Final Paper: Pronominals in Edo - A descriptive study

1. Introduction

This paper describes the pronominal system of Edo ($\bar{\epsilon}d\delta$; AKA Bini), a Niger-Congo language spoken in the vicinity of Benin City in Nigeria. All the data were collected from Oduware ($\bar{o}d\hat{u}war\hat{e}$) Obasohan (henceforth, Obasohan), a speaker from Benin City.

Edo pronouns distinguish three persons $(1^{st}/2^{nd}/3^{rd})$ and two numbers (singular/plural). Edo has four series of pronouns: Subjective (2.1), Objective (2.2), Emphatic (2.3) and Copulative (2.4). Edo also has a General Person pronoun (§3), and as other languages in this area, a system of logophoric pronoun (§4).

2. Personal Pronouns

Table 1 below summarizes the pronominal system of Edo:

	Subjective	Objective	Emphatic	Copulative		
1.sg.	i	mwén	$m\overline{\varepsilon}$ `	ime		
2.sg.	и	wé	$w\overline{\varepsilon}`$	иже		
3.sg.	Э	έe	$(i)y\overline{\tilde{\epsilon}}$	ərie		
1.pl.	та	ímá	mā`	ima		
2.pl	wa	úwâ	wā`	uwa		
3.pl.	íyán	íyân	íyân	íyán		

 Table 1: Pronominal System of Edo

Subjective series is used for intransitive, transitive and copula subject (as an alternative to the Copula series). Objective series is used for the transitive object and the possessive construction. Emphatic series is used for emphasis (such as in a cleft sentence or as a one-word answer to a question), and its 3.sg. form is also employed as a logophoric pronoun (cf. §5). Copulative series is used for copula subjects.

Unlike other languages in the area (e.g. Esan (Nicholas Rolle, p.c.)), Edo distinguishes pronouns according to the grammatical function of subject and object, as well as the contrast between the non-emphatic forms (Subjective/Objective) and emphatic forms (This analysis is adapted both by Dunn 1968 and Ogie 2009: 19). Both in the elicitation and in the narrative text, the speaker is very consistent in using the Subject series for subject of verbs, and the Object series for objects.

Edo pronouns are free pronouns and not bound pronouns. There are two pieces of evidence to support this analysis. First, pronouns are not obligatory, in the sense that when a nominal noun phrase occurs as the verb's argument, the pronouns do not occur:

(1) $\overline{okpiá}$ $n\overline{\iota}$ gbé mwènman DET beat 1.sg.O 'The man beat me.'

Note that the 3.sg.S pronoun, $\overline{2}$, is absent in (1). If the pronoun were an affix of the verb, we would expect it to occur regardless of whether the overt NP is there or not¹. (1) is an instance of a subject NP; the situation is the same for the direct object NP (2), or for the indirect object NP (3):

(2)	ōkhuó	nī	gb(e)	ókpiá	nī	wà
	woman	DET	beat	man	DET	dead
	The wor	nan killed	the man	.'		

(3) $\overline{\sigma}$ ri(e) $eb\overline{e}$ n(i) $\overline{\sigma}khu\overline{\sigma}$ $n\overline{r}$. 3.sg.S give book BEN woman DET 'He gave the book to the woman.'

Note that there is no 3.sg. direct object pronoun $\dot{\epsilon e}$ in (2) or 3.sg. indirect object pronoun $n\vec{e}$ in (3).

The second support for the analysis that pronouns in Edo are not affixes comes from the fact that Edo can insert adverbial elements (adverbs, negatives, TMA markers etc.) between the pronoun and the verb². In (4), an adverb intervenes between the pronoun and the verb:

(4) 5 kākābó ó(o) ēmwīn dān.
3.sg.S very think things bad
'He thinks really bad things' (Ashlee Shinn, March 25)

And in (5), a TMA marker, gháà, intervenes between the pronoun and the verb:

(5) $\overline{\iota}$ gháà héw $\overline{\epsilon}$ 1.sg.S TMA rest 'I was resting.' (Adam Hatfield, n.d.)

¹ These examples above illustrate that the pronouns in Edo are not affixes, but there is still a possibility that they are clitics attaching to verbs, which show complementary distribution between the free NPs and bound pronouns (WALS 410, Dixon 2009: 211).

 $^{^2}$ This is true for the Subjective series of the pronouns, but no data is available to test whether this is also the case for the Objective series.

From the facts above, we can presumably conclude that Edo pronouns are not affixes.

2.1. Subjective series

Table 2 shows the paradigm for the Subjective pronouns in Edo:

	singular	plural
1 st	i	та
2 nd	и	wa
3 rd	Э	íyán

Table 2: Subjective Pronouns

Dunn (1968: 33) has *iman* for 1.pl., *uwa* for 2.pl, and *iran* for 3.pl. forms, while Ogie (2009) has similar forms as Table 2 except for 3.pl, for which she has $iran^3$. Difference of 3.pl. form can be accounted for by the absence of the 'silent' *r* in Obasohan's speech. All the forms, except for the 3⁻pl. pronoun, have variable tones, according to the TMA category they are in (cf. Dunn 1968: 16):

- (6) \hat{u} gbè mwēn. 2.sg.S hit 1.sg.O 'You are hitting me'
- (7) \bar{u} gbé mwēn. 2.sg.S hit 1.sg.O 'You hit me (in the past)'

Note that the tone on the 2.sg. subject pronoun, u, is high in the present tense (6) and mid in the past tense (7).

The subject pronouns appear immediately before the verb:

(8) <u>a</u> khián
 3.sg.S walk
 'he is walking'.

The case marking in Edo is the accusative-system (Dixon 1994): the same series of pronouns are used for the intransitive subject (8) and for the transitive subject (9) (and not for transitive direct

³ All the transcription in the other sources was changed to conform to our orthography.

object (cf. 2.2)):

Subject pronouns can be used for the copula subject, in place of the Copulative series (cf. 2.4.):

(10) $\overline{\partial m a v b \overline{\tilde{e}} v b i n}$ \overline{e} <u>*ú*</u> *khìn* teacher CLEFT 2.sg.S COPULA 'You are a teacher.'

From the functions above, it is reasonable enough to call this series of pronouns as the 'Subjective' pronouns.

2.2. Objective series

Table 3 shows the paradigm for the Objective pronouns in Edo:

	singular	plural		
1 st	mwén	ímâ		
2 nd	wé	úwâ		
3 rd	$\dot{arepsilon}(e)$	íyân		

Table 3: Objective pronouns

Tones on Objective series are hard to determine, since in most of the contexts they are affected by the tone of previous elements (subject NP and the verb). However, in most of the instances, we can account for the tonal behaviors by positing the tones above. For instance, singular forms bear downstepped high (!H = M) tones in most of the instances; if we posit high tones (H) on these forms, we can explain that downstep is caused by H on the verb, while if the tone on the subject NP is H and that on verb is low (L), downstep is caused by H on the subject NP.

Dunn (1968: 33) has *rué* for 2.sg., *èré* for 3.sg., *ìmán* for 1.pl., and *ì<u>r</u>án for 3.pl., while Ogie (2009: 19) has similar forms as in Table 3, except that she has uwé for 2.sg. and some tonal differences. Most of the differences in the forms can be accounted for by the lack of 'silent' <i>r* in Obasohan's speech in general.

The direct object pronouns appear immediately after the verb, the same position as the direct object NPs:

(11)	$\overline{\mathcal{I}}$	gbé	<u>mwēn</u>
	3.sg.S	beat	1.sg.DO
	'he beat 1	ne'	

Edo is a language with the accusative case marking system (cf. 2.1), so that the direct object pronouns are used for the direct object of the transitive verb, and not for the subject of the intransitive verb.

The direct object pronouns are used as possessor pronouns as well, with a tonal alternation (due to floating tone with the deletion of $\delta gh \acute{e}$ (POSS); cf. Omozuwa 1997):

(12) $\overline{er} \acute{an} \rightarrow \acute{er} \grave{an} \underline{w} \acute{e}$ wood wood 2.sg.DO 'wood' 'your wood'

From the observation above, it may not be the best to call this series of pronouns as 'Objective' pronouns; rather, it may be better to label them as "oblique", etc. Just for convenience, however, I will continue to use the term "Objective pronouns".

Indirect object in Edo is expressed with a preposition *ni*. This preposition fuses with the Object series pronouns in a somewhat unpredictable way. Table 4 shows the paradigm of the indirect object pronouns in Edo:

	singular	plural
1 st	mè	nīmā`
2 nd	$nu\overline{\epsilon}$	nūwā`
3 rd	nē	nīyā`n

Table 4: Indirect object pronouns

As in the case of Objective series, the tone on the pronouns are hard to tell because of the downstep effect of the preceding verb or NP. All the mid tones in the table above may actually be downstepped high tones (!H).

Indirect object pronouns above can be derived from the preposition n(i) plus the Objective series pronouns, with some fusional modifications: for the 3.sg. person and the plural pronouns, with the addition of the alveolar nasal n; for the 2.sg person pronoun, with the vocalization of the first segment of the direct object pronoun, w, to u, in addition to the addition of n; for the 1.sg. person pronoun, the labio-dental nasal stop [m] is replaced by a bilabial nasal stop [m].

Dunn (1968: 49) has *mén* for 1.sg., *nùen* for 2.sg., *nên* for 3.sg., *nímàn* for 1.pl., and *ní<u>r</u>àn* for 3.pl. The difference can be accounted for the lack of nasalization (1.sg., 2.sg., 1.pl.) and the lack of the 'silent' r in Obasohan's speech. Ogie (2009: 19) has similar forms as Table 4, except that she has *nérèn* for 3.sg., and *níràn* for 3.pl. forms, which can also be accounted for by the lack of the 'silent' rin Obasohan's speech.

The indirect object pronouns appear after the direct object noun phrase (13):

(13)	$\overline{\mathcal{I}}$	rí(e)	éhên	<u>mè</u> .
	3.sg.S	give	fish	1.sg.IO
	'He gave	e me a fish'		

I do not have any data to show the ordering when the direct object is also a pronoun, or whether other ordering is possible.

2.3. Emphatic series

Table 5 shows the paradigm of the Emphatic pronouns in Edo:

	sg.	pl.
1 st	$m\overline{\epsilon}$ `	mā`
2 nd	₩Ē	wā`
3 rd	$(i)y\bar{e}$ `n	íyân

Table 5: Emphatic pronouns

The first *i* of 3.sg. $(i)y\bar{e}$ '*n* is optional, and according to Obasohan, this *i* is pronounced only when the special emphasis is put on it. Dunn (1968: 33) has (i)men for 1.sg., (u)we for 2.sg., (i)ren for 3.sg., *imán* for 1.pl, *úwá* for 2.pl., and *irán* for 3.pl. The difference can be accounted for in terms of the absence of the 'silent' *r* and the (quasi-predictable) nasalization in Obasohan's speech. Dunn (1968: 33, 48) also notes slight differences in emphatic pronouns according to grammatical relations, which was not found in Obasohan's speech (see note 4 below).

The paradigm of emphatic pronouns itself is distinct from any of the pronominal paradigms we have seen above (Subjective, Objective, and indirect object pronouns). However, in most cases, the individual form of the pronoun is identical to one of the forms from another paradigm: the 1.sg. form is the same as the indirect object pronoun; the 2.sg. form is the same as the Objective pronoun; the plural emphatic pronouns are the same as the Subjective pronouns. Only the 3.sg. emphatic pronoun has the distinctive form.

The tones on emphatic forms are distinct from the segmentally identical pronouns from other

paradigms in that they all have in common the final falling tones; mid-to-low falling tone on the second syllable in all the pronouns but the 3.pl. pronoun; high-to-mid falling tone on the second syllable in 3.pl. pronoun. This may be because the emphatic pronouns usually occur utterance finally (falling tones only occur utterance finally in Edo (Jesse Lovegren and Adam Sposato's hypothesis)).

Emphatic pronouns are used as a self-standing form, such as in the answer to a question:

(14) $d'\overline{3}vb\overline{a}$ ne 5 y(o) $\acute{e}vb\overline{a}$? — $\underline{m\overline{e}}$. who REL 3.sg.S go there 1.sg.EMPH 'Who went there?' - 'Me.'

Emphatic pronouns are also used in cleft constructions:

(15)	<u>mē,</u>	Ē	<i>5</i>	y(o)	$\acute{e}vb\overline{a}^4$.		
	1.sg.EMPH	CLEFT	3.sg.S	go	there		
	'It was me wh	o went the	ere.'				

Emphatic pronouns can also be used in non-cleft sentences as well, just to emphasize the pronominal referent:

(16)	ōmwān	níī,	Ēé	<u>mē</u>	khián	ghí	khòmwōn
	person	DET	CLEFT	1.sg.EMPH	go	then2	marry
	tām(a)	íyán	vb(e)	ēriò.			
	tell	3.pl.	VBE	thus			

'That person is who I will then marry. Tell them that.'

Edo has only one series of emphatic pronouns, and the distinction of grammatical relations such as subject, direct object, or indirect object is neutralized in the emphatic series⁵. This is shown by the examples of the cleft constructions with the focused element in various grammatical relations. (15) is an example with the focused element in the subject function. (17) is an example with the focused element in the indirect object function:

(17)	<u>mē</u> `,	$\overline{\mathcal{E}}$	ókpiá	nī	gbē.
	1.sg.EMPH	CLEFT	man	that	beat

⁴ There are some tonal changes in cleft constructions (H on the subject NP, M on the verb).

⁵ Dunn (1968: 33) has slightly different paradigms for Subjective and Objective emphatic pronouns, and quite distinct paradigm for indirect object emphatic pronouns (ibid. 48).

'It was me who the man beat.'

(18)	<u>mē</u> `,	$\overline{\mathcal{E}}$	ókpiá	nī	ri(e)	éhế	nā.
	1.sg.EMPH	CLEFT	man	that	give	fish	benefactive
	'It was me that the man gave fish to.'						

2.4. Copulative series

As was pointed out in 2.1, Subjective series of pronouns can be used for the copula subject (see also (10)). However, Obasohan offered alternative series of pronouns which are only used for copula subject:

	sg.	pl.
1 st	ime	ima
2 nd	uwe	uwa
3 rd	ərie	íyán

Table 6. Copulative pronoun	S
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Tones on Copulative series is hard to tell, since it is always preceded by cleft marker ε , which causes the next syllable to carry a high tone. Plural pronouns are identical to the Objective series (2.2), while singular pronouns are more similar to the Emphatic series (2.3) except for 3.sg. form, which has quite a distinct form. An example containing Copulative pronouns is the following:

(19)	วิmāvbēvbìn,	$\overline{\mathcal{E}}$	ímè	khīn
	teacher	CLEFT	1.sg.COP	COPULA
	'I am a teacher.'			

These pronouns show striking similarity to the 'full' forms in a neighboring language, Esan (Nicholas Rolle p.c.):

	sg.	pl.
1 st	ime	ibhan
2 nd	иже	ibha ~ ubha
3 rd	əle	iyain, ele

Table 7. 'Full' Forms of Esan Pronouns

3. General Person pronoun

Besides personal pronouns discussed in the previous section, Edo has a General Person pronoun a. General Person pronoun corresponds to impersonal or indefinite pronouns in other languages (*on* in French, *Man* in German, *a* in Hausa etc. (Dixon 2009:, Schachter 1985: 30-31)). General Person pronoun is used when the speaker cannot or does not want to specify the human subject of the sentence. The most prototypical use is in an impersonal constructions, such as (20) and (21):

(20)	$\bar{a}\left(/íyán ight)^{6}$	$w(\varepsilon)$	ōkpiá	nī	mà.
	GP (/3.pl)	COMP	man	DET	be.good
	'It is said that	the man is	s good.'		

(21) \bar{a} $z(\varepsilon)$ $\bar{\varepsilon}d\delta$ vb(e) $\dot{\varepsilon}d\bar{o}$. GP speak Edo LOC Benin.City 'They speak Edo in Benin City.'

General Person pronouns is also used for verbs for which the passive counterpart is more frequent, and which seems somewhat more 'default' than the active counterpart:

(22)	ōdúwàrē,	ā'	tiè	Ē.
	Oduware	GP	call	3.sg.O
	'He is calle	ed Odu	ware' (c	left sentence; $\bar{a}' = \bar{\varepsilon} (\text{CLEFT}) + \hat{a}$)

- (23) \bar{a} $ti\bar{e}$ \bar{e} $\bar{o}d\hat{u}war\bar{e}$. GP call 3.sg.O Oduware 'ibid'
- (24) \bar{a} bi(e) $\acute{sm}\acute{sm}\acute{s}$ $n\vec{\iota}$. GP bear baby DET 'The baby was born.'

Edo is lacking in a passive construction, and General Person pronoun is used to express the passive meaning (cf. Keenan and Dryer 2007ms: 5, 23-25):

(25) \bar{a} gb(e) $\delta kpi\bar{a}$ $n\bar{t}\bar{t}$ GP beat man DET

⁶ The consultant remarked that he can also use the 3.pl pronoun instead of GP in these instances.

'The man was beaten.'

(26) \bar{a} ri(e) $\acute{emi\bar{e}w\bar{o}}$ $n\bar{t}\hat{i}$. GP eat meat DET 'The meat was eaten.'

Naturally enough, General Person pronouns are found in proverbs or recipes:

(27)à ghà ènámásě, ùwú wù. mì'n í gi(e)á GP TMA ? death? NEG HORT? GP die see 'When you find something whom you are better than, it's no longer easy to commit suicide.' (Dunn 1968: 150)

(28) á mán wú à ghá măn.
GP PAST.NEG die GP TMA be.good
'While there is life there's hope (As long as we are not dead, we will be all right).'
(Dunn 1968: 150)

(29)	à	ghà	kà	vbièvbi(ɛ)	ìyán	nén,
	GP	TMA	first	boil	yam	?
	á	ghí	dŏ	dúmw()	érén	
	GP	then	spend	?	?	

'We first boil the yam, and then we pound it.' (Dunn 1968: 154)

General Person pronoun in Edo cannot be analyzed either as a passive marker or a 1.pl. pronoun. Supports for not analyzing this as a passive marker is the following. First, there is no argument alternation in the sentences with and without this General Person pronoun. In the General Person construction, the object in the original sentence is not raised to the subject position: the object NP stays in the original object position (Edo expresses grammatical relations with word order), and if the NPs are pronouns, they remain as Objective series, rather than changing to the Subjective series ((22), (23)).

Secondly, in the General Person construction, the actor phrase cannot be expressed. Instead, cleft construction is used for a translation of English passive sentence with a *by*-actor phrase:

(30) $\bar{o}khu \delta$ $n\bar{\iota}$, $\bar{\varepsilon}$ δ gb(e) $\delta kpi a$ $n\bar{\iota}$ woman DET CLEFT 3.sg.S beat man DET

'The man was beaten by the woman (lit. It was the woman who beat the man.)'

Although the ability to express the actor phrase is not the defining characteristics of passives, this fact is in favor of the General Person analysis.

Thirdly, the occurrence of intransitive verbs in this construction is too high for a passive; for instance, 3 out of 10 instances in Dunn (1968)'s proverbs are intransitive verbs.

Lastly, the fact that the General Person pronoun is sometimes used in a hortative expression ('*let's* ~') strongly disfavors the passive analysis:

(31) gi(e) á y(o) àgbàdà.
HORT GP wear national.costume
'Let's wear the national costume.' (Dunn 1968: 161)

I have shown that the General Person construction cannot be analyzed as a passive construction. An alternative is to analyze the General Person pronoun as a 1.pl. pronoun, as Dunn (1968: 6) does. This analysis, however, is also problematic. First and foremost, Edo has another 1.pl. pronoun (ma/ima), as we have seen in §2.

Secondly, General Person pronoun is employed as a translation of the passives ((25), (26)), where interpretation with 1.pl. is awkward (cf. 'He was beaten' \neq 'We beat him', 'The meat was eaten' \neq 'We ate the meat').

Thirdly, General Person pronoun can be used with the first person object (e.g. 'I am called X'), where 1.pl. interpretation is awkward (cf. 'I am called Oduware' \neq 'We call me Oduware'):

(32) Anderson, à tiè mwén.
Anderson GP call 1.sg.O
'Anderson is my name. (lit. GP call me Anderson)' (Dunn 1968: 6)

From discussions above, we can conclude that a is neither a passive marker nor 1.pl. pronoun, but a General Person marker.

4. Logophoric pronoun

Logophoric pronouns are special pronouns "used to refer the person whose words, thoughts, knowledge, or emotions are being reported in a stretch of discourse (Culy 1994: 1055)". Logophoric pronoun system is widespread among West African languages (Hyman & Comrie 1981, etc.).

Edo, conforming to the areal characteristics of this region, also has the system of logophoric pronouns. The strong form of the 3.sg. pronoun ((i)yen) is used for logophoric reference (33), while

the 3.sg. subject pronoun (2) is used for the non-logophoric reference (34).

(33)	ōsāgié	$w(\varepsilon)$	íyēn	<i>y</i> ((0)	évbā.
	Osagie	COMP	3.sg.EMP	H w	rent	there
	'Osagie _i said	l he _i went t	there.'			
(34)	ōsāgié	w(ɛ)	ó	y(o)	ēvbà.	
	Osagie	said 2	3.sg.S	went	there	
	'Osagie _i said he _j went there.'					

In (33), the person referred to with the pronoun $iy\tilde{\varepsilon}$ is understood to be the same as the subject of the main verb 'say', namely, Osagie, while in (34), the person referred to with the pronoun \dot{j} is understood to be different from the subject of the main verb.

The logophoric pronoun is used not just for the subject function, but also for the object function:

- (35) $\bar{o}s\bar{a}gi\dot{e}$ $w(\varepsilon)$ \bar{o} gb(e) $\bar{i}y\bar{e}$ nOsagie COMP 3.sg.S beat 3.sg.LOG 'Osagie_i said he_i beat him_i'
- (36) $\bar{o}s\bar{a}gi\acute{e}$ $w(\varepsilon)$ \bar{o} gb(e) $\bar{\varepsilon}\acute{e}$ Osagie COMP 3.sg.S beat 3.sg.O 'Osagie_i said he_i beat him_k'

The distinction of logophoric/non-logophoric pronouns is not observed for plural referents; 3.pl. pronoun *íyán* is used for both cases:

(37)ōdūwàrē 'w(ε) ōsāgié vb(e)íyán y(o)ēvbà Osagie and Oduware COMP 3.pl. go there '[Osagie & Oduware]_i said they_i went there.' '[Osagie & Oduware]; said they; (Ameze & Osaro) went there.'

The logophoric pronoun can be used to track the same referent in the stretch of discourse, but in this case, use of logophoric pronoun is not obligatory. (38) - (40) have two protagonists, Omozuwa and Osaro, and the former is marked either with the logophoric pronoun *(i)yēn* or the non-logophoric pronoun σ , while the latter is consistently marked with the non-logophoric pronoun, σ (pronouns referring to Omozuwa are underlined):

(38)	<u>5</u>	kákàb5	èn	òsàrō	ioò ann	5s(e) (óghe)	ósàrōò	
	3.sg.S	very	know	Osarc	and	friei	nd POSS	Osaro	
	<u>yēn⁷</u>	gháā	khīn.						
	3.sg.EM	IPH TMA	COP						
	'He (= C	Osazuwa) kr	nows Osaro	very we	ll and he is	s Osaro's f	riend.'		
(39)	so, <u>y</u>	<u>ēn</u>	ná ghi	ì y(o) òw(a)) (əghe) ōsàrōò,		
	so, 3	.sg.EMPH	then1 the	en2 go	house	e POSS	Osaro		
	<u></u>	ná yā	tám(a) ōsārō	ò.				
	3.sg.S	then1 use	e tell	Osarc)				
	'So, he (= Omozuw	a) then went	to Osar	o's house,	he (= Om	ozuwa) wen	t to tell Osaro.'	
(40)	<u>5</u>	ghí	s(e) ò	w(a)	(3ghE)	ōsàrōò,			
	3.sg.S	then2	reach h	ouse	POSS	Osaro			
	<u> </u>	ná	tām(a) ō	sāróō,	ōsāróō	<i>īsē</i>	mwén.		
	3.sg.S	then1	tell C	Osaro	Osaro	friend	1.sg.POSS		
	'When he got to Osaro's house, he told Osaro, Osaro my friend,'								

It may be the case that, in these instances, the logophoric pronoun is functioning halfway between as the emphatic pronoun and the logophoric pronoun. Superficially, this pronoun seem to be functioning as a logophoric pronoun, but one can also argue that it is just an extension of the emphatic use.

5. Others

To express reflexive or reciprocal meaning, *egbe* 'side, body', is used with the Objective series of pronouns (lit. 'O's body'):

(41) $m\bar{a}$ gb(e) $\acute{g}b(e)$ $\bar{i}m\bar{a}$. 1.pl.S beat body 1.pl.O 'We beat ourselves'

 $^{^7\,}$ Obasohan stated that he can use the non-logophoric pronoun, o, instead of this logophoric pronoun.

'We beat each other.'

Edo uses the common noun $\overline{} mw \acute{a}n$ 'person' for the translation of the indefinite specific pronoun ('someone'):

(42) $\overline{\sigma}mwán \quad y(o) \quad \overline{e}vbà$ person went there 'Someone went there.'

Thus, we may assume that Edo is lacking in the indefinite pronoun as a grammatical category. Future elicitation should include nonhuman ('something'), indefinite nonspecific ('any-'), and negative (no-) pronouns, although it may turn out that Edo uses common nouns for these expressions as well.

6. Conclusion

Edo pronouns are free pronouns, and distinguish three persons $(1^{st}/2^{nd}/3^{rd})$, two numbers (singular/plural), and grammatical functions (Subjective/ Objective(/indirect object)/ Copulative). Edo also has the Emphatic pronouns, General Person pronoun, and the logophoric pronoun system, which employs the 3.sg. form of the Emphatic series.

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