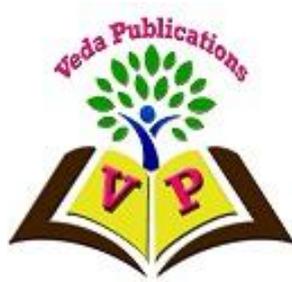


**INADEQUACIES OF BINDING THEORY**

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Classical/Standard Binding Theory was inadequate to handle the differences in the way anaphoric relations are expressed across languages. So, the present study examines anaphora in Telugu and English and makes a modest attempt to address some of the issues that could not be handled satisfactorily either within the GB theory or within the Minimalist framework.

Keywords: *Government & Binding Theory, Anaphor, Logophor, Specified Subject Condition and Tensed S Condition.*

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INTRODUCTION

The GB theory was considered significant enough to provide the core of the syntactic framework for the Binding theory. However, within Minimalism, Binding theory has not received the attention that it deserved. Moreover, several revisions were done within the minimalist theory. It remains unclear how the empirical facts previously captured by the Binding Conditions under the GB framework could be handled within the Minimalist assumptions given that many of the concepts central to the Binding theory have been done away with.

Earlier, in GB theory, there were four levels of representation i.e., DD, SS, LF and PF. Previously, the level of representation at which Binding applied was a subject of hot debate. It was assumed that in some way or other, the Binding Conditions would need reference to some combination of Deep structure, Surface structure, and LF. Belletti & Rizzi (1998) said that Condition A must be met at all levels. However, since PF and LF were the only levels which interface with the external systems, they were assumed to be conceptually desirable under Minimalist assumptions. So, within Minimalism, LF interface was the only level at which BCs



can apply. Anyway, we will consider in detail as to why the Standard Binding theory failed to account for certain cross-linguistic facts about anaphora.

The Binding theory formulated within the Principles and Parameters theory was found to be inadequate because it failed to account for certain facts about anaphors and pronouns across languages. Several revisions and modifications were necessary in order to accommodate cross-linguistic data. In this study, we will focus on some specific aspects of the BT as formulated within the PPT approach as these are relevant to our present study of anaphoric relations in Telugu and English. However, we will consider other aspects of BT wherever necessary. The following are the three inadequacies that this study will address.

Firstly, Binding Theory failed to accommodate Long-distance anaphors found in many languages including Telugu and English, since the notion of governing category as defined in the classical BT presented problems in handling Long-distance anaphors. Moreover, there was no single definition of government which was crucial to Case theory, theta-theory and Binding as a result of which, the notion of government as a theoretical primitive was abandoned. Secondly, there were languages with different types of word order which presented problems for the C-Commanding requirement for anaphor Binding. Finally, the Long-distance anaphor *taanin* in Telugu presents problems even to the requirement that the anaphor and its antecedent match in their phi-features.

Binding theory formulated within the Principles and Parameters theory was found to be inadequate to handle several phenomena observed cross linguistically. So, drastic revisions were necessary in order to accommodate cross-linguistic differences. There are huge cross-linguistic differences which present problems to the Binding theory and we will consider these differences one by one.

ANAPHORICITY VS LOGOPHORICITY

The notable counter evidence arise in the form of anaphoric and logophoric function of reflexives. It is noticed that a unified theory of different anaphors which are found across languages seemed somewhat unfeasible as there are major differences concerning their distribution, mostly in the case of Long distance anaphors. A detailed investigation of anaphoric relations across languages has shown that a distinction is needed between a logophoric function and anaphoric relations. This difference between logophors and anaphors was first noted by Anderson (1986). He observed that Long distance Binding into finite clause (indicative or subjunctive) and Long distance Binding into infinitival clauses indicate that only the latter comes under structural Binding Theory whereas the other occurrences of Long distance reflexives are considered as logophoric. The Logophoric distribution is much freer, and they are governed by discourse factors, rather than by structural Binding. However, the so-called local anaphors (like *himself/herself/themselves*) also allow logophoric uses. This fact presents problems to the definition of GC for conditions A and B. Let us discuss in great detail the difference between anaphoricity and logophoricity.

ANAPHORICITY

C-command, local domain, and antecedent hood are the important factors which constitute anaphoricity.

THE DEFINITION OF AN ANAPHOR

The aim of BT is to explore the distribution of anaphoric and non-anaphoric features in any given language. This is a very crucial object because the idea that the distribution of anaphoric and non-anaphoric elements is intrinsically tied to their inherent properties which can be specified by the composition of the features [+/- pronominal] and [+/- anaphor].

[+] and [-] features have contradictory specifications which shows an element cannot be both [+pronominal] and [-pronominal]. Therefore, SBT outlines three different types of overt DPs depending on the contradictory nature of the feature specifications.

According to the Binding Theory, Chomsky defines an anaphor as an element which is bound in the governing category. But, Burzio (1991) observed some conceptual problems of definition of an anaphor in BT.

He noted that in English, the definition of the anaphor based on the overt presence of certain elements, the *-self*. But, in some languages, the distinctions between anaphors and pronouns are not overtly marked.



Therefore, the morphological definition of an anaphor will not make any sense. For example, the reflexives in Romance languages do not show or exhibit any morphological reflexive element. For example, consider the following Italian examples taken from Burzio (1991)

1) a) Io mi vedo.

I me see

I see myself.

b) Tupensi solo a te

You think only to you

You only think about yourself.

In some cases, the clitics are used as pronouns.

2) a) Gianni mi vede.

Gianni me sees

Gianni sees me.

b) Maria pensi solo a te.

Maria think only to you

Maria only thinks about you.

To address these conceptual problems, Burzio (1991) proposes a definition of an anaphor.

3) Definition of an Anaphor (Burzio 1991)

An NP with no features is an Anaphor.

The above definition elucidates the referential dependent character of anaphors. It is this referential dependent nature of anaphors which help to distinguish anaphors from pronouns.

Reinhart and Reuland (1993), on the other hand, defines that anaphors are referentially defective NP's which entails that they cannot be used deictically i.e., defective NP's cannot be used as a demonstratives referring to some entity in the world. Choi (2000), on the other hand, proposed another definition for an anaphor.

According to him "An anaphor is a referentially dependent NP without any meaning, keeping all syntactic constraints"

Binding Theory, on the other hand, takes a structural approach to make a distinction between anaphors and pronouns. According to this, an anaphor has to satisfy structural conditions such as C-command, locality and antecedenthood which we examined above.

Now let us turn our attention to Logophors.

LOGOPHORICITY

The notion of logophoricity was first coined by Hagege (1974) in his study of African languages. The logophoric pronouns found in these languages are morphologically differentiated and show a distribution which is distinct from that of other pronouns. This topic of logophoricity has also been widely used in accounting for Long distance reflexives occurring in many languages such as Korean, Japanese, Icelandic, Telugu and Kannada etc. All most in all these languages, logophoricity may be expressed morphologically and syntactically by one of the following mechanisms. 1. Logophoric pronouns, which may take free forms e.g. DonnoSo (which is Dogon language spoken in Mali and Burkina Faso) or be cliticized to the verb (e.g. Ewe). 2. Logophoric verbal affixes (e.g. Gokana), and 3. Long-distance reflexives (e.g. Korean, Japanese, Icelandic, Kannada and Telugu).

Now let us look at the definition of a logophor and examine the factors that constitute the logophoricity.

**THE DEFINITION OF A LOGOPHOR**

According to Huang Y. (1994), "Logophoricity refers to the phenomenon whereby the point of view of an internal protagonist of a discourse as opposed to that of the current, external speaker, is reported". And, these logophoric pronouns are distinct from pronouns and reflexives. The logophoric pronouns which occur in embedded clauses refer to the individual whose speech, thoughts, or feelings are reported or reflected in a given context (Clement 1975). For example, languages like Ewe, have logophoric pronouns distinct from their normal pronouns which are cliticized to the embedded verb. Consider the examples taken from Clements (1975:142).

- 4) Logophoric pronouns: Cliticized to the verb
- a) Kofi be ye-dzo
Kofi say LOG-leave
Kofi_i said that he_i left
- b) Kofi be e-dzo
Kofi say 3SG-leave
Kofi_i said that he_{-i/j} left (Ewe, Clements (1975))

In (4 a) the embedded verb has a cliticized logophoric pronoun *ye* on the embedded verb. The logophoric pronoun has to take the matrix subject as its antecedent. In (4 b), the cliticized regular pronoun *e* can only refer to some other referent but not the matrix antecedent. From the above examples, we noted that the logophoric pronouns *ye* usage is distinct from the personal and reflexive pronoun.

Sells (1987) follows the definition of logophors first coined by Hagege (1974). However, he further claims that the concept of logophoricity is actually made up of three more primitive notions (the source, self and pivot). Consider the following examples,

- 5) a) James_i said that he_i saw Mary. (Source)
b) That Mary_j likes him_{i/*j} pleases John_i. (Self)
c) James' mother_i came to the hospital to visit him_{i/j}. (Pivot)

Kuno (1987) uses the term "logophoric" which means 'pertaining to the speaker and the hearer'. He gives a series of subjects of verbs which are considered as logophors such as *say, tell, ask, complain, scream, realize, feel, know, expect*, and so on, and the objects of verbs such as *worry, bother, disturb, please*, and so on are considered as [+log-1]. The dative objects of verbs such as *say, ask, complain, scream* are realized as [+log-2], Kuno (1987:21).

In (5 a), the sentence contains the logophoric verb *say* and the embedded subject pronoun *he* logophorically connects to *James*. This is because *James* is the source of the sentence. In (5 b), the sentence contains the psych verb *please* and the pronoun links to *John* who is the *self* in the sentence. In (5 c), the 3rd person point of view arises due to the construction type and the pronoun *him* can refer to *James* which is the pivot.

We observed that logophoric pronoun *ye* is used in the Ewe language to express logophoricity. But, in some other languages like Telugu, Kannada, Korean, Japanese and Icelandic, the same reflexive form is used to express the logophoricity. Consider the following examples,

- 6) raaju,ravi too [tanu;americakivelthaa-nu ani] cepp-aa-Du
Raju ravidat self NOM America dat go 1 sg.n COM say pst 3 sg.m
Raju said to Ravi that he would go to America.

Telugu

- 7) raamu,shyaamu [tann-annu;priitis-utt-aane anta] namb-utt-aane.
Ramu Shyamu self acc love pres 3sg-m COM believe pres-3sm-m
Ramu_i believes that Shyamu loves self_i

Kannada



- 8) Chelswu_i-nun Yengswu-kacaki_i-lulcoahanta-kosayngkakkan-ta
Chelswu-Top Yengswu-Nom self-Acc like-Comp think-decl
Chelswu_i thinks that Yengswu loves him_i
Korean (Choi 2000).
- 9) Taroo_i-waYosiko-gazibun_i-niaitagatteiru-to iwareta.
Taroo-Top Yosiko-ga self-Dat visit-ws-wanting-Comp was-told
Taroo_i was told that Yosiko wanted to visit him_i
Japanese (Choi 2000)
- 10) Jon_isegirath Maria elskisig_i
John says that Maria loves (subj.) self
Jon_i says that Maria loves him_i
Icelandic (Choi 2000)

In the above sentences, reflexives are bound by the matrix antecedent across the local domain in which a reflexive ought to be bound. Reflexives in these languages can be bound within the local domain as an anaphor or can refer to the matrix antecedent as a logophor. Therefore, it is observed that reflexives in these languages are lexically ambiguous between an anaphor and a logophor.

In a language like Gokana which is an Ogoni language spoken in Nigera, logophoricity is expressed not through the logophoric pronouns but with a verbal suffix. It uses the verbal suffix *e* to express the logophoric reference. Consider the following examples taken from Hyman and Comrie (1981).

- 11) A nyimakoe do-e
He knows that he fell-LOG
He_i knows that he_i fell.
- 12) A nyimakoe do
He knows that he fell
He_i knows that he_{-i/j} fell

When the verb is used without the logophoric suffix *e* as in (11), the pronoun cannot take the antecedent in the matrix clause. But, in (12), the suffix *-e* is attached to the verb and the verb expresses logophoricity.

Now, let us turn our attention to logophoric function of reflexives. When reflexives in English function like logophors, they are entirely different from anaphors and do not obey the properties mentioned for anaphors such as C-command, locality and antecedenthood. And, another important characteristic of logophor is that it exhibits Blocking Effect although there are some exceptions to this. These logophors go against the principles proposed in the Binding Theory.

Zribi-Hertz (1989) argues that in certain contexts reflexives in English are used like logophors to indicate logophoricity. Consider the following examples taken from Zribi-Hertz (1989).

- 13) Miss Stepney_i's heart was a precise register of facts as manifested in their relation to herself_i
14) But, Rupert_i was not unduly worried about Peter_j's opinion of himself_i.

In (13), both C-command and locality conditions are violated. In (14), the reflexive *himself* violates the syntactic condition on an anaphor as it is bound across the Specified Subject. Consider some more examples,

- 15) John_i believed that the paper had been written by Mary and himself_i
16) James_i thinks that Mary is taller than himself_i

In (15 & 16), the reflexive gets coindexed with the matrix subject in spite of having an intervening subject in the embedded clause. The above two sentences give a counter evidence to the Binding theory. From the above observations, we can note that there is a functional difference between an anaphor and a logophoric in the following way.



Anaphor: Obeys the syntactic conditions such as C-command, Locality and Antecedenthood proposed in Binding Theory.

Logophor: Need to obey the syntactic conditions such as C-command, Locality and Antecedenthood relation proposed in Binding Theory.

Binding Theory failed to accommodate Long-distance anaphors found in many languages including English. Secondly, the notion of Binding had to be modified for various reasons. Thirdly, the Binding domain for anaphors had to be redefined since there were languages in which Long-distance anaphors exhibited different properties. We will take up each one of these problems one by one.

Reflexives can be bound outside their local domain and/or by a non-C-commanding antecedent. Reflexives like these are called Long distance anaphors. Before we take up the problem of LDRs, we will consider other cross-linguistic differences with regard to anaphora.

There are other two important differences observed across languages that suggest that we need to redefine or modify Binding theory drastically in order to accommodate as many languages as possible. These differences refer firstly to the types of reflexives and, secondly to the way reflexivity is expressed across languages.

TYPES OF REFLEXIVES

Besides the difference that we have looked at between logophors and anaphors in the foregoing section, languages differ in another important respect. Languages differ in the type of reflexives that they have. There are, mainly speaking, two types of reflexives present across languages i.e. simplex reflexives such as SE (mono morphemic) and complex reflexives such as SELF. Simplex reflexives are always non-local whereas complex reflexives are always locally bound. Dutch *zichzelf*, Norwegian *seg selv*, Italian *se stesso*, Finnish *hanitse*, etc are examples of complex reflexives and these reflexives are always locally bound.

Whereas, Latin *se*, Dutch *zich*, Norwegian *seg*, Italian *se*, Finnish *itse* are examples of simplex reflexives and are bound non-locally.

Consider the following Dutch examples taken from Reuland (1991).

- 17) *Williem_i schaamt zich_i*
William shames SE (monomorphic)
William shames himself
- 18) *Williem_i bewondert zich zelf_i*
William admire SE/self/SE (complex anaphor)
William admires himself

All of these differences cannot be accounted for under GB theory. Besides, these differences, we have the following differences which are present among languages.

NOMINAL VS VERBAL DEVICE

Languages also differ in the way they express reflexivity. The important cross linguistic difference among the languages is the way in which reflexivity is expressed is either through nominal device and or through verbal device.

Nominal device: Here, we can take English, Chinese, Japanese, Finnish, Icelandic, Dutch, Hindi and Marathi are the examples of nominal device. The basis for this assumption is the contention that the reflexives are in complementary distribution with other anaphoric pronouns. Especially, the reflexivity takes place only when the two NPs (subj. and obj.) of the sentence are referentially identical and the other pronouns occur elsewhere.

Hindi and Marathi use nominal devices as they lack a verbal reflexive

- 19) *tum apneeaap-koodeekh-oo*
2sg self's self dat look-imp
Look at yourself.

Hindi



Verbal device: Telugu, Tamil and Kannada are the examples for a verbal device used for reflexivization. In these languages, the reflexive verbs are generally employed when the result of the action denoted by the main transitive verb affects the subject of the sentence.

- 20) raamu,tana-ni_i*tiTT-kunn-aa-Du (reflexive)
 Ramu selfacc scold kon pst 3 sg.m
 Ramu scolded himself.

Telugu

Having considered the three important cross-linguistic differences, we will now consider specific problems that the Classical Binding theory has failed to handle. We will look at some of these problems, such as the problem of LDR, of the bound pronominals, the problem of GC or Local domain, etc.

LONG DISTANCE ANAPHORS

A Long distance anaphor is the one which occurs in a finite embedded Tensed clause and is co-indexed with the antecedent that occurs outside of the clause/governing category. In the Principles and Parameters theory, a Tensed clause is considered a barrier for government. Long distance anaphors which go against to these barriers are present in English, Telugu and in several other languages. Now, the question is: what problems do Long-distance anaphors present to the BT.

According to principle A 'a reflexive should be bound within in its governing category'.

Chomsky takes a note on the requirement of disjoint reference between pronouns and other local DPs based on which he proposes a 'Rule of Interpretation'. This Rule of Interpretation explains that two DPs are interpreted as disjoint in reference. Chomsky later rephrases 'RI' into 'Disjoint Reference' (DR). With the help of this rule, disjoint reference can be assigned to a pair of DPs (whether it is NP or pronoun). Therefore, the rule of Disjoint Reference can predict the ungrammaticality of a bound reading for a pronoun. However, the application of DR is blocked in some cases. To account for such cases, Noam Chomsky (1973) proposed two conditions which are necessary for delimiting domains within which rules such as Disjoint Reference may occur. These are: the Specified Subject condition (SSC) and Tensed-S Condition (TSC). These two conditions help to block the application of DR.

- 21) Tensed-S Condition:
 Tensed-S Condition (TSC)
 No rule can involve X, Y in the structure
X....[α....Y....]....
 Where α is a tensed sentence.

(Chomsky 1973:238)

But, Long distance anaphor violates this principle because it is bound outside of its governing category. Examples of LDR given in (22) to (28) are systematically allowed in a wide range of other languages.

- 22) raajuiravi-kiceppaaDu [tanuiirojuoorikivastaanu] ani
 Raju Ravi-datsay 3rdsg.m self today village come 1stsg.n COM
 Raju said to Ravi that he would come home today.

Telugu

- 23) XiaomingyiweiXiaohuajsihuanziji/j
 Xiaomingthink Xiaohua like self
 'Xiaoming_i thinks that Xiaohua_j likes self_{i/j}'

Chinese (adopted from Hung, 2000)



- 24) Anttiikerto-i Anne-llejettaTopiihaile-e han-ta itsea-ani/j
Antti tell-PAST-3PX Anne-ALL that Topi-NOM admire-3PX he-PAR REFL-PAR-3PX
Antti told Annej that Topi admires himselfi/*j
Finnish, Korhonen 1995:73
- 25) LiliisamajatekiSusijaaplyaa-laai/*j haste
Lili thinks that Susi self -to laughs
Lili thinks that Susi laughs at self
Marathi, Wali and Subbarao 1991:1096
- 26) Takasi-ga; zibun-ga; tensai da to omotteiru
Takasi-SUBJ self-SUBJ genius is COMP think
'Takasi thinks that self is a genius.'
Japanese, Kato 1994:39
- 27) Hann; sagdhiadhsig; vanatadhihaafileika.
He said that self lacked-SBJV ability
'He said that self lacked ability.'
Icelandic, Maling 1984
- 28) Munyinyi; mu ta bunganaeemumwamate; mu nu gwamiamo
Birds SUBJ NEG think that themselves SUBJ FUT die day some
'Birds don't think that they-selves will die someday'
Tuki, Biloa 1991b: 850

From (22) to (28) are examples of Long-distance reflexives. In these sentences, the anaphor occurs in a finite (tensed) embedded clause and has an antecedent that occurs outside of the clause/governing category. And, languages that systemically allow Long-distance reflexives are called 'Long distance reflexivization' languages.

The next constraint is the Specified Subject Condition which was postulated by Noam Chomsky in (1973). This has been devised to describe the distribution of pronouns and reciprocals in non-finite clauses and in complex DPs.

29) Specified Subject Condition (SSC)

"No rule can involve X, Y in the structure

.....X.....[αZ.-WYV.....].....

Where Z is the specified subject of WYV in α ."

Y which is in the non-subject position of an embedded clause cannot refer to Z in the matrix sentence if there is an intervening subject between Z and Y.

The Specified Subject Condition too blocks the application of Disjoint Reference just like the Tensed S condition, and thus accounts for the distribution of pronouns, and reciprocals. Now, we will look at the blocking of Disjoint Reference which results in the possibility of a co-referential interpretation for a pronoun.

30) a) The cricketers_i believe [the heroine to love them_i]

b) The cricketers_i laughed at [the heroine's pictures of them_i]

In none of the above sentences does a finite clause boundary occur between a pronoun and its antecedent. Therefore, the Tensed S Condition does not apply. Nevertheless, the Subject Specified Condition makes sure that in both the above sentences, the occurrence of an intervening subject *the heroine* ('s) (of the Exceptional Case Marking complement in (30a) and of the complex Determiner Phrase in (30b) blocks Disjoint Reference from applying on the structure, and therefore we get a bound reading for the pronoun which is



allowed. When the pronouns in (30) are replaced with reciprocals, the sentences become ungrammatical, as the Specified Subject Condition blocks them. And, in Telugu, *taan* as a Long distance anaphor does not obey SSC when there is no *kon* on the embedded verb. But, it does obey SSC when there is *kon* on embedded verb and it refers to its own subject within the embedded clause. So, here we have to make a distinction between subject orientation and reflexivity. In the first instance, when *taan* refers to the matrix subject disobeying SSC, it is subject oriented and the matrix subject is not the subject of *dwesinccu* in (31). In the second instance, *taan* is reflexive when it obeys SSC because *ramesh* is the subject of the verb *dwesinccu*. Here is the example,

- 31) raaju_inaakucepaaDu [rameshitana-ni_i/_j*taanudwesinccukunTaaDu] ani
Raaju I told 3rdsg.m Ramesh self accself hate kon 3rdsg.m COMP

Raju told me that Ramesh dislikes himself.

In sentence (31), it is not TSC that blocks Binding of *taan* to *Raju*, but it is SSC that blocks. Telugu seems to obey SSC when there is *kon* in the embedded verb, but not TSC. It is the other way round in English. Besides these problems, there are a few other problems that Binding theory failed to handle. We will look at them briefly in the following sections.

THE PROBLEM OF COMPLEMENTARITY

Pronouns and reflexives do show complementarity not only in terms of distribution but also in terms of their referential properties both in English and Telugu and also in other languages. Consider the following examples.

- 32) a) Raju_i hit himself_i.
b) Raju hit him_{*i/j}
33) a)* Raju_i said that himself_i is honest.
b) Raju_i said that he_{i/j} is honest.

In (32 & 33), there is complementarity between the reflexive *himself* and the pronoun *he*. In (32 a), the reflexive *himself* unambiguously refers to *Raju* whereas in (33 b), the pronoun *he* cannot refer to *Raju*. The ungrammaticality in (33 a) shows that the reflexive *himself* cannot occur in the subject position of a finite embedded clause whereas the pronoun *he* can occur in that position. Binding theory could accommodate this complementarity under Tensed-S condition. But, in certain sentences, they cease to show complementarity which challenges the Binding theory, particularly the Binding Condition B. Consider the following sentences,

- 34) a) Lucie_i saw a picture of herself_i
b) Lucie_i saw a picture of her_i

We notice that there is non-complementarity between the reflexives and pronouns in the above pairs of sentences. The pronoun *her* is unambiguously anaphoric within root clause. In (34a & b), the reflexive *herself* and the pronoun *her* occur within the PP and they both refer to the subject. Principle B of the SBT wrongly predicts that the sentence 34 (b) is ungrammatical which is in fact grammatical.

THE C-COMMANDING REQUIREMENT IS NOT MET IN MANY LANGUAGES

In some languages, the anaphoric constructions such as passive, psychological predicates and English 'picture noun reflexives' (Postal 1971) challenge the 'C-command' constraint of the principle. In the Picture noun reflexives, antecedents, in general, need not C-command the anaphor. Postal (1971) uses this term for the first and defends the view that 'picture noun reflexives' are not subject to the same constraint as 'ordinary reflexives'.

- 35) The picture of himself_i in the museum bothered John_i
Pollard & Sac:1992,264)
36) The picture of herself_i on the front page of the times made Mary's_i claim seem somewhat
ridiculous. (Pollard & Sac:1992,2)
37) Picture of themselves_i would please the boys_i
Tang: 1989, 116)



Even in Telugu, the C-commanding requirement is not met as the most unmarked word order comes before the main clause as in (38). This is the most unmarked word order in Dravidian Languages. In fact, in Dravidian languages, finite verbs come at the end of a sentence.

38)[taanuüirojuoorikivastaanu]ani]]Raju/naa kucepaaDu.

Self today village come 1stsg Comp raju I say pst 3 sg.m

Raju said to me that he would come to his village.

We will now take up the problem of bound pronominals.

THE PROBLEM OF BOUND PRONOMINALS

In English, the distribution of pronominals satisfies the Binding Condition B. But when confronted with other languages, Binding condition B runs into serious difficulties. In some languages, a pronominal can frequently be bound in its local domain. Some linguists are of the view that many languages in the world simply do not have reflexives, and consequently utilize pronominals as one of the means to represent reflexivity. Languages that lack reflexives are some of the Low West Germanic languages such as Old and Middle Dutch, Old English, Old Frisian, Old Saxon, and perhaps West Flemish and modern Frisian. (1986: 739, 43, Burzio 1996). Some examples follow.

39) Guaadubuurwanggulaanamagayu.

3SG-ERG paint-PAST 3SG-ABS red paint-INST

'He painted himself/him with red paint.'

40) Sava'a. dodonu-. Ta'ini 'ea o Mika

ASP correct 3SG-OBJ ART Mika

'Mike corrected himself/him.'

41) Emile dewede li.

Emile should help him

'Emile should help himself/him.'

42) SwaHwaswaeadmedathhine.

Whoever humbles him-acc

'Whoever humbles himself.'

There are also languages that lack first- and second- person reflexives. Telugu, Kannada and Tamil are examples of this type. In these languages, first- and second- person pronouns are used instead as bound anaphors. Some Germanic and Romance languages, for instance belong to this type, as shown in (43-47)

43) naanunannannuhoDedu-koNDe.

I lacc beat-kon-tns-agr.

I beat myself

(Kannada)

44) niinuninnannuhoDedu-koNDe.

You youacc beat-kon-tns-agr

You beat yourself.

(Kannada)

45) Jeg barbered mig.

I shaved me

I shaved myself.

(Danish, Thrainsson 1991:63)

46) Tupensi solo a te

You think only to you

'You only think about yourself'

(Italian, Burzio 1991:83)



- 47) Du sahstdich
2SG-NOM see-Past 2sg-Acc
'You saw yourself'

(German, Faltz 1985: 118)

All these clearly indicates that Binding theory is inadequate to handle some of the issues and therefore we need to look at elsewhere factors to accommodate the above mentioned problems.

List of Abbreviations used in Glosses of the Data

List of abbreviations used in glosses of the data

1. * : unacceptable or ungrammatical
2. acc. : accusative case
3. agr. : agreement
4. adj. : adjective
5. adv. : adverb
6. arb. : arbitrary
7. aux. : auxiliary
8. BT : Binding Theory
9. CM : case marker
10. COMP. : complementiser
11. dat. : dative case
12. DP. : determiner phrase
13. DR : disjoint reference.
14. DS : deep structure
15. ECM : exceptional case marking
16. emp. : emphatic
17. f. : feminine
18. fut. : future tense marker
19. GB : Government and Binding Theory
20. gen. : genetic case
21. hon : honorific
22. Imp : imperative
23. Inf : infinitive
24. INFL : head of an Inflectional Phrase
25. Inst : instrumental
26. IP : Inflectional phrase
27. LDA : long distance anaphor
28. LF : logical form
29. Log : logophor
30. Loc : locative case
31. m. : masculine
32. N. : noun
33. n. : neuter gender
34. neg. : negation
35. nom. : nominative case
36. NP. : noun phrase
37. pass. : passive
38. perf. : perfective aspect



39. PF : phonetic form
 40. pl. : plural
 41. PNG : person-number-gender
 42. Poss : possessive
 43. PP : postpositional or Prepositional Phrase
 44. PPT : principles and parameters theory
 45. prog. : progressive
 46. pro : non-overt pronoun
 47. PRO : anaphoric subject of infinitival
 48. pst. : past
 49. refl. : reflexive
 50. sg. : singular
 51. self-ben : self benefactive
 52. spec : specifier
 53. SSC : Specified Subject Constraint/Condition.
 54. SS : surface structure
 55. TSC : Tensed-S[entence] Constraint/Condition
 56. UG : Universal Grammar
 57. V : verb
 58. VP : verb phrase
 59. VR : verbal reflexive
 60. Vrec : verbal reciprocal
 61. 1. : first person
 62. 2. : second person
 63. 3. : third person

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