought to have occupied the position indicated.

4.3.4.2 <u>Unnecessary Use of the Relative Pronouns</u>

The following are examples:

(131) Emma Woodhouse comes from a rich family and <u>whose</u> sister is married to George Kingsley's brother but Emma doesn't like him because .... (273).

(132) I took a course PHL 205: African Philosophy, in the Philosophy department, the result <u>of which</u> was not pasted nor added to my G.P.A (278).

(133) Monaghan Robert (1983) describes pre-emptive construct as being reductionistic in <u>which</u> word is used to reduce another person or group or event or idea to narrowly restricted category (282).

(134) For example, the word "YANKEE" which is borrowed from the United State of America into Nigeria slang <u>which</u> is used to refer to second cars or vehicles in United States of America, but in Nigeria the same word or slang is used to refer to American states (285).

In example 132, the preposition phrase, "of which", is redundant while in 134 the presence of, 'which', is also not necessary. The use of the possessive relative pronoun 'whose' in 131 is inappropriate in the position in which it is used. In its place the third person singular feminine possessive form, 'her', would have been used. In place of 'which' in 133, the relative pronoun 'that' is required. The other errors under this sub-section are 298 and 299 in the appendix.

4.3.4.3 <u>Wrong Expression</u>

In the two errors recorded here, the usage of the relative pronoun is not well expressed. The examples are:

(135) However, these sentences have meaning according <u>to which context</u> they appear (280).

(136) The caravan trader later sold him to an Egyptian <u>whom Joseph found favour in him</u> (297).

A better way of expressing the examples above are:

135' However, these sentences have meaning according to the context in which they appear.

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136'   The caravan trader later sold him to an Egyptian with whom Joseph found favour.

<u>NOTES</u>

(1)   Errors outside coreferentiality are excluded in our analysis because they are not directly relevant for our purpose.

(2)   Wiredu's work is titled: "Errors of Relativization in Nigerian English: A TG Analysis". It can be found in *Ife Studies in English Language* (1988) Vol. 2, No. 2: pp. 55 - 60.

CHAPTER FIVE

EVALUATION OF FINDINGS

In chapter four, we analysed the errors recorded in the performance of Nigerian users of English with particular reference to pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization.

In this chapter, the findings from the analysis of the errors will be used to evaluate the implications of these errors for the overall competence of Nigerian educated users of English. The causes of the problems will be identified and possible solutions will be proffered with the aim of creating more conducive conditions for better teaching and learning of English as a second language in Nigeria.

5.1 Evaluation of Findings

The evaluation will first be done for each of the error types.

5.1.1. Errors of Pronominalization.

Table 5.1.1(a) overleaf shows the findings of the errors recorded under pronominalization:

Table 5.1.1(a) : Errors of Pronominalization

TYPE OF ERROR	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Number	47	27.6%
Case	39	23%
Gender	35	20.6%
Person	02	1.2%
Others	47	27.6%
Total	170	100%

This table confirms our assertion in chapter one that fundamental to most of the errors observed in the written English of Nigerian users is the lack of competence in the mastery of the use of grammatical forms which are fundamental to the structure of the English language. These concepts were identified as: number, gender, case, and person.

It also confirms the fact that these concepts are necessarily manifested in the various structural conditions that permit the process of coreferentiality.

Number appears to be the most problematic area of difficulty with 27.6% followed by the concept of case with 23%. The lowest number of errors is recorded under the concept person (1.2%) while the concept of gender comes third with 20.6%. The errors that occur under pronominalization constitute the highest set of errors with a total of 170 out of the 300 errors analysed.

A further break down of the types of errors analysed here is shown below:

Table 5.1.1(b): Types of Pronominalization Error

TYPE OF ERROR	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
A. Number		
Wrong Use of Singular	29	61.7%
Wrong Use of Plural	18	38.3%
Total	47	100%
B. Case		
Subjective	20	51.3%
Objective	16	41%
Possessive	03	7.7%
Total	39	100%
C. Gender		
Masculine	15	42.9%
Feminine	09	25.7%
Non-Person (Neuter)	11	31.4%
Total	35	100%

D. Person		
1st	01	50%
2nd	01	50%
3rd	00	0%
Total	02	100%
E. Others		
The Use of Other Grammatical Forms where Personal Pronouns are Required	22	46.8%
Wrong Usage	17	36.2%
Omission of the Pronoun	06	12.8%
The use of Noun Instead of Pronoun	01	2.1%
Unnecessary Use of the Neuter Form	01	2.1%
Total	47	100%

The highest number of errors belongs to the concept of singular number, followed by the subjective form under case and the masculine pronouns under gender. Only the first and second person forms under the concept of person are problematic. This reveals that the concept - person is adequately mastered to some extent while the masculine (gender) pronouns and the form 'it' constitute the main problem under sex (biological) gender. Under 'case' the possessive form constitutes the least

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problem followed by the feminine pronouns while, as we said before, the subjective forms recorded the highest number of errors. The pronominalization errors can therefore be arranged in a descending order of difficulty as follows:

(1)   Singular form.

(2)   Subjective forms.

(3)   Plural form.

(4)   Objective forms.

(5)   Masculine forms.

(6)   Non-Person (Neuter).

(7)   Feminine forms.

(8)   Possessive forms.

(9)   1st and 2nd person forms.

(10)   3rd person.

A significant observation here is the fact that the third person singular forms which ordinarily give rise to problems of concord and agreement are some of the forms which have been least problematic. This may not be unconnected with the fact that under coreferentiality, 'he', 'she' and 'it' only agree with their antecedent in terms of feature specification - number, gender, person and case. We are therefore not concerned with how they co-occur and pattern with verbs - as in the sentence:

1(a) He goes

 (b) She eats

 (c) It falls

On the whole, 123 (72.4%) of the 170 errors under pronominalization are analysed under the concepts - number, case, gender and person.

The other 47 errors under pronominalization constitutes 27.6% of the total errors analysed. The most problematic of these errors is recorded under the subsection "The Use of Other Grammatical Forms where Personal Pronouns are Required" with 46.8%. This is followed by the errors designated "Wrong Usage" with 36.2%, while the errors analysed under omission come third, with 12.8%. The lowest errors are those analysed under "The Use of Noun Instead of Pronoun and Unnecessary Use of the Neuter Form. Each of the two constitutes 2.1% of the total errors recorded

5.1.2 Errors of Reflexivization

The following table explains the finding of the errors analysed:

Table 5.1.2 Errors of Reflexivization.

TYPE OF ERROR	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Wrong Selection	26	47.3%
Wrong Usage	03	5.5%
Improper Selection of the		
Reflexive Forms	07	12.7%
Wrong Realization	12	21.8%
The Third Person Plural		
ReflexivePronoun Selected		
Instead of the Reciprocal		
Pronoun	07	12.7%
Total	55	100%

Wrong selection of reflexive pronouns is the most problematic of the errors of reflexivization. As we have seen in chapter four, these errors are "use of reflexives in place of personal pronouns and vice versa." As seen in the table, 26 out of the 55 errors recorded under reflexivization are classified under this heading.

Specifically it was observed that the errors under the sub-heading: "Use of Reflexives Instead of Personal Pronouns" (4.2.1.1) constitute the highest number of errors in this sub-category of "Wrong Selection". As remarked in Chapter Four of the 26 errors recorded, 25 belong under the heading "Use of Reflexive Instead of Personal Pronouns".

A predominant feature of the errors here is the fact that conjoined noun phrases functioning in the subject position constitute the highest number of problems. Elsewhere, Wiredu (1993) demonstrated that this pattern of usage is a feature of Nigerian English, having elicited from Nigerian educated users of English the pattern they would rather prefer among selected alternatives. However, this usage is a deviation because it violates a fundamental condition in the use of reflexives in Standard English. As pointed out, the particular structural condition violated is the one which states that "a reflexive pronoun cannot function as the subject of a simple sentence". This is because in Standard English (SE) usage, personal pronouns are more acceptable in the cases identified as illustrated under the sub-title "Conjoined Noun Phrases" (4.2.1.1.1). But the English language as remarked in Chapter One can no longer be solely regarded as the language of the English people especially as it has become a global language with varieties in countries where it is employed as a second language. Yet in the Nigerian experience, there is no demarcation yet of features which can be confidently referred to as "Nigerian English"

especially at the syntactic level. Even at the other levels - phonology and lexico-semantic - where much more work has been done one is not yet confident enough to state the correct usage in the country. We conclude therefore that Wiredu's observation can only be noted and identified as a variety of the standard usage that is gaining currency among educated Nigerian English users. This observed variety cannot be taken as a norm and therefore not a standard to be encouraged in formal instruction.

The errors recorded under 4.2.4 as "Wrong Realization of Reflexives" are also problematic. The errors here constitute 21.8% of the total errors collected under reflexivization. However, the errors actually analysed here are slightly more because most of them occur in error sentences with more than one type of error. Errors recorded under the sub-headings "Improper Selection of the Reflexive Forms" and "The Third Person Plural Reflexive Pronoun Selected Instead of the Reciprocal Pronoun" come third with 7 occurrences out of 55. The fewest errors were recorded under the sub-section: "Wrong Usage" - (4.2.2).

A look at the errors of reflexivization would seem to suggest that the errors are not caused by those inherent concepts identified earlier on (number, case, gender and person). A deeper and closer observastion, however, reveals that underlying these errors is a misunderstanding of these concepts. The most obvious cases of this fact can be seen in the two errors analysed under "Improper Selection of the Reflexive Forms" (4.2.3). Under this section we remarked: "here the reflexive forms selected do not agree with their antecedents in certain features". We went on to say that:

> one of the structural conditions stated in 3.5.2
>
> (Structural Conditions for the Process of Reflexivizatio)
>
> is that the two noun phrases involved in the

reflexivization process (the antecedent and target NPS) must agree in terms of number (singular/plural); person (first, second and third) and gender (masculine/feminine and neuter).

In the two errors, we further noticed that this condition is violated. In one of them, the subject of the sentence is 'everybody' a singular, third person form but a plural third person form 'themselves' was improperly used to refer back to the subject 'everybody', thus not agreeing with it in terms of [+ singular]. The sentence in question is that identified as 75 in Chapter Four as:

(2)   If everybody should involve <u>themselves</u> in going to farm.

The second error recorded here is reproduced in the following sentence:

(3)   When one has acquired the basic knowledge of Agricultural Science in school he will be able to help <u>him</u>[a] survive this present economic predicament and also make <u>one self</u>[b] relevant (191b).

The choice of <u>one - self</u>[b] an indefinite form does not correlate with the correct antecedent noun phrase "<u>himself</u>" which is specified for the features: [+ singular, + third person, + masculine]. This same sentence was also considered as sentence 70 under the sub-section: "Use of Personal Pronoun Instead of Reflexives" (4.2.1.2).

Another obvious case is revealed in the errors classified as "Wrong Realization of Reflexives" (4.2.4). Even though we remarked that these errors have some morphological bearing because they deal with formation and spelling of reflexives, they nevertheless exhibit a lack of understanding of the concepts, of number and case. Let us look at some of

them. The errors analysed as 4.2.4.1, "Wrong Specification of Reflexives" reveal that the reflexive pronouns in these error sentences were wrongly specified for the feature [+ possessive] while Table 3.5.1 - "Reflexive Anaphors" reveals that reflexive pronouns are not specified for the subjective and possessive forms. Three of the errors will be cited here:

(4) Formal languages are non-verbal forms of languages that convey its[a] meaning through certain principles designed by logicians or mathematicians for theirselves[b] (54b).

(5) Those from poor parents will like to achieve his[a] own aim and to protect his[a] self [b] (188b)

(6) The agric science which they learnt in school will help them to have their[b] - self[a] employed (196a).

In 4 and 5, the possessive pronouns 'their' and 'his' are reflexivized. In 6, the same error as in 4 and 5 is present and in addition the reflexive ending 'self', a singular form, is used for an apparently plural pronoun, 'their'. The plural form of reflexive endings in English is realized as "selves" and not as 'self' or 'selfs'. The errors discussed under the sub-section 4.2.4.3. as: "Wrong Inflectional Endings" are also obvious examples of a lack of competence in the use of number.

Even the errors under "Wrong Selection of Reflexives in 4.2.1. betray a lack of mastery of the concept of case. A proper understanding of this concept would, for example, have equipped our subject with the fact that reflexives do not occur as subjects of simple sentences within the same matrix whether the noun phrase occurring in the subject position is conjoined or single. A proper understanding of the objective case would

have also solved the problem identified in the error under "Use of Personal Pronoun Instead of Reflexives" (4.2.1.2).

Errors discussed under "Wrong Usage" (4.2.2) also reveal that our subjects are unaware of the fact that reflexives also function as intensifiers and are emphatic when used this way.

An apparent error under reflexivization that cannot be traced to the concepts we identified is the error in the sentences under "Wrong Graphological Realization" (4.2.4.2). We explained that the errors here are caused by the non-recognition on the part of our subject that reflexives are compound words written without a hyphen or word boundary. The non-recognition of the fact above shows a lack of morphological knowledge in the usage of reflexive pronouns.

5.1.3 Errors of Relativization.

The Errors of Relativization are analysed in Table 5.1.3. overleaf:

Table 5.1.3: Errors of Relativization

TYPE OF ERROR	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
I. Errors of [± Human] Relative Pronoun	22	29.3%
II. Errors of Case:		
(a) Selection of the Subjective Form Instead of the Objective	18	24%
(b) Selection of the Objective Relative Form Instead of the Subjective	07	9.3%
(c) Selection of the Possessive Relative Form	16	21.4%
III. 'That' Errors	03	4.0%
IV. Others	09	12%
Total	75	100%

Errors of case are the most problematic of the errors of relativization. On the whole, 41 (54.7%), of the 75 errors recorded under relativization are analysed under this category.

The selection of the subjective form instead of the objective in particular constitutes the highest source of problem - 24%. This is closely followed by the possessive relative form with 21.4%. The problem with the possessive relative form can be explained against the background information in Chapter Four that unlike all other wh- prepositional phrases which function as noun phrases in their embedded sentences, the possessive wh - prepositional phrase functions as modifier and occupies the position of determiner. The errors recorded under "Selection of the Possessive Relative Form" (4.3.2.3), were further classified into the wrong selection made between the subjective and the objective form when the possessive would have been selected and also cases where the possessive has been wrongly selected instead of either the objective or subjective form.

Selection of the objective relative form instead of the subjective form comes third with 9. 3%. The errors under [± Human] relative pronoun can be traced to the concept of case.

If we look at this sub-section, we can see the violation of the specification rules reproduced here as (7a-c) and (8).

7(a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} + \text{N} \\ + \text{Pro} \\ + \text{Rel} \\ + \text{Human} \end{bmatrix} + \text{[subject]} - \text{who}$$

(b)
$$\begin{bmatrix} + \text{N} \\ + \text{Pro} \\ + \text{Rel} \end{bmatrix} + \text{[object]} - \text{whom}$$

(c)

$$
\begin{bmatrix} + \text{ Human} \\ + \text{ N} \\ + \text{ Pro} \\ + \text{ Rel} \\ \pm \text{ Human} \end{bmatrix} + [\text{+ possessive}] \text{ - whose}
$$

As remarked in Chapter Three it is only for [- Human] nouns that there is no distinction of case. Thus:

(8)

$$
\begin{bmatrix} + \text{ N} \\ + \text{ Pro} \\ + \text{ Rel} \end{bmatrix} + [\text{- Human}] \text{ - which}
$$

Instances of "That Error" (4.3.2) are very few and may go to confirm the point mentioned in Chapter Two that second language users often avoid using some concepts or features because of uncertainty in their usage. Our subjects also hardly make use of backward pronominalization. This is because forward pronomilization has a more natural sequence and taxes their linguistic ability less. On the whole there is no assurance that cases where the lowest number of errors were recorded are the ones which are less problematic for Nigerian users of English. For all we know, the low incidence of those features in the data may be the result of a strategy of avoidance, a way of keeping off uncertain zones.

5.2 The Total Number of Errors Analysed

The Table below shows all the error sentences which have been analysed.

Table 5.2: Total Number of Errors Analysed

TYPE OF ERROR	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Errors of Pronominalization	170	56.7%
Errors of Reflexivization	55	18.3%
Errors of Relativization	75	25%
Total	300	100%

Table 5.2 shows that the highest errors occur under pronominalization, and the fewest errors occur under reflexivization.

The evaluation of our findings so far shows that the underlying linguistic competence of Nigerian second language learners of English in relation to the concepts inherent in the processes considered leave much to be desired.   This is particularly so when we compare the present performance with what it should be in a second language situation such as ours, especially from the point of view that the concepts involved in these errors are those which cannot be negotiated if our variety of English in Nigeria is to attain a minimum world standard which Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:l) have referred to as the common core of grammar. Our case is even more disturbing when we consider the fact that our data emanated from those who have been adequately exposed to the language and are supposed to have learnt the language well enough to be efficient and proficient in it. No doubt this situation calls for proper attention on the part of all those involved in language teaching and learning.

5.3   Causes of the Problems

Our discussion here will be in two parts. The first part provides the linguistic sources of the problems identified in our analysis while the second considers extra linguistic factors that can be adduced for the problems.

5.3.1. Linguistic Causes of Problems

Most researchers on second language learning have identified linguistic interference as the main explanation for the errors made by second language learners. The theory of transfer and how it leads to linguistic interference have been mentioned and discussed in part in chapter one under: "Language Variation" (1.2) and "The History of the English Language in Nigeria" (1.3). It was also mentioned in "Chapter Two" under the section titled "Contrastive Analysis" (2.2.1). Notable among the scholars who have worked on the notions of transfer and linguistic interference are Lado (1957); Weinreich (1963); Carrol (1968) and Marton (1979). As quoted earlier, Weinreich (1963:1) defines linguistic interference as:

> Instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech (or writing) of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. The term interference implies the re-arrangement of patterns that result from the more highly structured domains of language.

From this definition it is clear that interference manifests itself at all the linguistic levels of phonology, syntax and semantics. However, in this study we are concerned with only syntactic interference. Our understanding of syntactic interference includes morphology.

Syntactic interference occurs when a bilingual transfers the grammatical structure of his primary system to that of the secondary system and vice-versa. For example, in most first languages in Nigeria the system of number is not morphologically marked unlike English where it is marked in writing by the suffix 's' and 'es' for regular nouns. The nouns in these first languages therefore have the same form when used either as singular or plural with only the context of situation specifying whether the nouns have been used in the singular or plural form. The example just cited on the concept of number in English and how it contrasts with most first languages in Nigeria is responsible for errors noted under "Wrong Selection of the Singular Forms" (4.1.1.1); "Wrong Selection of the Plural Form" (4.1.1.2.); "Improper Selection of the Reflexive Forms" (4.2.3); and "Wrong Inflectional Ending" (4.2.4.3). We reproduce below some of the examples:

(9)   These <u>two</u> <u>examples</u> are subjected to different meanings according to <u>its</u> uses;

(10)   <u>The definitions of the structural words</u> can be known through <u>his</u> function;

(11)   <u>A child</u> will not come to pick up <u>their</u> books after school.

(12)   The people <u>I</u> met there told <u>us</u> that he has moved from that house;

(13)   If <u>everybody</u> should involve <u>themselves</u>;

(14)   When educated people discuss among them<u>self</u> they

use the word they understand.

The forms in Table 3.4.1 (Personal Pronouns) show that the English language operates sex gender in terms of masculine, feminine and non-person (neuter). As shown in that Table, gender is marked in the pronoun system in the third person singular forms:

he (masculine)

she (feminine)

it (non-person or neuter).

This distinction in the third person singular pronoun does not exist in most first languages in Nigeria as the three forms (he, she, and it) in English correspond to just one form. For example, in Yoruba 'he', 'she' and 'it' are represented by ó. This fact has led to the inappropriate use of 'it', 'he' and 'she' as demonstrated in "Wrong Selection of the Non-Person Forms" (4.1.3.1); "Wrong Selection of the Masculine Forms" (4.1.3.2) and "Wrong Selection of the Feminine Forms" (4.1.3.3) of our analysis.

To a large extent 'Case' is marked in some indigenous languages in Nigeria. This is because, like English, there is the distinction made between the subjective, objective and possessive case.

The following tables, for example, indicate this point for Yoruba:

Table 5.3.1(a) :   Yoruba Pronoun System

Subjective Case

PERSON	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st	Mo	a
2nd	o	e
3rd	ó	won

Objective Case

PERSON	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st	Mí	wa
2nd	o/e	yin
3rd	vowel of verb	won

Possessive Case

PERSON	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st	mi	wa
2nd	re/e	yin
3rd	rè/è	won

In spite of this similarity, however, we still find that the concept of case constitutes the second highest problem under errors of pronominalization. The highest number of errors was recorded under the subjective case followed by the objective and lastly the possessive case. We produce here some of the error sentences involving case which ara analysed in 4.1.2.1, 4.1.2.2 and 4.1.2.3.

(15)   They promised <u>he</u> when he got there.

(16)   I will appeal to all students to enable <u>they</u> read well.

(17) By bribing the teacher the student will have it in mind that he has someone who is to help <u>he</u> or <u>she</u>.

(18) They don't even care to correct <u>they</u> children.

(19) If this student should continue with this bad attitude <u>him or her</u> is bound to fail his or her WAEC/GCE exam.

(20) <u>me and my family</u> haven't had any problem since then.

(21) How really can a student in a school without science equipment pass <u>him</u> or her examination.

(22) I think taking my problems to him will be too much for him because <u>his</u> is the backbone of the family.

The occurrence of these errors in spite of the similarities in the marking of case in the pronoun systems of English and Nigerian languages confirms some of the criticisms of CA discussed in 2.2.1. Dukiya (1986:96) also remarks that, the similarity noticed notwithstanding, the Yoruba pronoun case specifications are not as productive as those of English.

The fewest errors recorded under errors of pronominalization have to do with the concept of person. Specifically, only the second person pronoun 'You' is involved here. This error may not be unconnected with the fact that some indigenous languages in Nigeria have some additional features (such as the honorific use of pronouns in Yoruba) in their pronoun systems. The honorific features of the Yoruba pronoun system are represented in Table 5.3.1b.

Table 5.3.1b: Honorific or Respect Features of Yoruba Pronoun System

PERSON	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st	mo, emi	a, awa
2nd	[-s] o, iwo	e, eyin
	[+s] e, eyin	eyin
3rd	[-s] o, oun	won, awon
	[+s] won, awon	won, awon

Key: s = superiority in age, status, etc.

In addition, the singular and plural forms of the second person pronoun in English are not differentiated whereas in Yoruba, the singular and plural forms of the second person are denoted by two different words.   For example:

(23)   iwo (You singular)

eyin (You Plural)

The second person pronoun in Yoruba also carries the feature specification [respect] so that in talking to an elderly person or a superior the second person singular form in Yoruab 'o' or 'iwo' is changed to 'e' or 'eyin' with the feature specification   [+ respect].   Since this respect feature distinction is not in the English system a Nigerian second language learner who has Yoruba as a first language may find it very difficult to address a superior or elderly person as "you".

In one of the two errors recorded under person, the problem is not traced to the respect factor mentioned above; rather it is traced to the second person singular subjective form, 'you', which was chosen instead of 'she', the third person singular subjective form.   This may not be unconnected with the realisation of the two forms in almost the same way,

both graphologically and in speech, with only a tonal difference. For example:

> o 2nd person singular
>
> ó 3rd person singular subject form.

In the other error analysed, the first person subjective form, 'I', was wrongly chosen instead of 'he', the third person singular subjective form.

The 'respect factor', however, can be used to explain two of the errors recorded   in 4.1.1.2: "Wrong Selection of the Plural Forms". The two sentences concerned are:

24 (a)   The old man was bleeding but <u>they</u> promised not to go to   the hospital (82).

(b)   The bridegroom's father could not stay long because <u>they</u>   had an important assignment (85).

In these two sentences, the choice of 'they' instead of 'he' must have been partly due to the 'respect factor'.

The spelling/sound relationship in English can be used to account for the confusing phono-graphological representation apparent in most of the errors of pronominalization analysed under the heading - 'Others'.

For instance, 'their and there' and 'its and it's' are homophones. They are, therefore, pronounced the same way even though they have different spellings and meanings. A recourse to the grammatical category of these words is what is needed to distinguish between them. The confusion between 'we and were' is also traceable to the fact that the two words have similar   spellings even though they are pronounced differently. Mispronunciation, dropping of the initial 'h' and the final consonant are responsible for the confusion between 'their and the', 'his and is' and 'we and will' respectively.

The explanation above confirm the view of Bloomfield (1933) and Hall (1950). According to these two linguists, the reality of language is presented by its sounds and not by letters. In other words, the phoneme as opposed to the alphabetic characters, is the stable norm. Igben (1986:16) refers to the written form in English as often misleading and observes that English spellings are citedly irregular, inconsistent, often irrational and illogical and therefore difficult to learn. The errors discussed here, draw our attention to the need to teach oral English more effectively in our secondary schools in order to minimise pronunciation problems which are basically the cause of the confusion noted.

The most prominent error of reflexivization is that described in 4.2.1.1.1 as "Conjoined Noun Phrases". The error here can be adduced to the transfer of the thought pattern in the first language. Usually, in most first languages in Nigeria when two noun phrases are conjoined as subject, the 'self' is placed before the other noun phrase. For instance in the error sentences below:

(25)   <u>myself</u> and my family are happy;

(26)   <u>myself</u> and all our children wish you many happy returns of   the day;

(27)   <u>myself</u> and the personnel manager were busy discussing;

(28)   <u>myself</u> and a friend were in front, so we got captured.

The sources of interference are:

(i)   first person pronoun precedes the second noun;

(ii)   the first person pronoun used in Yoruba is the emphatic form;

(iii) This emphatic form is apparently best rendered with the reflexive in English, hence, "myself" instead of "I"

Thus the conjoined noun phrases in example 26 and 28 above will translate into the following:

(29)   Èmi àti gbogbo àwon omo wa.

(myself and all our children);

(30)   Èmi àti òré kan

(myself and a friend);

'I' being used in these sentences emphatically to mean "I myself" "Emi fún'ra arami" instead of the correct English structures:

(31)   All our children and I.

    and

(32)   A friend and I

for the conjoined noun phrase in 26 and 28. The conjoined noun phrases as we have in examples 25 to 28 violate the structural condition which states that the reflexives cannot function as the subject of a simple sentence. The same emphatic usage of the reflexive also accounts for the errors recorded under "Wrong Usage" (4.2.2) where we explained that the reflexive pronouns concerned have been used wrongly as emphatic forms. This fact also explains the errors analysed in "4.2.1.1.2 - "Single Noun Phrase". It is also the case in error sentences 56 and 57 under 4.2.1.1.1 where the form 'myself' has been used without any antecedent. The example in sentences 56 and 57 are repeated here as 33 and 34 respectively.

(33)   On the bench outside was <u>myself</u> and twelve others.

(34)   The bank manager was good to <u>myself</u> and my people.

The following sentences under "4.2.1.1.1 Conjoined Noun Phrases" can also be explained by this same fact.

(35)   The driver and <u>myself</u> went upstairs

(36)   Alhaji Arisekola Alao and <u>myself</u> went to see him around 10.00pm Saturday March 12.

Wiredu (1988a: 20) also postulates that every occurrence of the reflexive pronoun in Nigerian English involves the presence of two underlying NPs — in a manner similar to the formation of emphatic reflexives. He adduced both semantic and syntactic reasons for this postulation. Semantically, he says that every occurrence of the reflexive in the cited examples appears to have the intended meaning of 'myself' on the one hand, and the others with emphasis on the reflexivized NP. Thus, instead of the sentences in (a) "Nigerian English" tends to employ (b) sentences:

37 (a)   I, my wife and my family are happy;

   (b)   Myself, my wife and my family are happy.

38 (a)   The driver and I went upstairs;

   (b)   The driver and myself went upstairs;

39 (a)   The bank manager was good to me and my people;

   (b)   The bank manager was good to myself and my people;

40 (a)   On the bench outside was me and twelve others.

   (b)   On the bench outside was myself and twelve others.

Wiredu (1988a:20) further remarked that:

there is more emphatic assertion in (b) than in (a). Such reflexives are therefore, perceived more as intensifiers than as ordinary reflexives.

He gave the syntactic explanation that such occurrences are found only in co-ordinate NP (but not in single NP).

Contrary to Wiredu's syntactic explanation, however, we find in our data the occurrence of reflexives which function as intensifiers in "Single Noun Phrases". Such structures are exemplified by 41 - 43.

(41)   <u>Myself</u> was very happy that you received the letter;

(42)   I am a civil servant and <u>himself</u> was jobless;

(43)   I <u>myself</u> is looking forward to see...

These counter examples make Wiredu's syntactic explanation less absolute in educated Nigerian English usage even though more examples of this type of occurrence feature more under conjoined noun phrases in our data.

The inability on the part of our subjects to distinguish between the reflexive form - 'themselves' and the reciprocals - 'each other/one another' is the cause of the confusion analysed under reflexivization as 4.2.5 - "The Third Person Plural Reflexive Pronoun Selected instead of the Reciprocal Pronoun".

In 3.6.1 "Relative Pronoun", we remarked that the relative clause construction is marked with the pronouns 'who', "whom", "whose", "which" and "that". These pronouns introduce the adjectival in a relative construction. As explained further, "who" is the most central of them because it has the objective case "whom" and possessive case - "whose". "Who and whom" are restricted further to noun phrases in which the head noun has the feature [+ human]. "Which" occurs only when the deleted noun is [- human]. Only "that" and "whose" are not restricted by any such specifications.

Dukiya (1986:82) observes that unlike the English language, which is synthetic in nature, a remarkable number of Nigerian indigenous languages is analytical. The processes involved in relativization in these languages are therefore not as restricted as in English. For example in Yoruba the introducer "ti" does the duty for all the forms marked "who", "whom", "which" and "that". The introducer "ti" always appears at the beginning of such sentences that are used as relative clause qualifiers.[1] The nouns qualified by such sentences are always identical with nouns or object or verb or qualifier within the sentences themselves. The introducer in Yoruba also has different syntactic behaviour depending on the context and the noun or the sentence constituent which is qualified. When relative clause qualifiers are formed therefore there are changes in word order. Such changes involve the subject, the verb and the object of the verb. The point we have made about the relative clause construction in Yoruba can be illustrated by the following sentence:

(44)   Adé rí aso dáadáa ni ojà.

          Ade see (past) cloth good in market

          Ade saw a good cloth in the market

each of the constituents mentioned above can be relativized in sentence (45) as follows:

45   (a)   <u>Adé</u> tí ó rí aso dáadáa ní ojà

          (Ade Rel. pron. see (past) cloth good in market).

          "The Ade who/that saw a good cloth in the market".

     (b)   <u>rírí</u> tí Ade rí aso dáadáa ní ojà

          (seeing Rel. Ade see (past) cloth good in market).

          "The fact that Ade saw a good cloth in the market".

     (c)   <u>Aso</u> dáadáa tí Adé rí ní ojà

(Cloth good Rel. Ade see (past) in market).

"The good cloth which Ade saw in the market.

Unlike in English where all the relative clause introducers are marked in writing by different forms, the Yoruba relativizer "ti" in the sentences in 45 (a-c) only corresponds to the English forms depending on the constituent of the sentence that is being relativized. Most of the English relative pronouns are further made complex by the semantic, feature [+ human] ands [- human] specifications.

The foregoing elaboration on the relative clause construction in English and Yoruba used here as an example of Nigerian languages is meant to account for the difficulty encountered by Nigerian users of English in distinguishing between the relative pronouns in English, especially as their usage relates to the features [+ human] and [- human]. This difficulty is inherent in the errors analysed under "Errors of   [± Human] Relative Pronoun" (4.3.1).

Similarly, the different forms of the relative pronouns "who", "whom" and "whose" are also problematic because most Nigerian learners of English are at a loss as to which form to pick between the subjective form "who", the objective form "whom" and the possessive form "whose". This dilemma is demonstrated in the errors recorded under "Case Error" (4.3.2).

The inability to decide which of the relative pronoun forms to use explains the errors recorded in 4.3.3 as "That Error". Two of the errors are reproduced here:

46 (a)   Afolabi Adesanya is one reporter <u>that</u> Newswatch mourned   his exit on the magazine's photo pages.

(b)   These are the words <u>that</u> one cannot find their meaning in   the dictionary.

Here "whose", the possessive relative pronoun, ought to have been chosen instead of "that".

The other errors analysed under the relative pronoun indicate the pronouns under consideration as forms whose functions and usage have not been effectively mastered by our subjects.

The difficulty encountered in the learning of second language syntax may also be connected with the complex nature of syntax by itself. The difficulty in grammar according to Stevick (1988:82) causes more discouragement and drives away more students than anything else in the learning of a second language. For many new teachers too, it is the most formidable part of their undertaking.

A basic cause which is common to all the problems highlighted is the inability of our subjects to grasp the overriding interlingual contrast between their first languages and their second language.   Rivers (1983:162) recognises this inability as a basic problem for second language learners and has described it as "an inter-lingual conceptual contrast".

Another problem arising from this basic problem is the lack of understanding of the use of the fundamental concepts (number, case, gender and person) which leads to insecurity and uncertainty about the extent of applicability of the rules that govern the use of the forms.

In summary, the linguistic causes of the problems identified reveal that Nigerian users of English, considered in this study, have an inadequate perception of the concepts - number, case, gender and person - which operate in a close and restricted application of rules. This inadequacy may

be explained against the background of an instructional method which pays less attention to the level of competence and therefore to the level of conceptualization.

This problem is noted in psychology and stems from the popular notion of transfer. However, it takes on a new shade in the sense that we are drawing on the conceptual contrast as opposed to the surface structure contrast exhibited in the performance of Nigerian second language users.

The issue of conceptualization, like that of competence, is a deep structure issue. An adequate surface structure can only be achieved if our underlying competence at the level of conceptualization becomes part of our thought patterns just as the systems of our first languages are part of our thought patterns. Until we achieve this level of perception for the fundamental concepts - number, case, gender and person - which are involved in this study, we cannot hope for a brighter future than we have now for the teaching and learning of English in a second language situation such as ours.

5.3.2 Non- Linguistic Factors

In this section we are going to examine other factors outside linguistics that we can adduce as causes of the problems identified. These factors relate to the teacher and the learner who are the two principal actors between whom the learning of a second language meditates.

One basic fact about teachers involved in second language teaching is that the vast majority of them are not native speakers of English. For most of the time and in some aspects of language learning, therefore, the teachers are just blind guides. Quirk (1981:153) for instance, remarks that "the teachers' English is far from perfect, his training inadequate and his

classes large". In fact it is not untrue that most English teachers in Nigeria's secondary schools cannot fully keep track of what is going on in language teaching because their own knowledge of the language is vague about the mechanics involved in sentence structure and some lower level elements such as inflections which are vital grammatical markers. This problem arises because the teachers cannot lay claim to what is called a near-native communicative competence in the target language. The teachers in this situation are often unable to perform "the minimal irreducible and indispensable function of telling the learner what is or is not an acceptable utterance" (Corder, 1973:347).

The teachers' teaching process does not always provide sufficient practice in rapid production of the lower-level elements such as verb forms, noun forms, pronoun forms and other inflectional markers which are grammatically pertinent, This is because teaching is too often concentrated on an understanding of the language system as a whole. This fact is buttressed by Corder's (1973:329) assertion that the framework for the grammatical descriptions and the various categories of a traditional general grammar is rarely discussed. He stated that:

> the learner had therefore to discover for himself
>
> what was meant by such terms as: infinitive,
>
> participle, deponent verb,
>
> case, tense, number, gender... .

This is because the teaching and learning of the theoretical foundations on which the description of the language is based, according to Corder, is largely inductive and concentrates almost wholly on accidence and derivation with very little said about syntax. As a result of the above, the learners' difficulties are increased and they make theoretically redundant

errors such as the inability to distinguish between the singular and the plural forms of the noun or establish the basic difference between the subject, object and possessive cases.

Another fact concerning second language teachers is the wrong assumption they make in thinking that what they teach in class formally is what their students necessarily learn. Not much effort is made, for example, to encourage the students to use English in other life situations apart from the classroom. This is even so now that the boarding system in our secondary schools has been abolished except in elitist schools. Rivers (1983:70) opines that much of what students learn comes from their associations with other significant contact in and out of school (parents, peers, other teachers and from all kinds of activities).

The greatest error of assumption which is committed by teachers is the one which makes them believe or think that what occurs as "correction" in classroom interaction automatically leads to learning on the part of the students. Within the Nigerian educational system, corrections are made most of the time on the exercises of students by merely replacing the wrong element with the correct version. Very little effort is made thereafter to explain why the wrong element should not be selected. For instance, if we take one of our error sentences:

(47)   Even with my dad old age I still discussed the matter
          with <u>her</u>.

a teacher in Nigeria may only cross the form "her" and replace it with "him" without an in-depth explanation of why 'her' in this context is wrong. As we analysed earlier on in "4.1.3.3 Wrong Selection of the Feminine Form" the personal pronoun "him" required here is used in the position it is occupying in the sentence to refer back to a noun phrase

marked [+ masculine] and not [+ feminine] as our subject will want us to believe. Corder (1973:293) says that the type of corrections done in our educational system is simply presenting the data again and going through the same set of drills and exercises to produce a state of over learning and hypercorrection.[2] Stevick (1988:12) also observes that the corrections made most of the time are superficial and lack the adequate explanations of the process involved. One student was reported to have described the type of correction we are talking about in the following words:

> such corrections go in your ear and out your mouth without disturbing anything in between (Stevick, 1988:13).

This type of correction therefore tells us very little about what the student has inside him which he will draw upon the next time he uses the language in speech or writing. Thus nothing is contributed to the students' much needed competence.

It has also been observed that teachers do not teach their students to acquire learning strategies (Rubin, 1975: 43). "Strategies" is used here to mean the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge.[3]

Like some of their teachers, the learners of English as a second language are also not able to distinguish between deviant forms and established ones. In addition, they often avoid complex deep structures such as embedded sentences and complex constructions. In talking about the limitations of this study, for example, we observed that the last word may not have been said about the coreferential phenomena considered

since the English noun phrases embedded structure is considered complex by learners and therefore better avoided by them.

It has also been observed that second language learners are more often than not given tasks which are either beyond them or are detrimental to effective learning processes. For example, the teaching process in our educational system has, in the main, been a transfer of the native speakers' skills to the learners who are the non-native speakers. This is evident from the fact that learners are typically often asked to produce full sentences with native-like accuracy, usually centring around selected syntactic patterns in the language. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:131) observe that this process of teaching leads to most exercises in textbooks being largely mechanical, without any consideration of the second language learners' peculiar situation.

Closely connected with the observation above is what has been identified by Lightbown (1990:91) as "lack of analytic teaching". According to him, the analytic teaching method allows for comparison between the target language and the native languages of the learners, thereby making the learners see where their uses of the TL differs from that of the native speakers. The absence of this kind of guided instruction, according to Stern (1990:94), leads to the development of fossilized interlanguage when the learners' become able to communicate fairly successfully. O'Malley and Chamot (1990:30) also reason that the complexity of language rules and the difficulty of committing them to memory without recourse to the learners' first languages account for why majority of students fall by the way side and never really get to the desired goal. The same explanation can also be given for the operation of

interlanguage rules and intermediate forms of the target language by second language learners.

The context of the second language also compounds the task of the second language learner. As remarked earlier, the second language is both the medium of instruction as well as the subject of study. This is especially so in the Nigerian multilingual situation where the second language is used most of the time for communication at the official and inter-ethnic level. Chaudron (1988:5) observes that in this type of situation the social relationships and the curriculum content are conveyed to learners in a cultural and linguistic medium that surpasses their competence to some degree and usually with little recourse to first language sources or interpretation.

The situation above triples the task of the learner:

(1)   he has to make sense of instructional tasks posed in
        the second language;

(2)   he has to attain a level of socio-linguistic
        competence that will   allow him greater
        participation;

(3)   he has to learn the content itself.

The tasks above are further compounded by forms and functions which are not closely linked instructionally in the learning process. This situation is further worsened by an examination system that is seriously at variance with classroom goals. Worse still, the educational system in Nigeria for some years now has been disrupted by the numerous socio-cultural, economic and political problems which have often kept students off schools for much of the time and left teachers generally ineffective.

The task of teaching language in itself has been observed to be a hard one (Quirk, 1981:153):

> teaching any single one of the national varieties {Southern British English} is a hard enough assignment with its gargantuan vocabulary, its subtly difficult syntax and with the recently accentuated emphasis on teaching phonetic accuracy in speech.

According to Quirk, "the language is difficult enough for a specially trained native speaker to teach with small classes of highly motivated pupils". If this picture can be painted by a native speaker of English in the first language situation then we can best imagine how difficult our situation in Nigeria is.

Age has also often been adduced as one of the most obvious potential explanations for the difference recorded in the performance of second language learners. For example, the comparative lack of success observable in the performance of L_2 learners of English is connected with the acquisition of the language at a later age than do the first language learners. It is also equally observed that learners of a second language are socially and psychologically distanced from speakers of the target language.

Other factors such as tiredness, inattentiveness or emotional upset are also part of learning problems which are often outside the teacher's control. Corder (1973) says all of these factors may be the cause of redundant errors caused by faulty materials, teaching and learning.[4]

5.4 <u>Solutions</u>

Our aim in this part of the study is to proffer as many solutions as possible for the problems which have been outlined in 5.3. However, we are aware of the acknowledged fact that we cannot expect to find ready-made solutions in second language teaching because each situation must be approached according to its own logic.

To start with, we have already acknowledged the fact that a basic cause of all the problems highlighted is the lack of conceptual grasp of the over-riding inter-lingual contrasts between first and second languages. To solve this basic problem, we need to take a number of steps. These will enable us to implant in our minds the consciousness needed on the part of both teachers and learners in making sure that the problems of conceptual contrast identified are addressed. To achieve this, it is necessary to draw upon the knowledge of our indigenous languages paying particular attention to how the concepts - number, case, gender and person - contrast with the target language. Knowledge thus acquired will in turn help the teachers to adopt the analytic teaching method earlier defined as a method which allows for the comparison between the target language and the native languages of the learners. This will help the learners to see where their use of the TL differs from that of the native speakers.

Let us illustrate our point using the concepts - number and gender. In teaching these two concepts, the teacher in a Yoruba speaking environment, for example, should not only teach the features of these concepts in English but also show the learner how the concept of number is not morphologically marked in Yoruba. In the case of gender, attention should be drawn specifically to the fact that English makes a distinction of gender in the third person singular personal pronouns. This awareness will

help the learners to distinguish between the form 'he', 'she' and 'it'. When this has been achieved the teacher should now go on to inform his students that the three forms (he, she and it) are realised as one single form in Yoruba. The salient differences can then be practically demonstrated by comparing grammatical structures in the two languages as follows:

Table 5.4: Comparison of Some Sturctures in English and Yoruba

	English	Yoruba
(1)	Two books	Ìwé méjì
(2)	The books are on the table tábìlì.	Àwon ìwé náà wà ní orí
(3)	The book is on the table	Ìwé náà wà ní orí tábìlì.
(4)	Many of his problems	Òpòlopò àwon ìsòro rè.
(5)	These two chairs	Àwon àga méjì wònyí
6 (a) He went		
(b) She went		ó lo
(c) It went		
7 (a) The boy eats the food	Omokùnrin náà je oúnje náà.
(b) The boys eat the food oúnje	Àwon omokùnrin náà je náà
8.	The children are here	Àwon omo náà wa níbí.

Sentence 1 should be used to draw attention to the fact that in Yoruba the plural form is marked by numerals such as 'méjì' as we have in the Yoruba

version of the sentence. The student should also be informed of other elements that show plurality, for example, the determiners like "òpòlopò". This should then be contrasted with the fact that in English the presence of a 'plural' numeral will not be enough to show plurality. This fact should be demonstrated by the pluralization of the noun "book".

The sentences in 2 and 3 should be explained and used to draw attention to the nature of the noun phrases which function as the subjects of sentences in English especially in terms of the feature specification [+] or [-] plural. The students should be further informed that this feature specification dictated the selection of the verb 'are' in 2 and 'is' in 3. By comparing the English structures in these two sentences to the Yoruba version the teacher will be able to demonstrate to the learners that the concord between the subject and verb in English does not exist in Yoruba. Again 'àwon', a plural determiner in Yoruba, is the only word which marks 'ìwé' in this sentence for plurality and thus distinguishes it from sentence 3.

The teacher should use the sentences in 4 and 5 to raise the learner's consciousness and inform him that within the noun phrase constituent structure in English the different constituent parts (that is, the qualifiers and the head noun) must agree in terms of number. In contrast, it should be shown that the Yoruba noun phase does not require such an agreement.

The sentences in 6 should be used to demonstrate that the forms he, she and it are realized as 'o' in Yoruba; while those in 7 should be used to show that the third person singular subject in the present tense takes the 's' form of the verb while the plural counterpart takes the base form of the verb. Again attention should be drawn to this marked feature of the third person singular subject which does not occur in Yoruba. Finally, sentence

8 should be used to make the learner become aware that there are irregular cases of plural formation in English.

By demonstrating this kind of conscious awareness in the learners, the teacher would have succeeded in explaining cases of interlingual conceptual contrasts between English and Yoruba. This effort in turn will lead to a better and deeper comprehension of the forms and functions of these concepts in actual performance. This kind of consciousness should enable the deep structure component (which represents the level of competence and conceptualization) to be addressed properly.

Cook (1991:25)[5] observes that teachers have to constantly raise the consciousness of their learners by helping them to draw attention to features of the second languages. They should also help the learners by raising their awareness of language, sensitizing and alerting them to features of their first language as they contrast with the second language. This type of conscious raising their should start as early as the first year in the secondary school.

The kind of practical demonstration made of the sentences in 1 - 8 will help the learners to make conscious mental effort to keep the concepts used as example in mind when applying low-level inflectional rules in all kinds of positions and relationships. In addition, this effort will improve the learners' attitude to discovering the underlying rules, categories and system of choice of the target language by themselves.

The new awareness we are seeking as illustrated by sentences 1 - 8 is the one that will enable a learner to establish an adequate interconnection between his first language and his second language. This awareness should be such that the learner would be able to identify the conceptual differences between the two languages with respect to number and gender

and the other concepts identified as fundamental to English language structure (concord, tense, case, person). In fact the learner should be able to say to himself "in my language (L_1) the conceptualization of - number, gender, case, concord etc. is different." In addition, he should be able to appreciate most of the environments of differences conceptually and demonstrate the same competence in his performance.

Cook (1991:114) offers teachers an idea as to how they can help their learners to arrive at the level of awareness stated above. She opines that teachers should be clear in their minds that they are usually teaching people how to use two languages, not how to use one in isolation and should therefore equip learners to use two languages without losing their own identity. She advises that the model for language teaching should be "fluent L_2 user", not the native speaker. Michael Begram (1990) calls this model FL2U "intercultural communicative competence". This model is advantageous in a second language situation because it will enable language teaching to have goals that students can see as relevant and achievable rather than "the distant chimera of native speaker competence" (Cook, 1991:114).

An important aspect of language study that should constitute part of this new awareness is the need for a more systematic approach to the study of words (morphology). The need to study grammatical morphemes, especially, has been stressed by Littlewood (1984), Rivers (1983) and Handscombe (1990). Handscombe (1990:186) for example, has this to say:

> Morphology of affixes should be taught as vocabulary learning is important for second language learning.

In our situation in this study, a particular focus is needed on the underlying ideas behind every form of the concepts identified as fundamental to most of the errors recorded in the written English of educated Nigerian users. This effort on the part of the teacher will allow the use of grammatical markers to make semantic sense and this in turn will help the learner to have less difficulty with grammatical distinctions which correspond to distinctions in meaning. It must be noted that the forms of the concepts which interact in a restricted system should be given intensive practice in order to forge strong habitual associations from which the learners never deviate. This is what Rivers (1983:35) meant when he suggested that this kind of practice need not be given in "solid, tedious blocks" in an attempt to stamp them in the minds of the learners once and for all. Rather he suggests "shorter exercises, reintroduced at intervals over a period of time with other language elements in communicative interchange". This practice should continue until there is proof that the learners have internalized the underlying rules "so effectively that they govern the production of utterances without conscious and deliberate application on the part of the learners."

Effective and consistent feedback in terms of error correction is another widely canvassed solution for errors made by second language users. The need for a more systematic approach to error correction has been the subject of discourse in some of the works of Ellis (1984c), Swain (1985), Chaudron (1988) and Allen, Swain, Harley and Cummins (1990). Effective and consistent correction requires that the teacher understands the source of the errors so that he can provide the appropriate data and other information, sometimes comparative, which will resolve the learners' problems and allow them to discover the relevant rules. This implies that

error correction by the teacher should include explicit explanation and some other observable causes that the teacher is aware of, taking into consideration the learners' first language and environment. Corder (1973: 293) observes, for example, that a more useful error correction might be a comparison of the reconstructed form with its translation equivalent in the mother tongue of the learner. Teachers should also endeavour to exploit the learners' negative instances of concept formation to produce a positive effect and appropriate learning.

A relevant and essential prescription for second language learners' problems can also be found in what has been described by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) as "Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition". Learning strategies, according to these authors, are:

> special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of the information (p. 1).

Weinstein and Mayer (1986: 315) also state the goal of strategy use as follows:

> to affect the learners' motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires organises or integrates new knowledge.[6]

Some authors have also advocated a more communicative input as opposed to the artificial and unnatural drills and exercises within the classroom and the teaching process (Rivers, (1983), Littlewood, (1984), O'Malley and Chamot (1990)). A better communicative input is advantageous because it will enable the learner to integrate separate

structures into a creative system for expressing meaning. The communicative approach to teaching also demands a "constant interplay of learning by analogy and by analysis of inductive and deductive processes according to the nature of the operation the learners are learning" (Rivers, 1983: 36).[7]

There is the need for instructional approaches that provide for communicative activities. This type of instructional approach focuses on language as a skill instead of language as an object of study. For example, Chaudron (1988: 152) advises that teachers should attribute greater roles to interactive features of classroom behaviours such as: turn-taking, questioning and answering, negotiation of meaning and feedback, in contrast to a more traditional view of teaching and learning which conceptualizes classrooom instruction as the conveyance of information from the knowledgeable teacher to the empty and passive learner. The implementation of communicative interaction also has additional advantage of providing creative feedback to learners.

One of the major solutions to learning problems is the necessity for the language teachers to be adequately equipped as professionals. This remark implies that teachers should possess the knowledge that can help them teach effectively and optimally and also enable their students to get the best out of their teaching process. Such knowledge will also enable teachers to understand their students better.

Cook (1991:75) advises that teachers should in practice, be aware of the reservations and preconceptions of their students - that is, what they think of their teacher and of the course. This kind of awareness on the part of the teacher will enable him to motivate his students to the level where students themselves will be eager to get something out of the second

language learning for themselves. Teachers should also eradicate the temptation or practice of asking students to engage in tasks that are beyond their cognitive capacity in the second language.

As professionals, it is important for teachers to realise the psychological need of treating their students as human beings with human needs. When students are treated so, there is a tendency for them to respond to teaching with almost every enthusiasm and human capability at their disposal. For example, teachers should elicit students' attention by providing a relaxed atmosphere for learning.

The learners of a second language, on their part, need to cultivate a reading culture because this is the only way they can be familiar with words and their usage in structures and in communication. Rivers (1983:118) states that learners need to acquire and immense amount of detail about how individual words are used, not only in the conventional way of knowing their dictionary meaning or pronunciation but also in knowing how they behave in sentences.

The second language learners should also evaluate themselves. This type of evaluation will serve to increase their motivation towards the learning tasks. It will also help them to manage and talk to themselves. O'Malley and Chamot (1990:205) advise, for example, that learners should use their own errors in the second language to identify their areas of weakness, to understand why they are making certain types of errors, to make use of teachers' corrections and to evaluate the effectiveness of the different kinds of practice on their learning.

The idea of co-operative learning has also been muted as one way of making second language learners learn effectively. According to Rivers (1983:78).

cooperative learning implies full participation of both teacher and student and the interaction of student with student.

More work on teacher training and professional development is also needed. Corder (1973:328) makes this point when he states that teachers should receive a grounding in linguistics as part of their initial training as teachers.

Planners of English language teaching should include as part of their consideration in planning such factors that bring about differential success among second language learners. These factors, according to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:153), include: age, language aptitude, social-psychological factors, personality, cognitive style, hemisphere specialisation, learning strategies etc. In addition, feedback from students about what they feel about the teaching of English should constitute a consideration in planning and curriculum. This kind of contribution will go a long way to ameliorate the frustrating result currently apparent in the teaching and learning process.

Textbooks should be planned with less attention to manipulation of forms and more attention to tasks which will focus on the communicative meaning of the forms in appropriate situations. Lightbown (1990: 90) advises, for example, that some attention be given to teaching the language itself, to providing some formal analytic teaching that can help students see where their use of the target language differs from that of native speakers. This will help to guard against the development of fossilized interlanguage. It will also enable the task performed in the language

teaching classroom to be a true reflection of the learners' underlying knowledge of the language.

In order to achieve the ease of learning that is highly desirable in second language learning, It is suggested that the teaching and learning of a second language should be done at an early age. This implies that the government, (which takes into consideration political and economic matters) should not decide when second language teaching should start. If the language is to be studied for several years and for permanent effect, as is the case in Nigeria, it is better to start with children rather than with adults.

A knowledge of the nature of the learner's mother tongue is also relevant in planning a language teaching operation. According to Corder (1973: 151) one obvious requirement in sequencing materials in any syllabus is that the learner should move from the known to the unknown, or we should make use of what the learners already know in order to facilitate their learning of what they do not yet know. For this obvious reason, mother tongue education is imperative in the Nigerian situation.

Strevens (1981: 13) states that what is needed in a more general term is an increase in public and professional enlightenment about language, about English in particular. He says further that there should be need for a major campaign of enlightenment for professionals, as well as for the public. It is the more essential that the public should be informed and enlightened in matters of language because language teaching policy derives its ultimate sanction and justification from "the public will" (Strevens, 1977).

The lack of both professional and public enlightenment, according to Strevens, reflects in the continuing inadequacies in the preparation of teachers, teacher trainers, educational administrators and decision making

officials. He advocates that more understanding of the nature of language is needed among the categories of occupation noted above in terms of the individual, of society, literacy, education, literature, philosophy of science, pedagogy, national development and language planning. The prescriptions made above are no less difficult but not impossible. For instance, the new National Universities Commission programme for undergraduates in Nigeria requires that students in the Arts should do a general course in Science while those in Science should take a course in Philosophy. In addition, they are all to pass a General Use of English course. In practical terms, the prescriptions entail more language in the B.A. Degree, more language education in the teacher training course and more applied linguistics in the higher degree course.

NOTES

(1)   A remarkable similarity exists in Yoruba language between relative clause construction and focus construction. The similarities in the two constructions according to Owolabi (1983:454), are particularly marked with regard to the class of sentence constituents that are accessible to the processes employed for forming both constructions as well as structural appearance. The similarities demonstrated in the paper under consideration are convincing enough to make us conclude that the relative clause construction in Yoruba can also be marked by focus construction. The extent to which this is true is

argued for. The differences between the two constructions in Yoruba are also enumerated.

(2)   Patrick Allen et al (1990: 67) observe, for example, that in most classes feedback in terms of error correction is made in a confusing and unsystematic way.

(3)   O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 154) provide a number of issues related to actual implementation of learning strategy instruction.

(4)   Weinreich (1963) also provides other non-structural factors inherent in the bilingual person's relation to the language he brings into contact.

(5)   Other authors who have considered the issue of "consciousness raising" in second language teaching are: Rutherford (1987), Hawkins (1984) and Riley (1985).

(6)   Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:213) also advocated the incorporation of learning strategies in the teacher education programme. Wenden (1985:7) suggests that language teachers should no longer be content to regard their subject matter simply as language. Instead learners must learn how to do for themselves what teachers typically do for them in the classroom. The endeavour to help learners improve their language skills according to

him must be complemented by an equally systematic approach to helping them develop and refine their language learning skills. In other words, learners training should be integrated into language training.

(7)   According to Rivers (1983) a communicative use of the English language in the teaching process and within the classroom environment demands an additional task on the part of the teachers.   This is because they have to teach their learners in a way that will enable the latter (the learners) to make higher level selection decisions by being sensitized at every stage of learning, to the potential for meaning at the manipulative level.

CHAPTER SIX

<u>CONCLUSION</u>

<u>Summary</u>

In this study we have discussed the concepts of coreference with particular attention to pronominal anaphora and the processes of pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization. The structural conditions which permit coreferentiality between two noun phrases in the processes identified above have also been highlighted.

The errors of pronominalization, reflexivization and relativization manifested in the writings of Nigerian educated users of English are identified and analysed against the background of the structural conditions discussed. In this work the class of educated Nigerian users of English has been represented, for convenience, by users with Yoruba mother tongue background. This analysis has been carried out within the transformational generative framework.

The impact of the errors analysed on the overall competence of educated Nigerian English users is evaluated. A number of suggestions that can help improve the teaching and learning of English as a second language are provided. Through the analysis of the errors, we also gained a better understanding of the forms and functions of the concepts - number, case, gender and person. In addition it was noted that a basic problem in educated Nigerian English usage is the inability of the users to master the conceptual contrasts between their first languages and the second language.

In the course of the discussion, it has been observed that the highest number of errors occur under pronominalization, followed by relativization

whereas the fewest errors occur under reflexivization (cf Table 5.2). The commonest source of the errors can be traced back to the operation of the number system in the English language. The inability to discern how this system operates is traced to the fact that the system of number is morphologically expressed in English whereas it is not in Yoruba. Other problem areas observed are:

(i)   the violation of the structural condition which forbids a reflexive from functioning as the subject of a simple sentence;

(ii)   the violation of the specification rules (morphophonemic) which dictate the final shape of the relative pronoun;

(iii)   the non-recognition of the status of the possessive wh-prepositional phrase as modifier;

(iv)   the inability to distinguish between the subjective, objective and the possessive case; and also between the non-person, masculine and feminine gender.

Again, the source of the problem in **i**, **ii** and the first part of **iv** is traced to the difference which is inherent between the forms and functions of the concept - 'case' in English and Yoruba. The problem in the second part of **iv** is traced to the fact that the English Language operates sex gender differentiation in terms of masculine, feminine and neuter (non-person) categories. This is marked in the third person singular forms. On the contrary, gender distinction is not made in the pronominal system of Yoruba and most other Nigerian languages. In **iii**, the problem is traced to the inability to differentiate between a modifier and a head noun The observations above are in the errors recorded under the following: wrong

use of number, wrong selection of reflexive and case errors under relativization, especially the selection of the possessive relative form.

The common error types are those of wrong selection, wrong usage and wrong realization of the pronoun forms.

Implications for Future Research

The areas of coreferentiality left unaddressed in this study can form the subject of another work. This does not necessarily mean that the work to be carried out must follow the objectives, methodology or framework adopted in the present study.

The findings of this study, especially as they result from the errors analysed in chapter four and the evaluation in chapter five, call for a continuous, detailed and specific analysis of the other areas where errors occur frequently in the performance of educated Nigerian users of English. Such areas include concord, tense, aspect, the verb "to be", inflections, passive construction, omission of determiners, (especially articles), sequence of co-occurence between noun phrase constituents, phrases, clauses, use of prepositions, etc. The findings from such research will benefit from previous work and also provide material for further academic study. Such continuous research could be collated from time to time to serve as input for English Language Teaching (ELT) programming. In addition, such research will be of immense value in fashioning out a scientific description of the English language in Nigeria in purely descriptive terms. It will also serve as a means of filtering actual errors from features that are peculiar enough to be designated Nigerian English at the syntactic level.

More research work is also needed on the conceptual contrasts which exist between the English language and indigenous Nigerian languages with respect to systems and concepts such as tense, concord, gender, number, case, aspect, and persons. Such work will help to address the problem of educated Nigerian users of English at the level of deep structure and therefore at the level of competence. Research work of this type may be carried out through any of the modes of inquiry discussed in chapter two of this work, that is, Contrastive Analysis (CA), Error Analysis (EA), Performance Analysis (PA) and Discourse Analysis (DA). The result from such works should contribute to the teaching and learning process which will determine in part, what teachers have to teach and what learners have to learn within the Nigerian English teaching/learning context.

There is also a need to evolve and formalise in practical terms a model of teaching suitable for the EL_2 situation in Nigeria along the sequences proposed and outlined in the recommendations in section 6.3 below.

Recommendations

A research effort does not achieve any practical purpose if all it does is to proffer theoretical solutions to practical problems. This realization and the acknowledged fact that there is no immediate alternative to an adequate competence in the use of the English language, especially as it concerns the fundamental concepts and systems identified in this study, constitute the aim behind this concluding effort.

The first of the practical suggestions recommended is directed towards fashioning out new courses for all those whose training can make them English teachers. These new courses would be seen as foundation and

therefore compulsory, courses for students in the following departments and institutions:

(i)   English departments of Nigerian universities,

(ii) Teacher Education departments with English as a teaching subject;

(iii) Language Arts departments;

(iv) Linguistics departments;

(v)   Departments in colleges of education where students are trained to teach English;

(vi) Grade Two Teacher Training institutions.

The proposed foundation courses could be spread over different departments as follows:

(i)   Department of English - two courses in the B. A. Programme. One of the courses should be on the fundamental concepts in English language grammatical structure. The second course should be on second language acquisition and learning research. Here the students should be exposed to the different issues involved in second language acquisition.

(ii) Department of Teacher Education - two courses in the B. Ed. English degree programme. One of these should be learning theory and strategies in second language learning and acquisition. The second course should be on how to teach the English language particularly in an English as a second language situation.

(iii) Department of Language Arts - a course with a focus on issues relating to competence - linguistic,

communicative and personal. The aim of this course should be to inculcate in the learners the culture of reading and of using English appropriately.

(iv) Department of Linguistics - a course for teachers of English. It could be captioned: "Linguistics for Teachers" and should entail a grounding in language universals and general principles guiding linguistics study.

Students at the colleges of education and teacher training colleges should also be provided with courses patterned after the ones described above. In the various departments identified, students should take the course(s) in their departments and the other courses available in the cognate departments which have been mentioned. All of the courses must also be passed as a basic requirement for the award of degrees in these departments. The idea behind these courses is the need to sensitize and raise the awareness and consciousness of second language learners and would-be teachers to the task of learning and teaching English as a second language.

At the postgraduate level, research efforts should be geared towards second language learning, teaching and strategies. These efforts in turn should provide practical and necessary input for teaching and learning in terms of materials as well as syllabi and curriculum development.

Our second suggestion is a call for a workshop which will involve everybody who is connected with teaching and learning a second language - that is:

(i)   language teachers.

(ii)   educationists.

(iii)   language arts practitioners.

(iv)   linguists

(v)   applied linguists.

(vi)   material writers

(vii)   curriculum and syllabi developers.

(viii)   representatives of students training in:

     (a) teacher training colleges.

     (b) colleges of education.

     (c) single honours students in the departments of English,   Language Arts and Linguistics.

     (d) students in the B.Ed. English programme

     (e) representatives of graduate students in departments mentioned in (c) above.

The aim of this workshop should include:

     (a) a review of the current state of the English language syntax in the country with a view to distinguishing the errors from the correct and acceptable standard usage.

In other words, the idea of what should constitute standard English syntax in Nigeria should be identified from forms which are errors and are therefore deviant forms.

     (b) a review of the major research findings in the areas of second language teaching and learning in the departments of English, language arts, teacher education and linguistics.

The feedback from this review should be used to develop a new curriculum for language teaching and learning that will address the

problem areas apparent in the learning of English as a second language in Nigeria.

    (c)   a discovery of how second language teachers can be trained to provide learning strategy instruction to their students;

    (d)   the commissioning of a body to write textbooks aimed at addressing some of the problems identified in the performance of Nigerian second language users.

The textbooks could be directed towards:

    (i)   those who have yet to start learning English;

    (ii)   those still under one form of training or another;

    (iii)   those who have stopped formal learning - a relearning programme to cater for their inadequacies.

The Science Teachers Association of Nigeria has textbook projects which, for example, have simplified explanation and professional illustration aimed at helping students to learn better. This effort can be imitated by the Nigerian English Studies Association.

    (e)   the development of a model of teaching for our own situation.

This model of teaching could be patterned along these proposed sequences:

At the first level of teaching, concepts in the English language should be taught and highlighted as a foundation which the students would build upon when they come to actually use the forms derived from the concepts identified. An essential concern here could be a demonstration of the differences between the ways these concepts are perceived in English and

in most indigenous Nigerian languages. This effort in turn will bring out the conceptual contrast between the target language and the learner's first languages. When the conceptual contrasts have been drawn up they can be numbered hierarchically. This is to enable the students to grasp these contrasts and implant them in their thought patterns even before going on to learn the forms and function derived from such concepts.

The second step in the sequence of learning could be aimed at ensuring that the students know how inflections give forms and functions to the concepts identified. This could be demonstrated by giving examples in terms of sentence construction and scenarios. An important point to be addressed here should be the highlight of exceptional usage. The knowledge acquired at the second level sequence should enable the learners to categorise relations and concepts semantically.

At the third step in the sequence, the learners could be exposed to drills and exercises which will allow them to demonstrate the knowledge they have acquired at the first and second step sequences in actual performance. The drills and exercises could be patterned in a way which emphasises the communicative use of the forms. In the planning of these drills and exercises all perceived situations should be taken into consideration.

The aim at this third step in the sequence is to demonstrate that no word or group of words has a permanent meaning which can be attached to it like a label which one can learn to use, neither do specific grammatical forms always convey the same meaning. On the contrary, words and grammatical structures all acquire meaning within networks of conceptual relations built up through the experiences of life, including linguistic experiences. The idea behind the proposed model is to make both teachers and learners realize that learning another language means acquiring new

categorisations of semantic relations in accordance with the realisation rules of the new language.

The third pragmatic suggestion we are making has to do with the provision of a forum for practising teachers to reflect on their teaching methods during the long vacation. The provision of such a forum will bring the teachers up to date in their field and this in turn will provide a wealth of ideas for self training and improvement.

In conclusion, we like to stress that research in second language learning and teaching is comparatively new and therefore a lot is still to be known and said about it. This work therefore is a contribution to an on-going effort to explore the area of second language learning in Nigeria. It is hoped that this study has advanced further our understanding and knowledge of the issues involved in second language learning and teaching with particular reference to the coreferential phenomena which have been discussed in this work.

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APPENDIX

ERROR SENTENCES RECORDED

The error sentences recorded are numerically numbered. The alphabet in bracket in some of the sentences in this appendix refer to example sentences used in Chapter Four. The source of each sentence is also indicated. The undergraduate examples are from Ogun State University Ago Iwoye.

ERRORS IN THE USE OF PRONOMINALIZATION

1. <u>Me</u> and my family haven't had any problems since then [The Guardian on   Sunday 4/6/89 P. B4]

2. His first born, junior and <u>me</u> were able to get a free ticket. [Written composition of an SS 3 student]

3. When a student finishes his or her secondary school he or she will no longer wait for government to employ him or her instead <u>him</u> or <u>her</u> will engage in agricultural operation such as farming, fishing. [Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination, English Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989]. Henceforth SSSCE Eng. Paper 1.

4. He wanted to borrow money from "Eduare" meeting in which <u>him</u> and mummy are members. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988].

5. Some of the students who do not read well for <u>his</u> education will end up badly. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

6. There was a time a policeman killed an innocent fellow and when he got home he told <u>her</u> wife that he has caught a grass-cutter [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989]

7. Even mother has also been looking for money by selling some of <u>his</u> property [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988].

8. I think taking my problems to him will be too much for him because <u>his</u> is the backbone of the family [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

9. My father sent for his friend who lives in Kano that <u>him</u> should send some money. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988]

10 A child will not care to pick up <u>thier</u> books after school [SSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV. 1990].

11. A farmer who does not know how a particular machine should be used finds it so difficult to use <u>them</u> [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

12. Many people have no occupation so their next option is to look for where to farm because with this <u>he</u> will be able to afford three square meal. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

13. Agriculture also provides revenue for farmers. By selling <u>his</u> produce, the farmers will get some money [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

14. How really can a student in a school without science equipment pass <u>him</u> or <u>her</u> examination [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989]

15. They promised <u>he</u> when he got there [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989]

16. They disagreed with <u>he</u> by telling <u>he</u> that someone asked for money before <u>he</u> [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

17. All those school leavers who are supposed to get job are roaming about because of <u>his</u> poor performance in his examination [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

18. I will appeal to all students to schedule their time-table to enable <u>they</u> read well. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

19. Anywhere you find yourself today police must take bribe which is not expected of he/her as a civil servant [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

20. The books are few in number and students have to photostat them before they gain access to <u>it</u> [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

21. It is now very rampant among secondary school teachers not to teach their students instead they will ask <u>they</u> to bring money [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

22. I hope that the boys will not die at this time because <u>it</u> is very good at games. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV. 1989].

23. Even with my dad old age I still discussed the matter with <u>her</u>. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

24. If this student should continue with this bad attitude <u>him</u> or <u>her</u> is bound to fail his or her WAEC/GCE exam [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

25. Our fore fathers that cannot read will be hard to convince on the importance of agriculture rather <u>he</u> would prefer to offer sacrifice to please the gods of the land for a good and plenty harvest [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

26. He went to a friend to borrow some amount from <u>he</u> and this friend agree to lend <u>he</u> the money [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988].

27. If the person don't want any problem with them <u>they</u> give out money [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

28. If any country would develop at all, <u>they</u> first of all develop <u>their</u> agricultural sector [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

29. They don't even care to correct <u>they</u> children [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

30. The students continue in their bad ways, whereas at the end <u>them</u> find themselves to blame [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

31. Most of them stay away from school and this make <u>they</u> to fail when they later come to study. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

32. I am using this opportunity to tell you that Joseph is being admitted too in the same University and I do not want <u>he</u> to be ahead of me [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

33. Joseph, your friend asked about you and I have told he that you have been away from home [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

34. By bribing the teacher the student will have it in mind that he has someone who is to help <u>he </u> or <u>she</u>   [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

35. The name of the man is Mr. Okoro and they nickname <u>he</u> as "Mihero". [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990]

36.   The people I met there told <u>us </u> that he has moved from that house. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988].

37. Another effort made by <u>he</u> [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988]

38.   When we got there the man poured the water on <u>he</u> [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

39. My father informed his friend that <u>they</u>^(a) should lend <u>he</u>^(b) money <u>they</u>^(a) refused. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

40. We poured water on her but <u>you</u> refused to response to the water [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989]

41. Some students are the cause of <u>his/her</u> failure in the examination. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

42. When the government gave gun to Iyamu as inspector, <u>it</u> will sell it to Anini.
[SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

43. For instance a student who does not respect his parent talkless of the elders or people senior to him or <u>she</u> . [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990]

44. While in class a teacher may ask <u>he</u> students to bring out their mathematical set for construction work. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990.].

45. It simply means the morpheme which cannot stand on <u>his</u> own. [Second year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled "Introduction to English Morphology (Eng 203) 1989/90 Resit].

46. Morphological conditioning is a process whereby we change the form of a word not according to its surrounding or <u>his</u> relations with other morphemes [Second year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled " An Introduction to Word Formation Process in English (Eng 207) 1987/88 Resit].

47. Bound Morphemes are morphemes which we cannot use on <u>its</u> own [Second year undergraduate Examination script in (Eng 207) 1987/88 Resit].

48. Free morphemes are the ones that can stand on <u>its</u> own [Second year undergraduate Examination script in (Eng 207) 1987/88 Resit].

49. Free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand on <u>their</u> own [Second year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled "Introduction to English Morphology" (Eng 203) 1989/90 Harmattan Semester].

50. The definitions of the structural words can only be known through <u>his</u> function. [Second year undergraduate Examination script in Eng 207 1987/88 Resit].

51. Professor Afolayan and Newsum in <u>his</u> book <u>The Use of English</u> ... [Second year undergraduate Examination script in Eng 207 1986/87 Harmattan Semester]

52. The types of sentence by <u>its</u> structure are ... [First year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled "Elements of Grammar and Usage" (Eng 101) 1989/90 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

53. Main verbs: they are also known as full verbs or simple verbs and they are the types of verbs which can occur on <u>its</u> own. [First year undergraduate Examination script in (Eng 101) - Elements of Grammar and Usage. 1989/90 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

54. Formal languages are non-verbal forms of languages that convey <u>its</u>[a] meaning through certain principles designed by logicians or mathematicians for <u>theirselves</u> [b] [First year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled "Introduction to Language Study" (Eng 102) 1987/88 Rain Semester Examinations].

55.The relationship between the speaker and the hearer, if it is between a lecturer and its student in the classroom the relationship will be formal. [First year undergraduate Examination script in Eng 102 1990/91 Rain Semester Examinations].

56. If a child is taken into isolation that is, taken away from <u>it</u> environment into a forest where he cannot interract with human beings. [First year undergraduate Examination script in (Eng 102) 1987/88 Rain Semester Examinations].

57. Lexis refers to words and <u>its</u> meaning. [First year undergraduate Examination scripts in (Eng 102) 1988/89 Rain Semester Examinations].

58. Standard English can be written or spoken: Under spoken form we can hear it on the English programme (BBC) in <u>his</u> written form it is also

made use of on the television. [First year undergraduate Examination scripts in (Eng 102) 1989/90 Rain Semester Examination,.

59. Many views were expressed about the phonology of Nigerian English, it include that of Amayo, Atoye, Dairo etc [Second year undegraduate Examination script in the course titled "The English Language in Nigeria": (Eng. 204) 1989/90 Resit Examination].

60. Individual bilingualism: This is when an individual has two languages for its communication needs [Second year undergraduate Examination script in (Eng 204): The English Language in Nigeria 1988/89 Rain Semester Examinations].

61. For example Yoruba has words for days of the week but it is noticed that many Yorubas are not aware of its existence. [Second year undergraduate Examination script in (Eng 204): The English Language in Nigeria 1987/88 Rain Semester Examination].

62. English in Nigeria is not a mother tongue language. This is because the users have already acquired his mother tougue that is, the first language. [Second year undergraduate Examination script in (Eng 206) - The English Language in Nigeria 1986/90 Rain Semester Examination].

63. These native words have been literarily wiped out that the native speakers are unaware of its existence. [Second year undergraduate Examination script in Eng 204 1989/90 Rain Semester Examinations].

64.   These two examples are subjected to different meanings according to <u>its</u> uses. [Second year undergraduate script in Eng 204 1989/90 Resit Examinations].

65. Moreover, some words have another meaning given to <u>it</u> [Second year undergraduate Examination script in Eng 204 1989/90 Rain Semester Examinations].

66.   Mother is used to refer not only to one's maternal progenitor but any relation as old as <u>hers</u> [Second year undergraduate Examination script in Eng 204 1989/90 Rain Semester Examinations].

67.   In the night, the wife went to <u>his</u> husband's house [Written composition of an SS3 student].

68. When the bridegroom went for <u>their</u> wife [Written composition of an SS3 student].

69.   When the bride's mother and father was praying for <u>him</u> [Written composition of an SS3 student].

70.   We waited a little for the bridegroom to arrive, after <u>her</u> arrival .... [Written composition of an SS3 student].

71   The bridegroom and <u>their</u> family. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

72. The wife doesn't want to leave <u>his</u> sisters and parents. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

73.   After this, the bride was brought before <u>his</u> husband. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

74. The wife and <u>its</u> parents. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

75. The groom will come to the bride house with <u>their</u> family. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

76. The father-in-laws of the bride will now handle his daughter over to <u>his</u> bridegroom. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

77.   The bride feeds <u>his</u> bridegroom. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

78.   The bride is leaving <u>his</u> parent. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

79. The bride and <u>his</u> relative move down to te bridegroom house to host the programme. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

80.   The traveller increased <u>its</u> speed [Written composition of an SS3 student].

81.   The father of the wife took <u>her</u> child to the front and the wedding started. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

82.   The oldman was bleeding but <u>they</u> promised not to go to the hospital [Written composition of an SS3 student].

83.   The man heard a sound under his car and <u>she</u> came out to check what was happening. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

84.   The girl was crying because <u>he</u> was leaving her parents [Written composition of an SS3 student].

85. The bridegroom's father could not stay long because <u>they</u> had an important assignment. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

86.   And <u>will</u> just wave for the motor [Written composition of an SS3 Student].

87. Before <u>will</u> got there about 11 people have died [Written composition of an SS3 student].

88. As <u>will</u> are going [Written composition of an SS3 student].

89.   After entering <u>will</u> then prayed for the couple   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

90. As <u>will</u> are going one car overspeed our bus immediately <u>will</u> saw the rate at which the car was moving   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

91. Fixed the date of <u>there</u> marriage. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

92. The photographers also took <u>there</u> own parts in the ceremony. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

93. When <u>the</u> got there, the programme started, [Written composition of an SS3 student].

94. So when <u>the</u> finished with the introduction... [Written composition of an SS3 student].

95. The chairman of the day, prayed for them that <u>the</u> shall be forever [Written composition of an SS3 student].

96.   Then <u>the</u> left the mosque, dancing to the reception   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

97.   When they got to the hospital <u>the</u> treated this man   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

98.   <u>Their</u> was a police man around   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

99. When we get their [Written composition of an SS3 student].

100. The couple left their^a for there^b house . [Written composition of an SS3 student].

101. Their are other instances where some young men could not feed their own wives [Written composition of an SS3 student].

102.   Their was nobody around to take care of the man [Written composition of an SS3 student].

103.   What a miracle his this. [Written composition of an SS3 student].

104.   Their is a certain thing to do [Written composition of an SS3 student].

105.   Their was rejoicing and dancing [Written composition of an SS3 student].

106.   The bridegroom was so happy that _____ couldn't say anthing but he was jsut laughing [Written composition of an SS3 student].

107.   They were prayed for by the pastor and _____^(a) pronounced ____^(b) as husband and wife [Written composition of an SS3 student].

108. The road commisioner told the driver I should limit his speed [Written composition of an SS3 student].

109. He won the case between <u>he</u> and the police [Written composition of an SS3 student].

110.   After the sermon _____ went to the reception   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

111. They <u>we</u> joined together [Written composition of an SS3 student].

112.   When the Alfa want to join <u>they</u> together   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

113. <u>Them</u> started to be lovers or future partners   [Written composition of an SS3 student].

114. Thanks the bride and bridegroom for making him the chairman of the day and prayed for them [Written composition of an SS3 student].

115. 'The prodigal son': The play 'bends' away from the course charted by <u>it's</u> biblical parallel. [The African Guardian November 6th 1986 P. 35] .

116.   CCTV is generally not commercial the major function is infromation but now <u>they</u>   entertain [A handout titled Educational Technology; Implications for Teacher Education P. 53].

117.   He said if I like I could come and collect the papers filed by Fani Kayode and keep <u>it</u> [Tempo 27th of September, 1993 P. 13].

118.   Each nationality   must be able to use <u>its</u> resources for the development of <u>her</u> people and the federation at large Tempo 27th of September, 1993 P. 22].

119. Our focus will be on the English language which has been among the favoured and priviledged language by reason of <u>it's</u> geographical spread, <u>it's</u> cultural development and the tendencies of <u>it's</u> speakers. [From the manuscript of a final year student's Long Essay titled: "A Linguistics Analysis of Slang Usage Among Nigerian Undergraduates. A Case Study of the Kegites Club"]

120.   The type of language used by any individual depends on the environment or situation he or she finds <u>his</u> or herself   [From the manuscript " A Linguistics Analysis of Slang Usage Among Nigerian Undergraduates. A Case Study of the Kegites Club"].

121. This is usually used in Kegite club when the chief is commanding <u>its</u> members   [From the manuscript " A Linguistics Analysis of Slang Usage Among Nigerian Undergraduates. A Case Study of the Kegites Club"].

122.   They use words according to how <u>it </u> suits them so far<u> it</u> can communicate meaning to their addressee or receiver [From the manuscript " A Linguistics Analysis of Slang Usage Among Nigerian Undergraduates. A Case Study of the Kegites Club"].

123.   The word after being stereotyped still maintains it word class as noun [From the manuscript of a final year student's Long Essay titled " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slan In Nigerian Situation"].

124. .... but the utterance rather than refer to a section in the constitution it is used by people to refer to the criminal or person found guilty of the offence   [From the manuscript " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation"].

125. Aircraft as we know is the fastest means of transportation and is does not usually involve in hold-up   [From the manuscript " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation"].

126. The name "AGRIC" is derived from the fact that ____ is a type of rice produced by the Federal Ministry of Agriculture in Nigeria ... [From the manuscript " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation"].

127. It also gives a beautiful aroma in addition to its good quality while its being cooked   [From the manuscript " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation"].

128. The word "AGRIC" is used by undergraduate to refer to students who look bigger than his or her age, especially when he/she acts or behaves in the manner of his/her age [From the manuscript " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation"].

129. .... the failures on the parts of the students to take into consideration that pronouns and <u>its</u> antecedents must agree, in person, number and in gender; ... [From the manuscript of final year student's Long Essay titled: "An Analysis of Errors of Pronouns in the Written English Composition of Some Final Year Students of Some Secondary School"].

130. If this attitude is not checked, there is no way <u>their</u> can be any improvement because these students spend more hours at home than in school. [Fom the manuscript of a final year student's Long Essay titled: "The Problem of Homophone in Nigerian English Usage: A Case Study of SS 1 students.

131. However, some Nigerians see nothing peculiar among Nigerian speakers of English to merit <u>their</u> being a type to be called "Nigerian English" [From the manuscript   "The Problem of Homophone in Nigerian English Usage... "]

132. He is managing director and chief executive officer of a fictitious import and export firm which has <u>is</u> head office in Lagos [The Guardian on Sunday December 29th 1991, P. B5].

133. Just a week after he began to accept" drop or charter" offers from passengers <u>she</u> had an eventful story to tell [The Guardian on Sunday; 29th of December , 1991, P. B5].

134. In a bid to satisfy every sexual whim and caprice, many a couple break his/her marriage vow. [The Guardian on Sunday; 29th of December , 1991, P. B5].

135. But on second thought he, unexpectedly fired the question back to the female reporter, "As a young lady and me being a young man, what will you remember me for? [The Guardian on Sunday; 29th of December , 1991, P. B3].

136. Like the master teaching the apprentice he should take them through a step by step process so that they can learn and understand . [Fom a Handout titled: "Micro and Teaching Practice: Implication for Teacher Education" P. 9].

137.   There are various types of objective tests: These are:
(i)   missing words
(ii)   incomplete sentences
(iii)   true/false statement
(iv) multiple - choice items/answers
(v)   matching pairs of statements and responses etc accomplished by precise instruction to the tests on how to record his responses [From a Handout titled: "Principles and Practice of Education " P. 48].

138. Even the uncooperative attitude of teachers within the group, high cost of maintaining it may pose a problem and may destroy it purpose [From "Principles and Practice of Education " P. 37].

139. The essay type allows the students to organise his <u>thought</u> and to communicate <u>them</u> in his own style [From "Principles and Practice of Education " P. 43].

140. It is necessary to mention that this question has already engaged the attention of some language scholars in Nigeria (Afolayan, 1977; 1984;1978; Amayo, 1984; Banjo, 1970; Bamgbose, 1971) and each has variously provided <u>their</u> answers by examining different aspects [From a seminar paper titled: " Word Stress in Nigerian English: A Preliminary Examination" P 1].

141. Literary theory isolates the fragment of meaning in a text and arranges <u>them</u> into a recognisable patterns [From a seminar paper titled: "Literary Theory as a Gamble: A Reading of Feminism" P. 1].

142. While Akere uses comunicative competence as <u>its</u> cut off point, Odumuh settles for second year tertiary level students [From a seminar paper titled: "Nigerian English : The Journey So Far " P. 5].

143. Government desire to achieve <u>its</u> objectives outlined on page 1 made <u>her</u> to place education in the first group of priorities during the Second National Development Plan. [From the Handout   "Resources in Education": An Introduction P. 13].

144. The text in carrying out <u>his</u>[a] objectives potrays a character by the name Moll Flander <u>who</u>[b] the story is all about. [Third year undergraduate Test in the course titled " The English Novel Tradition": ENG. 354].

145. In the poem both the two lovers lie to each other about there true identity though they know that they are lying [First year undergraduate assignment in the course titled: "Introduction to Literature throguh Poetry": ENG 153].

146.   Both poem are sonnet because they are poem of fourteen lines, they are also sonnet because of there structure [From ENG 153 assignment].

147.   Though I gave a friend of my   to assist   in completing my registration [From a letter written by an undergraduate].

148.   As Sango's entrance is completed, its almost as if some spirits enter with him, because the dance steps of the people become more invigorating and frenzied [Second year undergraduate assignment in the course titled: "Drama Genres and Techniques ENG 254].

149.   Sango is seen as a betrayer to his people, and his tries to use Gbonka against Timi, ... [ENG 254 assignment].

150.   This was effectively done; The characters forgot about their individual self in carrying out their different roles and demonstrate his or her own understanding of life
[ENG 254 assignment].

151   Oya played her role very well and he shows some maturity and experience in the play [ENG 254 assignment].

152. Though all the cast did <u>there</u> best for sacrificing their time and effort to bring us the play [ENG 254 assignment].

153. There was a festival in honour of Sango the thunder divinity and <u>her</u> wife Oya which was celebrated in style   [ENG 254 assignment].

154. .... it starts with the singing of traditional songs which introduced the dancers on stage in praise of Sango during <u>its</u> festival   [ENG 254 assignment].

155. He is looked up to as a god on <u>its</u> own   [ENG 254 assignment].

156. Sango is accompanied on stage with lighting (fire) which gives a kind of cinematic effect in the appearance and departure <u>of him</u>   [ENG 254 assignment].

157. The character try <u>there</u> possible best most especially Gbonka and Sango [ENG 254 assignment].

158. The play has <u>it</u> root in the traditional Yoruba way of life [ENG 254 assignment].

159. The chorus singers in the plays also gave a good colour to the play as <u>he</u> prepare the mind of the audience towards a good and beautiful time in the theatre hall as <u>he</u> sing to the praise of Sango and ... [ENG 254 assignment].

160. Sango appeared later and everyone bowed in awe of <u>Sango</u> [ENG 254 assignment].

161. The character Esu was not well portrayed at all, in the first place <u>they</u> did not use good costume the Esu was not looking fierce or someone to be in awe of he was just there [ENG 254 assignment].

162. Some of the characters did not use the traditional "Aso ofi " it's like they just made use of what <u>the</u> could lay their hands on   [ENG 254 assignment].

163. By and large the drama is commendable not minding some of <u>it</u> short falls [ENG 254 assignment].

164. She discovers <u>its</u> nothing but a white stuff known as efun [ENG 254 assignment].

165. Also <u>their</u> is trace of imperfection in some of the casts [ENG 254 assignment].

166. In some second language situations these interference varieties have become so wide-spread over a long period of time that <u>it</u> may be thought of in Quirk's word as: "stable and adequate enough" [From a seminar paper titled: "Nigerian English - The Journey So Far " P. 8].

167. The fire at certain occasion fail to strike which is certainly a shortfall in the dramatic technique and a minus in it effects [From ENG. 254 assignment].

168. Their characters were okay although thay could do better, not all of them were serious enough   [ENG 254 assignment].

169.   The praise singer also carries the audience along as it introduces every scene in the drama [ENG 254 assignment].

170. I started dreaming of what — want to become in future [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

ERROR IN THE USE OF REFLEXIVIZATION

171.   The driver and myself went upstairs]. [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989

172.   On the bench ouside was myself and twelve others. [Vanguard Newspaper, October 15th 1988 P. 13].

173.   Myself and another girl went [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

174. The bank manager was good to myself and my people [Vanguard Newspaper, October 15th 1988 P. 13].

175.   The palace and shrine at Ile-Ife belong to <u>myself</u> and Atuwase II [Vanguard Newspaper, Saturday 29th of 1987 P. 8].

176. <u>Myself</u> and my father are happy   [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

177.   The Oba persuaded the police to detain <u>himself</u> and his people [Evening Sketch Thursday January 28th 1988 P. 1].

178.   <u>Myself</u> was very happy that you received the letter [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1990].

179. One gateman charged at my host and colleague, Chris, Nwegbo and <u>myself</u> "where to ? to which we replied in unision " to the PRO's office [Daily Champion, May 24th 1988 P. 23].

180. Alhaji Arisekola Alao and <u>myself</u> went to see him around 10 p. m. Saturday March 12. [Quality Weekly October 27th 1988 Vol. 2, No. 21 P. 9].

181. <u>Herself</u> and Eze quarelled [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

182. <u>Myself</u> and all our children wish you many happy returns of the day [Independent (Catholic) Newspaper; July 2nd 1989 P. 4].

183. <u>Myself</u> and the entire family hereby express our sincere gratitude to you [In a personal letter written by an NCE graduate].

184.   .... but suffice it to say that at the end of the match <u>myself</u> Ikhazoboh, Gov Ogbeha now in Bendel had to escape into a toilet [Tribune Sport; August 22nd, (Tuesday) 1989 P. 18].

185.   <u>Myself</u> and my school principal applied for loan at the people's Bank [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

186. I am a civil servant and <u>himself</u> was jobless [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988].

187. <u>Myself</u> and the personnel manager were busy discussing [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1988].

188. Those from poor parents will like to achieve him[a] own aim and to protect his —[c] self[b] [SSSCE English Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

189.   <u>Myself</u> and my assistant Rita Ugolo made all the necessary preparation [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

190.   <u>Myself</u> , the injured student and Rita with the driver all entered the bus and we drove to the hospital [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

191. When one has acquired the basic knowledge of Agricultural Science in school he will be able to help him[(a)] survive this present economic

predicament and also to make <u>one</u>[(b)] - <u>self</u>[(c)] relevant [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

192.   If Agricultural Science is not made compulsory in the secondary school, young school leavers will not like to engage <u>their</u>[(b)] - <u>self</u>[(a)] in agricultural production [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

193.   I myself is looking forward to see the photograph of <u>your</u>[b] - <u>self</u>[a] [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

194.   If everybody should involve <u>themselves</u> in going to farm [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

195.   It will help most of the lazy students to participate in farming especially the children from rich homes who will never like to do any work by <u>them</u>[b] - <u>self</u>[a] [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

196. The agric science which they learnt in school will help them to have <u>their</u>[b] - <u>self</u>[a] employed [SSSCE Eng. Paper 1 OCT/NOV 1989].

197. Code switching involves the bilingual individual making use of the two languages simultaneously in expressing <u>himselve</u> [Second year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled Eng. 204 1988/89 Rain Semester Examinations].

198. There are various terms that are being used by them which ordinary laymen cannot understand by they   <u>themselves</u> [From a first year

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undergraduate assignment in a course titled : Introduction to Language Study ENG. 102 1989/90 Rain Semester Examination].

199. Also some indigenous languages <u>itself</u> are not universally accepted among themselves as in the Yoruba tribe. [Second year undergraduate examination script in the course titled: The English language in Nigeria [ENG. 206] 1986/87 Rain Semester Examinations].

200. In fact <u>myself</u> and a friend were in front, so we got captured while the other three took to their heels [Vintage People July 6th to 12th 1990 P. 9].

201. When educated people discuss among <u>themself</u> they use the word they understand [First year undergraduate Examination script in the course Introduction to Language Study ENG 102   1988/89 Rain Semester Examination].

202. I'll crack this joke first <u>Myself</u> and Babangida had this truce, we didn't arrange it, it was brought about by FIFA. [Classique; July 30th, 1990; P. 35].

203.   Also some learned occupations and professionals do borrow terminology from <u>themselves to their slang</u>. [From the manuscript of a final year student long essay titled "An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation"].

204. .... then the president called Arthur and <u>myself</u> to a small house, ... [Tempo, 27th September 1993 P. 15].

205.   Myself , Arthur we will go to Aso Villa, we discussed the next plan [Tempo, 27th September 1993 P. 14].

206. Chief Bisi Onabanjo, Chief Bola Ige, Professor Ambrose Alli, Alhaji Lateef Jakande, Papa Michael Ajasin, Mrs Iyabo Odinamadu, Chief O. N. Rewane, Professor Banji Akintoye, Chief M. C. K. Ajuluchukwu and myself were among those present at the meeting [Sunday Tribune 24th of May 1987 P. 13].

207.   How Yetunde and Michael came across themselves [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

208. The couple introduced themself (a)(b) [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

209. Everybody will enjoy themself (a)(b) [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

210.   The couple had agreed to marry themselves (a)(b) [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

211.   The rest are unable to control themself (a)(b) [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

212.   We should all share love within ourself [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

213.   After this, they introduced the couple's parent to <u>themselves</u> [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

214.   The family of the bride and bride - groom introduced <u>themselves</u> [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

215. They would know when they are still keeping <u>themselves</u> as lovers [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

216.   The family introduced <u>theirselves</u> to the wife's family   [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

217.   These days men or women find wives and husband for <u>theirselves</u> [Written composition of an SS 3 Student].

218.   To cut the wedding   cake and feed <u>theirselfs</u> ^{(a)(b)}   [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

219. I wish <u>herself</u> such a wedding in future [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

220. They all went to the reception to cut the cake and enjoy <u>herself</u> [Written composition of an SS 3 student].

221.   Jane Austen <u>himself</u> can be said to be a psychologist she portrays Emma has been suffering from a psychological problem   [Third year

undergraduate Test in the course titled " The English Novel Tradition " ENG. 354].

222. In sonnet about repetition in " line 10 and 11" he lay emphasis on wherefore to show that the two of them know that they were deceiving themselve[a][b] [First year undegraduate assignment in the course titled: "Introduction to Literature through Poetry " ENG. 153].

223.   The centre theme of the play Sango Olufiran is about man itself [Second year undergraduate assignment in the course titled: "Drama Genre and Techniques - ENG 254].

224.   However, whereas the potential audience for Ogunde's plays in Yoruba is 30 million, that for Soyinka or Osofisan themselves Yoruba like Ogunde is only some 10 million which is the estimated population of the class whose functional language is English in Nigeria [From a Seminar Paper titled: " The Aesthetics of Black Africa Theater P. 6].

225 How is Olawunmi and Mufti and yourself? [From a letter written by a graduate]

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226.   Some of these sources are newspaper who often make mistakes [From manuscript of a final year student long essay titled "The Use of Auxiliaries in Newspaper Headlines"].

227.   The vision exhibited by Kihika who was not trained in a missionary school, is more valuable than that which is gained by Karanja <u>who</u> his society does not benefit from his education [From the manuscript of a final year student's long essay tittle " Ngugi and Literature of Revolt: An Analytical Reading of <u>A Grain of Wheat</u> and <u>Petals of Blood</u>.

228.   The individual <u>in who</u> these two languages meet and are being used is known as the locus of contact [Second year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled the English Language in Nigeria [ENG. 204] 1989/90 Resit Examinations].

229.   The boy <u>whom</u> is supposed to be reading will be sent here and there [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

230.   As we know the police are specially trained men <u>whom</u> are assigned to do a particular job [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

231.   It was my father <u>whom</u> was retired   [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

232.   An armed robbery gangster headed by late Lawrence Anini and his second in command late Monday Osunbor <u>whom</u> was recently executed [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

233. This was the case of Inspector General Omoeben <u>whom</u> they killed the driver [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

234.   Also, we made arrangement to inform the parents <u>whom</u> are not aware [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

235. Mostly all the new students <u>which</u> have never been to the University before were excited [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1988].

236. As you have known, my dad has many children <u>which</u> he is caring for [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1988].

237.   I am here this afternoon to further promote the proposal <u>who</u> says that the police are not to be blamed for the rise in crime in our society [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

238.   I have nobody else to look unto except you <u>whom</u> are now my last resort [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1988].

239.   ... as much in sentence construction as in endowing identities to words <u>who</u> have different meanings but share the same root [Third year undergraduate assignment in the course titled Introduction to English Semantics ENG. 302].

240.   Countable nouns are nouns <u>who</u> are easy to measure weigh or evaluate [First year undergraduate script in the course: " Elements of Grammer and Usage" - ENG 101 1989/90.

241. A direct object is one <u>who</u> directly bears the consequencees of an action [First year undergraduate in the course titled ENG 101 1989/90 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

242. An Egba couple, who have stayed all their life in the northern part of Nigeria might have children <u>which</u> grow up to acquire Hausa dialect as their first language [From the manuscript of a final year student's long essay titled "Languages in Contact: A Case Study of Code Switching and Code Mixing as Used by the University of Ibadan Students on Campus].

243. Language is used to suit the occasion in <u>whom</u> the language user is [First year undergraduate Examination script in the course titled: Introduction to Language Study Eng 102 1989/90 Rain Semester Examinations].

244.   There has been various contributions on this issue from various linguists among <u>which</u> are Banjo, Adetugbo, Effiong, Amayo, Ayotunde etc. [Second year undergraduate script in the course titled " The English Language in Nigeria" [ENG 206] 1987/1988 Rain Semester Examinations].

245.   There were even those <u>whose</u> believe that there is no need for delimiting because this is not without its problems [Second year undergraduate script in the course titled: ENG 206 1987/88 Rain Semester Examinations].

246. A policy must make clear pronouncements on the welfare of athletes <u>without</u> <u>who</u> most of the sports council officials will be unemployed [Vanguard Newspaper 7th of June 1988 P. 14].

247. They had soildiers <u>which</u> they used to scare the natives away [Part three undergraduate assignment in the course titled "Dramatic Forms" ENG 356].

248. The milesians <u>which</u> gave material things as originature [First year undergraduate script in the course titled: "The Biblical World of the Old Testament [REL: 115] 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

249. The other character <u>who</u> level of knowledge is deficient [Part three undergraduate assignment in the course titled " Dramatic Forms" - ENG 356].

250. Such a woman <u>who</u> dowry was not paid became an object of derision [Second year undergraduate script in the course ENG 204 1989/90 Rain Semester Examinations].

251. Many officials are dishing out advice to the athletes <u>who</u> they do not know even their events or names [Vanguard Newspaper, 16th of September 1988 P. 15].

252. The gift was given to his daughter <u>whom he</u> arranged her marriage [SSSCE Eng. Paper. I OCT/NOV 1990].

253. They started many projects which they stopped <u>their</u> construction halfway   [SSSCE Eng. Paper. I OCT/NOV 1990].

254. Afolabi Adesanya is one reporter <u>that</u> Newswatch mourned his exit on the magazine's photo pages [Sunday Guardian, 4th of September 1988 P. B4].

 255. These are the words that one cannot find their meaning in the dictionary [Second year undergraduate scripts in the course titled: "Introduction to English Morphology Eng. 203 1989/90 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

256. Blessed are the poor for those are the people <u>God will fight their cause</u>   [From a story titled: "The Rich Neighbours" submitted for Eng. 320 Creative Writing 1987/88 Rain Semester].

257. A antrhopologist must spend time with the people <u>he is trying to learn their language</u> [First year undergraduate script in the course Eng. 102].

258. Were is the dress? The one I have the blouse [From a drama sketch submitted for Eng. 420: Advanced Creative writing titled: "Double Take" 1987/88 Rain Semester].

259. On the other hand comprador elements refer to that class of the bougeoise <u>which</u> existence is dependent on its role as a subordinate agent of International Finance Capital [Daily Times of 24th of May 1988 P. 18].

260. NACB is accused by critics of having obtained only signatures of government owned agencies of the proposed market, neglecting private institutions <u>who</u> will make the market work [Daily Times of 24th of May 1988 P. 18].

261. That re-imbursement of the travelling allowance from the club to the national camp should be borne by the NFA <u>who</u> should make available such money through state FA's upon invitation to the national camp ... [Daily Times of 24th of May 1988 P. 23].

262. I hope they are fine and healthy especially your first child Oseremen <u>whom</u> Aunty Ekiomo said looks like me [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1990].

263. The provision of mechanised farming has been introduced into Nigeria <u>who</u> has been accustomed to simple farming   [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1989].

264. The grammatical words are functional; words <u>which</u> meanings are derived from their usage [Second year undergraduate script in the course ENG. 203 1989/90 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

265. We have two codes <u>which</u> usage is determined by the situation one find himself in [Second year undergraduate script in the course ENG. 204 1989/90 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

266.   We enjoyed the company of those people around <u>who</u> we stayed [SSSCE Eng. Paper I OCT/NOV 1988].

267.   ... and our lagging behind in the industralisation race compared to other countries <u>who</u> attained their political independence at the same period as Nigeria [The Guardian on Sunday 29th of December 1991 P. C4]

268.   <u>Standardized Tests</u> :- These are tests that have been administered to a sample of individuals representative of the popualtion <u>for</u> <u>who</u> the particular test are intended [From a handout titled: "Principles and Practice of Education" P. 49] .

269.   And being a Monday morning flight, there were sure to be on board a number of ranking government officials returning to their duty posts, some <u>of who</u> were members of the Interim National Government and armed agents of an arm of the nation's secret services [The Guardian on Sunday October 31st 1993 P. B1].

270.   ... and even dropped into a Newspaper house along Oshodi Apapa dual carriage ways last Wednesday morning to seek publicity for MAD's refutation of claims that it was championing Abiola's cause, <u>who</u> they would rather have tried for an alleged financial impropriety [The Guardian on Sunday October 31st 1993 P. B2].

271.   It is not hard to see that this conception and understanding of philosophy is of the extreme form of what B. Bykghousky has called the "deobjectivication of philosophy" which vividly illustrates the crisis

within bourgeois philosopher, <u>for who</u> reality exist in number. [From a Seminar Paper Titled: "Of Abstract Philosophy and Social Relevance" P. 13].

272. .... portrays a character by the name Moll Flander <u>who</u> the story is all about [Third year undergraduate Test in the course titled: " The English Novel Tradition Eng 354].

273. Emma Woodhouse comes from a rich family and <u>whose</u> sister is married to George Kinghley's brother but Emma doesn't like him because ... [Third year undergraduate Test in Eng 354].

274. Blitzer and Miss Spatsit is another character noteworthy, <u>in which</u> Charles Dicken depicts the level of ambitious and greedy notion of the people in that era who want to step in others shoes at their expenses [From ENG. 354 Test].

275. The second quatrain deals with a deer <u>who</u> is compared to a lady [First year undergraduate assignment in the course titled: "Introduction to Literature Through Poetry" Eng 153].

276. The poet is tired of trying to wooing the lady <u>who</u> he refers to as ' Deer' [From Eng 153 assignment].

277.   ... an example is when the character <u>which</u> was supposed to be Balogun said "but" instead of "sugbon" [Second year undergraduate

assignment in the course titled: "Drama Genres and Techniques" Eng 254].

278.   I took a course PHL 205: African Philosophy, in the Philosophy Department, the result of which was not pasted nor added to my GPA [From an undergraduate letter of complaint to a Departmental Examination officer].

279. Ghost could also mean: spirit of God, soul of a dead person, a dead person appearing to a living person one of which the existence is imaginary or based on a delusion and that which haunts [From the manuscript of a final year student's long essay titled: " A Semantic Analysis of Femi Osofisan's Midnight Hotel "].

280.   However, these sentences have meaning according to which context they appear [From the manuscript of a final year student's long essay titled "The Problem of Homophone in Nigerian English Usage: A Case Study of SS1 Students].

281. The variation is not only according to who we are but also according to the situation in which we find ourselves [From the manuscript of a final year student's long essay titled: " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation "] .

282. Monaghan Robert (1983) describes pre-emptive construct as being reductionistic in which word is used to reduce another person or group or

event or idea to narrowly restricted category [From the manuscript " An Examination of the Use of Stereotypes and Slang in Nigerian Situation"].

283.   Slangs colourful metaphors are generally directed at respectability and it is this succint, sometimes witty, frequently impertinent and social criticism — gives slang its characteristic flavour [ibid].

284. So da mò
This is a Yoruba phrase which ask the question that " do you know it"! [ibid].

285.   For example, the word "YANKEE" which is borrowed from the United States of America into Nigeria   slang which is used to refer to second cars or vehicles in United States of America, but in Nigeria the same word or slang is used to refer to American States. [ibid]

286.   Slang, the subject matter of this essay is a good example of idiolect and dialect, since certain groups especially young people among which we have undergraduates are especially fond of [From the manuscript of a final year student's long essay titled "A Linguistic Analysis of Slang Usage Among Nigerian Undergraduates: A Case Study of the Kegites Club"].

287.   How can Nigerians, 90 percent of who have no investible naira in savings accounts be simulated as Europeans, who save habitually? [Sunday Times May 10th 1987 P. 5].

288. It is on record that against the opposition of some officials both in the Central Bank and in the Ministries, the late Chief, <u>who</u> Achebe has hurled vilification at, reactivited   the African Continental Bank (ACB) [The Herald, Saturday, June 6th 1987 P. 4].

289. He was met at Gatwick Airport by Her Royal Highness and Sir Angus Ogilvy, husband of Her Royal Highness Alexandra, the Duke of Edingburgh, Prince Philip, and Neil Kinnock, leader of the opposition, with <u>who</u> he spent 30 minutes behind closed door at Buckingham Palace [This Week May 22nd 1989 P. 23].

290.   There is evidence that European banks have been more willing to grant Nigeria new money than either The US bank <u>who </u> are less exposed and the smaller Asian and Middle - East banks   [African   Concord December, 1986 No 121 P. 55].

291.   They were stopped by a group of police <u>which</u> have already noticed them [Written composition of an SS 3 student]

292.   .... and he should take her back and love her and buy her from the person   <u>which </u> she followed [First year undergraduate script in the course REL 115 : The Biblical World of the Old Testament 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

293.   .... he observed that the Egyptians have to remeasure the land every year for the peasant farmers after the flood of the Nile <u>who</u> have removed the marks of the previous year [First   year undergraduate script in the

course [REL 115]: The Biblical World of the Old Testament 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examination].

294. The Nabiis <u>which</u> are the group ecstatic were said to have sprang since the time of Moses [First year undergraduate script in the course REL 115 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

295. Sophists and particularly Gorgias and Protagoras were people <u>of which</u> Socrates is a comtemporay [First year undergraduate scripts in the course titled: History of Greek and Roman Philosophy [PHL 101] 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

296. A prophet could be a person <u>which</u> is divinely set apart to prophesy for the people [First year undergraduate script in the course titled: " Introduction to the Study of Religions [REL: III] 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

297. The Caravan trader later sold him to an Egyptian <u>whom Joseph found favour</u> in him [First year undergraduate script in the course titled: The Biblical World of the Old Testament [REL: 115] 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

298. This is because it usually takes up to 30 - 35 years before <u>which</u> the average condition of a place can be compiled. [First year undergraduate script in the course titled: The Physical Environment of Man [GRP 101] 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].

299. My good results enable me to get into Ogun State University <u>in which</u> I am now studying English [Eng. 101 Assignment] .

300. The Classical prophets were the prophets <u>who</u> names appeared in the Old Testament.   [First year undergraduate script in the course tilted: Introduction to the Study of Religions [REL: III] 1986/87 Harmattan Semester Examinations].