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Japhet: The Logophoric Pronoun in the Ìlàje Dialect of Yoruba

# The Logophoric Pronoun in the Ilaje Dialect of Yoruba

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#### **Abstract**

While previous studies in Yoruba have associated logophoricity with  $\partial un$ , a third person singular pronoun form, there is scarcely any further detailed analysis on the implication of such features on the entire pronoun system. This paper, therefore, examined  $\partial ghun$  the attested form of this logophoric pronoun in the Ìlàje dialect of Yoruba with a view to describing its place in the pronominal system of the dialect. The research was based on the data from Ìlàje native speakers from towns in Ìlàje local government area, Ondo State. Relevant aspects of the data were extracted and analysed syntactically in basic descriptive terms. A pronominal form,  $\partial ghun$ , is identified as the logophor in Ìlàje, having established its pronominal status as a structurally constrained third person singular pronoun in a reported speech construction. The paper reviewed Ìlàje pronominal system by incorporating therein  $\partial ghun$ , the logophoric pronoun in the pronoun paradigm.

Keywords: Logophor, antecedent, Ìlàje Yoruba, long distance anaphor.

#### Introduction

Ìlàje, as a homogenous linguistic community, resides in Ìlàje Local Government Area of Ondo State. Ìlàje is one of the least studied dialects of Yoruba. However, there has been a theoretical analysis of the pronouns system of the dialect where logophoric function of the third-person singular pronoun  $\partial ghun$  [ $\partial \gamma \tilde{u}$ ] was briefly mentioned (Japhet, 2012). The current paper therefore provides a more focused description of this pronominal logophor. The paper employed a general descriptive approach with a view to creating a basis for future research on the pronoun system of the dialect.

In Yoruba, the logophor is generally believed to have the same form with the long form of the third-person singular pronoun,  $\partial un$  as in (1).

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Standard Yoruba (Adapted from Manfredi (1995:92))
(1a) Jimò-o wí pé òun-ún lọ
Jimo-SHT say COMP LOG-SHT go
'Jimo said that he (Jimo) went.'
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In 1(a), both oun and of have the third person singular feature but they contrast in the kind of antecedent each of them takes. The antecedent of *oun* is subject to a stringent structural condition known as logophoricity which makes the pronoun to become a logophoric pronoun (Clement, 1975). As attested in several African languages, a logophoric pronoun occurs as a morphologically distinct pronoun having in the matrix clause an antecedent of whom saying, thought or feeling is reported in an embedded clause where the logophoric form of the pronoun is used (Clement, 1975).

Logophoricity is not usually the focus in pronoun analysis in Yoruba. Adesola (2005) has even argued that  $\partial un$  is simply a pronoun and never a logophor, and that there is no

logophoric pronoun in Yoruba but logophoric effects which result from the pronouns that are inherently A-bar dependent on a null operator. In fact, what is currently viewed as logophoric use of  $\partial un$ , was merely described by Bamgbose (1986: 82) to show how Yoruba language-internal strategy of marking out co-referential index between two subjects in the reported speech. However, Pulleyblank's (1986) consideration of the third person non-clitic  $\partial un$  as logophoric brings logophoricity into the Yoruba pronominal system. Any other pronoun is considered non-logophoric or antilogophoric (Manfredi, 1995: 92). Manfredi (1995) (in his logophoric analysis of  $\partial un$ ) and Lawal (2006) (who also analyses  $\partial un$  as a long distance anaphor) have claimed to have improved on Pulleyblank's Avoid Pronominal Principle; however, they have not been able to adequately define the pronoun system to accommodate the logophor, a stride the present paper attempts to achieve in the Ìlàje dialect of Yoruba.

The paper has three main sections. The first section provides background information on logophoric markings. The second section identifies the Ìlàje logophor in the typology of the logophoric pronouns. The third section discusses the Ìlàje personal pronouns along with the logophor, as a pronoun, and proposes the adoption of this logophoric pronoun as part of Ìlàje pronominal system.

# **Types of Logophoric Markers**

Logophoric elements usually occur in embedded clauses introduced by verbs of saying, thinking or feeling. These elements are bound by antecedents whose speeches, thoughts, or feelings are being reported by the verbs (Clements 1975: 241).

The *logophoric domain* is a clause that reports someone's speech, thought, knowledge, perception or emotion. (Clements 1975; Sells 1987; Culy 1994)<sup>1</sup>. Within a logophoric construction, three basic items are expected. They are as follows: the *report verb*<sup>2</sup> that introduces the report; the *logophor*<sup>3</sup> which may be a pronoun or an affix that functions as the logophoric marker, and the noun phrase (NP) which functions as the *antecedent*<sup>4</sup> of the logophor. This domain must have a logophoric marker which can be any of the following: a logophoric pronoun, a logophoric affix, and a long distance reflexive. Where the logophoric element also functions as a pronoun, it is often referred to as a logophoric pronoun; but when it functions as a bound morpheme on the verb, it is called a logophoric affix. The logophor has also been identified as a long distance reflexive where it occurs in a reflexive form (Chou, 2012).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Nau (2006) divides logophoric construction into two parts: the introduction and the logophoric context. The introduction comprises the opener and the antecedent while the logophoric context denotes the structure where the logophoric marker is found; this part has also been called 'logophoric domain' Culy (1994; 1997).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Nau (2006) calls this verb report opener. Stirling (1993; 1994) calls the same item 'logophoric trigger.' We shall refer to the verb in this paper as logophoric verb.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This often refers to a person whose speech or thought is represented in discourse (Crystal, (2008:392).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>This has been called different names. Hyman & Comrie 1981 call it 'logophoric trigger'; Stirling (1993; 1994) call it 'logocentric NP'. For syntactic reasons, the present paper adopts Wiesemann's (1986) and Nau's (2006) view, who call it *antecedent*.

#### **Logophoric pronouns**

Pronominal analysis of logophoricity is the first approach to logophoricity (Hagège, 1974; Clements, 1975). The logophoric pronoun is a morphologically distinct pronominal form as exemplified in Ewe and Igbo in (2) and (3) respectively.

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Ewe adapted from (Clements, 1975: 142)
(2a) Kofi<sub>i</sub> be e<sub>j</sub>-dzo
Kofi say 3sg-leave.
'Kofi said that he/she left.'
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(b) Kofi<sub>i</sub>be yè<sub>i</sub>-dzo Kofi say LOG-leave 'Kofi said that he left.'

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Igbo (Hyman & Comrie, 1981:19)
(3a) \phi_i sìrì nà \phi_j byàrà
he said that 3sg came
'He said that he came.'
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(b) ối sìrì nà yái byàrà he said that LOG came 'He said that he came.'

In 2(a), the pronoun, e, cannot refer to Kofi, but the logophor, ye, must obligatorily refer to Kofi in 2(b) as shown by the co-indexing subscripts. A similar relationship holds between the pronoun,  $\acute{o}$  and the logophor,  $y\acute{a}$  in Igbo. In such contexts where the logophor establishes obligatory co-reference with an antecedent in the matrix clause, it is expected that a blocking effect should have applied preventing the use of non-logophoric pronouns.

#### Logophoric affixes

Logophoric can also occur as affixes. This type of logophoricity is known as *verbal logophoricity* where logophoric markings occur as bound morphemes realised as verbal affixes as found in the following languages: Akoose and Gokana presented in (4) and (5) respectively.

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Akoose (Hedinger, 1984:95)
(4a) à<sub>i</sub>-h bé a á<sub>j</sub>-kàg
he-said RP he-should-go
'He said that he (someone else) should go'
```

(b) à<sub>i</sub>-h bé a m<sub>i</sub>-kàg he-said RP LOG-should-go 'He said that he (himself) should go'

Gokana (Hyman & Comrie, 1981:20) (5a)  $a\grave{e}_x$  ko  $a\grave{e}_x$  dò- $\grave{e}$ he said he fell-LOG 'He said that he fell'

(b)  $a\grave{e}_x$  kə  $a\grave{e}_y$  dò he said he fell 'He said that he (someone else) fell'

In Akoose, the verbal prefix m- carries logophoric reference, this prefix is used in 4(b) where such reference is expressed rather than using the general third-person-marking prefix,  $\acute{a}$ - in 4(a). In the case of Gokanna, a low-toned suffix is added to the verb to indicate logophoricity in 5(a). This verbal suffix is lacking in 5(b) where no logophoric function is attested.

# Long distance logophoric anaphors

This type of logophor can occur as a reflexive outside the local clause that contains its antecedent, hence the term 'long distance anaphor' (LDA) employed in its description in the literature (Huang, 1994:185; Curnow, 2002). A good instance of this is the Chinese *ziji* reflexive given in (6) below.

(b) Zhangsan<sub>i</sub> renwei [ni<sub>j</sub> kan -bu -qi ziji<sub>j/\*i</sub>] Zhangsan think you look-not-up self 'Zhangsan<sub>i</sub> thinks you<sub>i</sub> should look down on \*him<sub>i</sub>/yourself<sub>i</sub>'

In (6), *ziji* behaves as a typical logophor because it selects its antecedent in a similar way a logophor does in the reported speech construction. In 6(a), *ziji* can refer to either *Zhangsan* or *Lisi*. Where *ziji* refers to *Lisi*, it occurs in the same clause with its antecedent, *Lisi*; this is a typical anaphoric relation. However, where *ziji* refers to *Zhangsan*, it does not occur in the same minimal clause with its antecedent, yet it maintains it reflexive function. This is why *ziji* is called a long distant anaphor. In real sense, it structurally behaves as a reflexive logophor. In 6(b), the anaphoric property of *ziji* is made obvious because it can only refer to the clause-mate antecedent where logophoric relation is not required.

## Syntactic Typology of Ilaje Logophor

As evident in Stirling (1993: 259; 1994: 2304) and Culy (2002: 202), reported speech is ranked higher than other predicates in logophoric construction. The verbs that trigger logophoricity are usually speech act verbs implying that logophors are more likely to occur in a reported speech than in any other expression. Reported speech is the most likely domain of logophoric pronoun.

However, the universal occurrence of reported speech does not licence universal logophoricity. From this premise, it is important to note that while languages using logophoric pronouns are likely going to exhibit logophoricity in the reported speech, the reported speech, in itself, does not necessarily trigger logophoricity. As shown in figure (1) adapted from Nau (2006), a typical reported speech, as the case is in English, does not use logophoricity. Languages lacking logophoricity in the reported speech construction will not even have any logophoric pronoun in the reported speech.

Fig. 1 Reported speech without logophoric pronoun<sup>5</sup>

Types	Schematic example
Direct speech	$He_x$ said to $her_y$ : $I_x$ love $you_y$
Indirect speech	$He_x$ said to $her_y$ that $he_x$ loves $her_y$

According to Nau (2006: 78-79), logophoric pronouns are used in different ways. They may be used as subject referents or as object referents. These are properly labelled here as follows: *subject referent logophoricity*, *object referent logophoricity* and the combination of both types as shown in figure (2) below.

Fig. 2 Different types of logophoric pronoun in reported speech Adapted from Nau (2006: 78-79)

Types	Schematic example
Subject referent logophoricity	$He_x$ said to $her_y$ : that $LOG_x$ love $her_y$
Object referent logophoricity	$He_x$ said to $her_y$ : that $he_x$ love $LOG_y$
Subject and object referent logophoricity	$He_x$ said to $her_y$ : that $LOG_x$ love $LOG_y$

In subject referent logophoricity, the logophor is usually co-referent with the subject in the matrix clause. The reported speaker in the embedded clause is a logophoric pronoun while the reported addressee will retain the person features they have in the matrix clause. For the object referent logophoricity, the logophor in the embedded clause is co-referent with the object in the matrix clause while the reported speaker retains its person feature in the matrix clause (Bhat, 2004: 65)<sup>6</sup>. The third type has the logophoric referents of the subject and object present in the same embedded clause (Culy, 1997: 855)<sup>7</sup>. Following from the typology made in figure (2) above, Ìlàje logophoricity demonstrates subject referent type as evident in the reported speech constructions given in (7) - (9).

- (7) Ìgè<sub>x</sub> jí ó rí òghun<sub>x</sub> Ìgè say 3sg see log 'Ìgè said he (someone else) saw him (Ige)'
- (8) Ìgè<sub>x</sub> jí òghun<sub>x</sub> ri rẹ Ìgè say log see 2sg 'Ìgè said he (Ige) saw you'
- (9) Ìgè<sub>x</sub> jí wo<sub>x</sub> ri òghun Ìgè say 2sg see log ʾÌgè said you saw him (Ìgè).'

The İlàje logophor,  $\partial ghun$ , though also having the third person singular (3sg) features like  $\delta$  in (7), is glossed log (logophor) because it must be a referent of the subject of the report verb. In (7) – (9),  $\partial ghun$  is co-referential with  $\dot{l}g\dot{e}$ , the subject of the report verb. In İlàje,  $\partial ghun$  does not occur as frequent as  $\partial un$  does in Standard Yoruba. This is evident in (10)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Without the use logophoric pronouns, the reported speech will either be realised as direct or indirect as shown in figure 1 here. For the first type, the reported speaker is referred to by first person pronoun while the reported addressee is marked for second person. In the embedded clause of the second type, the reported speaker and the reported addressee will retain person features they have in the matrix clause.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>This is reported in Pero by Bhat, (2004: 65).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>This multiple use of logophors is reported in Mupun by Culy (1997: 855).

where 10(b) is ungrammatical in Ìlaje though its Standard Yoruba equivalent in 10(a) is not ill-formed.

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(10) (a)ó di òun
3sg become 3sg
'It turned out to be him' (Adapted from Manfredi 1995: 94)

(b)* ó dà òghun
3sg become 3sg
Intended: 'It turned out to be him'
```

A report verb, its third-person subject and the third person referent of this subject are the three important items required for  $\partial ghun$  to be used as logophor in  $\dot{l}l\dot{a}je$ . These are stated as conditions of logophoricity below:

#### Conditions for Ilaje logophoricity

- i. there must be a report verb in the matrix clause of a complex sentence;
- ii. the subject of the report verb in the matrix clause must have third person singular feature;
- iii. the subject of the report verb must have a referent in the embedded clause.

The first condition here is the verbal condition, which specifies the kind of verb expected to trigger the construction. The second condition is the antecedent condition, showing the features of the antecedent of the logophor. The third condition is the grammatical feature of the logophor itself.

Bond (2006) raises a grammatical hierarchy proposal of the logophors which is reproduced in (11) as logophor feature hierarchy:

# (11) Logophor features hierarchy

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(a) grammatical hierarchy: subject > non-subject
(b) person hierarchy: 3rd > 2nd > 1st
(c) number hierarchy: sg > pl
Adapted from (Hyman and Comrie 1981:33).
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Contrary to the position expressed in 11(a),  $\partial ghun$  is not restricted to the nominative case as a logophor in Îlâje. Logophoric  $\partial ghun$  can also occur in accusative and genitive cases as in (12) and (14). This agrees with Nikitina's (2012) account that logophoric pronouns occupy the same syntactic positions as personal pronouns even as possessors just as found in (14).

- (12)(a)  $ige_x ji^8$   $f_y$   $f_z$   $ige_x ige_x$   $ige_x$    - (b)  ${}^*\dot{I}g\dot{e}_x$ - $\acute{e}$  rí  $\dot{o}ghun_y$   $\dot{I}g\dot{e}$ -SHT see LOG Intended: ' $\dot{I}g\dot{e}$  saw him'
- (13)Mo<sub>x</sub> jí oné èyí kó ulé  $mi_x$  fé jí  $mi_x$  mú ìwé  $mi_x$  wá 1sg say personthat build house 1sg want that 1sg takebook 1sg come 'I said that the person that built my house wanted me to bring my paper'
- (14) Ígè<sub>x</sub> jí ọné èyí kộ ulé òghun<sub>x</sub> fé jí òghun<sub>x</sub> mú ìwé òghun<sub>x</sub> wá
  Ige say person that build house LOGwant that LOG take book LOG come
  'Ige said that the person that built his house wanted him to bring his (Ige's) paper'

In 12(a), the logophor is in the accusative case, being the object of the verb, ri 'see'. However, Ilaje does not allow the non-logophoric use of  $\partial ghun$  in 12(b) where the expression is ill-formed because the long pronoun,  $\partial ghun$ , does not form logophoric link with any antecedent contrary to what obtains in 12(a). The data in (13) and (14) are structurally related. They vary only in the form of possessor used. In (13), the possessor mi 'my' is a short pronoun; in 14, the possessor is  $\partial ghun$ , a long pronoun with logophoric function.

# The Logophor as a Pronoun in Ilàje

To establish in practical terms that  $\partial ghun$  is a logophoric pronoun, its place in the pronoun system has to be verified. It is therefore necessary to have an overview of the Ìlàje pronoun. Ìlàje has both long and short forms of the pronoun. These terms are used based on the complexity of the syllable structure. The long pronoun has two syllables: The first syllable comprises a vowel and the second syllable is a sequence of a consonant and a vowel (a VCV<sup>9</sup> syllable structure) as in  $\dot{e}mi$  (1sg) and  $\dot{a}ghan$  (3pl). The short pronouns are usually monosyllabic e.g. mo (1sg); even where a floating tone lengthens the syllable as in short negative subject e.g.  $m\dot{e}e$  (1sg-neg).

(b)  $\grave{l}g\grave{e}_x$  mà pé  $\acute{o}_y$  rí  $oghun_x$ 

Ìgè know that SHT-3sg see log 'Ìgè knew he (someone) saw him (Ige).'

(c) Akin<sub>x</sub> gbà pé ó<sub>y</sub> rí oghun<sub>x</sub> Akin agree that SHT-3sg see log 'Akin agreed he (someone) saw him (Ige).'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Where the reporting verb ji 'to say' is typical in Ìlàje logophoricity, other verbs are also possible. These include  $f\hat{\phi}$  'speak',  $m\hat{a}$  'to know',  $gb\hat{a}$  'to accept/ agree,  $r\hat{\phi}$  'to think'  $gh\hat{\phi}$ - $\hat{\phi}$  'to reason it'.

 <sup>(</sup>a) Ìgèx fò-ó pé óy rí oghunx
 Ìgè say-it that SHT-3sg see log
 ʾÌgè said he (someone) saw him (Ige).'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>VCV here denotes vowel-consonant-vowel sequence, and CV is consonant-vowel sequence.

# The long pronouns

The long pronouns are only used in sentences where such pronoun is focused or combined with another pronoun or nominal to form a noun phrase. Due to this condition, (15h-j) are ill-formed.

- $\begin{array}{ccc} 15 \text{ (a) Emi} & \text{òghun} & \text{lo} \\ & 1\text{sg } (\text{conj})^{10} & 3\text{sg} & \text{go} \\ & \text{'He and I went} \end{array}$ 
  - (b) Adé rí emi ùwọ Ade see 1sg (conj) 2sg 'Ade saw you and me'
  - (c) Awa àghan mà 1pl (conj) 2pl know 'We and they knew'
  - (d) Awa òghun ra lọ 1pl (conj) 3sg fut go 'He and we will go'
- (e) Àghan mo mí pè rin
  3pl/2pl 1sg prog call foc.
  'It was they/ you (pl), I was calling'
- (f) Emi wo ri rin
  1sg 2sg see foc.
  'It was me that you saw'
- (g) Awa èyí gbò lọ ibè 3pl who hear go there 'We who heard went there.'
- (h) \*Ìgè-é rí òghun, Ìgè-SHT see 3sg Intended: 'Ìgè saw him.'
- (i) \*òghun-ún rí Ìgè<sub>y</sub> 3sg-SHT see Ìgè Intended: 'He saw Ìgè.'
- (j) \*Àwa mà 1pl know Intended: 'We knew'

A table showing the long pronouns is given in Figure (3) below.

Emi ati òun lọ 1sg conj. 3sg go 'He and I went'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup>This is a covert conjunction. The same expression will be rendered in Standard Yoruba using the overt conjunction *ati* as shown below:

Fig. 3 Forms of Ìlàje long pronoun

Person	Singular form	Plural form
First	èmi	àwa
Second	ùwọ	àghan <sup>11</sup>
Third	òghun	àghan

Although  $\partial ghun$ , the logophoric pronoun and  $\partial ghun$ , the non-logophoric long form of the third person pronoun have some similarities (being identical in their phonological forms and in their person and number features), they have different syntactic distributions. First, the logophor does not have any plural form because it is never used in that sense; however, the nonlogophoric  $\partial ghun$  can be pluralised as  $\partial ghan$ . Second, the logophor can occur where any other long pronoun cannot occur. Its occurrence is restricted to the embedded clause of a report verb unlike other pronouns.

Fig. 4. The logophoric *òghun* and the non-logophoric *òghun* 

Type	Person	Singular	Plural	Domain
Logophoric pronoun	Third	òghun		report verb embedding
Non-logophoric	Third	òghun	àghan	focusing and phrasal
pronoun				domains

# The short pronouns

The short pronouns vary in forms depending on their immediate syntactic environment. For the short subject pronouns, there is a broad demarcation between those used in affirmative clauses and those used in negative clauses. They are thus classified along this line: the affirmative forms occurring in positive sentences while their negative counterparts occurring in negative sentences. Instances of their occurrence are given in (16) and (17) respectively.

<sup>11</sup>The dialect has the same form for third-person plural and the second person plural pronoun. The context will usually shows which is applicable.

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(a) A\acute{n}_x jí ó rí ghan<sub>x</sub>
2pl say SHT-3sg see 2pl
'you (pl) said he saw you(pl).'
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(a) Ańy jí ó rí ghanx 3pl say SHT-3sg see 2pl 'They said he saw them/ you(pl).'

(b) Ańx jí ó rí ghany 2pl say SHT-3sg see 3pl 'You (pl) said he saw them.'

- $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{(d)} & \text{m\'e\`e} & \text{m\`a} \\ & 1\text{sg-neg}^{12} & \text{know} \\ & \text{'I do/did not know'} \end{array}$
- (e) wéè mà
  2sg-neg know
  'You do/did not know'
- (f) éè mà 3sg-neg know 'He does/did not know'
- 17 (a) a mà 1pl know 'I know/knew'
  - (b) án mà 2pl know 'You know/knew'
  - (c) án mà 3pl know 'He knows/knew'
  - (d) áà mà
    1pl-neg know
    'I do/did not know'
  - (e) án-àn mà
    2pl -neg know
    'You do/did not know'
  - (f) án-àn mà 3pl -neg know 'He does/did not know

Fig. 5. Forms of the short subject pronoun

Type	Person	Singular form	Plural form
Affirmative	First	mo	a
	Second	wo	an
	Third	pro+ó <sup>13</sup>	an
Negative	First	méè	áà
	Second	wéè	án-àn
	Third	éè	án-àn

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Negation has been incorporated into the morphology of these short singular pronouns. Ìlàje uses [ê] (or éè, in writing) as its sentential negative marker, but this negator often becomes merged with or totally assimilated into the subject. As a result of this, it can only be glossed by simply hyphenating the subject and the negator together in the interlinear gloss as done here.

 $<sup>^{13}</sup>$ It is important to note that actual form of the third-person singular pronoun has been analysed in recent time as a different entity from the preverbal high-toned element  $\acute{o}$ . It has been extensively argued by Awobuluyi that there are positions where the third-person singular pronoun has to be covert (Awobuluyi, 1992, 2013). He had suggested un as the underlying form with evidence from dialects.

The syntactic distribution of short object pronouns depends on the tone on the last syllable of its verb. The mid-toned object pronouns are selected by high-toned verbs as shown in (17). The high-toned object pronouns, on the other hand, are selected by mid-toned or low-toned verbs as evident in (19) below.

- (18) (a) Ade rí mi Ade see 1sg 'Ade saw me'
  - (b) Ade rí rẹ Ade see 2sg 'Ade saw me'
  - (c) Ade ri Ø<sup>14</sup>
    Ade see-3sg
    'Ade saw him'
  - (d) Ade rí wa Ade see 1pl 'Ade saw us'
  - (e) Ade rí ghan Ade see 2pl 'Ade saw you (pl)'
  - (d) Ade rí ghan Ade see 3pl 'Ade saw them'
- 19 (a) Ade pè mí Ade call 1sg 'Ade called me'
  - (b) Ade pè-é
    Ade call-3sg
    'Ade called him'
- (c) Aso yèn ye ghán Cloth that fit 3pl 'That cloth fit me'
- (d) Mo ti ghò ré 1sg perf. look 2sg 'I have looked for you'

The summary of the object forms is given in the table in figure (6). The tone of the verb determines the tone on the object it takes. This results in two sets corresponding to the two tonal patterns which a verb can exhibit.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> For the mid-toned third-person singular object, the high tone on the verb cannot even be realised. Hence, ri 'see' is produced on a mid tone here as ri. The object is covertly realised as symbolised here.

Fig. 6. Forms of the short object pronoun

Type	Person	Singular	Plural
Mid-toned	First	mi	wa
object forms	Second	rę	ghan
	Third	verbal vowel	ghan
		length	
High-toned	First	mí	wá
object forms	Second	ré	ghán
	Third	verbal vowel	ghán
		length	

The analysis thus far has revealed some syntactic distributions of Ìlàje pronouns with a focus on the logophoric long pronoun  $\partial ghun$  in comparison with the non-logophoric long and short forms of the pronoun. As observed in figure (1) above, any language that marks logophoricity in reported speech must have the marker as part of its lexicon. This implies that, even in a reported speech, logophoricity will only occur if there is a lexical entry for it. The Ìlàje logophor,  $\partial ghun$  therefore, have to be listed in the lexicon for logophoricity to be licensed. Since this is a pronominal kind of logophoricity, the logophor has to be considered as part of the lexical entry in the pronominal system from figure (3) through to figure (6), the summary of which is reproduced in figure (7).

Fig. 7. Forms of Ilaje pronouns including the logophor

Types	Person	Singular form	Plural
			form
	First	èmi	àwa
Long pronouns	Second	ùwo	àghan
	Third	òghun	àghan
Short affirmative	First	mo	a
subject pronouns	Second	wo	an
subject pronouns	Third	pro+ó	an
Chart affirmative	First	méè	áà
Short affirmative subject pronouns	Second	wéè	án-àn
	Third	éè	án-àn
	First	mi	wa
Mid-toned object	Second	re	ghan
pronouns	Third	verbal vowel	ghan
		length	
	First	mí	wá
High-toned object	Second	rę́	ghán
pronouns	Third	verbal vowel	ghán
		length	
	Dinat		I

Considering the characteristics given since this paper, the logophoric *òghun* can be described as a third person singular pronoun in the matrix clause which must have its antecedent as the subject of the report verb in the matrix clause. Like other forms of the pronoun, it maintains an exclusive complementary distribution.

#### Conclusion

This paper produced a descriptive syntactic analysis of the logophoric pronoun,  $\partial ghun$ , with reference to other pronouns in Ìlàje. The logophor has syntactic properties of a pronoun; it can be in any of the nominative, accusative and genitive cases, though not varying in its phonological form. However, the logophor differs from the traditional pronoun. First it has a peculiar syntactic distribution restricted to the embedded clause of the reported speech construction, where it functions as a referent to the subject of the reported verb. Second, its grammatical features are constrained to the third person singular only. The logophor is indeed a kind of pronoun that requires more attention in further studies on the pronominal system of Yoruba.

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