

REPUBLIQUE DU CAMEROUN

*Paix – Travail – Patrie*

\*\*\*\*\*

UNIVERSITE DE YAOUNDE I  
ECOLE NORMALE SUPERIEURE  
DEPARTEMENT DE

\*\*\*\*\*



REPUBLIC OF CAMEROUN

*Peace – Work – Fatherland*

\*\*\*\*\*

UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I  
HIGHER TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE  
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

\*\*\*\*\*

# **RELATIVE CLAUSE MARKER AND ANTECEDENT AGREEMENT: EXPLORING THE ENGLISH OF PREMIERE STUDENTS IN SOME SELECTED SCHOOLS IN YAOUNDE**

Présentée en vue de l'obtention du Diplôme de Professeur de l'Enseignement  
Secondaire deuxième grade  
Mémoire de D.I.P.E.S II

Par :

**Sandrine Anwei Achu**  
**BA Bilingual Studies**

Sous la direction  
Napoleon Epoge  
Senior Lecturer

Année Académique  
2015-2016





## AVERTISSEMENT

Ce document est le fruit d'un long travail approuvé par le jury de soutenance et mis à disposition de l'ensemble de la communauté universitaire de Yaoundé I. Il est soumis à la propriété intellectuelle de l'auteur. Ceci implique une obligation de citation et de référencement lors de l'utilisation de ce document.

D'autre part, toute contrefaçon, plagiat, reproduction illicite encourt une poursuite pénale.

Contact : [biblio.centrale.uyi@gmail.com](mailto:biblio.centrale.uyi@gmail.com)

## WARNING

This document is the fruit of an intense hard work defended and accepted before a jury and made available to the entire University of Yaounde I community. All intellectual property rights are reserved to the author. This implies proper citation and referencing when using this document.

On the other hand, any unlawful act, plagiarism, unauthorized duplication will lead to Penal pursuits.

Contact: [biblio.centrale.uyi@gmail.com](mailto:biblio.centrale.uyi@gmail.com)

## **DEDICATION**

To my husband, Derek Mumah and our daughter, Jemimah Glory Azweh Mumah

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My profound gratitude goes to my supervisor, Dr Napoleon Kang Epoge, for accepting to supervise this work, despite his very hectic schedule. His patience, insightful remarks and constructive suggestions gave this work its present shape. In the same vein, I am extremely thankful to the lecturers of the Department of English of the Higher Teacher Training College (ENS) Yaounde for invaluable input throughout my five-year training.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to the informants without whom this research would not have been carried out. I think here of the *Première Allemand/Espagnol* students of GHS Anguissa and GBHS Emana and the *Première Bilingue* students of GBHS Nkol-Eton.

I would like to thank other people (my parents, my mother-in-law, my siblings and my entire extended family) whose moral, financial and material support and encouragement contributed a great deal in the realization of this work.

My appreciations also go to my friends and classmates, particularly Brenda Sirri Ekwe, Sabrina Khiki Ngala, Bernice Nchamba Forlemu, Agnès Espérance Ngando Mbondi, Gisele Nsouli Etoki, Armel Cedia Siekep Fondap for assisting me in the realization of this work.

## CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that this work, entitled “Relative clause marker and antecedent agreement: Exploring the English of *Première* students in some selected schools in Yaounde”, was carried out by Sandrine Anwei Achu, under my supervision.

Signature\_\_\_\_\_

Napoleon Epoge

Senior Lecturer

University of Yaounde 1

## ABSTRACT

This study investigates the use of relative clause marker and antecedent agreement in the English of *Première* students in some selected schools in Yaounde, Cameroon. This study is carried out within the theoretical framework of the Binding Theory Principle B (Chomsky, 1981). In order to obtain quantitative and qualitative data, respondents of three *Première* classes, one each from Government High School Anguissa, Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton and Government Bilingual High School Emana, were given a production test. A total of 161 respondents took part in the exercise. This produced 161 scripts. The data collected from these scripts amounted to 3220 tokens. Out of this number, respondents produced 1167 instances whereby they respected the input-oriented parameter settings stipulated by the Binding Theory Principle B. Hence, they scored 36.6% in setting the parameters. This is opposed to 2053 (63.8%) instances in which other parameter settings were employed. There were quite a number of feature specifications present in the corpus collected. They included: substitution of the relative pronoun “which” for “who”; substitution of the relative pronoun “who” for “which”; substitution of one case form for another case form; substitution of the relative pronoun “who” for “that” in non-defining clauses; substitution of the relative adverbs “where” and “when” for the relative pronoun “that” as well as some completely novel syntactic features. This is a cause for concern as it raises serious pedagogical questions as far as the teaching and learning of the English language in the EFL context.

## RESUME

Dans ce travail, il était question pour nous d'explorer l'Anglais des élèves de Première, mais plus précisément leurs utilisations des pronoms et adverbess relatifs dans des propositions relatives et l'accord entre ces derniers et leurs antécédents. En ce qui concerne les théories, ce travail a été fait à base de la « Binding Theory », principe B, de Noam Chomsky. On a travaillé avec trois écoles dans la ville Yaoundé parmi lesquelles on a pris une classe de Première chacune. On avait donc à faire avec la première Allemand/Espagnol du Lycée d'Anguissa, la Première bilingue du Lycée Bilingue de Nkol-Eton et la Première Allemand/Espagnol du Lycée Bilingue d'Emana. Cent soixante et un élèves ont été donnés un test. Il y avait une somme totale de trois mil deux cent vingt réponses attendues. De cette somme, les sujets ont produit mil cent soixante-sept réponses correctes avec un pourcentage de 36,2% et deux mil cinquante-trois réponses incorrectes avec un pourcentage de 63,8%. En analysant les données obtenues, on a pu recenser certaines structures neuves qui ne sont pas en conformité avec ce que stipule la théorie à base de laquelle ce travail a été fait. Il s'agit ici de la substitution des pronoms relatifs « which » et « who » l'un pour l'autre; le non-respect des pronoms « whom » et « whose » qui dénote le complément d'objet et la possession respectivement; la substitution du pronom relatif « who » pour « that »; la substitution des adverbess relatifs « where » et « whose » pour le pronom relatif « that » ainsi que des structures qui ne figurent pas dans ces catégories. Ça c'est une indication que les apprenants francophones ont un problème avec l'utilisation des propositions relatives et l'accord entre les pronoms et les adverbess relatifs et leurs antécédents. Ceci suscite une interrogation en ce qui concerne l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de l'Anglais dans le sous-système francophone.

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS**

ESL: English as a Second language

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

L1: First language or mother tongue

L2: Second language

GBHS: Government Bilingual High School

GHS: Government High School

NP: Noun Phrase

VP: Verb Phrase

DP: Determiner Phrase

D : Determiner.

N : Noun

Aux : Auxiliary

UG: Universal Grammar

C: Complementizer

V: Verb

S: Sentence

%: Percentage

\*: Ungrammatical



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Relative pronouns

Table 2: The distribution of the sample population

Table 3: Respondents' performance on relative clause marker-antecedent agreement

Table 4: Performance of *Première Allemand/Espagnol* of GHS Anguissa for relative pronouns

Table 5: Performance of *Première Allemand/Espagnol* of GHS Anguissa for relative adverbs

Table 6: Performance of respondents from GBHS Nkol-Eton on relative pronouns

Table 7: Performance of respondents from GBHS Nkol-Eton on relative adverbs

Table 8: Performance of respondents from GBHS Emaná on relative pronouns

Table 9: Performance of respondents from GBHS Emaná on relative adverbs

## **LIST OF GRAPHS**

Graph 1: Mean percentage graph of respondents' general performance

Graph 2: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative pronouns in GHS Anguissa

Graph 3: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative adverbs in GHS Anguissa

Graph 4: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative pronouns in GBHS Nkol-Eton

Graph 5: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative adverbs in GBHS Nkol-Eton

Graph 6: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative pronouns in GBHS Emana

Graph 7: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative adverbs in GBHS Emana

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	i
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	ii
<b>CERTIFICATION</b> .....	iii
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	iv
<b>RESUME</b> .....	v
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS</b> .....	vi
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	vii
<b>LIST OF GRAPHS</b> .....	viii
<b>CHAPTER ONE : GENERAL INTRODUCTION</b> .....	1
<b>CHAPTER TWO : THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</b> .....	7
2.0 Introduction .....	7
2.1 Theoretical framework .....	7
2.1.1. Governing category .....	8
2.1.2. Co-indexation .....	9
2.1.3. C-command .....	9
2.1.4. Co-reference .....	10
2.2. Review of related literature .....	12
2.2.1. The notion of syntax .....	12
2.2.2. The notion of relative clauses .....	14
2.2.3. Related empirical studies .....	19
2.3. Conclusion .....	21
<b>CHAPTER THREE : METHODOLOGY</b> .....	23
3.0. Introduction .....	23
3.1. Sample population .....	23
3.2. Instrument of data collection .....	24
3.3. Procedure of data collection .....	25
3.4. Method of data analysis .....	25
3.5. Conclusion .....	26
<b>CHAPTER FOUR : DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS</b> .....	27
4.0. Introduction .....	27
4.1. Overview and classification of respondents' performance .....	27
4.1.1 Respondents from Government High School Anguissa Performance .....	30
4.1.2 Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton .....	34
4.1.3 Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Emana ...	37
4.2 Feature specifications .....	41
4.2.1. Substitution of the relative pronoun "which" for "who" .....	41
4.2.2 Substitution of the relative pronoun "who" for "which" .....	42
4.2.3 Substitution of one case form for another case form .....	43

4.2.4 Substitution of the relative pronoun “who” for “that” in non-defining relative clauses .....	44
4.2.5 Substitution of the relative adverbs “where” and “when” for the relative pronoun “that” .....	45
4.2.6 Novel syntactic features .....	45
4.3 Conclusion.....	46
<b>CHAPTER FIVE : SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, PEDAGOGIC RELEVANCE AND CONCLUSION</b> .....	47
5.0 Introduction .....	47
5.1 Summary of findings .....	47
5.2. Pedagogic relevance .....	50
5.3 Recommendations .....	51
5.3.1 Recommendations to educational authorities.....	51
5.3.2 Recommendations to school authorities.....	52
5.3.3 Recommendations to the teachers .....	53
5.3.4 Recommendations to learners .....	53
5.3.5 Recommendations to course book writers .....	54
5.3.6 Recommendations to parents .....	54
5.3.7. Recommendations to linguistic centres.....	54
5.4. Suggestion for further research .....	54
5.5. Conclusion.....	54
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	56
<b>APPENDIXES</b> .....	61

## CHAPTER ONE

### GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This chapter handles the main issues that sustain this research. This is done through a general overview of the main points that make up this piece of research. In this regard, the chapter provides the reader with the background to the study, the problem, aim, significance, scope of the study, thesis statement, research questions and the structure of the work.

Language functions as the system of human communication which according to Richards *et al* (1992), “consists of different units, such as morphemes, words, sentences, and utterances”. It entails “an act of speaking or writing in a given situation” (Crystal 1992). This spoken or written form of language is referred to as, “parole or performance whereas the linguistic system underlying one’s use of speech or writing is referred to as competence” (Fatemi, 2008). One of these languages is English.

Although English is not the most widely spoken language in terms of native speakers, it is the most widely used language worldwide. The primacy of English in the global arena is attributable to the fact that it is the language through which international trade and diplomacy are conducted, scientific and technological breakthroughs are highlighted, news and information are disseminated, and as a communicative tool, English functions as a mediator between different socio-cultural and socio-economic paradigms (Crystal, 1997, 2000; Graddol, 1997). To surmise, its multi-faceted role enables English to transcend cultural, social and economic barriers as the medium through which achievements and innovations in arts, commerce and technology are highlighted. Hence, certain properties of a language, such as English, are considered to be essential features from which the basic study of linguistics starts. One of them, which is more central to syntax, is that language makes infinite use of a finite set of rules or principles (Chomsky, 1965).

Every language has a system for combining its parts in infinitely many ways. One piece of evidence of the system can be observed in word-order restrictions. For instance, if a sentence is an arrangement of words and we have four words such as *John, goat, a, and killed*, we can come up with the following possible combinations which are acceptable to native speakers of English:

1. a) John killed a goat.  
b) John, a goat killed.  
c) A goat, John killed.

The above-stated combinations clearly show that there are certain rules in English for combining words. These rules constrain which words can be combined together or how they may be ordered, sometimes in groups, with respect to each other. Such combinatory rules also play important roles in our understanding of the syntax of a language. Thus, a study of English syntax is the study of rules which generate infinite number of grammatical sentences.

Similarly, sentence parsing is the process readers/listeners engage in when trying to incorporate each new word incrementally into the speech stream or the written discourse (Fodor, 1995). It involves the assignment of categories to words and hierarchical structure to strings of words, taking place very rapidly and usually without conscious awareness. One of the most controversial issues in the study of sentence parsing is what kind of information the human parsing mechanism first uses in order to integrate a new word into a sentence. The camps are divided as to whether the process is a modular one, with only syntactic information being considered first (Frazier, 1987; Frazier & Clifton, 1989) or whether the many different syntactic, lexical and contextual cues interact simultaneously in order to arrive at a single interpretation of a particular utterance (MacDonald *et al.*, 1994). Hence, principle-based parsing theories claim that the parser utilizes only syntactic or structural information in the first pass over a particular sentence (Frazier, 1987). This syntactic information is represented by the word class of each of the lexical items processed (noun, verb, determiner, etc.). The most representative model within this type of approach is the Garden Path Model (Frazier, 1987), which focuses primarily on two principles: minimal attachment and late closure. Minimal attachment refers to the need to join a new word without generating unnecessary structural nodes (or clauses). The second principle, Late Closure, posits that when finding a new word, the parser tries to integrate it within the current clause being processed. The two principles are meant to achieve efficiency and economy during parsing with only one structural alternative being considered at a time for both native and non-native sentence processing. On the other hand, constraint-based parsing accounts for envision processing of sentences as a competition between different structural alternatives that are activated and considered simultaneously. Under the assumptions of this type of model, each new word

encodes a plethora of cues, e.g. lexical, semantic, pragmatic, frequency counts, that are also joined by contextual cues stemming from the previous discourse encountered.

With regard to the above-stated, one simple mechanism which has been recognized in forming grammatical sentences begins from words, or 'lexical' categories. These lexical categories then form a larger constituent 'phrase'; and phrases go together to form a 'clause'. A clause either is, or is part of, a well-formed sentence. Typically, we use the term 'clause' to refer to a complete sentence-like unit, but which may be part of another clause, as a subordinate or adverbial clause. Each of the sentences below contains more than one clause, in particular, with one clause embedded inside another:

2. The man [who played the piano yesterday] is elected president.
3. This room [where the picture of William Shakespeare is hung] is on fire.

In (2) the main clause is "The man is elected president" and the subordinate clause that is embedded in the complex sentence is "who played the piano". In (3) the main clause is "The room is on fire" and the subordinate clause is "where the picture of Shakespeare is hung". Hence, words can be classified into different lexical categories according to three criteria: meaning, morphological form, and syntactic function. Combinatory knowledge such as the ones indicated above also provides an argument for the assumption that we use just a finite set of resources in producing grammatical sentences. These sentences are examples of what are known as relative clauses.

It is important to point out here that relative clauses have attracted the attention of many second language acquisition researchers and ESL and EFL educators due to its complex syntactic structures, which cause problems regarding the processing of the embedded clause while keeping track of the main clause (Kuno 1975) and recovering the grammatical relation of the head within the clause (Gair 1981). The importance of English relative clause for Cameroon EFL learners need not to be emphasized because of its high frequency in both spoken and written form, its complex form and function. Obviously, Cameroon EFL learners face no easy task in learning English relative clauses, with problems arising from the complex syntactic structure of the relative clause itself, the differences between their second language (French) and English in terms of the form and placement of the relative clause marker. In this regard, there is a dire need for a systematic study to be carried out concerning the interpretation of the Standard British English input-oriented feature specifications in the

production and use of relative clause marker by EFL learners of English in a multi-linguistic ecology such as Cameroon. This might shed light on interlanguage development and language instruction on complex English structures.

The Cameroonian linguistic and cultural landscape is a particular one in Africa and in the world as a whole. It shows a lot of diversities which can be perceived through the multitude of languages and cultures which are found in the territory. Epoge (2012) citing Chia (1983) presents a clear picture of the linguistic diversity of Cameroon in the following terms:

Cameroon is a multilingual country wherein 286 indigenous languages co-exist side by side with two official languages (French and English) and four major lingua francas: Mongo Ewondo (spoken in the Centre and South regions where speakers of the Fang-Beti language group are found), Arab Choa (spoken in the Far North region), Fulfulde (spoken in the Adamawa and North regions) and Pidgin English (dominantly spoken in the South West, North West, West, and Littoral regions) (Epoge, 2012:131).

In addition, Biloa and Kamtchueng (2011) attest that, among the four linguistic phyla attested in Africa: Afro-Asiatic, Nilo-Saharan, Niger Kordofanian and Khoisan, three are present in Cameroon: Afro-Asiatic, Nilo-Saharan, and Niger Kordofanian. With regard to this, Cameroon is looked upon as a “linguistic melting-pot or patchwork” (Biloa 2004). Though this multiplicity of languages, French and English have been chosen as the official languages of Cameroon since 1961, as the country opted for the policy of official language bilingualism (Echu 2003).

According to Epoge (2012), English was logically adopted as one of the official languages of Cameroon not only because the linguistic diversity of the country did not permit the emergence of an indigenous language likely to play the role of an official language but also for reasons of national unity. Because of this official status, the Cameroon government has been doing everything possible to promote its use. The efforts to make Cameroonians acquire the English language are directed through the school system. The language is taught in all secondary schools and institutions of higher learning in the country.

Similarly, the bilingual nature of Cameroon is also reflected by two sub-systems of education: English Sub-system and French Sub-system. Those who follow the English sub-



system of education have the English language as their medium of instruction and learn English as a second language. They are termed in linguistic literature as English as Second Language Learners (henceforth ESL). Those who follow the French Sub-system of education learn English as a Foreign Language (henceforth EFL). They are termed EFL learners. The focus of this study is on learners of English as a foreign language. The study investigates the development of the interlanguage grammar of these EFL learners with focus on English relative clauses. The syntactic feature under investigation is relative clause marker and antecedent agreement.

This study is an appropriate pedagogical material in the teaching of English language to EFL learners. This is as a result of the fact that the results of the study provide the basis for informing the language teacher of the challenges EFL learners face in setting the co-indexation feature in complex sentences with embedded relative clauses. A systematic classification of the feature specifications may give learners and teachers resources for the improvement of learning and teaching aspects. Identifying relative clause marker feature specifications that do not meet the English parameter settings will not only enable English Language teachers to refine their teaching techniques to curb interference, but also to provide prompt effective teaching that will easily transform input into intake. Besides, the findings of this study will provide a rationale for constructing language lessons in EFL context which are more appealing to this set of students and address the difficulties they face with appropriate techniques.

This study is limited to the written productions of *Premiere* (Lower Sixths) students of three secondary schools in Yaounde: Government Bilingual High school (GBHS) Nkol-Eton, Government Bilingual High School (GBHS) Emana, and Government High School (GHS) Anguissa. The syntactic feature under investigation is the input-oriented agreement parameter setting between English relative pronouns/adverbs and their antecedents.

Cognizance of the pertinence of the issue at hand, this study is anchored on the thesis statement that *Premiere* students seem to violate the feature of co-indexation between the relative pronoun/adverb and the antecedent in constructing complex sentences with embedded relative clause. In view of this, the follow research questions underlie the study:

1. What are the features that characterize relative pronoun/adverb and antecedent agreement in *Premiere* students' grammar?

2. What accounts for these characteristic features?
3. What is the impact of the features that characterize *Premiere* students' relative pronoun/adverb and antecedent agreement on the English language they speak?
4. What is the pedagogical implication of these characteristic features on the English language in the classroom?

This work is divided into five chapters. Chapter one, entitled General Introduction, focuses on the background, aim, significance, and scope of the study. It also presents with the thesis statement, research questions and structure of work. Chapter Two, Theoretical Framework and Literature Review, deals with the theoretical consideration and the review of related literature. Chapter Three, Methodology, presents the informants, instrument for data collection, procedure of data collection, and method of data analysis. Chapter Four, Data Analysis and Results, presents the data, analyses the results and discusses the findings. Chapter Five presents the summary of findings, pedagogical relevance, suggestions for further research, recommendations and conclusion.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the theoretical premise and review of related literature. Hence, it is divided into two main phases: theoretical framework and literature review.

#### 2.1 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework adopted for this study is the Binding Theory (Chomsky, 1981). It is one of the sub-systems of the Government and Binding model and it explains the referential properties of NPs. It provides an explicit formulation of the grammatical constraints on the binding properties of NPs (Haegeman, 1994). As Binding Theory mainly controls the relations between NPs in A-positions, it is called as the theory of A-binding (TanıG, 2007). Three types of NPs are classified:

- a) reflexives and reciprocals (anaphors): himself, herself, itself, themselves, one another, and each other;
- b) non-reflexive pronouns (pronominal expressions): he, she, it, we, they, him, her, us, them, your, his, our, their, who, which;
- c) full NPs including names (Referential-expressions): the king, Sue, this, the student  
(Büring, 2005)

It is good to point out here that the Binding Theory expresses conditions on the well-formedness of sentences that contain anaphors, pronouns and referential expressions. Hence, it has three principles, each of which controls the distribution and interpretation of one specific type of the NPs outlined above. These principles have come to be known under the names: Principles A, B, and C and they go thus:

Principle A: An anaphor is bound in its governing category

Principle B: A pronominal is free in its governing category

Principle C: An R-expression is free

### 2.1.1. Governing category

A closer look at Principles A and B, points out the notion of a “governing category”. In English, the Governing Category seems to be the minimal clause which contains the reflexive or pronominal expression. Consider the examples in 4a and 4b.

(4) a. John<sub>i</sub> doesn't know him\*<sub>i</sub>

b. John<sub>i</sub> thinks that he<sub>i</sub> is smart

In (4a), the pronoun *him* cannot refer to *John*, it has to refer to an argument not salient in the discourse. In (4b); however, it can. The contrast between (4a), and (4b) leads us to the conclusion that a pronoun cannot be bound by an NP that is “too close”. Referring back to the concept of Governing Category, it seems that a pronoun must be free in the same domain in which an anaphor must be bound. This is explained by the Binding Principle B. The Governing Category can then be defined as follows:  $\beta$  is a governing category for  $\alpha$  if and only if  $\beta$  is the minimal category containing  $\alpha$ , a governor of  $\alpha$ , and a SUBJECT accessible to  $\alpha$ . This notion is illustrated by the examples below.

(5a). [Mary<sub>i</sub> hurt herself<sub>i</sub>.]

b. Mary likes [John's description of himself.]

(6) The man [who teaches English] is in Bamenda.

In each of these sentences, the governing category is the bracketed clause. With regard to anaphors (Principle A) as exemplified in (5), the reflexives and their antecedents are found within the same minimal governing category. This implies that anaphors such as reflexives bind locally, thus, local binding constraints them. As concerned the pronominal in (6), that is, the relative pronoun “who”, the antecedent and the pronominal are not found within the same minimal governing category. Hence, pronominal expressions do not bind locally. They are subjected to long-distance binding. The antecedent of the pronominal expression “who” (i.e., man) is outside the clause wherein the pronominal expression is found.

Another important element noticed in the definition of the term “Governing Category” is that the latter must contain the nominal expression (i.e.,  $\alpha$ ), a governor of  $\alpha$ , and a subject accessible to  $\alpha$  (Principle A). Thus, in (5) the nominal expressions (herself & himself) and accessible subjects (Mary & John's description) as well as their respective “governors (i.e.,

the verb or preposition through which the reflexive and its antecedent are related), are found within the minimal governing category. In (6), the pronominal “who” and the antecedent “man” are not found within the same minimal governing category though the pronominal and the governor are found within the same governing category. This highlights the notion of binding with regard to anaphors, on the one hand, and pronominal expressions, on the other.

### 2.1.2. Co-indexation

In view of the above-stated, in defining “binding”, Chomsky (1981) stipulates that  $\alpha$  binds  $\beta$  if and only if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are co-indexed and  $\alpha$  c-commands  $\beta$ . For instance, in the sentence,

(7) This is the girl who scored the lone goal

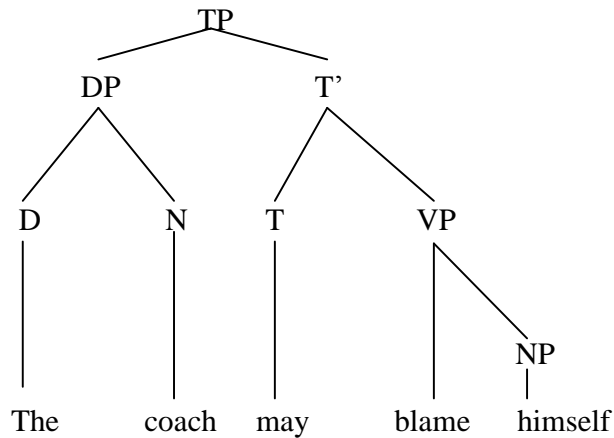
the relative pronoun “who” and the antecedent “girl” refer to the same entity “the girl”. Since the noun phrase “girl” is an animate entity, the relative pronoun that points to animate entities “who” is used. This is what is known as co-indexation in linguistic literature. Hence, the referent entity and the referenced have co-indexed.

### 2.1.3. C-command

Another constraint on the binding of noun phrases is the C-command condition. Radford (2006) defines C-command as follows: A constituent X c-commands its sister constituent Y and any constituent Z which is contained within Y.

(8) The coach<sub>i</sub> may blame himself<sub>i</sub>.

The reflexive anaphor *himself* in the sentence (8) above is the relevant bound constituent having the antecedent: *the coach*. Sentence (8) has the structure as can be seen in the illustration below:



The reflexive pronoun *himself* can be bound by the DP *the coach* in (8) because the sister of the DP node is the T-bar node, and the reflexive *himself* is contained within the relevant T-bar node; as a result, the DP *the coach* c-commands the anaphor *himself* and the binding condition is met. Hence (8), “The coach may blame himself” is grammatical, with *the coach* being interpreted as the antecedent of *himself*. In this wise, Haegeman (1994) defines c-command as follows:

A node  $\alpha$  c-commands a node  $\beta$  if and only if

- (i)  $\alpha$  does not dominate  $\beta$ ;
- (ii)  $\beta$  does not dominate  $\alpha$ ;
- (iii) the first branching node dominating  $\alpha$  also dominates  $\beta$ .

#### 2.1.4. Co-reference

Besides the notion of c-command, there is also the concept of co-reference. It stipulates that an anaphor or a pronominal expression must agree with its antecedents in terms of the phi-features of number, gender, and person.

(9)  $Mary_i$  thinks that  $she_i$  is intelligent.

In (9), the pronominal expression “she” and the antecedent “Mary” refer to the same entity. The NPs “she” and “Mary” agree with the features of gender (feminine), number (3<sup>rd</sup> person singular), and person (third person).

The different behaviour of all these types of phrases with respect to the Binding Theory comes from their different referential properties. Anaphors show referential deficiency, therefore, they need to be linked up to the closest available antecedents in

order to get interpreted. The impossibility to use them deictically ties in with their referential deficiency. Pronouns, on the other hand, have some referential strength of their own (i.e. they allow for deictic use) and do not have to seek interpretation via an antecedent within a local domain. R-expressions are fully referential, hence, they will never be interpreted via an antecedent.

A very important point about the duality of their nature has been made by Reuland (2001). He notes that the way the principles pertaining to the Binding Theory are phrased entails that they rely on both syntactic and semantic notions. The syntactic part has to do with the presence in the definitions of the concept of (minimal) governing category or, to put it in more plain terms, with the syntactically defined domain of locality within which anaphors as well as pronominal expressions have to find their antecedents. The semantic part involves the fact that these are interpretative principles. The co-indexation relation that holds between the anaphor or the pronominal and its antecedent indicates that they must be interpretively dependent, that is, the anaphor or pronominal depends for its interpretation on the antecedent. No wonder, then, that binding has been regarded as a syntax - semantics interface phenomenon.

Another noteworthy aspect is that nothing in the formulation of these principles says anything about the reasons why they should hold at all. One might dismiss such preoccupations as being quite trivial and simply take on the view that the different referential properties of anaphors, pronouns and R-expressions justify the existence of these conditions on their interpretation.

As the main focus of this research is an exploration of the agreement parameter between relative clause markers (relative pronouns/adverbs) and their antecedents, Principle B which deals with pronominal expressions is relevant for the present study. It holds that a pronominal expression such as relative pronouns/adverbs is free in its minimal governing category as exemplified in (10).

(10) This is the man<sub>i</sub> who<sub>i</sub> sells books.

In (10), the relative pronoun *who* is not found in the same clause as its antecedent *man*. Furthermore, the two NPs agree with the features of being animate and human being. Violation of these one or all of these phi-features breeds an ungrammatical sentence as exemplified in (11) below.

(11) \*This is the man<sub>i</sub> which<sub>i</sub> sells books.

In (11), the relative pronoun “which” does not agree with its antecedent “man” in terms of the phi-feature of human being. The relative pronoun ‘which’ does not refer to human beings as used in the sentence above. Hence, the sentence is ungrammatical. It is this Principle (Principle B of the Binding Theory) that has been used in the analysis of the data obtained for this study

## **2.2. Review of related literature**

This section of the study is consecrated to the review of related literature. This literature shall be examined in three phases: the notion of syntax, the notion of relative clauses, and related empirical studies.

### **2.2.1. The notion of syntax**

Syntax comes from the Greek word ‘syntaxis’ which means ‘putting together in order; arrangement’ (Bussmann, 1996). It is because words are not created in a vacuum that Valin (2001) also deems it necessary to give the etymology of the word ‘syntax’ after which he goes further to explain that as one dwells in language, any arrangement that is engaged so as to come up with larger units is part of syntax. As such, the latter is from this point of view, the branch of linguistics that collects words from the lexicon so as to put them together and have more extended structures following standards of the language being dealt with. Syntax is also a system of rules which describes how all well-formed sentences of a language can be divided from basic elements (morphemes, words, parts of speech) (Bussmann, 1996). Hence, it is determining the relevant parts of a sentence and describing these parts grammatically (Traugott, 1972). Chomsky (2002) views syntax as “the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in a particular language”. Further, he states the main goal as being “the construction of a grammar that can be viewed as a device for some sort producing the sentences of a language under analysis”. This is to say that, the main role of syntax is to come up with rules that a language uses in order to combine the items issued from a numeration to produce larger units.

In view of the above-stated, Jirka *et al.* (2011) define syntax as a part of linguistics that studies sentence structure. They define it in this manner with the aim of presenting the way this is done. They do not see the link with meaning in the definition of syntax. Jirka *et al.*



(2011) affirm that syntax is not about meaning. Hence, sentences can have no sense and be grammatically correct. They use the following example to back this statement:

(12) Colourless green ideas sleep furiously. (Chomsky, 2002).

Sentence (12) above, as can be seen, is grammatically correct but possess or makes no meaning. The sentence is, therefore, syntactically correct but semantically unacceptable given the fact that it makes no sense. This is because the elements that are joined to result into larger units are not just created out of nothing. Any human language is well organized and makes sure that the elements provided to syntax will not lead into causing any crash at the interface. This explains the perception of syntax by Akmajian *et al.* (2001). They view syntax as the area of linguistics that joins elements issued from phonetics, phonology and morphology, in order to have comprehensible structures. In other words, syntax is not an isolated science or discipline. It works in collaboration with other sub-branches of linguistics like phonetics, phonology, morphology, semantics, etc.

Valin (2001) posits that “one of the most important syntactic properties of language is that simple sentences can be combined in various ways to form complex sentences”. This comes from the assumption that “human languages are so large and can build an infinite set of expressions which is set with syntactic principles”. The idea is linked to the UG theory. This means that as one builds his lexicon, the words cannot be used in isolation. There has to be a combination of phones, phonemes, morphemes, allomorphs and so on. It does not end here. The resulting words have to give phrases; the latter extend to clauses and therefore sentences which also extend as simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences and compound-complex sentences. At this level, “syntax is the formulation of expressions with complex meanings out of elements with simple meanings” (Valin, 2001). Hence, when Jirka *et al.* (2011) present syntax as “the part of linguistics that studies the sentence structure”, the aim is to present the way this is done. Syntax intervenes at any moment two or more words come together to extend meaning. Its main role is to handle issues like word order, agreement, the number of complements, the selection of the adequate preposition, the hierarchical structures, just to name but these. Therefore, syntax is the ‘manager’ of words put together because it aims at providing the necessary arrangements. The arrangement that is referred to in this work is not a secular one. It follows the canons of the definition given to syntax by the Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary. The latter qualifies syntax as the arranger of

words in a sentence. The arrangement has to obey certain rules and these are imposed by the structure of the language dealt with. The definition states that “syntax is the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence”. This stipulates that the words eventually selected from the lexicon have to be structured according to a specific grammar, to respect the parameters of the language.

In as much as many scholars may differ or not agree about certain issues in their views as far as syntax is concerned, it can be realized that each of them reveals something new. This makes syntax quite an open-ended science in itself.

### **2.2.2. The notion of relative clauses**

A clause is a grammatical unit consisting of a subject and a predicate, and every sentence must consist of one or more clauses (Task and Stockwell, 2007). In the examples that follow, each clause is marked off by brackets. A simple sentence consists only of a single clause (e.g. Mabel has bought a portable radio). A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank, usually joined by a coordinating conjunction such as *and*, *or* or *but* (e.g. [Deborah wants children], but [her career won't allow them]). A complex sentence consists of two or more clauses where one outranks the others, which are subordinated to it (e.g. [After Veronica got her promotion], [She bought a new car]). It is healthy to point out here that all sentences consist of an obligatory main clause and one or more optional subordinate clauses. A clause which is the highest-ranking clause, or only clause, in its sentence is a main clause; whereas, a clause which is subordinated to another is a subordinate clause (Epoge, 2015).

Relative clauses are one example of subordinate clauses and are a class of constructions that has been referred to variously in the literature as *wh* movement (Chomsky 1977), long-distance dependencies (Bresnan 2001), unbounded dependencies (Pollard and Sag 1994), and  $\bar{A}$  dependencies (Chomsky 1981), among other names. Like every other concept, the term ‘relative clause’ has been defined in different ways by many different scholars.

A relative clause gives more information about someone or something referred to in a main clause (Hewings, 2001). He equally makes a distinction between two types of relative clauses: defining and non-defining relative clauses. Defining relative clauses describe the preceding noun in such a way as to distinguish it from other nouns of the same class. A clause of this kind is essential to the understanding of the noun. In the sentence:

(13) The man [who told me this] refused to give me his name.

'who told me this' is the relative clause. If we omit this, it is not clear what man we are talking about. Notice that there is no comma between a noun and a defining relative clause (Thomson and Martinet, 1960). Also, with defining relative clauses, it is very common to omit the object pronoun in spoken English. Consider the following sentences:

(14) a. The man [*whom* I saw] told me to come back today.

b. The man [I saw] told me to come back today.

From the above examples, it can be observed that the object pronoun 'whom' in (a) has been omitted in (b) but the sense of the statement is not distorted in any way.

Meanwhile, Non-defining relative clauses are placed after nouns, which are definite already. They do not therefore define the noun, but merely add something to it by giving some more information about it. Unlike defining relative clauses, they are not essential in the sentence and can be omitted without causing confusion. Also unlike defining relatives, they are separated from their noun by commas. The pronoun can never be omitted in a non-defining relative clause. The construction is fairly formal and more common in written than in spoken English. For example:

(15) My neighbour, [who is very pessimistic], says there will be no apples this year.  
(Thomson and Martinet, 1960)

In (15) above, we realize that the relative clause '*who is very pessimistic*' is not essential to the sentence. It can be omitted and the meaning of the sentence will not be altered. The sentence will read "*My neighbor says there will be no apples this year*". That is the message the speaker is trying to send across and not the fact that his neighbor is pessimistic.

Furthermore, a relative clause can also be defined as a clause which modifies the head noun within a noun phrase as illustrated in the example below.

(16) [The man [whom we admire] S] NP lives in Yaounde.

This example illustrates the three basic parts of a relative clause construction: the head noun *man*, the modifying clause *we admire*, and the relativizer *whom* which links the modifying clause to the head. It would be noticed here that the modifying clause is incomplete; it lacks a direct object, even though its verb *admire* requires one. Though the modifying clause lacks a direct object, the sentence is acceptable because the head noun is understood to be the object

of the verb *admire*. In this regard, the head noun actually has two different roles in this example - it functions as the subject of the main clause and at the same time interpreted as the object of the modifying clause. Moreover, the head of the relative clause *man* is a common noun which could refer to any man. The function of the modifying clause is to identify, uniquely, which particular man the speaker is referring to (Epoge, 2015).

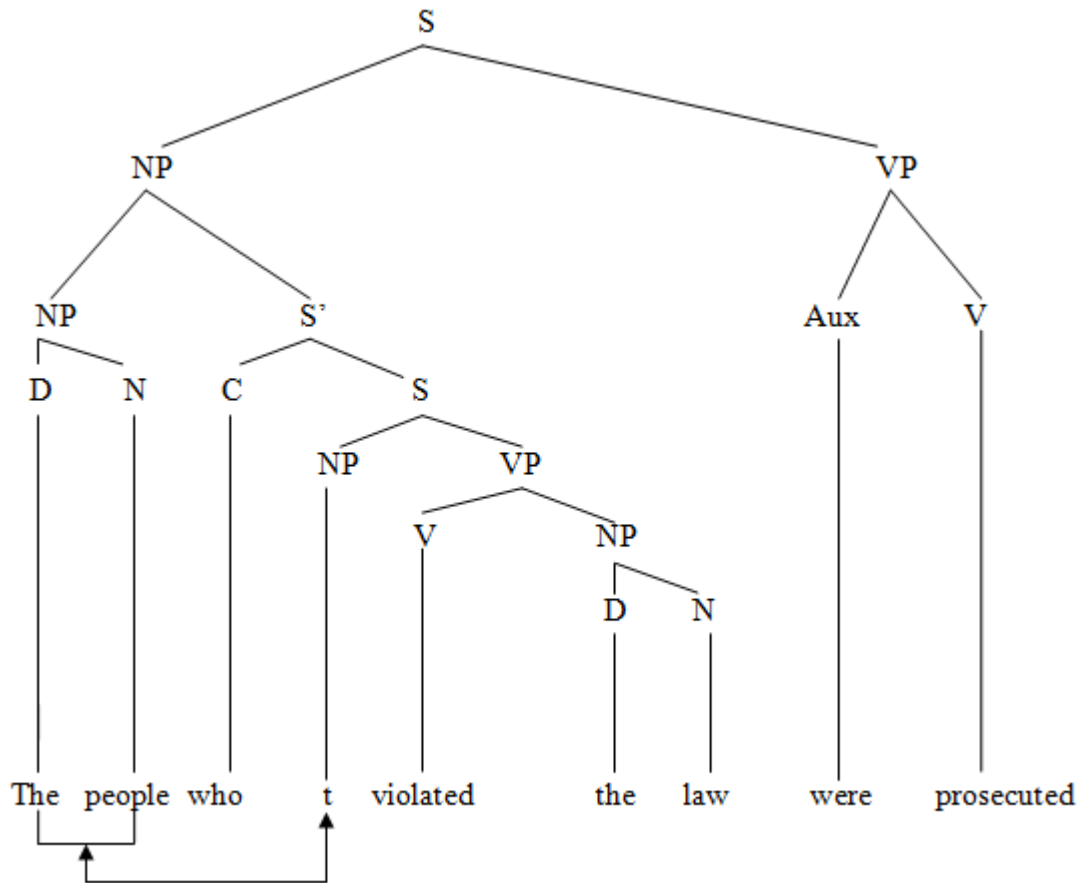
In this respect, a relative clause is a clause which modifies a noun or noun phrase. The noun qualified is called the antecedent and the relative clause normally follows the antecedent as exemplified below.

(17) The mangoes [which Mirabel gave Pauline] provoked diarrhoea.

In (17) the antecedent of the relativized clause *which Mabel gave Paulin* is the NP *mangoes*. The subject of the verb *gave* is the NP *Mirabel* and the object is the NP *Paulin*. Furthermore, the subject of the verb *provoke* is the NP *mangoes* and the object is the NP *diarrhea*. Thus, the antecedent plays a vital role of determining which relative pronoun to use. In this sense, the relative pronoun, which introduces a relative clause, and the antecedent denote the same entity.

As can be inferred above, relative clauses are introduced by a relative pronoun and the said clauses modify their NP antecedents or head noun. These clauses always contain a gap **t**, which is indicated by the trace of the relative pronoun as shown in (18) below.

(12)



As seen above, the basic structural relationship in a relative clause is formed by a process called embedding. The process of embedding has to do with the insertion of a subordinate clause within a main clause such that the subordinate clause becomes part of the main clause as the example below illustrates.

(19) The people [who violated the law] were prosecuted.

a. The people were prosecuted.

b. The people violated the law.

Sentence (19) is derived from (19a) [the main clause] and (19b) [the embedded clause in (19a)]. As a result of this, there is an NP which incidentally occurs in both clauses as shown in example (19a) and (19b) above. When one of the clauses is embedded as in original sentence (19), the NP of this embedded clause is substituted by a relative pronoun. In this process, the relative pronoun takes the same case as the original embedded sentence. For instance, the NP *the people* in the second clause, (19b), is the nominative case; therefore, it is

replaced by the nominative relative pronoun *who* in the main sentence as a result of embedding (Epoge, 2015).

This brings to mind the concept of antecedent agreement. Pronouns stand for or take the place of nouns. They are used in the same places as the nouns in sentences. The word or noun to which a pronoun refers is called the antecedent of the pronoun (Cramer *et al.*, 1984). Pronouns must agree with the nouns they replace. If a pronoun replaces a singular noun it should itself be singular (Shukyn *et al.*, 2015).

The concept of antecedent agreement in this case, has to do with the fact that, the relative pronoun, which introduces the relative clause, agrees with the head noun for gender and number; while, its case marking indicates the grammatical relation which the head noun is understood to bear within the modifying clause. This is clearly a very important function, since we cannot interpret the meaning of the NP correctly without understanding the semantic relationship between the head noun and the modifying clause (Epoge, 2015).

It can be realized at this point that it is impossible to talk about relative clauses without handling at the same time relative pronouns and relative adverbs in some cases and vice versa. The functions and interrelations of relative pronouns are best handled in connection with relative clauses (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1985). As such, relative pronouns and relative adverbs are most often simply defined as those words that introduce relative clauses. The most common relative pronouns include: *who*, *which*, *whose*, *whom* and *that*; while the relative adverbs are *where* and *when*. The notion of relative pronouns is made even more explicit by Quirk *et al.* (1985) in the following table:

Table 1: Relative pronouns

	<b>Restrictive</b>		<b>Non-restrictive</b>	
	<b>Personal</b>	<b>Non-personal</b>	<b>Personal</b>	<b>Non-personal</b>
<b>Subjective case</b>	Who That	Which That	Who	which
<b>Objective case</b>	Whom That Zero		Whom	which
<b>Genitive case</b>	Whose	Whose	Whose	whose

It is important to note here that restrictive and non-restrictive as mentioned on the table above are synonyms of defining and non-defining which were seen earlier in this same work. The table clearly presents the pronouns that fall under the three different cases as well as those that replace personal and/or non-personal antecedents. On the table, for example, it can be observed that the relative pronoun ‘that’ does not feature in the object case of non-restrictive relative clauses.

In addition to these relative pronouns, these study also took into consideration the relative adverbs “where” and “when” given the fact that they are equally relative clause markers.

### **2.2.3. Related empirical studies**

A number of studies have been carried out as far as the concept of relative clauses is concerned (Epoge 2015; Falk 2009; Andrews 1975; Reeve, 2007; Montag and McDonald, 2009; Staub, 2010; De Villiers *et al.* 1979 and Tse and Hyland, 2010). The examination of complex sentences with relative clauses have revealed that L2 learners of English in Cameroon process strategies of both the subject and the noun phrases (NPs), in sentences with embedded relative clauses in order to assign the correct meaning to the sentence (Epoge, 2015).

An investigation of the syntactic analysis of relative clauses have shown that a consideration of the forms that relative clauses take suggests an alternative to the current consensus analysis, one which has roots in the transformational literature of the 1970s and has been adopted in some current transformational analyses (Falk, 2009). In carrying out research as far as studies in the syntax of relative clauses is concerned, it was discovered that relative clauses are very much alike in almost all the languages of the world (Andrews, 1975).

Reeve (2007) proposes an analysis of the English cleft in which the cleft clauses are restrictive relative clauses adjoined to the clefted XP. Montag and McDonald (2009) posit that comparatively little is known about how semantic properties (such as animacy) and syntactic properties (such as word order) affect production of complex sentences. They came up with this conclusion after carrying out an experiment which entailed an elicitation of relative clauses from picture descriptions by speakers of English and Japanese. It is well known that sentences containing object-extracted relative clauses for example,

(20) *The reporter that the senator attacked admitted the error.*

are more difficult to comprehend than sentences containing subject-extracted relative clauses for example,

(21) *The reporter that attacked the senator admitted the error.* (Staub, 2010).

De Villiers *et al.* (1979) did a review of the literature of children's use of relative clause constructions and the say they study revealed a lot of contradictions. They used one hundred and fourteen children between the ages of three and seven. The study revealed that understanding of the sentences with relative clauses got better with the increasing age of the children and that sex and the constructions involved were insignificant variables.

Tse and Hyland (2010) carried out an examination of the role relative clause constructions in corpus of journal descriptions and the texts which define and endorse the goals and the position of a journal. They did an analysis of two hundred journals from four contrasting disciplines and the study revealed that relative clauses have an important, and perhaps surprising, role to play in this genre, functioning pragmatically as an evaluative and persuasive tool to promote academic journals.

The present work joins the previous ones in that focus is on the analysis of relative clauses. Likewise Epoge (2015), the target population of the following work has to do with learners who already have an L1 and/or even an L2. Equally, attention shall be paid on data collected from the written productions of the learners. This work is also similar to those of Montag and McDonald (2009) and Staub (2010) as it also takes into consideration and



focuses a great deal on antecedent agreement; person, which has to do with animate and inanimate nouns and case i.e. object and subject cases respectively.

That notwithstanding, this work is not a carbon copy because it is unique in its own way and has got its own specificities. At the level of the sample population, there is already a disparity given the fact that the works mentioned above collected data from learners from institutions of higher education, children and journal writers whereas this work shall be considering the written productions of *Première* students, i.e. learners in secondary school who have not yet had as much exposure to the language as those of the university yet more exposure than those of children between three to seven years of age. Still as regards the sample population, apart from Epoge (2015), all of the above studies were carried out out of Cameroon and most of them out of Africa.

Also, the analysis to be carried out shall concentrate on the inconsistencies as far as antecedent agreement is concerned, contrary to what was done in the previous works. Furthermore, there is a point of divergence at the level of the instruments of data collection. Staud (2010) and de Villiers *et al.* (1979) proceeded with their studies by means of experiments, which took into consideration written as well as oral productions ; Montag and McDonald, (2009) collected their data orally as the subjects described the pictures displayed as opposed to the present study which shall be considering only written productions of the subjects.

In addition, some of the above mentioned studies did a comparative study between two languages. Reeve (2010), in his work does a comparison between the English language and German while Montag and McDonald (2009) investigate relative clause production in English and Japanese. The baseline is, all the studies work on relative clauses in English. From the related empirical studies discussed above, it is clear that this piece of work is not the first in its domain neither is it a virgin topic but it is simply looking at the same thing looked at by the others but from another dimension and in a different context. This is in a bid to bring in new and relevant contributions.

### **2.3. Conclusion**

This chapter was based on the theoretical framework adopted for the present piece of work and the review of related literature. The theoretical framework which is adopted for this work is the Binding Theory by Chomsky (1981), and more precisely the Principle B. The latter stipulates that a pronoun is free in its governing category. It is against this backdrop that

the written productions of *Première* students shall be analysed to verify the extent to which they respect the notion of antecedent agreement when dealing with relative clauses. This chapter also handled the notions of syntax and relative clauses and the perception of a few studies were considered in order to create a clear distinction between the present work and others carried out in the same domain.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology adopted for this study. Focus is on the population of study, instruments of data collection, procedure of data collection and method of data analysis.

#### 3.1. Sample population

The population used for this study is made up of the students of *Première* of the Second Cycle of the French sub-system of education. These students came from three schools selected in the city of Yaounde: Government High School Anguissa, Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton and Government Bilingual High School Emana. On a whole, 161 students participated as respondents in this study. The distribution of the sampled population is presented in the table below.

Table 2: The distribution of the sampled population

School	Number of respondents
GHS Anguissa ( <i>Première Allemand et Espagnol</i> )	67
GBHS Nkol-Eton ( <i>Première Bilingue</i> )	18
GBHS Emana ( <i>Première Allemand et Espagnol</i> )	76
<b>Total</b>	<b>161</b>

As seen in the table above, one hundred and sixty-one (161) respondents were sampled in three schools. Out of this number, sixty-seven (67) came from the Government High School Anguissa, eighteen (18) from Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton, and seventy-six (76) from Government Bilingual High School Emana. It is healthy to note here that the *Première* classes that had been chosen were selected at random. No specific criteria were used in selecting them. Also, it is important to spell out here that each of these respondents come to the English Language class at least with a knowledge of two languages (i.e. mother tongue and French) or three languages (Mother tongue, French, and camfranglais). They have been exposed to and taught the English language for at least twelve years, that is, six years in Primary school and four years in the First Cycle of secondary school and two years in the Second Cycle of secondary school. Besides, it is necessary to point out

here that French and English are the two official languages and these learners have the obligation to communicate fluently in these two languages to express the bicultural identity of Cameroon.

### **3.2. Instrument of data collection**

The instrument that was used in the collection of data for this study is a Production Test. The Test which contained twenty-one (21) questions or items, consisted four tasks: joining sentence pairs using relative pronouns or adverbs, gap test task, multiple choice comprehension task, and essay task. The task on joining sentence pairs with a relative pronoun or adverb called on the respondents to join sentence pairs with appropriate relative pronoun/adverb. The essence of this task was to check whether respondents employ relative pronouns or adverbs which tie with their antecedents in terms of the phi-feature of person/thing/time/place. This task had seven (07) items, a sample of which is illustrated by the following token:

*I love the dress. My mother bought it.*

The Gap Test Task which equally had seven (07) items requested respondents to fill in the blanks with the appropriate relative clause markers (i.e., a relative pronoun or adverb) according to their own judgment to make each of the sentences complete and comprehensible. In this category, the requested pronominal expressions were not given. The respondents had to use their intuition of the knowledge of relative pronouns and adverbs to fill in the gaps appropriately. The essence of this task was to find out whether respondents can competently use relative pronouns and adverbs intuitively. A sample token in this category is illustrated by the following question:

*This is the man.....daughter is travelling to London.*

The Multiple Choice Comprehension Task contained six (06) items, each associated with three options that the respondents were requested to choose from among the one that is suitable to complete the sentence. The essence of this task was to check whether respondents can decipher relative pronouns in terms of the phi-feature of person/thing/place/time. A sample of this token denotes questions such as,

*Mr. Francis showed the area ..... the accident occurred. (who, where, which)*

The Essay Task had one topic on which respondents were to write an essay of about two hundred and fifty words. This estimated number of words was not mentioned on the question paper but the respondents were told orally; though a rubric which was hardly

respected by the subjects. The essence of this task was to obtain data on free writing. For a detailed sample of the Production Test, see (appendix 1). The various tasks were structured in such a way as to meet the exigencies related with the agreement between the relative clause markers and their antecedents. The test lasted an hour in each of the classes.

### **3.3. Procedure of data collection**

After the drafting, cross-checking and adoption of the production test, it was submitted to the supervisor for approval. The endorsement of the production test by the supervisor and the issuance of clearance put the researcher out on the field. This test, just as the scope stipulates, was destined for *Première* students in three different schools in Yaounde. Consequently, out of the many *Première* classes in each of the three schools mentioned above, one was randomly selected. As a result of this, three *Première* classes were selected: *Première Allemand et Espagnol* in Government High School Anguissa, *Première Bilingue* in Government Bilingual High school Nkol-Eton, and *Première Allemand et Espagnol* in Government Bilingual High School Emana. In each of the classes selected, the permission of the English Language teacher was sought to give up his/her time to the researcher to administer the production test. To obtain authentic data, the test was administered in collaboration with the course teacher. This enabled the respondents to take the exercise seriously. The teachers went through the test then informed their learners a week or some days before it was administered. During the administration of the test, the researcher was accompanied and assisted by the teachers. All the learners present in each of the classes at the time of administration wrote the test and all the scripts from all these classes were considered, classified and analysed making a total of 161 scripts treated.

### **3.4. Method of data analysis**

The scripts collected were marked and each sentence which respected the input-feature specifications of relative clause marker in terms of relative clause marker-antecedent agreement scored a point and any other scored no point. After this exercise, the frequencies of occurrence of input-feature specifications were tallied as well as those which did not respect the input-feature specifications. This was followed by a systematic categorization of the data and identifications of the features of the sentences which did not meet the input-oriented parameters. This was done for each of the relative clause markers in each of the classes in all the three schools. The data obtained are presented on tables and graphs for analysis and discussion. The tables record the number of occurrences and percentage scored.

In order to obtain these percentages, the following formula was used:

$$Y\% = X/N \times 100/1, \quad \text{where}$$

X= number of correct input-feature specifications provided by respondents

N= the total number of input-feature specifications expected

Y = percentage got from resolving the equation

This was the case with the first part of the production test. As far as the essay component was concerned, the first step entailed identification of sentences with relative clauses. After identifying the relative clauses, the next task was to find out whether each of the relative clause markers employed agreed with the antecedent. This provided data from free writing with respect to adherence to input-oriented feature specifications stipulated by Principle B of the Binding Theory.

### **3.5. Conclusion**

This chapter has presented the methodology adopted for this study. It laid emphasis on the description of the population of study, the instrument of data collection, procedure of data collection and method of data analysis. This chapter sets the pace for proper analysis which comes up in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS

#### 4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses the data collected, and presents the results in tables and graphs. The analysis is based on the respect and non-respect of the input-oriented feature specifications as far as relative clause markers and antecedents are concerned.

#### 4.1. Overview and classification of respondents' performance

A total number of three thousand two hundred and twenty (3220) tokens were expected as far as data for this study is concerned. The table below records the number of occurrences of the tokens which respected the conditions of Binding Theory Principle B and those which do not with regard to the relative clause marker- antecedent agreement as well as the percentage scored.

Table 3: Respondents' performance in relative clause marker-antecedent agreement

Relative clause marker	Setting input parameters		Other parameters settings		Total
	No. of instances	%	No. of instances	%	
Which	163	25.3%	481	74.7%	644
Who	203	42%	280	58%	483
Whom	129	26.7%	354	73.3%	483
Whose	137	28.4%	346	71.6%	483
Where	298	61.7%	185	38.3%	483
When	90	28%	232	72%	322
That	147	45.7%	175	54.3%	322
<b>Total</b>	<b>1167</b>	<b>36.2%</b>	<b>2053</b>	<b>63.8%</b>	<b>3220</b>

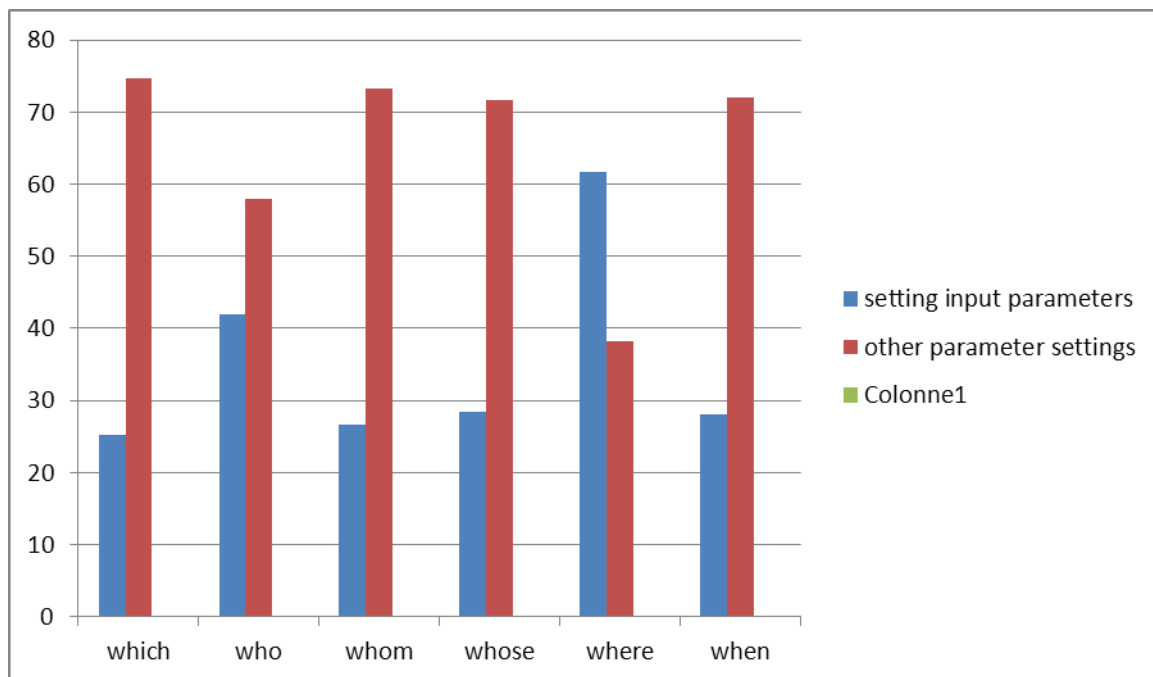
The result in the table above portrays that respondents provided 1167 (36.20%) instances whereby the relative clause marker and antecedent agreement respected the input-oriented parameter settings as stipulated by Binding Theory Principle B. They equally provided 2053 (63.80%) instances whereby other parameter settings were employed in establishing the

relative clause marker and antecedent agreement. This score is a cause for concern with regard to the transformation of this language point from input into intake.

From the table above, the performance of the respondents corresponding to each of the relative clause markers can be noticed. The relative pronoun “which” had one hundred and sixty three (163) instances in which the setting input parameters were respected and four hundred and eighty one (481) instances in which other parameters were employed. “who” on its part had two hundred and three instances (203) whereby the input setting parameters were respected and two hundred and eighty instances (280) whereby other parameters were employed. The object relative pronoun “whom” had one hundred and twenty nine (129) instances of setting input parameters and three hundred and fifty four (354) instances of other parameters. The relative pronoun “whose” recorded one hundred and thirty seven (137) instances of setting input parameters and three hundred and forty six (346) instances of other parameters. The relative adverb “where” had two hundred and ninety eight (298) instances in which the setting input parameters were respected and one hundred and eighty five (185) instances whereby other parameters were used. The other relative adverb “when” had ninety (90) instances of the setting input parameters as opposed to two hundred and thirty two (232) instances in which other parameters were made use of. The relative pronoun “that” recorded one hundred and forty seven (147) instances whereby the setting input parameters were respected and one hundred and seventy five (175) instances whereby other parameters were employed.

With regard to the use of each of the relative clause markers under investigation, the highest score in setting the English input-oriented feature is registered with the relative adverb “where” whereby the respondents provided 298 (61.7%) instances of the tokens. This is followed by the use of the relative pronoun “that” whereby the respondents provided 147 (45.70%) instances. The worst performance is registered in the use of the relative pronoun “which” whereby the respondents provided 163 (25.3%) instances as against 481 (74.70%) instances whereby the employed other parameter settings. The parameters employed in the later cases violate the parameters of Principle B of the Binding Theory. The respondents’ performance in terms of percentage scored is presented on the bar-chart below. The bar-chart presents both the instances that respected the parameter settings of Binding Principle B and those that violated them.





Graph 1: Mean percentage graph of respondents' general performance

The result on the mean percentage graph above visibly presents the general results of respondents' performance. The relative pronoun "which" scored a percentage of 25.3% where the setting input parameters were respected as opposed to a percentage of 74.7% where other parameters were used. The relative pronoun "who" recorded a percentage of 42% for the setting input parameters as opposed to 58% which corresponds to the use of other parameters. The relative clause marker "whom" got a percentage of 26.7% of setting input parameters and 73.3% where other parameters were used. The relative pronoun "whose" had 28.4% for setting input parameters and 71.6% for the use of other parameters. The relative adverb "where" scored a percentage of 61.7% for instances of setting input parameters and a percentage of 38.3% for instances in which other parameters were employed. The other relative adverb "when" had a percentage of 28% for setting input parameters and 72% which corresponds to instances whereby other parameters were used. The relative clause marker "that" scored a percentage of 45.7% for setting input parameters as opposed to 54.3% for the use of other parameters.

It can be clearly observed that only the use of one of the relative clause markers, the relative adverb "where", scored a percentage above 50 i.e. 61.7%. Hence, many respondents were able to come up with sentences such as:

(22) Peter has been sent to the place where he was born.

(23) Let us go to a place where we can relax.

(24) Francis showed the area where the accident occurred.

Which when translated into the French language give the very same thing:

- *Peter a été envoyé là où il est né.*
- *Allons dans un lieu où on peut se détendre.*
- *Francis a montré l'endroit où l'accident s'est passé.*

So, in this case, the subjects are not caught up between options or dilemma neither do they have much doubts as to what the answers should be. This performance can, thus, be justified as the relative adverb “where” in English and French is easy to decipher.

One would have expected this to be the case with the other relative adverb under study (when) given the fact that it is also the same phenomenon in the L2 of the learners (*when* being translated as *quand*); but strangely enough, it is not. A possible explanation which could be given to this is the fact that the relative pronoun ‘when’ does not feature as an answer for any of the items in the multiple choice task and the latter happened to be the area in which the subjects performed best. This makes one tempted to say that there was a lot of guess work involved in the exercise.

The relative pronouns “who” and “which” also pose a serious problem to Francophone learners of English. This is because these two relative pronouns denote only one in the French language, that is, “*qui*”, as there is no distinction between things and people as regards pronouns in the French Language.

Having presented and discussed the general performance of the respondents, it is good to present and discuss their performance with regard to schools.

#### **4.1.1 Respondents from Government High School Anguissa Performance**

From Government High School Anguissa, the 67 respondents from *Première Allemand/Espagnol* produced 1340 instances of the relative clause markers and antecedent agreement structures. The tables below recorded the respondents’ performance in terms of

setting input-oriented feature specifications with regard to the stipulation of Binding Principle B. and the graphs clearly illustrate the percentages.

Table 4: Performance of *Première Allemand/Espagnol* of Government High School Anguissa for relative pronouns

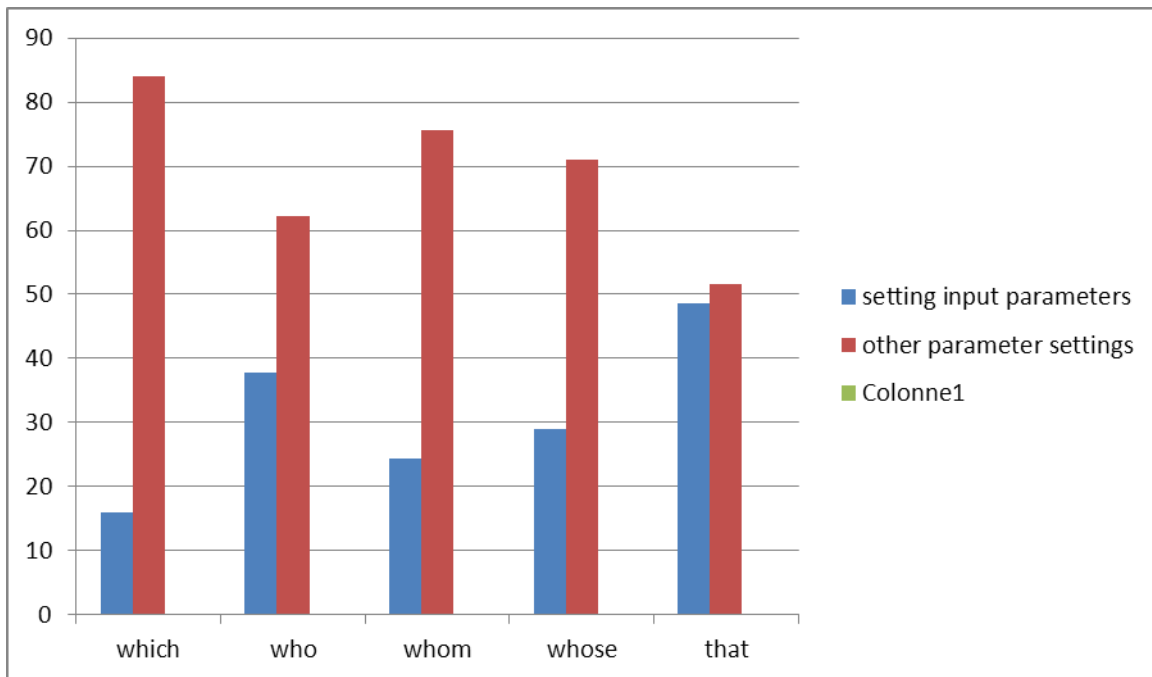
Relative pronoun	Setting input parameters		Other parameters settings		Total
	No. of instances	%	No. of instances	%	
Which	43	16%	225	84%	268
Who	76	37.8%	125	62.2%	201
Whom	49	24.4%	152	75.6%	201
Whose	58	28.9%	143	71.1%	201
That	65	48.5%	69	51.5%	134
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>29%</b>	<b>714</b>	<b>71%</b>	<b>1005</b>

As can be seen in the table above, the respondents of Government High School Anguissa produced 291 instances whereby they respected the parameters of Principle B of the Binding Theory as regards relative pronouns. They equally produced 714 instances whereby they violated the parameter settings of Principle B of the Binding Theory.

The relative pronoun “which” had forty seven (47) instances in which the setting input parameters were respected and two hundred and twenty five (225) instances in which other parameters were employed. “who” on its part had seventy six (76) instances whereby the input setting parameters were respected and one hundred and twenty five (125) instances whereby other parameters were employed. The object relative pronoun “whom” had forty nine (49) instances of setting input parameters and one hundred and fifty two (152) instances of other parameters. The relative pronoun “whose” recorded fifty eight (58) instances of setting input parameters and one hundred and forty three (143) instances of other parameters. The relative pronoun “that” recorded sixty five (65) instances whereby the setting input parameters were respected and sixty nine (69) instances whereby other parameters were employed.

The highest score in respecting the parameter settings of Binding Theory Principle B among the pronouns is registered in the use of the relative pronoun “that” whereby they produced 65 instances; and the least scored is registered with the use of the relative pronoun

“which” whereby they produced 43 instances. The percentages scored are registered in the following graph.



Graph 2: Mean percentage graph of performance of respondents’ performance on relative pronouns in GHS Anguissa

The relative pronoun “which” scored a percentage of 16% where the setting input parameters were respected as opposed to a percentage of 84% where other parameters were used. The relative pronoun “who” recorded a percentage of 37.8% for the setting input parameters as opposed to 62.2% which corresponds to the use of other parameters. The relative clause marker “whom” got a percentage of 24.4% of setting input parameters and 75.6% where other parameters were used. The relative pronoun “whose” had 28.9% for setting input parameters and 71.1% for the use of other parameters. The relative clause marker “that” scored a percentage of 48.5% for setting input parameters as opposed to 51.5% for the use of other parameters.

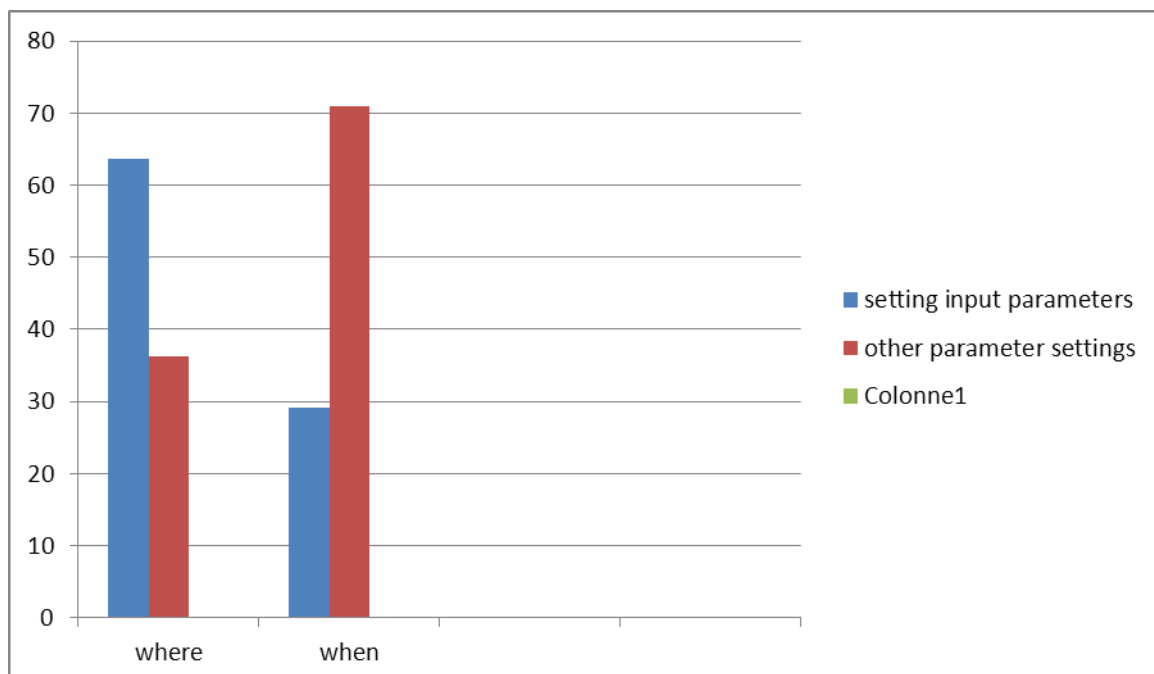
From the graph above, it can be seen clearly that none of the pronouns recorded a percentage above 50; the highest being the ‘that’ with a percentage of 48.5% and the lowest being ‘which’ with 16%. Statistics with regard to the relative adverbs go as follows:

Table 5: Performance of *Première Allemand/Espagnol* of Government High School Anguissa for relative adverbs

Relative adverb	Setting input parameters		Other parameters settings		Total
	No. of instances	%	No. of instances	%	
Where	128	63.7%	73	36.3%	201
When	39	29.1%	95	70.9%	134
<b>Total</b>	<b>167</b>	<b>49.9%</b>	<b>168</b>	<b>50.1%</b>	<b>335</b>

As can be inferred from the table above, a total number of 167 instances where the relative adverbs were used with respect to the parameter settings of principle B of the Binding Theory was produced by the respondents of GHS Anguissa.

The relative adverb “where” had one hundred and twenty eight (128) instances in which the setting input parameters were respected and seventy three (73) instances whereby other parameters were used. The other relative adverb “when” had thirty nine (39) instances of the setting input parameters as opposed to ninety five (95) instances in which other parameters were used. The percentages are more explicitly presented in the graph below.



Graph 3: Mean percentage graph for respondents' performance on relative adverbs in GHS Anguissa

As can be seen on the graph above, the relative adverb “where” scored a percentage of 63.7% for instances of setting input parameters and a percentage of 36.3% for instances in which other parameters were employed. The other relative adverb “when” had a percentage of 29.1% for setting input parameters and 70.9% which corresponds to instances whereby other parameters were used.

The disparity in performance as far as the results regarding the relative adverbs in this school are concerned is more than glaring on the graph. The relative adverb ‘where’ scored a percentage of 63.7% while ‘when’ scored 29.1%.

Besides respondents from Government High School Anguissa, another school from where respondents came is the Government Bilingual High school Nkol-Eton.

#### **4.1.2 Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton**

The eighteen respondents from Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton performed variedly in the production test. The results of their performance are presented in the tables and graphs below. The tables record both the number of instances whereby the respondents respect the parameters of Binding Principle B and those in which they violated the above-mentioned parameter settings.

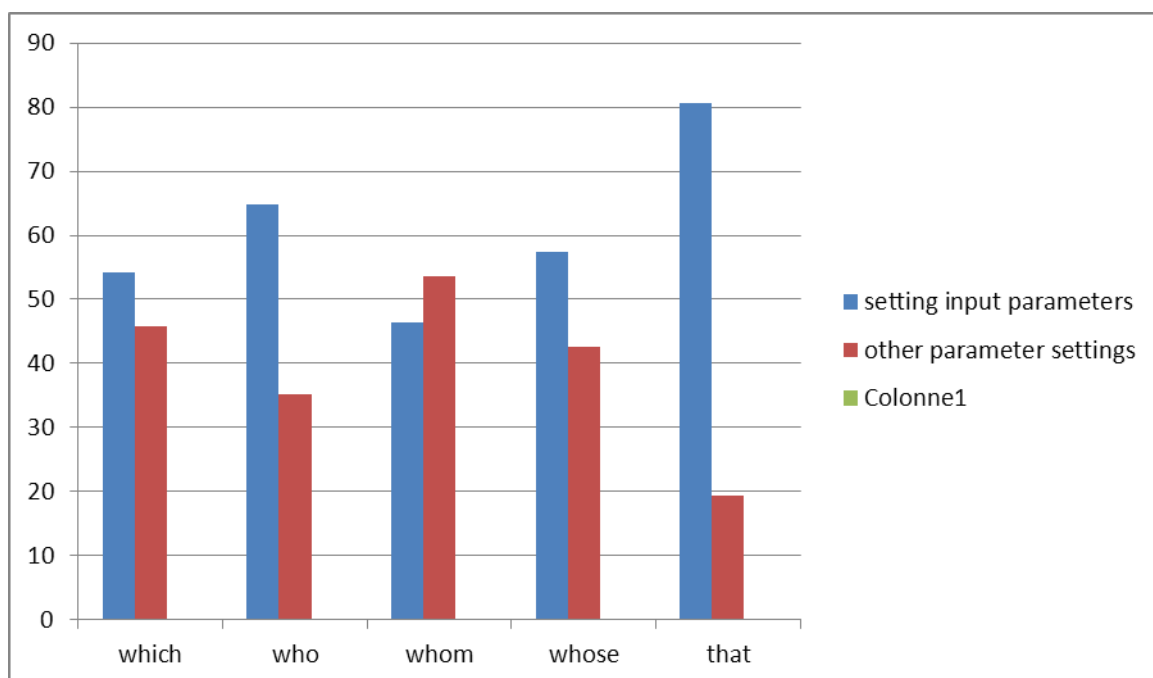
Table 6: Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton on relative pronouns

<b>Relative pronoun</b>	<b>Setting input parameters</b>		<b>Other parameters settings</b>		<b>Total</b>
	No. of instances	%	No. of instances	%	
Which	39	54.2%	33	45.8%	72
Who	35	64.8%	19	35.2%	54
Whom	25	46.3%	29	53.7%	54
Whose	31	57.4%	23	42.6%	54
That	29	80.6%	07	19.4%	36
<b>Total</b>	<b>159</b>	<b>58.9%</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>41.1%</b>	<b>270</b>

The table above shows that respondents produced 159 instances whereby they respected the parameter settings of Binding Principle B, as against 111 whereby they violated the parameter settings of Principle B of the Binding Theory.

Regarding the performance for each relative pronoun, the relative pronoun “which”, out of seventy two (72) instances recorded thirty nine (39) instances in which the parameter settings of Principle B of the Binding Theory were respected as opposed to thirty three (33) instances in which the parameters settings of the same principle of the same theory earlier mentioned were violated. The relative clause marker “who”, out of a total number of fifty four (54) expected instances, got thirty five (35) instances whereby the respondents respected the parameter settings of the Binding Principle B as opposed to nineteen (19) instances where they employed other parameters. As for the object relative pronoun “whom”, out of the fifty four (54) expected number of occurrences, had twenty five (25) instances of the setting input parameters as against twenty nine (29) instances in which other parameters were used. The genitive object relative pronoun “whose” had a total number of fifty four (54) expected occurrences from which thirty one instances were in conformity to the Principle B of the Binding Theory and twenty three (23) instances for the occurrence of other parameters. The last relative clause marker “that” recorded, out of a total of thirty six (36) expected occurrences, twenty nine (29) instances of setting input parameters and seven (07) instances of the use of other parameter settings.

Consider the following graph for a more explicit presentation of the results in percentages.



Graph 4: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative pronouns in GBHS Nkol-Eton

Talking about performance in terms of percentages, as can be seen from the graph above, the relative clause marker “which” scored a percentage of 54.2% for setting input parameters as opposed to 45.8% which represents the use of other parameter settings. The relative pronoun “who” recorded a percentage of 64.8% for the respect of the Binding Principle B as against 35.2% for the violation of the Principle B of the Binding Theory. The next relative pronoun, the object pronoun “whom” got a percentage of 46.3% for the setting input parameters and 53.7% for other parameters. The other object relative pronoun “whose” scored a percentage of 57.4% for instances in which the parameter settings were respected and a percentage of 42.6% for instances in which other parameters were used. The last relative pronoun “that” had a percentage of 80.6% corresponding to instances where the parameter settings of the Principle B of the Binding Theory were respected as against 19.4% where the latter was violated.

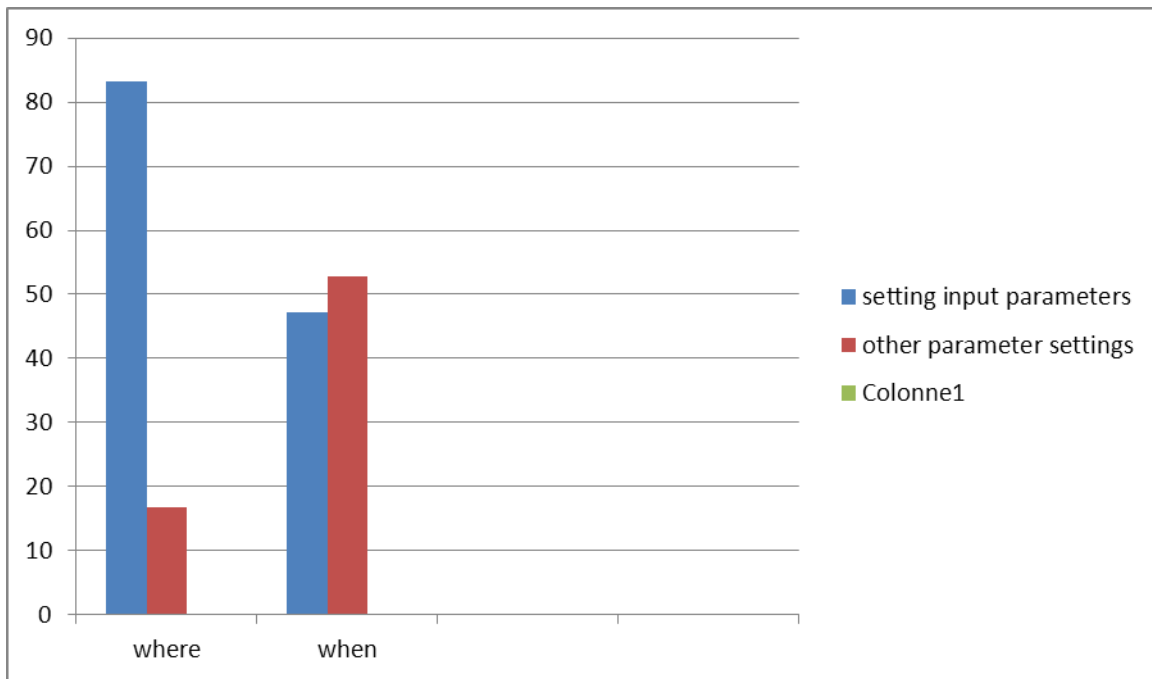
It can be observed from the graph that only one relative pronoun recorded a percentage below 50 in this class. It is the relative pronoun ‘whom’ which had a percentage of 46.3%. The results for the relative adverbs go as follows:

Table 7: Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Nkol-Eton on relative adverbs

Relative adverb	Setting input parameters		Other parameters settings		Total
	No. of instances	%	No. of instances	%	
Where	45	83.3%	09	16.7%	54
When	17	47.2%	19	52.8%	36
<b>Total</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>68.9%</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>31.1%</b>	<b>90</b>

The relative adverb ‘where’, as can be seen on the table above, out of fifty four (54) expected occurrences recorded forty five (45) instances which respected the settings of the parameters of principle B of the Binding Theory as opposed to nine (09) instances which did not respect the latter. Meanwhile, the other relative adverb ‘when’, out of thirty six (36) expected occurrences had seventeen (17) instances of setting input parameters as opposed to nineteen (19) instances of the occurrence of other parameters. The graph below presents the percentages in a more explicit manner.





Graph 5: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative adverbs in GBHS Nkol-Eton

From the graph above, the disparity in the performance of the subjects as concerns these relative adverbs is so vivid. The relative adverb “where” scored a percentage of 83.3% corresponding to instances in which the parameters of the Principle B of the Binding Theory were respected as opposed to 16.7% whereby the parameters of the Binding Principle B were violated. The relative adverb “when” on the other hand recorded a percentage of 47.2% for setting input parameters as against 52.8% representing the instances in which other parameters were employed.

In general, the fair performance of these respondents in setting the parameters of the Binding Theory Principle B can be justified. They are from a bilingual *Premiere* class whereby English and French are given the same weight in the course of study. Hence, the employment of other parameter settings could be attributed to poor mastery of the language point. The other set of respondents came from Government Bilingual High School Emana.

#### 4.1.3 Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Emana

The seventy-six (76) respondents from the Government Bilingual High School Emana produced 1520 instances in which the relative clause markers were employed. Their performance did not adhere totally to the setting of the parameters of the Principle B of the Binding Theory. Thus, the results of their performance are presented in the table below.

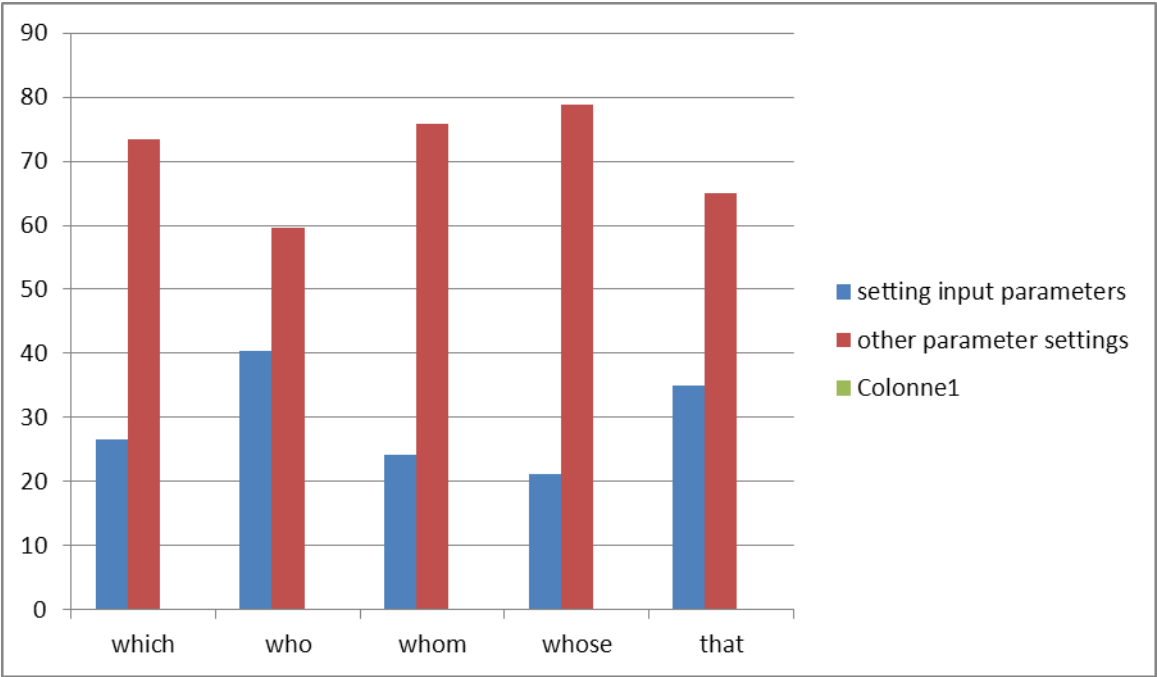
Table 8: Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Emana on relative pronouns

<b>Relative pronoun</b>	<b>Setting input parameters</b>		<b>Other parameters settings</b>		<b>Total</b>
	No. of instances	%	No. of instances	%	
Which	81	26.6%	223	73.4%	304
Who	92	40.4%	136	59.6%	228
Whom	55	24.1%	173	75.9%	228
Whose	48	21.1%	180	78.9%	228
That	53	34.9%	99	65.1%	152
<b>Total</b>	<b>329</b>	<b>28.9%</b>	<b>811</b>	<b>71.1%</b>	<b>1140</b>

Statistics in the above table show that these respondents produced 329 instances whereby they respected the parameter settings of the Binding Theory Principle B, and 811 instances whereby they violated the above-stated parameters. In the latter case, they employed other parameter settings in establishing an agreement between the relative pronouns and the antecedent.

As can be seen on the table, the relative pronoun “which”, out of a total number of three hundred and four (304) expected instances, recorded eighty one (81) instances in which the parameter settings of the Binding Theory Principle B were respected by the respondents and two hundred and twenty three (223) instances in which these parameter settings were violated. The next relative pronoun is “who”. Out of the two hundred and twenty eight (228) expected occurrences expected for this relative clause marker, ninety two (92) instances whereby the respondents respected the setting input parameters were registered as opposed to one hundred and thirty six (136) instances in which respondents made use of other parameters. This is followed by the object relative pronoun “whom”. It recorded, out of a total number of two hundred and twenty eight (228) expected occurrences, fifty five (55) instances in which the parameter settings of the Binding Principle B were respected as against one hundred and seventy three (173) instances in which the respondents violated the setting input parameters of the theory adopted for this study. The other object relative pronoun “whose” had an expected number of two hundred and twenty eight (228) instances from which, forty eight (48) instances were recorded as those whereby respondents respected the setting input parameters and one hundred and eighty (180) instances whereby they employed other

parameter settings. The last relative pronoun under study here is “that”. It had a total number of one hundred and fifty two (152) expected occurrences from which fifty three (53) instances were in conformity to the Principle B of the Binding Theory as opposed to ninety nine (99) instances in which the parameter settings of the Principle B of the Binding Theory were violated by the respondents. The percentages are more clearly illustrated in the graph below.



Graph 6: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative pronouns in GBHS Emaná

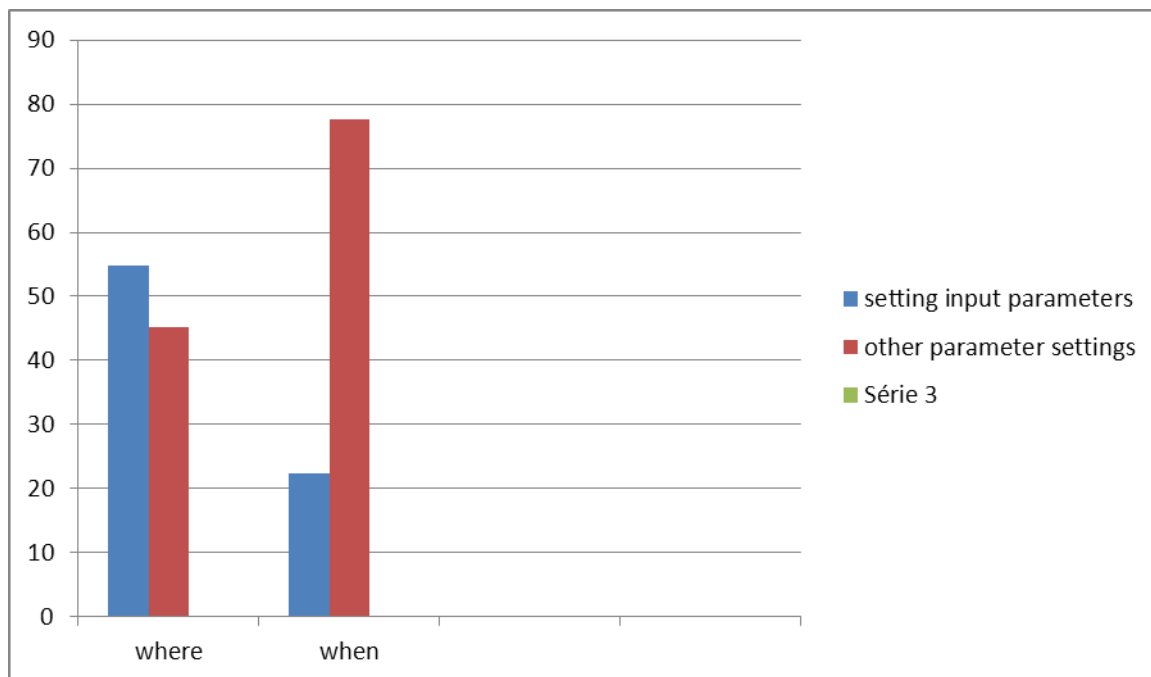
As can be seen on the graph above, the relative pronoun “which” scored a percentage of 26.6% for instances where the subjects respected the parameter settings of the Principle B of the Binding Theory as against 73.4% where they violated the setting input parameters. The relative pronoun “who” recorded a percentage of 40.4% for the respect of the Binding Principle B as against 59.6% for the violation of the Principle B of the Binding Theory. The next relative pronoun, the object pronoun “whom” got a percentage of 24.1% for the setting input parameters and 75.9% for other parameters. The other object relative pronoun “whose” scored a percentage of 21.1% for instances in which the parameter settings were respected and a percentage of 78.9% for instances in which other parameters were used. The relative pronoun “that” had a percentage of 34.9% corresponding to instances where the parameter settings of the Principle B of the Binding Theory were respected as against 65.1% where the subjects employed other parameters.

The least performance is in the use of the relative pronoun “whose” whereby the respondents produced 48 instances (21.1%) which adhere to the parameter settings of Binding Principle B. while the highest performance is ‘who’ with 92 instances (40.4%) which conform to the parameter settings of the Binding Principle B. Here below is a presentation of the results for the relative adverbs.

Table 9: Performance of the respondents from Government Bilingual High School Emana on relative adverbs

Relative adverb	Setting input parameters		Other parameters settings		Total
	No. of instances	%	No. of instances	%	
Where	125	54.8%	103	45.2%	228
When	34	22.4%	118	77.6%	152
<b>Total</b>	<b>186</b>	<b>48.9%</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>58.1%</b>	<b>380</b>

It is healthy to mention here that the these respondents scored a pass mark in the use of the relative adverb “where” whereby, out of two hundred and twenty eight (228) expected occurrences, they produced one hundred and twenty five (125) instances that respected the input-oriented parameter settings of the Binding Theory Principle B as opposed to one hundred and three (103) instances where the latter was not respected. Meanwhile the relative adverb “when”, out of one hundred and fifty two (152) expected occurrences, had thirty four (34) instances where the parameter settings are adhered to and one hundred and eighteen (118) instances where the parameter settings of the Principle B of the Binding Theory were violated. The graph below presents an illustration of the percentages.



Graph 7: Mean percentage graph of the performance of respondents on relative adverbs in GBHS Emaná

It is very evident from the above graph that the relative adverb ‘where’ scored a pass percentage of 54.8% i.e. for instances in which the setting input parameters were respected and 45.2% for instances where the parameter settings of the Binding Principle B were violated while the relative adverb ‘when’ has a percentage of 22.4% corresponding to instances in which respondents respected the parameter settings as against 77.6% for instances in which the parameter settings were not respected and other parameters were used.

In view of the foregoing analysis, it is evidently clear that respondents face difficulties in establishing the agreement feature between the relative clause marker and their antecedents. This raises pedagogical questions and a call for concern with regard to the teaching of this language point. Hence, in order to make pertinent recommendations, it is necessary to identify feature specifications that are glaring and frequent in the data provided.

## 4.2 Feature specifications

After a thorough examination of the data provided, some recurrent features which have been identified needed to be highlighted. Some of these features include:

### 4.2.1. Substitution of the relative pronoun “which” for “who”

In the data provided, there was recurrent substitution of the relative pronoun “which” for “who” in situations where the antecedent is not a person. It is important to point out here that

the relative pronoun “who” must point back only to an antecedent that denotes a person. In the same vein, the relative pronoun “which” points back to a noun phrase which denotes a thing or an animal. So, the substitution of the relative pronoun “which” for “who” to point to noun phrase that does not denote a person violates the phi-feature embedded in the Binding Theory Principle B as the examples below reveal.

(25) \*There are **animals who** only give birth...

(26) \*She can't come into the sitting room to discuss with her husband about a **debate who** is passing on television.

(27) \*The **pen who** writes best is missing.

(28) \*She broke the **knife who** is sharp.

(29) \*This is the **cat who** killed the rats.

In these sentences, the respondents employed the relative pronoun “who” to point back to things. This is a violation of the theory being used in this work as the pronoun ‘who’ should point back to people. Another feature specification is the substitution of the relative pronoun “who” for “which”.

#### 4.2.2 Substitution of the relative pronoun “who” for “which”.

There were recurrent cases in which the respondents used the relative pronoun “which” to establish an agreement with an antecedent noun phrase which denotes a person. This violates the agreement feature in the Binding Theory whereby the antecedent and the relative pronoun must tie to create meaning. Some of the samples found in the data include:

(30) \*The woman is considered **the person which** should stay in the kitchen.

(31) \***The man which** drives best has travelled.

(32) \***The teacher which** came here knows the principal.

In each of the above samples, the relative pronoun “which” is supposed to point back to things and not human beings but it is pointing back to human beings. Consequently, there is no agreement between each of the relative clause markers above and the antecedents because they do not co-refer.

However, it can be noted that EFL learners are quite aware of the presence of the relative pronouns “who” and “which” in the English language but have not got a mastery on how each of them is used. Hence, in the majority of instances provided in the data, the relative pronouns “who” and “which” and the antecedents they point back to do not usually co-refer. This phenomenon can be justified because there is no distinction in the French language between the relative pronouns “which” and “who”. The two are rendered in French discourse as “*qui*” (e.g., *Elle a cassé le couteau **qui** est tranchant. Voici le chat **qui** a tué les souris*). Consequently, the grammar of these learners of English is characterized by the transfer of the French parameter settings into the English language. That explains why they use the relative pronouns “who” and “which” interchangeably. This is a cause for concern with regard to the teaching and learning of this grammar point by EFL learners of English who have a French language background. Such structures are said come up as a result of negative transfer of knowledge by respondents from their L2 to the target language, the English Language in this case. The next feature specification is the substitution of some case forms for other case forms.

#### **4.2.3 Substitution of one case form for another case form**

The notion of case in grammar has to do with the syntactic functions of nouns in a sentence. There are three main cases in the English language: subjective, objective and genitive. The subject case denotes the subject of the verb or clause (e.g. This is the boy who stole the bicycle). In this example the relative pronoun “who” is the subject of the verb “stole”. The objective case denotes the object of a verb (e.g. This is the man whom we visited yesterday.) In this sentence, the relative pronoun “whom” is the object of the verb “visited”. A genitive case denotes possession (e.g. This is the boy whose father is a lawyer). In this case, the relative pronoun “whose” spells out the person whose father is a lawyer.

From the data emanating from the essay component of the test, it was noticed that the subject relative pronoun “who” is substituted for an object relative pronoun “whom” as the sample below illustrates.

(33) \*The **woman** is that **whom** knows better.

Equally, it was also observed that these respondents were more at ease using the relative pronoun “that” to substitute its counterparts such as “whom” and “which” as the following samples taken from the essay they have written illustrate:

(34) \*They don't care whether she wants **the husband that** they choose for her or not.

(35) \*There are **many accidents that** women experience in the kitchen.

This performance can be justified in the sense that the relative pronouns of the objective case (whom, which and that) in the English Language have just one main equivalent in the French language, that is "*que*", which is almost always, at the first glimpse, translated as 'that' in the English language.

Furthermore, in the Production Test, the substitution of one case form for another was recurrent as the tokens below illustrate.

(36) \*I love **the dress whose** my mother bought.

(37) \*Here is **the student whom** father is ill.

(38) \*This is **the cat whose** killed the rat.

(39) \*The teacher **whom** came here knows the principal.

(40) \*Mr Francis showed **the area whom** the accident took place.

In the first sample, there is the substitution of the object relative pronoun "which" for the genitive "whose". In the second sentence, there is the substitution of the genitive case relative pronoun "whose" for the object pronoun "whom". In the third sentence, the subject relative pronoun "which" is substituted for the genitive "whose". In the fourth sentence, the subject relative pronoun "who" is substituted for the objective case form relative pronoun "whom". In the fifth sentence, the relative adverb "where" is substituted for the object case relative pronoun "whom". This observation could be considered an indicator that learners in the French sub-system of education have little or no knowledge about the relative pronouns "whom" and "whose".

#### **4.2.4 Substitution of the relative pronoun "who" for "that" in non-defining relative clauses**

As mentioned earlier above, it was observed in the data collected that, apparently, respondents felt more comfortable with the relative pronoun "that" and tended to use it much more often than the others. The question this observation arouses is whether the substitution of the relative pronouns (which, who) for "that" is possible in every situation. This question brings



to the limelight the notion of defining and non-defining relative clauses. In linguistic literature, it is spelt out that the relative clause marker ‘that’ is only valid for restrictive or defining relative clauses; that is, to introduce relative clauses which are essential to the sentence. Despite the preceding stipulation, it was noticed in the data provided by the respondents that they do not respect this principle. Hence, they tend to employ the relative pronoun “that” in non-defining relative clauses as the sample below illustrates

(41) \*Some neighbours, **that** stay around them, help when they are not around.

Here, we realize that the relative clause, [that stay around them], is a non-defining relative clause because it can be taken out without truncating the meaning of the sentence. This is because the main idea here is that “neighbours help when they are not around”. Hence, such a clause is not supposed to be introduced by the relative clause marker ‘that’ but the relative pronoun ‘who’.

#### **4.2.5 Substitution of the relative adverbs “where” and “when” for the relative pronoun “that”**

What is equally recurrent in the data is the substitution of the relative adverbs “where” and “when” for the relative pronoun “that” as the following tokens extracted from the data illustrate:

(42) \*Let us go to **a place that** we can relax.

(43) \*Sheila wasn’t present at **the time that** the class started.

(44) \*The kitchen is **the place that** the women prepare to eat.

In sentences (42) and (44) above, the relative pronoun “that” has been used in the place of the relative adverb “where”; and in the sentence (43), “that” has been used in the place of the relative adverb “when”.

#### **4.2.6 Novel syntactic features**

A diligent perusal of the written production of the students enabled the identification of some novel syntactic features. Some of these novel syntactic features extracted from the free writing component of the production test include:

(45) \*The **woman is that whom** knows better.

(33) \*We have **women whose** are colonel.

(46) \*The kitchen is **the place at the home when** the woman prepares food.

(47) \*The kitchen is **the place which** the woman cooks food for the family.

(48) \*Their **priority is when** to not have anything in mind.

It is a little difficult to say with certainty what accounts for the production of such utterances by these learners of English. This is proof of poor mastering of the language system and the grammatical point concerned. Hence, a major call for concerned as it raises pedagogical issues.

### **4.3 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented and analysed the data obtained and recorded them in tables as well as illustrated or better presented the percentages with the aid if bar charts. The tables recorded the number of instances in setting and not setting the input-oriented feature specifications of Binding theory Principle B. Besides analyzing and presenting the statistics in tables and graphs and discussing them, the chapter also discusses the feature specifications identified in the learners' grammar.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, PEDAGOGIC RELEVANCE AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of findings, pedagogic relevance of the study, recommendations, suggestion for further research and conclusion.

#### 5.1 Summary of findings

After a thorough perusal of the corpus provided as data for this study, a good number of features, which do not tie with the parameter settings of the input-oriented specifications of Principle B of the Binding Theory, could be identified.

Generally, it was observed that respondents have an issue using the right pronoun that co-indexes with the antecedent of the relative clause marker. They come up with structures such as:

\*She broke the **knife who** is sharp.

\***The teacher which** came here knows the principal.

\*Here is **the student whom** father is ill.

\*Mr. Francis showed **the area whom** the accident took place.

These structures violate the conditions of pronominal expressions as stipulated by Binding Theory Principle B. The relative clause markers, that is, the relative pronouns which begin the relative clauses, in the sentences above do not co-index with the antecedent. In the first sample, the relative pronoun “who” which marks the relative clause (**who** is sharp) co-refers with the antecedent NP “knife” but does not co-index with it. The relative pronoun “who” co-refers with the antecedent NP “knife” because it points back to the antecedent NP “knife” in this context. However, it violates the phi-feature of person because the relative pronoun “who” points back to a human being and not to a thing. Therefore, in the case of the first sample above, the antecedent NP “Knife” and the relative clause marker “who” do not co-index. Hence the sentence is ungrammatical.

In the second sample, the relative pronoun “which” which marks the relative clause (**which** came here knows the principal) co-refers with the antecedent NP “the teacher” but

violates the condition of the phi-feature of person. With regard to the relative pronoun “which”, the antecedent could be a thing or an animate which is not a person. Consequently, the antecedent NP “the teacher” and the relative pronoun “which” which points back to the NP “the teacher” for its interpretation do not co-index because they do not agree with the phi-feature of person.

In the third sample, the relative pronoun “whom” which begins the relative clause (**whom** father is ill) is out of place as it does not neither co-refer nor co-index with the antecedent NP “the student”. Hence, the sample is ungrammatical because it does not meet the phi-features of the Binding Theory Principle B. This applies to the fourth and last sample given above whereby the relative clause marker “whom” and the antecedent NP do not neither co-refer nor co-index.

Besides these general findings, there are some specific features which have been identified in the data provided and which need to be highlighted here. These features include substitution of the relative pronoun “which” for “who”.

The data provided showed a recurrent substitution of the relative pronoun “which” for “who” in situations where the antecedent is not a person. For example,

\*She can’t come into the sitting room to discuss with her husband about a **debate who** is passing on television.

The relative pronoun “who” in this case does not co-index with its antecedent NP “the debate”. Hence, there is violation of the conditions of Principle B of the Binding Theory. Another feature specification is the substitution of the relative pronoun “who” for “which”.

Respondents used the relative pronoun “which” to establish an agreement with an antecedent noun phrase which denotes a person (e.g, The woman is considered **the person which** should stay in the kitchen). In this sample, the relative pronoun “which” which is supposed to point back to things and not human beings is pointing back to human beings. Consequently, there is no agreement between the relative clause marker and the antecedent because they do not co-refer. This structure violates the agreement feature in the Binding Theory whereby the antecedent and the relative pronoun must tie to create meaning. Though this phenomenon can be justified because there is no distinction in the French language between the relative pronouns “which” and “who” which are rendered in French discourse as

“qui”, it is important to emphasize here that French and English do not have the same parameter settings. What is noted here is that there seems to be negative transfer of the French parameter settings into the English language. This explains why they use the relative pronouns “who” and “which” interchangeably. This is a call for concern with regard to pedagogy and the designing of instructional materials to meet the need of the learners. The next feature specification is the substitution of a case form for another case form.

It is evidently clear that, the notion of case in grammar has to do with the syntactic functions of nouns in a sentence. From the data gathered, it has been noticed that the subject relative pronoun “who” is substituted for an object relative pronoun “whom” in some cases (e.g. \* The **woman is that whom** knows better.) and in some others the relative pronoun “that” substitutes its counterparts “whom” and “which” (e.g., “\*They don’t care whether she wants **the husband that** they choose for her or not”. “\*There are **many accidents that** women experience in the kitchen”). This phenomenon is also an aspect of negative transfer from the learners’ first official language (French) into English language. This is evidenced by the fact that English objective case relative pronouns (whom, which and that) are rendered in French discourse as “*que*”. Hence, the respondents have taken over this parameter setting into the English language. Other case forms that have been substituted include the substitution of the object relative pronoun “which” for the genitive case “whose” (e.g., \*I love **the dress whose** my mother bought); the substitution of the genitive case “whose” for the objective relative pronoun “whom” (e.g., \*Here is **the student whom** father is ill); the substitution of the subject relative pronoun “who” for the genitive case “whose” (e.g., We have women **whose** are colonel.); and the substitution of the subject relative adverb “where” for the object relative pronoun “whom” (\*Mr. Francis showed **the area whom** the accident took place). Besides the above-stated features, another glaring feature that is identified in the data provided is the substitution of the relative pronoun “who” for “that” in non-defining relative clauses

Findings from the data provided reveal that respondents substitute the relative pronouns “which” and “who” for the relative pronoun “that” in both defining and non-defining relative clauses. It is healthy to recall here that the relative clause marker ‘that’ is only valid for restrictive or defining relative clauses. Despite this stipulation, it was noticed in the data provided that respondents employ the relative pronoun “that” in non-defining relative clauses (e.g, \*Some neighbours, **that** stay around them, help when they are not around). In this

example, the relative clause, [that stay around them], is a non-defining relative clause because it can be taken out without truncating the meaning of the sentence. This is because the main idea here is that “neighbours help when they are not around”. In such a case, the relative pronoun “that” cannot substitute the relative pronoun “who”. This could be as a result of the fact that the relative clause marker ‘that’ is a general purpose relative pronoun used irrespective of gender or case (Quirk *et al.*, 1973). In the same vein, the substitution of the relative adverb “where” for the relative pronoun “that” is another salient finding.

Respondents recurrently produced structures whereby the relative adverbs (where and when) are substituted for relative pronoun “that” (e.g., \**“Let us go to a place that we can relax”*; \**“Sheila wasn’t present at the time that the class started”*).

In terms of syntactic features, a novelty is noticed in the free writing component of the production test. Some of these novel syntactic features extracted from the free writing component include: \**The woman is that whom knows better*; \**We have women whose are colonel*; \**The kitchen is the place at the home when the woman prepares food*; \**The kitchen is the place which the woman cooks food for the family*; and \**Their priority is when to not have anything in mind*. It is a little difficult to say with certainty what accounts for the production of such utterances by these learners of English. This is proof of poor mastering of the language system and the grammatical point concerned. Hence, a major call for concern as it raises pedagogical issues.

In a nutshell, it was noticed that EFL learners present a variety of strange features as far as the use of relative clauses and the mastery of antecedent agreement are concerned. When it comes to the use of relative clause markers, these learners project a range of features which do not tie with those of the Principle B of the Binding Theory.

## 5.2. Pedagogic relevance

This research does not in any way intend to remain a common secular one. Its aim is to have an impact on pedagogy and to improve the handling of relative pronouns and relative clauses in the EFL context. This work has its place in the sense that it presents a problem that is pertinent and frequent with francophone learners of English. This work is not out to complain about the feature specifications of EFL learners as far as relative clause markers and antecedent agreement are concerned; rather, it presents cardinal aspects that are to be considered in a bid to improve the performance of learners in this domain and in English as a

whole. It sheds more light on the possible origins of these deviant features (such as negative transfer from the L2 of the learners to the target language and little mastery of the notion of relative clause markers), bringing about the possibility of tackling the problem from its roots. This piece of work, therefore, intends to bring about a revolution and/or an improvement as regards the teaching and learning of relative pronouns and relative clauses to and by learners of English in the French sub-system of education. This is because it will arouse the awareness of English language teachers to the need of tailoring their teaching of this language point in order to enable this group of learners come up with utterances which conform to the parameters of Binding Theory Principle B and meet the parameter settings of Standard British English. With regard to the foregoing discussion, there is a need to come up with some recommendations.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

Kaplan (1966) states that the learning of a particular language is the mastering of its logical system and the foreign student is out of focus, because he is employing a rhetoric and a sequence of thought which violates the expectation of a native speaker. Kaplan is in essence saying that non-native learners of a language adopt feature specifications that do not meet the expectation of a typical native mind. Hence, there is a need to make recommendations to the different stakeholders in education. These recommendations aim at contributing to the improvement of EFL learners' performance in the English language in particular and non-native learners of English in general.

#### **5.3.1 Recommendations to educational authorities**

It is believed that decision makers play a vital role in fostering educational and language policies. Consequently, it is recommended that the position that English Language is given in the French sub-system of education be revisited. English language learning in particular and French and English languages learning should be made obligatory in the strict sense of it. That is, they should be subjects that all must pass in all examinations. Furthermore, a lot of sensitization should be done as far as the importance of being bilingual is concerned. This will go in line with Mbangwana's (2004) argument that the integrative motivation the government has provided so far will be more fruitful only when it is preceded by instrumental motivation which provides material incentives. Individuals should be shown what they will personally gain if they become bilingual. This is to say that, if learners have at the back of their minds

that they have something, in fact so much to gain from English, they will pay more attention when it comes to learning this language.

Furthermore, inspectors should be sent to the field more often; not only to check the assiduity of the teachers but also to get to interact with the learners and find out their difficulties. They could also do this by giving short and brief impromptu tests on what should have been covered already on the programme at the time of their visit. This way, the teachers will automatically take their teaching more seriously and the learners will always be somehow more keen and ready. This can be quite demanding but is also quite possible.

In addition, it is no news that the problem of overcrowded classrooms is a very crucial one especially when it comes to language teaching. Not only does it make it so difficult, if not impossible, for some language exercises to be appropriately carried out, but it also makes it difficult for the teacher to be able to adequately follow up each learner. No wonder the performance in the Special Bilingual *Première* class was plausible. From the outset, that is, from *Sixième*, there are just sixty students in each Special Bilingual class. And now in *Première* they are just a little above twenty because some of them have gone to the science classes. Here, the teacher/student ratio is a very good one and this has enabled adequate follow up. Sixty students per class is supposed to be the normal enrolment as stipulated by the rules and regulations in force. But we sometimes find this number being doubled in a single classroom. There is need to foster the respect of the texts in force.

### **5.3.2 Recommendations to school authorities**

School authorities have the responsibility to encourage and motivate learners in the learning of English Language. They need to come up with language laboratory in order to encourage and motivate learners in the learning and speaking of the two official languages (French & English). Also, libraries need to be made up of enough interesting and appealing material in English in order to arouse students' interest. Time could be set aside for each class under the supervision of their teachers to do extensive reading. This will entail borrowing a book from the library reading it and making a little summary that will be presented to the teacher or even the entire class. In this way, learners are more in contact with the language. Also, school authorities should organize competitions in each of the classes with genuine and attractive rewards to winners. This will go a long way to encourage team work in the various classes as the learners shall take up the challenge to work hard in order to win the competition.



Beautiful, attractive and interesting posters in English should also be put up everywhere on the school campus. This keeps the learners unconsciously in contact with the language. In addition, English clubs should be created and the activities of these clubs should be made attractive to entice the students

### **5.3.3 Recommendations to the teachers**

Teachers have it as a duty, not only to provide the learners with short term motivation (getting them interested in the lesson of the day) but also with long term motivation (getting the learners interested in the language in general). When learners are motivated, it makes the teaching/learning process easier as learners do not take anything for granted and would not want to let any detail concerning the grammar of the language pass them by. Also, teachers should check how well their students have understood grammatical rules and should frequently encourage them to initiate requests for clarification. Widdowson (1981) strongly believes that this can be done through constant practice. Moreover, teachers should be able to, at every point in time, do a contrastive analysis between the French language and the English language. For instance, in teaching the relative pronouns, the teacher should do a contrastive analysis between the English “who” and “which” and the French “*qui*” as well as the English relative object relative pronouns (whom, which, that) and the French “*que*”. Also, teachers should embark on form-focused, meaning-focused, and function-focused instructions. This will enable the learners of English in general and the learning of relative pronouns to develop autonomy and acquire linguistic competence (knowledge of form and meaning) and communicative competence (knowledge of form, meaning and function).

### **5.3.4 Recommendations to learners**

Learners are the target and the sole purpose for which researches of this sort are carried out. Consequently, they have to be seriously implicated as far as learning the language is concerned. While every other thing is being put at their disposal, they have to get themselves actively involved in constructing their own knowledge. This goes from being attentive in class to putting in personal extra effort after classes. They are encouraged to use games in the learning of English as well as follow-up programmes in English on television and radio. They have to take part actively in extensive reading in order to develop autonomy through transformation of input into intake.

### **5.3.5 Recommendations to course book writers**

Course book writers are called upon to integrate learning activities which lay emphasis on the form, meaning and the function of every language point that is presented. This will enable learners to acquire linguistic and communicative competence. They should equally come up with activities in their books which will enable English language learners to practise the input and transform it to intake.

### **5.3.6 Recommendations to parents**

The impact of parents on the education of their children is quite a great one. They can make the learner work by following him or her up and by challenging the latter with situations that need them to make use of English. Parents should provide their children with great exposure to the English language. Apart from getting the main course book and encouraging their children to use it, they should also get other material in English and challenge their children to go through them as often as possible. They should equally make their children watch and listen to programmes in English. Children can also be registered in linguistic centres by their parents in order to keep them constantly in contact with the language and to get them improve upon their proficiency in the language.

### **5.3.7. Recommendations to linguistic centres**

Linguistic centres can be quite instrumental as far as the quality of grammar produced by a learner is concerned. The problem is, how affordable are the classes in these centres? Hence, they are called upon to deliver intensive courses at an affordable fee.

## **5.4. Suggestion for further research**

The present research cannot in any way claim to be exhaustive. Its major focus was on the use of relative clause markers and antecedent agreement in EFL grammar. The evaluation and collection of data was based on the written productions of the respondents. This means that speaking was not considered and the latter could equally reveal quite interesting results. Furthermore, this research took as case study or sample population students of *Première*. A correlation study can be carried out in order to find out whether some sociolinguistic variables have an impact on the use of the relative clause marker.

## **5.5. Conclusion**

This study has investigated relative clause markers and antecedent agreement in the written productions of EFL learners: The case of *Première* students in three schools in Yaounde. The

outcome of the production test administered to the respondents presents a variety of structures unknown to native speakers of English, making EFL grammar deviant. The work has highlighted features which characterize the learners' grammar. Some of these features were as a result of transference of the French language parameter settings into the English language as well as the poor mastery of the use of the relative clause marker. This is a call for concern with regard to pedagogy. Hence, some recommendations have been postulated to the different stakeholders in education.

## REFERENCES

- Akmajian, A. *et al.* (2001). *An Introduction to Language and Communication*. London: Michigan Institute of Technology Press.
- Abui-Odjémé, M. (2014). Syntactic Novelty in EFL Grammar: The Case of Second Cycle Students in *Lycée de Tsinga*. DIPES II Dissertation, ENS Yaounde University of Yaounde 1.
- Andrews, D. (1971). *Studies in the Syntax of Relative and Comparative Clauses*. PhD Thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Biloa, E. (2004). *Le Cours de Linguistique Contemporaine*. Munich: LINCOM Europa.
- Biloa, E. and Kamtueng, L. (2011). English Language and the Expression of the Cameroonian Sociocultural Identity in the Cameroonian Novel of English Expression. In *Annales de la Faculté des Arts, Lettres et Sciences Humaines*, 1(13), 127-154.
- Bresnan, J. (2001). *Lexical – Functional Syntax*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Büring, D. (2005). *Binding Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bussman, H. (1996). *Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Chia, E. (1983). Cameroon Home Languages. In *A Sociolinguistic Profile of Urban Centres in Cameroon*, 19-32.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1977). On *Wh*-Movement. In *Formal Syntax*, 71-132.
- Chomsky, N. (1981). *Lectures on Government and Binding*. Dordrecht: Foris Publications.
- Chomsky, N. (2000). Minimalist Inquiries: The Framework. In *Step by Step: Essays on Minimalist Syntax in Honor of Howard Lasnik*, 89-155.
- Chomsky, N. (2002). *Syntactic Structures*. Berlin: Werner Hildebrand.
- Cramer, R. (1984). *Language: Structure and Use*. Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company.

- Crystal, D. (1992). *Introducing Linguistics*. California: Penguin English.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Malden: Blackwell Publishing.
- Crystal, D. (2000). On Trying to be Crystal-Clear: A Response to Philipson. In *Applied Linguistics*, 21(3), 415-421.
- De Villiers, J. *et al.* (1979). Children's Comprehension of Relative Clauses. In *Journal of Psycholinguistic Studies*, 8(5), 499-518.
- Echu, G. (2003). Multilingualism as a Resource: the Lexical Appropriation of Cameroon Indigenous Languages by English and French. A Paper Presented at the International Colloquium on *The Culture of Dialogue and Peace: The Cameroonian Model*, University of Buea, Cameroon.
- Epoge, N. (2012). Anaphoric Expressions of EFL Speakers in Cameroon. In *International Journal of Linguistics*, 4(2), 274-287.
- Epoge, N. (2012). Reflexive Anaphora in VP – Elliptical Sentences of ESL Learners in Cameroon. In *Syllabus Review*, 3(1), 257 – 279.
- Epoge, N. (2015). Complex Sentences with Embedded Relative Clause: Processing the Subject and Object NPs by ESL Learners in Cameroon. In *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Translation Studies (IJELR)*, 2(1), 81-91.
- Falk, Y. (2009). On the Syntactic Analysis of Relative clauses. Research Paper, Department of English, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem.
- Fatemi, M. (2008). The Relationship between Writing Competence, Language Proficiency and Grammatical Errors in the Writing of Iranian TEFL Sophomores. PhD Thesis, Universiti Sains Malaysia.
- Fodor, J. (1995). Comprehending Sentence Structure. In *Language: An Invitation to Cognitive Science*, 1(2), 209-246.
- Frazier, L. (1987). Sentence Processing: A Tutorial Review. In *Attention and Performance*, XII, 559-586.

- Frazier, L. and Clifton, C. (1989). Successive Cyclicity in the Grammar and the Parser. In *Language and Cognitive Processes*, 28, 331-344.
- Gair, J. (1981). Ambiguity is no Relative Matter or How Do You Treat Your Doubtful Relatives? In *Studies in Honor of Charles F. Hockett*, 128-146.
- Graddol, D. (1994). *The Future of English?* London: the British Council.
- Haegeman, L. (1994). *Introduction to Government and Binding Theory*. Malden Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers Inc.
- Hawkins, R. (2001). *Second Language Syntax: A Generative Introduction*. Oxford. Blackwell.
- Hewings, M. (2001). *Advanced Grammar in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hosker, I. (2002). *Social Statistics: Data Analysis in Social Sciences Explained*. Plymouth: College of St Mark and St John Press.
- Jirka, H. *et al.* (2011). A Low Budget Tagger for Old Czech. In Proceedings of the 5<sup>th</sup> ACL- HLT Workshop on Language and Technology, Social Sciences and Humanities, Portland, USA.
- Kaplan, R. (1966). Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education. In *Language Learning*, 16(1), 1-120.
- Kuno, S. (1975). Super Equi-NP Deletion is a Pseudo-Transformation. In *NELS*, 5, 29-44.
- Mbangwana, P. (2004). Cameroon Nationhood and Official Bilingualism: A Linguistic Juxtaposition?. In *Revue Internationale des Arts, Lettres et Sciences Sociales*, 1 (1), 13-36.
- McDonald, M. *et al.* (1994). The Lexical Nature of Syntactic Ambiguity Resolution. In *Psychological Review*, 101, 676-703.
- Mellow, J. (2006). *The Emergence of Second Language Syntax: A Case Study of the Acquisition of Relative Clauses*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Microsoft Word (2010). *Grammaire et Orthographe*. Microsoft.

- Montag, J. and McDonald, M. (2009). Word Order Doesn't Matter: Relative Clause Production in English and Japanese. Proceedings of the 31<sup>st</sup> Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society.
- Nworgu, B. (1991). Educational Research: Basic Issues and Methodology. Oweri: Kisdom Publisher Ltd.
- Pollard, C. and Sag, I. (1994). *Head Driven Phrase Structure Grammar*. Standford, Calif: CSLI Publications.
- Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1985). *A University Grammar of English*. Essex: Longman.
- Quirk, R. *et al.* (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. New York: Longman.
- Radford, A. (2006). *Minimalist Syntax: Exploring the Structure of English (Revisited)*. Essex: Cambridge.
- Reeve, M. (2007). Relatives and Pronouns in English Cleft Construction. In *UCL Working Papers in Linguistics*, 19, 157-182.
- Reuland, E. (2001). Primitives of Binding. In *Linguistic Inquiry*, 32, 439-492.
- Richards, J. *et al.* (1992). *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Shukyn, M. *et al.* (2015). *Cliffnotes GED Test Cram Plan*. Houghton Mifflin: Harcourt Publishing Company.
- Staub, A. (2010). Eye Movements and Processing Difficulty in Object Relative Clauses. In *Cognition*, 116, 71-86.
- Task, R.L. and Stockwell, P. (2007). *Language and Linguistics: Key Concepts*. New York: Routledge.
- Thomson, A. and Martinet, V. (1986). *A Practical Grammar in English*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Traugott, E. (1972). *A History of English and Syntax*. New York: Holt, R & W.

Traxler, M. *et al.* (2002). Processing Subject and Object relative Clauses: Evidence from Eye Movements. In *Journal of Memory and Language*, 47, 69-90.

Tse, P. and Hyland, K. (2010). Claiming a Territory: Relative Clauses in Journal Descriptions. In *Journal of Pragmatics*, 42, 1880-1889.

Valin, R. (2001). *An Introduction to Syntax*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1981). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.



**APPENDIX 1**  
**PRODUCTION TEST**

**NAME:**.....**CLASS:**.....**DATE:**.....

**INSTRUCTIONS: ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS**

**A- Join each of the following sentence pairs using one of the following: who, which, whom, whose, that, where, when.**

- 1- I love the dress. My mother bought it.  
.....
- 2- The man drives best. He has travelled.  
.....
- 3- Here is the student. His father is ill.  
.....
- 4- That is the lady. I gave her the book.  
.....
- 5- I don't know the time. The boss usually leaves.  
.....
- 6- The pen writes best. It is missing.  
.....
- 7- Let us go to a place. We can relax.  
.....

**B- Fill in each of the blanks using the appropriate relative pronoun or adverb.**

- 1- The pen .....I want is not here.
- 2- She broke the knife..... is sharp.
- 3- This is the man ..... daughter is travelling to London.
- 4- The girl .....has the bag has left.
- 5- Peter has been sent to the place .....he was born.
- 6- Can't you remember the person.....he recommended?
- 7- Sheila wasn't present at the time.....the class started.

**C- Complete each of the following sentences with a correct word chosen from the list provided in the brackets.**

- 1- The teacher.....came here knows the principal. (which, who, whom)
- 2- Diallo saw the hen .....chicks are missing. (whose, which, who's)
- 3- The lady to.....the prize was given threw a party. (who, whom, which)
- 4- This is the cat.....killed the rats. (which, who, whose)
- 5- Mr. Francis showed the area.....the accident occurred. (whom, where, which)
- 6- Here is the car.....belongs to the police. (who, which, who's)

**D- Essay Writing**

The woman's place is in the kitchen.