

THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF NOMINAL GROUPS IN ENGLISH AND GOKANA LANGUAGES

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Abstract

This paper, Comparative Analysis of Nominal Groups in English and Gokana Languages, adopts the descriptive approach and Contrastive Analysis (CA) as its theoretical framework. The study aims to analyze nominal groups in both languages English and Gokana. Data sources include primary and secondary sources, as well as from the researcher's intuition as a native speaker of Gokana and a competent user of English as a second language (L2). Data analysis was carried out using morpheme-to-morpheme glossing and are presented in sentence forms. The findings reveal that all nouns in Gokana begin with consonants and exhibit CV, CVC, and CVCV syllable structures, whereas English nouns may begin with either vowels or consonants and display varying syllable structures. The study further shows that count nouns can be preceded by articles and pluralized in both languages. Additionally, the Gokana suffixes -i and -a function as proximal and distal demonstratives that change form in response to number contrasts, while Gokana demonstratives remain invariable. Gokana nouns do not show morphological contrast for number, as plurality is lexicalized. This study contributes to the linguistic description of Gokana and English, serving as a reference for the Gokana and Ogoni communities and as pedagogical material for teaching Gokana nominal groups.

Keywords: Nominal groups; Gokana language, English language; Analysis, Morpheme, glossing; Demonstratives, Syllable structure.

Introduction

Language is a complex and systematic means of human communication, serving as the primary medium through which thoughts, ideas, emotions, and information are expressed and transmitted. Every human language operates according to a structured system in which sounds

combine to form morphemes, morphemes combine to form words, and words combine to form phrases and sentences. These combinations are not random; rather, they are governed by rules that determine what is grammatically acceptable within a speech community. The knowledge of these grammatical rules is largely unconscious. Native speakers intuitively recognize which expressions are well-formed and which are not, even if they are unable to explicitly state the rules governing such judgments. This internalized system of rules that enables speakers to produce and interpret meaningful utterances is referred to as grammar. Grammar therefore provides the framework for understanding how linguistic units are structured and how meaning is systematically encoded within a language.

In grammatical description, words are traditionally classified into word classes or parts of speech based on their form, function, and distribution. Although the classification and number of word classes may vary across languages, most languages recognize major categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and others. Words belonging to a particular class share common grammatical properties and distributional patterns, and they are often substitutable within similar structural environments without rendering a sentence ungrammatical. Among these word classes, nominals constitute a central category in many languages. Nominals include nouns, pronouns, and noun phrase elements that typically function as subjects, objects, complements, and other substantive positions within the clause. The nominal group, in particular, plays a crucial role in sentence construction because it serves as the primary means of expressing reference, identification, modification, possession, quantity, and number. The internal structure of nominal groups therefore reflects important grammatical processes within a language. English and Gokana, the languages under study, belong to different language families and exhibit distinct linguistic characteristics. English is a member of the Indo-European language family, while Gokana belongs to the Niger-Congo language family. Given their different genetic affiliations and structural tendencies, a comparative examination of specific grammatical units in both languages provides valuable insight into how languages organize similar functional elements in different structural ways.

Descriptive linguistics seeks to document and analyze how languages actually function, without imposing prescriptive judgments. In the same vein, contrastive analysis provides a framework for systematically comparing two languages in order to identify areas of similarity and divergence. Such comparison is particularly useful in highlighting structural patterns, explaining cross-linguistic variation, and contributing to language documentation and pedagogical development. Despite the recognized importance of nominal groups in grammatical structure, detailed comparative studies examining their structural properties in English and Gokana remain limited. A focused investigation of nominal groups in both languages is therefore necessary to provide clearer linguistic description and to reveal points of convergence and divergence between them. Although nominal groups in English have been extensively described, there is limited detailed documentation of their structural and morphological characteristics in Gokana. In particular, features such as noun syllable structure, article usage, pluralization patterns, demonstrative forms, and number marking in Gokana remain insufficiently examined.

Furthermore, there is a scarcity of systematic contrastive studies comparing nominal groups in English and Gokana. This gap restricts a clear understanding of the similarities and differences between the two languages and limits the linguistic documentation and pedagogical

development of Gokana. Therefore, a descriptive and contrastive analysis of nominal groups in English and Gokana is necessary.

Methodology

For this paper, the data collected were described, interpreted and analyzed comparatively. That is, the data on nominal groups were placed side by side and analyzed morpheme by morpheme to determine the similarities and differences that exist between the English and Gokana languages.

Literature Review

Under this subheading, the paper reviews some basic concepts related to the topic of discussion.

Noun

According to Emenanjo's discussion of nouns in the Igbo language, Emenanjo (1978) states that Igbo nouns conventionally begin with a syllabic nasal or a vowel. However, loan nouns such as *moto* ("motor car"), monosyllabic nouns such as *ji* ("yam"), and some subclasses of Igbo nouns, which he refers to as *idiphones*, begin with consonants. He further asserts that there are many possible ways of classifying nouns in Igbo. One approach is based on notional or traditional criteria, which classifies nouns into abstract, concrete, common, personal, proper, color, qualificative etc. Another possible criterion is morphological, that is, based on how nouns are formed: de-verbal nouns are formed from verbs, de-clausal from clauses, de-phrasal from phrases, and de-sentential from sentences. Nouns can also be classified as free or bound, typical or atypical. Emenanjo emphasizes that any classification is legitimate and useful for specific purposes. He further argues that one overarching classification is based on number, syllables, and inherent tone patterns of nouns. This classification is important not only because Igbo is a tonal language, but also because understanding the tonal behavior of nouns is crucial for understanding Igbo tonal patterns more generally.

A noun is defined as "any word used to name things, persons, places, activities, concepts, or notions (Ndimele 1993). Ndimele maintains that nouns are usually more numerous than any other part of speech in a language. He notes that not all nouns behave in the same way morphologically, but what unites nouns as a class is their common grammatical behavior, including the positions they can occupy relative to other words and the functions they perform in a sentence.

Therefore, in this paper, we adopt Ndimele's viewpoint that nouns do not always behave uniformly in terms of morphological changes. For example, English nouns inflect to mark number, whereas Gokana nouns do not mark number through inflection. Some examples include:

English	Gokana
Table	kazi
Yam	gyàa
Man	gbara
Girl	pabia
House	tó
Chair	kpote

Car	fáá
Bottle	lolo

Pronoun

Most scholars, and indeed speakers of language in general, agree that pronouns are a set of words used instead of nouns; in other words, they function as noun substitutes. Emenanjo (1978) observes that Igbo pronouns may be inclusive or exclusive. Ahoatu (2001) also agrees that pronouns are used as substitutes for nouns. He further notes that pronouns help avoid redundant expressions. For instance, consider the following sentence:

Mene was denied access to the entrance of the event hall because Mene forgot to go with Mene's ticket that would grant Mene access into the hall.

In this sentence, the repetition of the proper noun "Mene" creates redundancy. To improve clarity, subsequent references to "Mene" should be replaced with appropriate pronouns such as *he* and *his*:

Mene was denied access to the entrance of the event hall because he forgot to go with his ticket that would grant him access into the hall.

Furthermore, Ndimele (2003), Isaac (2003), and Eyisi (2003) maintain that pronouns commonly substitute for nouns or noun phrases and occur in all positions where nouns appear. Ndimele notes that in all languages of the world, pronouns are conventionally considered part of the **closed class of words**, meaning their membership is limited.

However, the fact that pronouns can replace nouns does not mean that they share all the same grammatical properties. For example, in English, nouns can be preceded by determiners, whereas pronouns cannot. Examples include:

English	Gokana
'He'	pagbara
'She'	pabia
'It'	nú/e
'They'	gbo
'Our'	beà

Numeral

According to Ndimele (1993), numerals are words or phrases used to indicate number; in other words, they constitute the counting system of a language. He distinguishes numerals into two types: cardinal and ordinal numerals. Cardinal numerals are used for counting, and with the exception of *one*, all other cardinal numerals modify plural nouns. Ordinal numerals, on the other hand, are used to indicate the position of items in a sequence, specifying a clearly defined item within a series.

In agreement, Ndimele (1993), Ahaneku (2011), Isaac (2003), and Ebirien (2014) note that numerals can function as the head of a noun phrase (NP), stand alone as nouns, or serve as complements. They further affirm that numerals can act as nominals in associative constructions with a noun. Ebirien (2014), in his research on numerals in Obolo, defines numerals as items, words, or fingers that denote numbers used for counting in the language. He also notes that numerals in Obolo can be used post-nominally to modify nouns. Some examples are as follows:

English

“One girl”
 “Two girls”
 “First house”
 “Second car”
 “One”
 “Two”
 “Three”
 “Four”
 “Five”
 “Ten”
 “Twenty”

Gokana

ene ka pabia
 Baka pabia
 tuaka tò
 бага fáá
 ene
 ba
 taa
 teni
 voo
 ôb
 tup

Phrase

In his discussion of phrasal categories, Ndimele (1999) begins by defining the term *phrase*. He defines a phrase as a group of words combined according to the rules of a language’s grammar. He observes that language acquisition is facilitated by the fact that sentences are built not only from words belonging to various word-level categories but also from phrases belonging to the corresponding phrasal categories. Ndimele further notes that phrases are internally structured; that is, the arrangement of words within a phrase follows a specific pattern, depending on the rules governing the language.

Similarly, Fiddo (2002) agrees that a phrase is a group of words introduced by a preposition, an infinitive, a participle, or a gerund. While we concur with Fiddo’s claim, we note that his explanation is somewhat narrow, since a phrase can also be introduced by other grammatical elements, such as a noun phrase (nominal). Some examples include:

English

“The man”
 “The church”
 “Fat man”
 “Fat woman”
 “Tall tree”
 “A few fish”

Gokana

á gbará
 a tubari
 popku gbará
 popku mwaa
 gabbo te
 mkem gyaa

Noun Phrase

Lamidi (2007) and Tomori (1977) contend that the term *noun phrase* can also be referred to as a *nominal group*. Lamidi (2007) argues that the structure of a nominal group (noun phrase) can be represented as M–H–Q, where **M** stands for *Modifier*, referring to words that occur before the head of a phrase; **H** represents the *Head* of the phrase; and **Q**, the *Quantifier*, refers to a word, a group of words, or a sentence that occurs after the head of the phrase.

Tomori (1977) observes that, in English, the two elements M and Q are optional, whereas H (the head) is obligatory. He further notes that a large number of qualifiers can follow the head.

Following Ndimele (2003), a noun phrase (NP) can function as a subject, direct object, indirect object, or complement of a preposition. Structurally, it represents the largest expansion or maximal projection of the noun.

An NP can consist of a single noun or pronoun with modifiers. That is, in an NP, a noun or pronoun can combine with other words such as determiners and adjectives. The head or main word in an NP is the noun. Noun phrases can take different forms, as illustrated below:

a) NP consisting of a single noun

This often occurs when the noun is a proper noun (Prop N). This can be represented

NP → Prop N

b) NP consisting of a determiner and a common noun

NP → (Det) + N

Examples include;

English	Gokana
"This woman"	m wáá
"A car"	e fáá
"An orange"	eneká lorigá
"The boy"	á pa gbara
"This man"	m gbará
"This house"	towa

c. An NP can consist of a determiner, one or more adjectives and a noun

NP – (Det) + N'

N1 – (Adj) + N

Examples include:

English	Gokana
"The fat woman"	mpopku nwaa
"This beautiful girl"	le pabia
"The big white car"	mpopka ee fáá

d. An NP can also consist of a determiner and a noun followed by a prepositional phrase:

NP – (Det) + N¹

N¹-N+ (PP)

English	Gokana
"This egg on the table"	a kekoo boo kazi
"This madman on the street"	a nenda boo erei
"The orange by the road side"	e lorigá a di ga ere

Presentation/ discussion data on both languages

In this paper, the term *nominal* refers to the grammatical category that can occur in all positions designated for nouns and pronouns. This definition is applied to the languages under study, namely English and Gokana.

Noun in English

At the primary and secondary school level, a noun is defined as "a name of a person, place, or thing," and this definition remains valid. More broadly, a noun can denote the class of words to which all names belong. The noun is one of the principal lexical categories in human language and appears to be universally present in all the world's languages (Eyoh, 2003).

Some examples of nouns in English include: chair, board, water, iron, mirror, candle, cup, table, bag, books, pillow, bed, blanket, flask (for food or water), clothes, fan, phone/charger, bulb, radio, fire, grass, wood, boat, canoe, cap, toner, ocean, door, window, fridge, basin, etc.

Types of Noun in English

There are various types of nouns in the English Language and they include the following below:

i. Proper Nouns:

A proper noun is a type of noun that refers to a particular or specific entity that is unique.

Examples:

- Personal Names: Akpan, Johnson, Njoku, Baridam, Nadum, Mene, Saro, Legbosi, etc.
- Places: Gokana, Khana, Tai, Barako, Bera, Port Harcourt, Ataba, Bodo etc.
- Institutions: Assemblies Of God Church, Captain Elechi Amadi Polytechnic, Champion Breweries, United Bank of Africa, University of Uyo, etc.
- **Subjects/Courses of Study:** Mathematics, English, Physics, Biology, Chemistry, etc.
- **Months & Days:** June, January, August, March, December; Friday, Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, etc.

Proper nouns do not appear in the plural form and must begin with capital letters, whether at the start or in the middle of a sentence.

ii. Concrete Nouns

Concrete nouns refer to objects or entities that exist physically; they are tangible and can be seen, touched, or perceived directly.

Examples: animal, chalkboard, fan, pen, car, basket, etc.

iii. Abstract Nouns

Abstract nouns refer to ideas, concepts, or qualities that cannot be seen or touched but can be understood or felt through their effects.

Examples: honesty, beauty, happiness, air, current (electric), truth, love, pity, hunger, sorrow, respect, anger, jealousy, hatred, affection, etc.

iv. Common Nouns

Common nouns refer to general classes of entities rather than specific ones. They denote a name common to any member of a category.

Examples: doctor, table, book, chair, house, dog, fish, man, woman, tree, teacher, nurse, pastor, etc.

v. Collective Nouns

Collective nouns refer to groups or collections of individuals considered as a single unit.

Examples: crew, herd, staff, church, galaxy, launch, class, audience, committee, convoy, crowd, family, battalion, etc.

vi. Countable and Uncountable Nouns

- **Countable Nouns:** These refer to items or things that can be counted in numbers or units. Countable nouns can be preceded by articles.

Examples:

Boy	a boy	two boys
Table	a table	four tables

Goat	a goat	three goats
Egg	an egg	four eggs
Man	a man	two men
Book	a book	five books
Orange	an orange	three oranges.

Vii. **Uncountable/Non-Count Nouns**

Uncountable nouns are nouns that cannot normally be counted. They appear only in the singular form and do not take the indefinite articles *a* or *an*, nor do they take determiners that strictly denote quantity, such as *one*, *two*, *few*, *many*, etc. They may, however, take quantifiers such as *much*, *little*, *a little*, and so on (Eyoh, 2003).

According to Crystal (1991), non-count or uncountable nouns are conceived as continuous entities with no natural boundaries; they denote amounts that cannot be separated into individual units.

Examples include:

Soup	a pot of soup	three pots of soup
Ink	a bottle of ink	two bottles of ink
Water	a gallon of water	four gallons of water
Information	a piece of information	some piece of information
Milk	a tin of milk	five tins of milk
Butter	a sachet of butter	two sachets of butter

From the above illustration, it is evident that uncountable nouns cannot be preceded by numerals, nor can they be pluralized. They are typically interpreted as mass nouns.

1. **Nouns in Gokana**

Noun is a universal category found in all languages of the world. The traits that contribute to the universality of nouns include:

- i. That all languages have open-class words;
- ii. That all nouns can co-occur with modifiers.

Based on this notion, it is observed that in Gokana all nouns begin with a consonant. Most nominals in the language exhibit the syllable patterns CV, CVC, and CVCV. Nouns in Gokana can occupy various positions in a sentence, including subject, object or complement. Some examples of nouns in the Gokana language are:

Noun (Gokana)	Gloss (meaning)
Ká	'mother'
Sá	'fire'
Mũũ	'water'
Vil	'grass'
Gbebaa	'cassava'
Ba	'hand'
Gyaa	'food'
Kpote	'chair'

Comparison of Nouns in English and Gokana

In both languages (English and Gokana), the noun is a lexical category and belongs to the open class. Analysis of the available data shows that in both languages, nouns often begin with a consonant and frequently exhibit similar syllable patterns.

Types of Nouns in Gokana

Nouns in Gokana can be classified into the following categories: proper nouns, common nouns, abstract nouns, concrete nouns, collective nouns, countable nouns, and uncountable nouns. The following types of nouns will be discussed below:

- i. **PROPER NOUNS:** Some nouns are used to identify specific (particular) persons, places, things, days of the week, months of year and similar entities.

Names of Places: Barako, Bodo, Bera, Taabaa, Khana, Tai, Gokana, etc.

Days of the Week Gokana	English
Tuadeelo	Monday
Baadeelo	Tuesday
Kalaloli	Saturday
Deebari	Sunday

Months of the Year Gokana	English
Tua-e	January
Baa-e	February
Oole-e	June
Opnebaa-e	Sunday

It should be noted that whenever a proper noun appears in a sentence, regardless of its position, its first letter must be capitalized. This characteristic of proper nouns is consistent across all languages of the world.

- ii. **COMMON NOUNS:** Common nouns in Gokana refer to general names shared by a group of entities such as people, animals or objects).

Examples of common nouns in Gokana

Gokana	English
Nwinpabia	Girl
Nwinpagbara	Boy
Bo	Goat
Pabia/Nwaa	Woman
Giolo-bari	Pastor
Nen-noomanu	Teache

- iii. **COLLECTIVE NOUNS:** These are names given to collections of individuals or animals that act as a single unit.

Examples of collective nouns in Gokana

Gbononu	“Committee”
Gbobeela	“Jury”

Pato	“Family”
Boonalo	“Congregation”

iv. **CONCRETE NOUNS:** There are nouns that are tangible, i.e nouns that can be seen, touched or felt.

Examples of concrete nouns in Gokana

Gokana	English
Faa	Car
To	House
Te	Tree
Lolo	Bottle

v. **ABSTRACT NOUNS:** Nouns that are intangible, they cannot be seen, touched but can be perceived or felt. This is because they refer to ideas, concept or qualities.

Examples of Abstract nouns in Gokana

Gokana	English
Op	Hatred
Vule	Love
Lemaa	Affection
Lelee	Kindness
Eenyie	Happiness
Le	Beauty

vi. COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

In Gokana, countable nouns are words that can be individuated or separated into discrete units. Countable nouns in Gokana can be preceded by the article “Eneka” i.e, “a”, Examples of countable nouns in Gokana include;

pagbia “girl”, Eneka pagbia “a girl”

pagbara “boy” baaka pagbara “two boys”

Kekoo ‘egg’, eneka bol kekoo “an egg, tenika bol kekoo “four eggs

Te “tree” Eneka te “a tree” baaka te “two trees”

Uncountable Nouns denote amounts that cannot be counted. Examples of uncountable nouns include:

Gokana	English
Foro	Air
Saa	Sand
Muu	Water

Comparison Between Countable And Uncountable Nouns in Gokana and English.

Countable nouns in both languages refer to nouns that can be separated into individual units. They can be preceded by an indefinite article (e.g., eneka in Gokana) and can be pluralized.

Example

English	Gokana
A bag of Sand	Ene bere saa
2 cups of water	Baa bgak muu

2. Pronoun in English

The word *pronoun* is composed of two meaningful elements: *pro* + *noun*. One of the dictionary meanings of *pro* is “acting for.” Therefore, a pronoun is a word that acts in place of a noun (Eyoh, 2003).

A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun or a noun phrase in a sentence. It is similar to a noun in that it can perform all the functions of a noun; however, it differs from a noun because it cannot take a modifier. Unlike nouns, pronouns belong to a closed class of words.

Types of Pronouns

There are two classes of pronouns: personal pronouns and impersonal pronouns. For the purpose of this paper, the discussion will be limited to five types of pronouns: personal, reflexive, relative, interrogative, and reciprocal pronouns.

Personal Pronoun: The personal pronoun is distinguished from other types of pronouns because grammatical categories such as person, gender, and case are applied to it.

These grammatical categories are explained in the table below.

First (1 st)	Subjective	Objective	Possessive	Adjectival	Reflexive
Person	SL PL	SL PL	Sl pl	Sl pl	Sl pl
The	I We	Me Us	Mine	My Our	Myself
Speaker(s)			Ours		Ourselves
Second person	You You	You You	Yours	Yours Your	Yourselves
Immediate			Yours		Yourselves
Person addressed					
3 rd person	He	Him	His	His	Himself
Remote (person)	She	Her	Her	Her	Herself
Addressed	It They	Its Them	Its Their	Its Their	Themselves

Person is a linguistic category used to indicate the relationships between participants in discourse. English makes a three-way person distinction: first person, second person, and third person.

- **First person** refers to the speaker or to a group that includes the speaker. Examples include: I, we, me, us.
- **Second person** refers to the addressee(s) or to a group associated with the addressee(s). Examples include: you (singular and plural).
- **Third person** refers to someone or something being spoken about. Examples include: he, she, it, they, him, her and them.

Third Person

The third person refers to a nonparticipant in a communicative act. Examples include: he, she, it and they.

A. Number

Number is a grammatical category that indicates the quantity of real-world entities involved in a communicative act. English makes a two-way distinction: singular and plural. Examples include: I/we, me/us, he/they.

B. Gender

Gender is a grammatical category that divides words into masculine, feminine, and neuter. The masculine refers to male beings, the feminine refers to female beings, and the neuter refers to non-human entities or sometimes infants. Examples include:

- Masculine: he, him, his
- Feminine: she, her
- Neutral: it, its

C. Case

Case is traditionally defined as the variation in the form of a word according to its grammatical function in a sentence. In languages with an impoverished case system, the traditional concept of case may not hold. In English, the pronominal system shows three observable cases: subjective, objective, and possessive.

- i. **Subjective Case:** This is the form a pronoun takes when it functions as the subject of a sentence. Examples include: he, she, I, we, and they.
- ii. **Objective Case:** This is the form a pronoun takes when it functions as the object of a verb or a preposition. Examples include: me, us, him, her, and them.
- iii. **Possessive Case:** This is the form a pronoun takes to express possession. There are two forms:
 - Determiner form (used before a noun): my, our, your, her, their
 - Independent form (used adjectivally or nominally): mine, ours, yours, hers, theirs

1. Reflexive Pronoun

Reflexive pronouns are compound forms made up of two elements. The first element takes the form of a possessive pronoun (e.g., my, your, our, her) or, in the third person, the objective case of a personal pronoun (e.g., him, it, them). The second element is the suffix **-self** (singular) or **-selves** (plural).

Person	Singular	Plural
1 st person	myself	ourselves
2 nd person	yourself	yourselves
3 rd person	himself/herself/itself	themselves

Functions of Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns perform two main functions: emphatic and non-emphatic.

Examples:

1. **Emphatic:**
 - a) Emeka hurt himself.
 - b) Benjamin himself wrote the play.
 - c) You yourself should bear the burden.
2. **Non-emphatic:**

a) You deceived yourself.

2. Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun introduces a relative (adjectival) clause. Examples of relative pronouns include: who, whom, whose, what, that, whoever, and whichever.

Usage and Examples:

1. Who / Whom – used for nouns referring to human beings.
 - The man who ran mad is from my community.
 - This is the man who told you his car was stolen.
2. Which – used for nouns referring to non-human beings or things.
 - The watch which was stolen from her father is expensive.
3. Whose – used for nouns referring to both human and non-human entities.
 - That is the woman whose child died in yesterday's motor accident.
 - This is the boy whose money was picked this morning.
4. That – used for nouns referring to both human and non-human entities.
 - That is my son that I told you I want to register in your school.
 - This is the kind of building that I have always desired to live in.
5. Where / Wherever – used for nouns referring to places or locations.
 - Can you tell me where I can buy good food to eat?
 - You can go wherever you wish, but I know you will return later.

3. Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are identical in form to the “wh-” series of relative pronouns, but they perform different functions. While relative pronouns introduce relative clauses, interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions.

Examples of interrogative pronouns:

- Who, whom, whose – refer only to humans.

Who took the bread from the fridge?

Whom are you trying to deceive with your lies?

Whose child did she beat up like that?

Whose wife are you talking about?

- Which, what – can refer to both humans and non-human entities.

Which car should I use for the event?

Which gender should I invite more people for?

What kind of music do you prefer to play?

What is your favourite food?

In the examples above, the first two sentences express a choice among a limited set, while the third and fourth convey a sense of kind or type. Which differs from what because it allows an “of” construction, while what does not.

- Correct: Which (of the) cars should I use?
- Incorrect: What (of the) cars should I use?

4. Reciprocal Pronouns

According to Ndimele (2006), a reciprocal pronoun expresses a mutual relationship. There are two types: each other and one another.

- **Each other** – used for situations involving two persons or entities.
Example: Christian and Christiana are deemed to help **each other**.
- **One another** – used for situations involving more than two persons or entities.
Example: Bright, Gold, and their friends are deemed to help **one another**.

Pronouns in Gokana

A pronoun in Gokana is a word that **takes the place of a noun or noun phrase** in any construction (sentence). It is similar to a noun because it can perform all the functions of a noun, but it differs from a noun in that it **cannot take modifiers** like a noun. Pronouns in Gokana can occur in **all the syntactic positions where nouns can be found**, such as subject, object, or complement.

Types of Pronouns in Gokana Language

This paper identifies six pronouns in Gokana language: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, reflexive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns possessive pronouns and the interrogative pronoun. The personal and possessive pronouns in Gokana highlight the relationships between speech participants in the specific discourse situations. Personal pronouns identify the people involved in a speech according to their roles, while possessive indicate ownership. Three persons are recognised in Gokana pronouns:

First Person: refers to speaker

Second Person: refers to the listener

Third Person: refers to the entity being referred to or discussed

Nominative			Accusative		Genitive	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1 st	nda	beere	nda	bee	nda	Bee
Person	“I”	“we”	“me”	“us”	My/mine	“our/ours
2 nd	oro	oroo	oro	oroo	ndoo	Booro
Person	“You”	“Your”	“You”	“You”	“Your”	“Your”
3 rd	o	gbo	ndee	baára	á	Nbaara
Person	“She/He/It”	“They”	“His/Her/It”	“Them”	“His/Her/Its”	“Theirs”

Table 1: Different forms of personal and possessive pronouns in Gokana.

Comparison of Personal and Possessive Pronouns in Gokana and English Language

From the data presented, it is evident that **personal and possessive pronouns exist in both English and Gokana** and share many similar features. All grammatical categories associated with personal pronouns such as person, number, and case are present in both languages.

In both English and Gokana, personal and possessive pronouns make a **two-way distinction between singular (one) and plural (more than one)**. Possessive pronouns in both languages are used to indicate **ownership** or **possession**, either independently or in combination with nouns.

Overall, the analysis shows that the structure and function of personal and possessive pronouns in Gokana closely mirror those in English, demonstrating clear cross-linguistic similarities in pronominal systems. Examples include:

Gokana	Ndaa kpa
English	My book
Gokana	Ndee kpa
English	His/Her book
Gokana	Beere kpa
English	Their book

Demonstrative Pronoun in Gokana Language

A demonstrative pronoun is used to point to a specific entity within a clause or context. In Gokana, demonstrative pronouns indicate the spatial location of an entity relative to the speaker, showing whether it is near or far. Accordingly, Gokana demonstrative pronouns are broadly classified into two types:

1. Proximal demonstratives refer to entities close to the speaker.
2. Distal demonstratives refer to entities far from the speaker.

These pronouns are essential in expressing deixis, helping speakers specify entities in relation to themselves or others in the discourse context.

Example include:

-i	“this
-á	“that”

Comparison of Demonstrative Pronouns in English and Gokana

Both English and Gokana share demonstrative pronouns that indicate the spatial location of an entity relative to the speaker, the hearer, or both.

In English:

- *This* and *that* are singular, while *these* and *those* are plural.
- *This* and *these* are proximal (near the speaker), whereas *that* and *those* are distal (far from the speaker).

In Gokana:

- The suffix -i marks proximal reference, while -á marks distal reference.
- Unlike English, Gokana demonstratives are invariable in form, regardless of singular or plural reference.

Additionally, Gokana nouns do not show morphological contrasts for number, as the notion of plurality is lexicalized in the language. Plural distinctions in Gokana are often realized through suffixes rather than changes in the demonstrative pronoun itself.

Examples include as follows:

Gokana	Kpa-i
English	Book this
Meaning	This book
Gokana	Kpa -a
English	Books that
Meaning	“That book”

Reflexive Pronouns in Gokana Language

A **reflexive pronoun** indicates that the action in a sentence **affects the same entity that performs it**. In Gokana, the reflexive pronoun is expressed using the **independent morpheme “ere”**, meaning “self.”

In the Gokana language, reflexive pronouns serve a **purely anaphoric function**, meaning they **refer back to an antecedent** that has already been mentioned in the construction. This allows the language to maintain clarity about which entity performs and receives the action in a sentence. Examples include as follows:

Examples

Gokana	English	Meaning
Tudor eme ere	Tudor write himself	Tudor writes it himself
Ladi kuu ere	Ladi cut herself	Ladi cuts herself

Reciprocal Pronouns in Gokana Language

In Gokana, reciprocal pronouns are used to express the ideas of mutual relationship that exists between two or more entities. They indicate that the action of the verb is mutually performed or experienced by the participants. Examples include in the following sentences below:

Gokana	Lelu ne Kaka vura ene baaba
English	Lelu and Kaka love themselves.
Meaning	Lelu and Kaka love each other.

Relative Pronouns in Gokana Language

In Gokana, the relative pronouns are used to introduce relative or adjectival clauses such as. These pronouns link a subordinate clause to a noun or noun phrase in the main clause, providing additional information about the noun. Examples such as; mee (who), m moni (which), nu a (what), meen (whom) mee (whose), ee (that). The following examples can be used in any expressions.

Conclusion

This paper has analyzed nominal groups in both Gokana and English using **contrastive analysis** as the theoretical framework. It was observed that all nominals in Gokana begin with a consonant. Nouns in Gokana are classified into **proper, common, collective, concrete, abstract, and countable/uncountable nouns**, similar to the classification in English. It was also observed that both English and Gokana classify pronouns into **personal, demonstrative, possessive, reflexive, relative, interrogative, and reciprocal pronouns**. Possessive forms exist in both languages: in English, dependent and independent possessives occur as pre-head modifiers, and the same applies in Gokana.

Conclusively, this study has established the nature of nominal groups in both English and Gokana, highlighting their structural and functional similarities and differences. The paper also examined previous works in the field. It was observed that relatively few studies have addressed the comparative analysis of nominal groups. Notable contributions include Isaac Baridisi’s work on descriptive nominal modifiers in Ogoni .Although Isaac (2003) examined the structure of the Gokana noun phrase, his study did not consider noun categories or pronoun

categories. This present paper addresses these gaps by providing a comprehensive analysis of both nouns and pronouns in Gokana and English.

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