

**RELATIVIZATION IN STANDARD YORÙBÁ: A GOVERNMENT
AND BINDING APPROACH**

BY

**BULIAMINU ODUNAYO KAREEMAT
ART2000519**

**DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
UNIVERSITY OF BENIN
BENIN CITY**

JANUARY, 2025

**RELATIVIZATION IN STANDARD YORÙBÁ: A GOVERNMENT
AND BINDING APPROACH**

BY

BULIAMINU ODUNAYO KAREEMAT

ART2000519

**A PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF
LINGUISTICS STUDIES, FACULTY OF ART, UNIVERSITY OF
BENIN, BENIN CITY, EDO STATE, NIGERIA. IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF
BACHELOR OF ARTS (B.A) DEGREE IN LINGUISTICS STUDIES**

JANUARY, 2025

CERTIFICATION

I, **BULIAMINU ODUNAYO KAREEMAT** a student in the Department of Linguistics and African Languages, University of Benin, with Matriculation number **ART2000519** has completed the requirements for coursework and research for the Bachelor of Arts Degree of the University of Benin. The work embodied in this project is original and has not been submitted in part or whole for any other degree or diploma programme of this or any other university or institution.

BULIAMINU ODUNAYO KAREEMAT
(Author)

DATE

DR. A.E. IDEH
(Project supervisor)

DATE

PROF. M.S. AGBO
(Head of Department)

DATE

External Examiner

DATE

PLAGIARISM CERTIFICATION

I, **BULIAMINU ODUNAYO KAREEMAT**, with Matriculation Number **ART2000519** declare that this work titled "**“RELATIVIZATION IN STANDARD YORÙBÁ: A GOVERNMENT AND BINDING APPROACH”**" has successfully passed the anti-plagiarism test (with a score of 17_%) and so does not violate any copyright regulations.

Sign:

BULIAMINU ODUNAYO KAREEMAT

DATE

DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to God Almighty for His unfailing love, grace, provision, protection, favour, mercies and wisdom upon me throughout the course of this project.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express our profound gratitude to God Almighty for his love, grace, wisdom, protection and provision during the course of research and writing this project.

My profound gratitude goes to my supervisor, Dr. A.E. Ideh for her support and guidance. My special thanks go to the Head of Department (Language and Linguistics), Prof.M. S. Agbo, and Late Dr W.I Aighedo, my special thanks also goes to all Linguistics Lecturers, non-teaching staffs and all my informants, who contributed to the success as well, God bless you all.

To my exceptional parents, Mr. & Mrs. Buliaminu, my siblings, my friends and well-wishers who continue to love and support me through my days of academic exercise in this institution. I am sincerely grateful for your unquenchable love, endurance and support, God will continually bless and keep you all. Amen.

Finally, to all others whom i could not mention due to space limitation that might have contributed directly or indirectly to the successful completion of this work i appreciate you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title page	i
Certification	iii
Plagiarism certification	iv
Dedication	v
Acknowledgement	vi
Table of Contents	vii
Abbreviations	xi
Abstract	xiii

CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND OF STUDY

1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Language of study	2
1.2 Statement of Research problem	5
1.3 purpose of the study	5

1.3.1 Aim and Objectives	6
1.3.2 Research Questions	6
1.4 Methodology	7
1.5 Scope of Research	7
1.6 Significance of study.	8

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction	10
2.1. Conceptual Review	10
2.1.1. Syntax	10
2.1.2 Syntactic process	11
2.1.3.1 Embedding	12
2.1.3.2 Movement	13
2.1.4 Relativization	14
2.1.4.1 Subject Relativization	15
2.1.4.2 Object Relativization	15
2.1.4.3 Genitive Relativization	16

2.1.5 Relative clause	17
2.1.5.1 Restrictive relative clause	19
2.1.5.2 Non-restrictive relative clause	19
2.1.6 Relativizer	20
2.1.6.1 Relative pronouns	20
2.1.6.2 Relative Adverbs	23
2.2 Previous study	24
2.3 Present study	29
CHAPTER THREE; THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK	
3.0 Introduction	31
3.1 Theoretical Application and Orientation	31
3.1.1 X-bar Theory	37
3.1.2 Move Alpha	41
3.1.3 Theta Theory	43
3.2 Theoretical Application to the current study	46
3.3 Summary	47

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction	48
4.1 Data Presentation and Analysis	48
4.1.1 Noun phrase Accessibility Hierarchy	49
4.1.1.1 Subject position	49
4.1.1.2 Direct Object position	53
4.1.1.3 Indirect Object position	56
4.1.1.4 Genitive position	60
4.1.1.5 Oblique position	63
4.1.2 Types of Relative clause	67
4.1.2.1 Restrictive Relative clause	67
4.1.2.2 Non-restrictive Relative clause.	71

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction	75
5.1 Findings	75
5.2 Conclusion	77

ABBREVIATIONS

ADJP	Adjectival phrase
ADVP	Adverbial phrase
ART	Article
DET	Determiner
COMP	Complementizer
CP	Complementizer phrase
CY	Central Yoruba
FOC	Focus construction
FUT	Future tense
GB	Government and Binding
IP	Inflectional phrase
NEY	North-Eastern Yoruba
NEG	Negation
NP	Noun phrase
NWY	North-Western Yoruba
PL	Plural marker
PP	Prepositional Phrase

PREP	Preposition
PROG	Progressive aspect
PY	Proto-Yoruboid
PRO	Pronoun
SEY	South-Eastern Yoruba
SPEC	Specifier
SWY	South-Western Yoruba
RCM	Relative Clause marker
RSP	Resumptive pronoun
REL	Relativizer
1SG.	First person singular
3SG.	Third person singular
1PL.	First person plural
3PL.	Third person plural
+TNS.	Plus Tense
+AGR.	Plus Agreement

ABSTRACT

This Study examines the phenomenon of relativisation in Standard Yorùbá, spoken in Oyo state , a South-Western region in Nigeria.. This Research employ the Government and Binding Theory of the principles and parameters approach to provide a comprehensive analysis for the derivation of relative constructions in Standard Yorùbá, because attention has not yet been paid to it. Using the X-bar theory, Theta theory and NP Movement (of the Move-Alpha) of this model, we seek to account for the different NP positions accessible to Relativization in this language of study, and the types of relative clauses. The data for this study is elicited from by adult native speakers ranging from 20-50 and intuition from the researcher. This study reveals that Subject NP positions, Direct object NP position, Indirect object NP position, Genitive NP position, and Oblique NP position of simple sentences are relativized to derive relative clauses. The Subject NP Relativization is achieved by a movement of the Spec IP, to the Spec Rel IP (Subject raising construction), and the extraction site is never empty because the Resumptive pronoun 'ó' fills the slot. Direct object NP Relativization is achieved by moving the NP argument (the direct object) to the Spec, Rel IP. The Indirect object NP Relativization is achieved by moving the NP argument (the Indirect object) to the Spec, Rel IP. The Genitive NP Relativization is achieved by moving the possessor (the Genitive qualifier) to the Spec, Rel IP, and the extraction site is never empty because the Possessive pronoun 'rè' fills the slot. The Oblique NP Relativization is achieved by moving the NP argument (the object of the Preposition), to the Spec, Rel IP. The extraction site for Direct object NP position, Indirect object NP position, and the Oblique NP position is always empty because no pronominal replacives occurs at the extraction site. Standard Yorùbá restrictive relative clauses acts as modifier, while Non-restrictive relative clauses are not because they do not modify the antecedent and have no syntactic relation to its*

host/antecedent. We also discovered that despite transformation, the theta roles assigned to the NPs remains unchanged. The research demonstrates that relativization in Standard Yoruba can be systematically analyzed using GB theory.

KEY WORDS: *Relativization, Relative clauses, relative clause marker, NP movement, Spec, Rel IP, trace.*

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Relativization is a frequent occurrence in natural language, which plays a crucial role in defining noun phrase qualities. But the syntactic mechanisms via which it is formed differ greatly throughout languages (Omoruyi, 1989:137). Relativization is a fundamental syntactic process that allows for the modification of nouns by embedding clauses within sentences.

In the context of Standard Yorùbá, a major language spoken in Nigeria and parts of West Africa, relativization plays a crucial role in the structure and meaning of sentences. This

linguistic feature enables speakers to provide additional information about a noun, thereby enhancing the descriptive richness of the language. Standard Yorùbá employs specific markers and strategies to achieve relativization. Olarenwaju (2017), states that, Standard Yorùbá Language employs two types of relativization strategies, as postulated by Keenan and Comrie (1977), which he called the "Case coding strategy", and the "Non-case coding strategy". He further states that Case may be coded by means of; resumptive pronouns, possessive pronouns, and stranded prepositions, while when they lack these, the case is non-coded.

Bamgbose (1967; 1975a; 1975b) and Awobuluyi (1975; 1978) work on relative clause in Yorùbá and its dialects. These two scholars independently explain that a relative clause is derived from a simple sentence and it is used to qualify a noun.

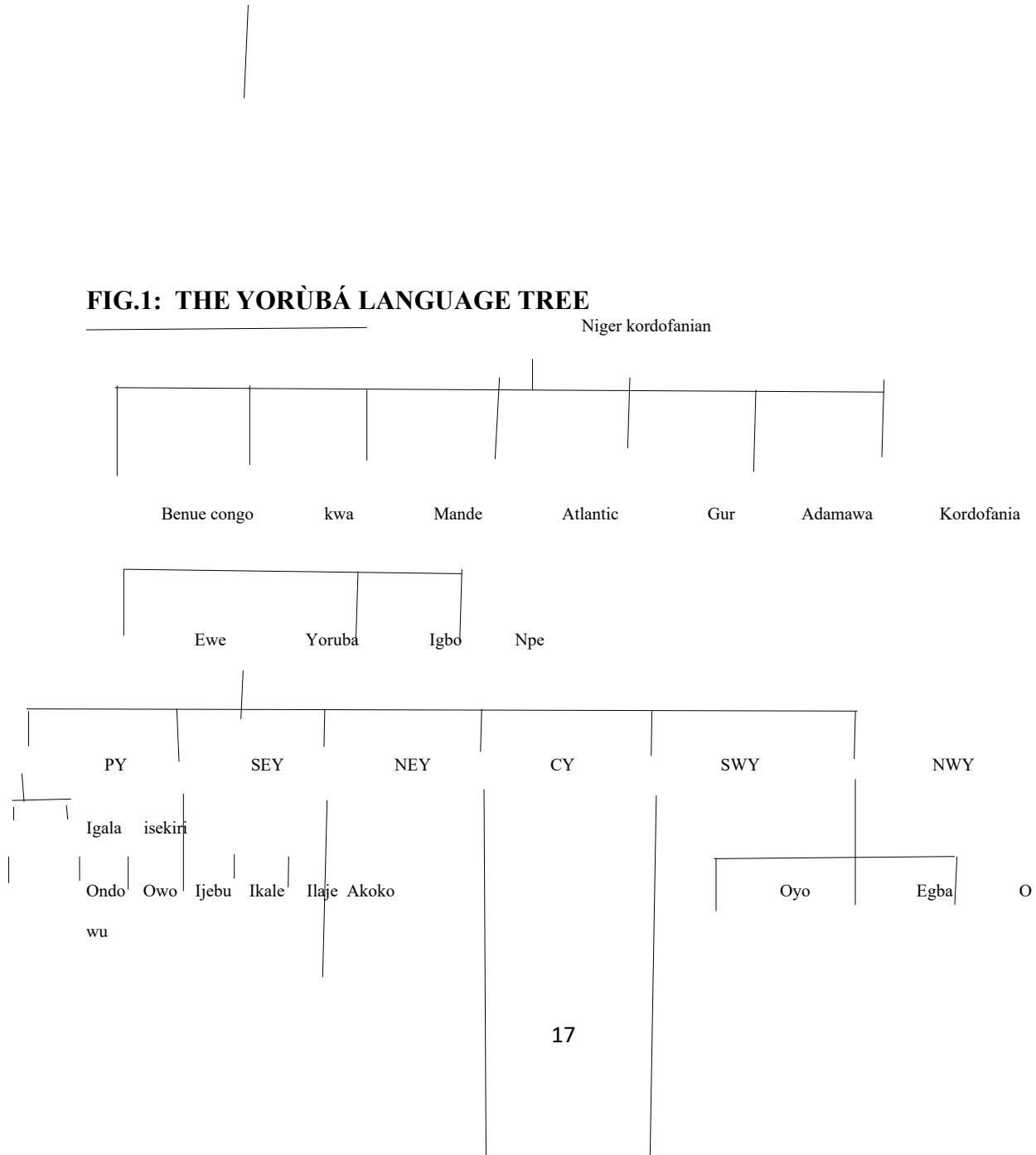
Through a detailed analysis of examples and existing literature, this study will highlight the complexities and nuances of relativization in Yorùbá, offering a comprehensive overview of this essential linguistic phenomenon.

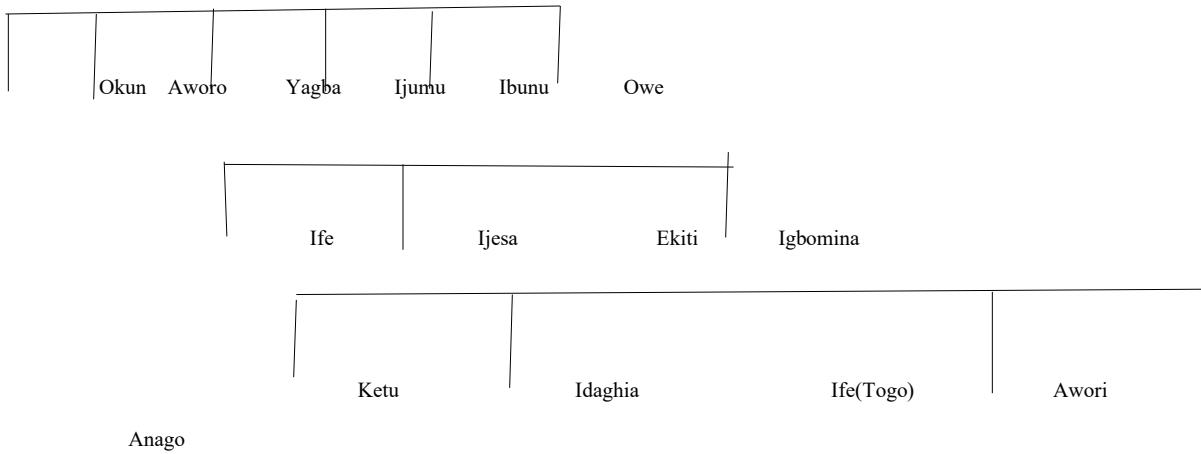
1.1 THE LANGUAGE OF STUDY

The Yorùbá language belongs to the West Benue-Congo of the Niger-Congo phylum of African languages (Williamson and Blench 2000: 31). According to Obayemi (1976:200). Yorùbá language belongs to the Kwa subgroup, in a broader classification known as the Niger–Congo (or Nigritic) family of languages.

Yorùbá is one of the three National languages in Nigeria alongside Hausa and Igbo. The Yoruba people who occupy the Southwest of Nigeria number around 30 million (Oyetade, 2011). According to Oyetade (2007:170) : The Yorùbá language is the major language spoken in the six states that constitute the Southwest – Lagos, Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Ekiti, and Osun – and it is easy to be oblivious of the other languages attested in the area because they are minority languages, their speakers equally proficient in Yorùbá. It need be stated that outside the South-west region, Yorùbá language is also in use even as the mother tongue in a large part of Kwara and Kogi States. ‘Forms of Yorùbá are found outside Africa: the Caribbean, Cuba, Puerto Rico where the language is used for religion’ (Anyanwu, 2007:28). There are Yorùbá speakers in countries like Benin, Togo, Ghana, Cote D'ivoire, Sudan, Sierra Leone, the United Kingdom, Brazil and the United State of America (Akintoye, 2010:8). The varieties of Yorùbá language due to different locations of states in Nigeria include: Oyo dialect, Ekiti dialect, Ijebu dialect, Ifè dialect, Ìjèṣà dialect, Àkókó dialect, Ìkálè dialect , Okun dialect, Ègbá dialect, Àwórì dialect, Ìgbómìnà dialect, Ìdànrè dialect, Ègbádò dialect, Ìlàjé dialect , Kétu dialect, Òndó dialect, Yewa dialect, Ànàgó dialect, Ìbòló dialect, Owo dialect amongst others (Akintoye, 2010:8) . Yorùbá is spoken by 22 million second language speakers in other countries of the world (Igboanusi and Peter, 2005:77; Grimes, 2000:202). Yorùbá is in the yoruboid cluster which also includes Igala, Itsekiri, Akoko edo and Usen (both in Edo state). According to the International African Institute (1980: 60), the Yorùbá language “is used by the media i.e. the Press, Radio and Television. It is also used as a language of formal

instruction and a curriculum subject in the primary school. In the secondary school and post-secondary level (including University); it is a curriculum subject. It has a standard orthography. The Yorùbá language occupies a privileged place within the entire range of African studies.





Adapted from Akinkugbe, (1978:54).

Key: PY: Proto-Yoruboid; SEY: South-Eastern Yoruba; NEY: North-Eastern Yoruba; CY: Central yoruba; SWY: South-Western Yoruba; NWY: North-Western Yoruba

1.2 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

Relativization in Standard Yorùbá has been a subject of considerable scholarly attention, with numerous studies exploring various aspects of this linguistic phenomenon. However, despite the extensive body of literature, there remains a significant gap in the application of the Government and Binding Theory, to account for the derivational processes of relative constructions in Standard Yorùbà. This theoretical framework, which has been instrumental in advancing our understanding of syntactic structures in many languages, has not yet been systematically applied to Standard Yorùbá relativization. The absence of such an analysis represents a critical oversight in the existing research, as the

Government and Binding Theory offers robust tools for examining the syntactic and semantic properties of relativized constructions.

1.3 PURPOSE OF STUDY

This section is divided into the Aim & Objectives, and the Research questions pertaining to this research.

1.3.1 AIM & OBJECTIVES

This study aims to employ the Government and Binding Theory of the principles and parameters approach to provide a comprehensive analysis for the derivation of relative constructions in Standard Yoruba. Its specific objectives are to:

1. Identify relative clause.
2. Identify the different NP positions accessible to relativization in Yoruba.
3. Identify the types of relative clause in Yoruba.
4. Use government and binding theory to account for the derivation of relative constructions.

1.3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to carry out this research on Relativization in standard Yorùbá the following questions need to be addressed.

1. What is Relative clauses ?

2. What are the different NP positions accessible to relativization in Yorùbá?
3. What are the types of relative clauses present in Yorùbá?
4. How is the government and binding theory use to account for the derivation of relative constructions?

1.4 METHODOLOGY

In this study, the methodology used in carrying out this work was a 'Quantitative method', the primary consultant were five Yorùbá speakers (4 female and 1 male) ranging from 20 - 50 years. We collected my data (55 in total) using paper, biro and a recorder from fluent speakers of standard Yorùbá Language. For secondary data, the following were conducted: Abdulwaheed and Joseph (2023), Akintoye (2017), Olarenwaju (2017), Awobuluyi (1975; 1978), and, Bamgbose (1967; 1975)

The method of analysis employed for this descriptive research, is the Government and Binding Theory. Initially, simple sentences will be identified and presented as the foundational data. Using these sentences, we will assign the theta roles to each entity and then apply the different NP positions accessible to relativization to demonstrate the formation of relative clauses. The process will involve the movement of NP element or constituents within the sentences to form relative clauses. Each step of this derivation will be carefully documented and analyzed, using the X-bar theory of the Government and binding theory to show the movements of constituents and their trace, thereby,

highlighting the syntactic changes and the resulting structures. This research will also account for the types of relative clauses imbibed in the language of stu

1.5 SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

This study will focus on the different NP positions accessible to relativization, also known as NPAH (Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy) as postulated by Keenan and Comrie (1977), and the two main types of relative clause in standard Yorùbá, utilizing the principles of Government and Binding Theory. This study involves gathering a representative set of simple sentences in Yorùbá, which will serve as the foundational data for analysis. The sentences will be selected to cover a range of syntactic structures and linguistic features pertinent to the study. The analysis will demonstrate how these clauses are derived from simple sentences, highlighting the syntactic changes involved. The research will apply the X-bar theory, Theta theory, and NP Movement of the Move Alpha, of the principles of Government and Binding Theory to the data, illustrating the movement of constituents and the formation of relative clauses. This will include a detailed examination of the syntactic processes and structures involved.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This research holds significant value in multiple dimensions. Firstly, it contributes to the linguistic understanding of Yoruba, an important but often underrepresented language in syntactic studies. By exploring the different NP positions accessible to relativization and the types of relative clauses in Yorùbá, through the lens of Government and Binding

Theory, this study enriches the existing body of knowledge on the syntactic structures of African languages.

Secondly, the research provides insights into the application of universal syntactic principles within the context of Yorùbá. This can lead to a better understanding of how language-specific parameters interact with universal grammar rules.

Furthermore, the findings from this study can have practical applications in language education and preservation. By elucidating the grammatical structures of Yorùbá, the research can aid in the development of more effective language learning resources and strategies, thereby supporting efforts to preserve and promote the Yorùbá language.

Finally, this study serves as a valuable reference for future research in both Yorùbá linguistics and the application of Government and Binding Theory to other languages. It opens up new avenues for comparative studies and contributes to the ongoing dialogue on the universality and diversity of human languages.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into three sections which include: The conceptual review, which consists of the various concepts that makes up this topic. The previous study, which

examine different perspectives of linguists and scholars who have worked on different aspects of relativization, and, the present study.

2.1 CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

2.1.1 Syntax

In linguistics, syntax is one of the core branches of linguistics. Syntax refers to "the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language." It deals with the orderly arrangement of words, phrases, and clauses to form coherent sentences in a language by applying the rules of that language.

Chomsky (1957), who is considered the father of modern syntax, in his book *Syntactic Structures*, defines syntax as "the system of rules that govern the permissible arrangement of words, phrases, and clauses to form grammatical sentences." He sees syntax as a guideline that states how well-formed sentences are constructed. Syntax tells us how to organise words, phrases, and clauses in a way that makes sense and follows the rules of grammar of the language.

Nordquist (2020) describes syntax "as the set of rules that dictate how words combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences." In his definition of syntax, he sees syntax as a guideline that tells us how to put words together to make sense when we speak or write. Just like how we follow certain rules to make sure things look right, syntax helps us

arrange words in a way that makes sense in a sentence in order to facilitate effective communication.

Pinker (1994), in his book "The Language Instinct," views syntax as "the mental faculty that allows us to understand the hierarchical structure of sentences." In his definition, he states that syntax is the mental ability that enables the orderly arrangement of well-formed sentences. He emphasizes how syntax creates meaning by organising words into phrases and clauses that have specific relationships to each other.

Therefore, syntax is a fundamental level of linguistics that studies sentence construction and helps us to understand and apply the rules for framing correct sentences in a language.

2.1.2 Syntactic Processes

Syntactic processes transform or generate one structure into another structure (the deep structure into surface structure). It deals with the sentence framing process in different ways. In syntax, there are four types of syntactic processes, which includes: Conjoining, Embedding, Recursion and Movement. But only Embedding and Movement will be discussed below:

2.1.3.1 Embedding

Steffani (2007) defines embedded sentences as "a sentence that contains an independent clause and a dependent clause or phrase." As we know, a dependent clause and phrase

must be attached to an independent clause in order for it to have complete meaning. Embedded phrases or clauses can be found at the beginning or end of a sentence. They can also be within the sentence (embedded). For instance, the following two sentences are simple sentences because they contain only one main verb:

1a) The toy is on sale.

1b) I want the toy.

They can be combined to make a complex sentence:

1c) The toy that I want is on sale.

Embedded clause

This sentence above contains the independent clause "The toy is on sale." This sentence can be said by itself and maintain its full meaning. On the other hand, the dependent clause "that I want" cannot be said by itself. It does not have full meaning unless it is attached to the independent clause. Thus, embedding involves placing one syntactic unit (a phrase or clause) within another unit, creating a layered structure. The embedded unit acts as a constituent of the larger unit. For example:

2) The woman who lives next door baked a pie.

In the sentence above, "who lives next door" is a relative clause embedded within the noun phrase "the woman."

2.1.3.2 Movement

In syntax, movement refers to the process where a constituent (word or phrase) is shifted from its underlying position in a sentence to a different surface position. This movement helps explain certain sentence structures that wouldn't be possible otherwise. There are numerous kinds of movement, but only a few will be discussed below:

A) **WH-MOVEMENT**: This is the movement of a wh-question word (who, what, where, etc.) to the beginning of the sentence in questions.

For Example:

3) What did Shade eat?

Underlying Order: Shade ate what?

B) **PASSIVE VOICE MOVEMENT**: In the passive voice, the object of the active voice sentence is moved to become the subject. For Example:

4) The cake was eaten by Shade.

Underlying Order: Shade ate the cake.

2.1.4 Relativization

Yusuf (1990), explains that relative construction or relativization involves the insertion of a relative clause in front of its NP antecedent in a matrix clause; a clause is relative when an NP within it is identical (and is therefore changed to a relative pronoun) with the antecedent of thematic clause. Such relative pronouns are moved from their original position to the composition of the relative clause. This movement leaves a trace that is co-indexed with the moved element.

According to Bamisaye (2001:80), relativization is a syntactic process through which relative clauses are formed. He sees relativization as a process of forming a relative clause, which is a clause embedded in the S-structure as a modifier of the noun phrase (NP). Such an embedded sentence has within its structure a 'WH' pronominal replacement or its equivalent for the D-structure.

Emenanjo (2015, pp. 406-407) posits that relativization is "the process of forming a relative clause construction." He also stated that relativization is a syntactic process that involves the derivation and use of a relative clause to modify the head of a noun phrase. According to Cinque (1981) as cited from Keenan and Comrie (1977), different NP positions are accessible to Relativization, which is also known as NPAH (Noun phrase Accessibility Hierarchy), these positions include:

The Subject position (SU) > Direct Object position (DO) > Indirect Object position (IDO) > Oblique Object position (OB) > Genitive position (G) > and Object of Comparison (OCOMP).

(where ">" means, is more accessible than).

These NP positions gives rise to three types of relativization. Which are:

2.1.4.1 Subject Relativization

According to Comrie and Kuteva (2005), subject relativization "involves forming a relative clause that modifies the subject of the main clause". For example:

5a) "The man who greeted me was a German"

In the construction above, "who greeted me" is the relative clause, and this clause modifies the relativized subject noun, "the man" in the matrix/main.

2.1.4.2 Object Relativization

Object relativization involves forming a relative clause that modifies the object NP. In object relativization, the direct object NP, Indirect object NP, Oblique object NP, and the Object of Comparison can be relativized. Consider the examples below:

Direct object relativization occurs when the relative clause modifies the object noun in the main clause. For example:

5b) "The book that I read was fascinating".

In the construction above, "that I read", is the relative clause, and this clause modifies the object NP "the book", providing essential information about the object NP.

Indirect object relativization occurs when the relative clause modifies the indirect object in the construction. For example:

5c) "Paul gave the woman that helped him some food".

Object of comparison occurs when the relative clause compares the object noun being relativized with another entity. It typically uses relative pronouns like "who", "whom", or "which", and the clause includes a comparison phrase. For example:

5d) "The athlete who she is faster than is her rival".

In this example, "who" introduces the relative clause "who she is faster than", where "who" is compared to "she". The clause adds essential context about the noun "the athlete" by comparing the speed of two people.

2.1.4.3 Genitive/Possessive Relativization

De Vries (2006), states that "Possessive relativization involves the use of a relative clause to modify a noun by indicating possession or association, typically employing a genitive marker such as 'whose' in English. This construction allows for the embedding of a dependent clause within a larger sentence, providing additional information about the noun". Alexiadou et al. (2000) defined Genitive relativization as "a syntactic phenomenon where a relative clause modifies a noun by specifying a possessive or associative relationship, often marked by a relative pronoun like 'whose' in English. This structure is

essential for expressing complex relationships between entities within a sentence". For example:

5e) "The teacher whose students won the competition was proud".

In this sentence, "whose students won the competition" is the relative clause, and "whose" indicates the possessive relationship. The noun "teacher" is relativized as the possessor in the main clause.

2.1.5 Relative Clause

In the English language, a relative clause, also known as relative construction (According to Norquist, 2018), is a postmodifier; that is, it follows the noun or noun phrase it modifies, and it is usually introduced by a relative pronoun (which, that, who, whom, whose), a relative adverb (where, when, why), or a zero relative. In English, the relative clause can be marked by an overt WH-word, a complementizer, or a zero morpheme.

Mbah (2006:68) defines a relative clause as "a kind of subordinate clause that is grammatically dependent". Typically, a relative clause modifies a noun or noun phrase and uses some grammatical device to indicate that one of the arguments within the relative clause has the same referent as that noun or noun phrase (NP).

From the definitions above, one can deduce that a sentence may have two clauses, which are the matrix clause and embedded clause. For example:

6a) [The vegetables [which Shola bought] were stolen.]

It is observed that the group of words in (a) above is made up of two clauses, as shown in (9b & c) below:

- (b) The vegetables were stolen (Matrix Clause).
- (c) Shola bought the vegetables (Embedded Clause)

The vegetable, which is the subject of the sentence in (b) and the object of the verb bought in (c), becomes a relative pronoun (which), and it is moved into the initial position of the embedded clause. There is an anaphoric relation between the (which) and the subject NP (the clothes) of the matrix clause.

It is important to note that the noun in the main clause that the relative clause modifies is called the head noun (head NP) or the antecedent.

Stockwell (1977:59) divides relative clauses into two: Restrictive relative clause and Appositive (non-restrictive) relative clause. While Quirk et al. (1972), In their work "A Grammar of Contemporary English", introduced the terms "defining" and "non-defining" relative clauses, which are synonymous with restrictive and non-restrictive relative clause, respectively.

2.1.5.1 Restrictive Relative Clause

Cinque (2009) defines Restrictive relative clauses "as clauses that provide essential information about the noun they modify, without which the sentence would lose its intended meaning".

Restrictive relative clauses provide essential information about the noun they modify. Without this clause, the sentence would be incomplete or lose its specific meaning. They are integral to understanding exactly which person or thing is being referred to. No commas are used to set off these clauses because the information is critical to the meaning of the sentence. For example:

- 7a) The cake that she baked was delicious.

In the construction above, the clause "that she baked" tells us which cake was delicious. If we remove the clause, we are left with "The cake was delicious," which does not specify which cake is being talked about. The clause is thus necessary for the sentence to convey the full, specific meaning.

2.1.5.2 Non-Restrictive Relative Clause

Cinque (2008) defines Non-restrictive (non-defining) relative clause "as clauses that add extra, non-essential information about the noun, which is usually set off by comma".

Non-restrictive relative clauses provide additional, non-essential information about a noun. The sentence would still be grammatically correct and meaningful if the clause were removed. These clauses add extra detail or information but are not crucial to identifying the noun. They are usually set off by commas to show that the information they provide is supplementary. For example:

- 7b) "My sister, who lives in Canada, is visiting us next week".

In the construction above, the clause "who lives in Canada", adds extra information about "my sister." Removing the clause still leaves us with a complete sentence: "My sister is visiting us next week." The non-defining clause provides additional context, but the main message is clear without it.

2.1.6 Relativizer

In linguistics, a relativizer "is a type of conjunction that introduces a relative clause". Following Schachter (1985:51), language has three types of relativizer use to introduce relative clause: Zero or null relativizer, that-relativizer and wh-relativizer. Wh- relativizer and that-relativizer is further divided into Relative pronouns and Relative Adverbs:

2.1.6.1. Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns are words used to introduce relative clauses, which give more information about a noun or pronoun in a sentence. The main relative pronouns in English are "who," "whom," "whose," "which", and "that". The function of relative pronouns often depends on the grammatical role of the nominal antecedent within the relative clause.

Tafoya (2017), states the functions of the following relative Pronouns.

- a) WHO: Who refers only to human antecedents and acts as subject of the relative clause. That is, it substitutes for subject nouns/pronouns like: He, she, we, and they. For example:

8a) The man who stole the book is here.

8b) The teacher who inspired me retired last year.

In the constructions above, "Who" functions as the subject of the relative clause "who stole the book" and "who inspired me," providing essential information about (head NP) "the man" and "the teacher."

b) WHOM: Whom refers only to human antecedent and acts as object of the relative clause. That is, it substitutes for object nouns/pronouns like: Him, her, us, and them. For Example:

8c) The student whom the principal praised was overjoyed.

In the construction above, "Whom" is the object of the relative clause "whom the principal praised," giving additional details about "the student."

c) WHICH: Which refers only to non-human antecedents and act as subject and object of the relative clause. That is, it can be used for either subject or object. For Example:

8d) The car which he bought is electric.

In the construction above, "Which" serves as the subject of the relative clause "which he bought," providing more information about "the car."

d) WHOSE: Whose refers to both human and non-human antecedents. It substitutes for possessive nouns/pronouns like: His, hers, ours and theirs. For Example:

8e) The artist whose paintings we admired is very talented.

In the construction above, "Whose" shows possession in the relative clause "whose paintings we admired," linking it to noun phrase "the artist."

e) THAT: That refers to both human and non-human antecedents. It can either be used for subject or object of the relative clause. For example:

8f) The car that broke down was new.

In this sentence, "that" introduces the relative clause "that broke down," providing essential information about "the car." Here, "that" functions as the subject of the relative clause because it performs the action "broke down."

8g) The book that i read was fascinating.

In this sentence, "that" introduces the relative clause "that I read," adding necessary details about "the book." Here, "that" functions as the object of the relative clause because it receives the action "I read".

2.6.2.2. Relative Adverb

Relative adverbs are wh-words that introduce relative clauses and provide more information about time, place, or reason. They help link the clauses to the nouns or pronouns they modify. They include: where, when and why. Tafoya (2017), states the functions of the following relative Adverbs.

a) WHERE: Where refers to a place.

For example:

8h) The city where I was born is beautiful.

In the construction above, "Where" introduces the relative clause "where I was born," providing information about the place related to "the city."

b) WHEN: When refers to a time.

For example:

8i) The year when we first met was unforgettable.

In the construction above, "When" introduces the relative clause "when we first met," providing information about the time related to "the year."

c) WHY: Why refers to a reason.

For example:

8j) The reason why he left early was unclear.

In the construction above, "Why" introduces the relative clause "why he left early," explaining the reason related to "the reason."

2.2 PREVIOUS STUDY

Akintoye (2017) carried out a study titled Relative clause and conditional clause in the Iyagba dialect of Yoruba, a regional dialect spoken in the north-east Yorùbá in Kogi State, Nigeria. The study was motivated by the need to identify if relative clause constructions

and conditional clause constructions exist in the iyàgbà dialect because he observes that attention has not been paid to the relative and conditional clause constructions in the dialects of Yorùbá. The focus of his work is to examine relative and conditional clause constructions in the ìyàgbà dialect and compare them with how the two clauses operate in other dialects of Yoruba, such as the òmù dialect spoken in Ekiti State and the Ondo dialect spoken in ondo State. He employs the qualitative method in his collection of data. The data were collected from the native speakers of ìyàgbà dialect, who are mostly farmers and illiterates fluent in speaking the dialect and reside in the three dialect communities: Ìyàgbà West with the headquarters at Ìgbárùkù, Ìyàgbà East with the headquarters at Ìsánlu, and Mòpàmùrò Local Government with the headquarters at Mòpà . He also makes use of texts and articles in journals on relative and conditional clause constructions in the standard Yorùbá and its dialects. He employs the descriptive approach of language analysis, which enables him to have a comprehensive explanation on the operation of relative and conditional clause constructions in the dialect, and he makes use of the Mòpà dialect, which is a sub-dialect of iyàgbà, for the discussion and analysis in his work because this dialect is a good representative of other sub-dialects because all the sub-dialects of ìyàgbà are mutually intelligible. He uses the restrictive relative clause to account for the presence of relative clause constructions in iyàgbà dialect because it is the most prominent type of relative clause in standard Yorùbá and its various dialects. He further explained that a relative clause marker takes two forms in the ìyàgbà dialect: "n" and "ghin". which occur in different domains. For instance, "n" co-

occurs with a resumptive pronoun and *ghin* co-occurs with noun phrases. His findings reveal that relative clause markers in the *Iyàgbà* dialect are in complementary distribution; they occur in an exclusive environment. And that, conditional clause markers are not attested in the dialect because *bà*, which is an introducer of conditional sentences in standard *Yorùbá*, and dialects like *òmùò* (a dialect of *Yorùbá* spoken in Ekiti State) and the Ondo dialect is not an introducer of conditional sentences in *iyàgbà* dialect.

Uwasomba (2024) carried out a study titled Relativization in the Ikwuano dialect of Igbo." A regional dialect spoken in the Ikwuano Umuahia area of Abia State in Nigeria. The aim of this study is to examine relativization in Ikwuano Igbo with a view to establishing the Ikwuano strategy by examining how word order is formed in relation to the selectional rules of the language and to investigate how sentential structures are embedded into another sentence. The author employs a qualitative method of data collection where she collected data from fluent speakers of Ikwuano Igbo. She also relied on her intuition as a native speaker of the language. She employs the descriptive approach of language analysis in the Ikwuano dialect using the embedding principle of principles and parameters, a theory developed by Chomsky (1981). She discovered that in the structure of the Ikwuano Relative clause, the relative clause follows the head noun it modifies. She also found that the relativization in Ikwuano includes "ónyé" (who, whom) with a high tone (HH) not (LH) because the low tone on "ónyé" changes the clause to a question clause, which makes it ungrammatical, and the other relative pronouns are: "nkè" (which), "nà" (that), "mà" (whether), and "kà" (that). She observes that

relativization accepts embedded clauses, which generate the complementizer phrase in a complex sentence in the Ikwauno dialect. She also asserts that Relativization in Ikwuano is a strategy used to express complex clauses, and it is also a strategy used to give emphasis to particular NP constituents of the sentence. Using the principles of embedding of the principles and parameters of Chomsky (1981) in the Ikwuano dialect of Igbo, she discovered that the module can be applied to any natural language of the world.

Abdulwaheed and Joseph (2023), carried out a comparative study on relativization in the Uro and Arigidi dialects of Yorùbá language, which are the two varieties of Akokoid dialect cluster. Uro is spoken in Ajowa Akoko, while Arigidi is spoken in Arigidi Akoko, both in Akoko Northwest local government area of Ondo state. Their study was motivated by the need to compare the relativization process in the two dialects with a view to establishing their level of relatedness. Their aim was to examine the process of forming relative clauses in the two speech forms and affirm their relatedness or otherwise. They carried out interviews with the native speakers of the dialects. Their interviews were conducted in the two speech communities (Uro and Arigidi Akoko), where the speech forms are spoken using elders whose ages range between 50 and 70. Five elders from each of these speech communities were interviewed, and they were selected based on their competence in the language. The theoretical model adopted for their analysis and presentation of their data is the Government and Binding Theory developed by Chomsky (1981), also known as Principles and Parameters Theory (P&P). Their classification is mainly based on the cognate words and lexicostatistics of the

speech forms. They employ three types of relativization: subject, object, and verb relativization to see if the subject and object NPs as well as the verbs can be relativised in both dialects, respectively. Their findings reveal that the processes of relativization in Uro and Arigidi dialects are similar. They discovered that the subject, object NPs, and verbs can be relativised in both speech forms. And none of the two lects has an overt relative marker when the subject NP is being relativized. The relativization of the object NP in both texts involves the overt relative marker ‘i’. For verbs, they are copied and nominalised through a process of reduplication, then moved to the Spec RelP. This is also followed by the relative marker ‘i’. They also discovered that, unlike the standard Yoruba, which drops a resumptive pronoun when the subject NP is being moved, no element is dropped at the extraction site of the moved NP, either subject or object NP in Uro and Arigidi. Hence, their observations attest to the relationship that exists between the two language varieties. Based on the evidence of affinities between the two dialects, there are traces that the speech forms originated from a common source.

De Vries (2018) carried out a study titled Relative Clause in Syntax." The study was motivated by the need to know how relative clause operates in different language constructions. He focused on the different sub-types of relative constructions to determine if more than one type of these relative constructions can be present in a language. The analysis he employs for his descriptive research is the translation and syntactic analysis, where the different elements in these languages are glossed using the 'Leipzig glossing rule.'. He conducted a study on relative clauses from a typological

perspective, analysing how 27 languages employ various strategies to relativised syntactic units. He discusses the various ways in which languages use relative clauses to modify nouns specifically, using the 11 subtypes of relatives constructions: postnominal headed relative clauses, non-restrictive/Appositive vs. restrictive relative clauses, internally headed relative clauses, prenominal Prenominal clauses, correlatives, double-headed relative clauses, free relative clauses, non-finite relative clauses, and modal existential wh-constructions, pseudo-relatives and quasi/V2-relatives, cleft and pseudocleft constructions, and amount relative constructions. He examines how these languages use relative pronouns (such as whom, that, and which) to indicate a relationship between a relative clause and the noun it modifies. In his findings, he discovered that the striking property in which relative constructions differ is the position of the relative clause with respect to the head, which can be postnominal (as in English) or prenominal. He states that, while some languages such as, Dutch and English make use of relative pronouns, others such as, Mandarin Chinese, Bambara, and Israeli Hebrew use resumptive pronouns or simply leave the relativised argument unpronounced in the subordinate clause, and that relative clauses containing a relative pronoun are A' movement constructions. He discovered that almost all languages make use of (restrictive) relative constructions in one way or another and that more than one type of relative clause can be present in one language. He states that the special types of relative constructions include free relatives (with an implied pronominal antecedent), cleft

constructions, and correlative, and that there is cross-linguistic variation in the range of syntactic functions that can be relativised.

2.3 PRESENT STUDY

The study deals with relativisation in standard Yorùbá Language. This research uses the Government and Binding theory approach as the framework, to account for the derivational of relative clauses in the language of study.

This study is motivated by the need to examine if the government and binding theory of the principles and parameters approach can be used to account for the derivation of relative constructions because attention has not yet been paid on it in this language of study. This study focus on the different NP positions accessible to relativization, and the types of relative clauses, to see if they exist in the language of study and to examine how they manifest in this language of study. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap by employing the X-bar theory, Theta theory and Move Alpha, of the Government and Binding Theory to provide a comprehensive analysis of relativized constructions in Standard Yoruba, and the objectives is to examine what relatives clauses is, identify the different NP positions that are accessible to relativization, identify the types of relative

clauses, and using the X-bar theory, movement and of the government and binding theory to show the derivation of relative constructions. The significance of this study is to enlighten teachers, students and literates who are interested in this language of study to have a clearer understanding of relativization and how the government and binding theory can be used to analyse the language of study.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 INTRODUCTION

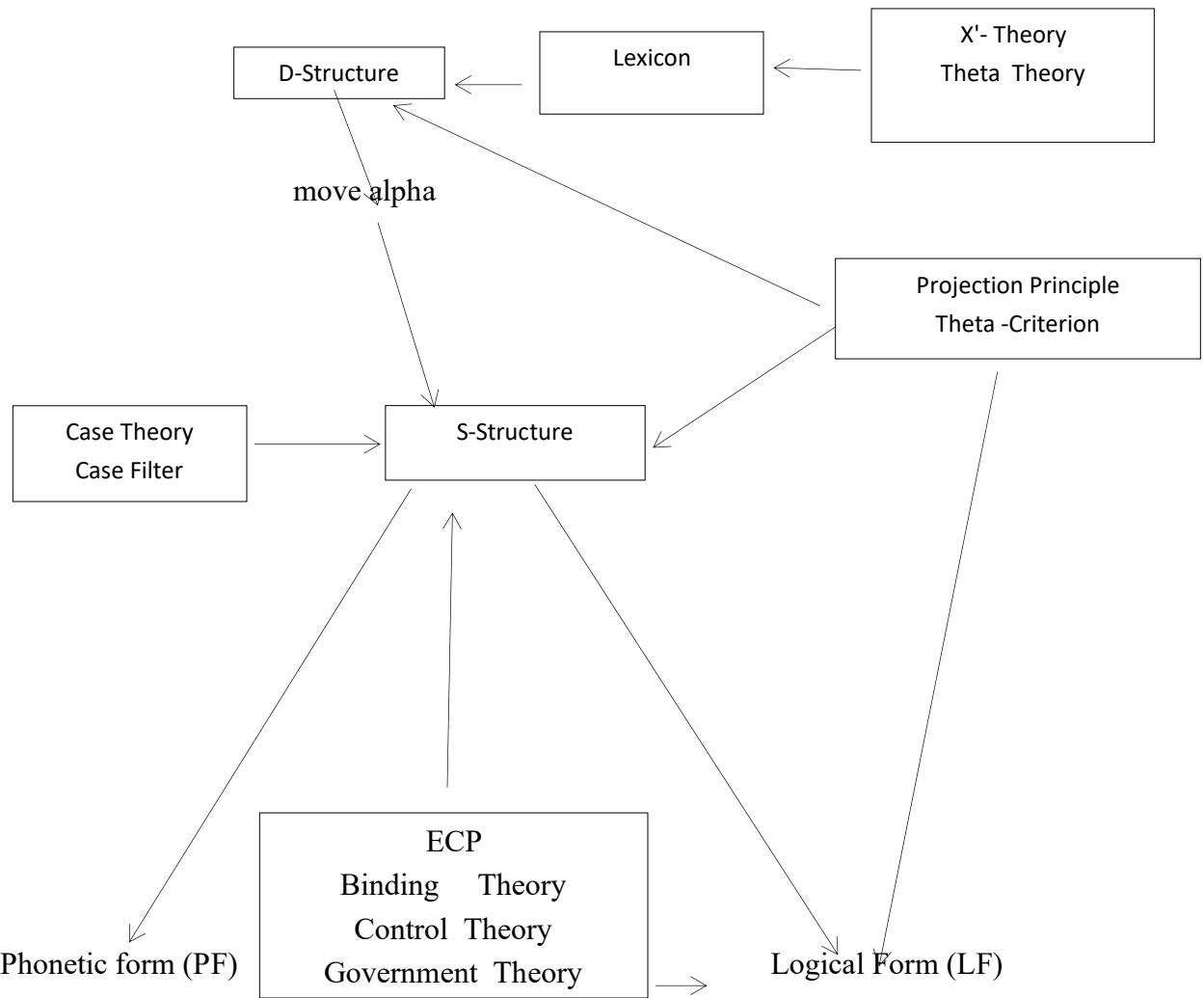
This chapter is divided into three sections: The theoretical orientation and application, that is, the framework employed for this research, the theoretical application to the current, that is the relevance of the framework to the research, and the Summary of the chapter.

3.1 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION AND APPLICATIONS

The theoretical model adopted for the analysis of Relativization in standard Yorúbá is the Government and Binding Theory (GB), The GB theory is the most prominent and influential contemporary theory of grammar which is presented in Chomsky (1981). It is the best-known version of a Principles and Parameters (P&P) theory of Universal Grammar which is the immediate descendant of the various previous versions of

Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG). The GB was developed without any radical break from the Standard Theory. It has a number of distinctive features. The GB Theory is modular unlike previous versions of the TGG which are non-modular. The grammar in GB is divided into various sub-components which are sensitive to various autonomous sub-systems (modules). These include the following: the X-bar theory, Case theory, Theta theory, Binding theory, Bounding theory, Control theory and Government theory. These modules interact at interface to produce well-formed and meaningful structures. In the GB theory, there was need to constrain the operations of transformations since they tended to over-generate structures in previous models. In the formulation of grammatical derivation in GB, these transformations have been reduced to a single rule: move- α (move-alpha) which simply moves a constituent from an extraction site to a landing site leaving behind a trace at the Extraction site. Lasnik and Uriagereka (1988) conceive of the GB theory as being composed of autonomous sub-systems, each generating an output for another system. Yuka (1998:39) explains that GB provides for a specific set of concepts (modules) which act as filters on how two or more grammatical properties can interact. These modules specify the well-formedness conditions of derivations.

FIG.2: THE ORGANIZATION OF THE GB MODEL



Adapted from Sells,(1986:24).

The GB theory claims that what needs to be done is to identify these modules and characterize the degree to which they vary from language to language. In the previous models, each construction carries its own rule as in passive, question formation, negation

rules, etc. The claim in GB is that some of the complexities of modular concept can be attributed to general principles. Instead of naming ad-hoc rules of construction, we now have one rule: Move- α . In this way, the complexities of each of the rules (like passivization rule) can be reduced to move- α . GB Theory is based on the Principles and Parameters (P&P) which states that there is a finite set of fundamental principles common to all natural languages and a finite set of binary parameters that determine the range of permissible variability in language, language acquisition and language understanding. Most specifically, the GB model claims that human languages consist of 'Principles' that are the same for any grammar, and parameters that allow grammars to vary in limited ways. Thus, in GB, emphasis has shifted from rules to Principles and all the rules formerly in operation in the Standard Theory are now limited to one single rule of move- α .

Chomsky (1981) claims that syntactic complexities result from the interaction of the subsystems listed above. The bounding theory limits the domain of movement rules; Government Theory defines the relation between the head of a construction and those categories which are depended on it. Theta theory deals with the assignment and functioning of thematic roles; Binding theory links grammatical elements such as pronouns, anaphors; names (R-expressions) and variables with their antecedents, Case theory deals with the assignment of abstract case and its morphological realization; Control theory determines the potential for reference of the abstract pronominal element known as PRO while X-bar theory constrains the base components of the grammar.

In the GB theory, sentence descriptions are simultaneously created on the four interdependent levels of Syntax : D-structure (DS), S-structure (SS), Logical Form (LF), and Phonological Form (PF) (or D-str, S-Str, PF and LF), each of which is concerned with specific aspects of the description of the sentence under consideration. At the D-Str level, the Projection Principle, Case theory and Theta theory are the general principles that determine a well-formed D-str derivation. The transformational operation of move- α provides the link between the D-Str and the S-Str levels of representation. The D-Str is conceived of as a pure representation of argument structure and theta roles are assigned to arguments at this level. D-Str is well-formed if it satisfies the subcategorization and x-bar theory. One important feature of GB is the relation between sub-categorization and the appearance of subjects. A verb cannot subcategorize for an NP in another clause. The domain of sub-categorization is limited to the domain of the maximal projection containing the head. It is this notion of the domain within the maximal projection rather than the notion of being a sister that is important here (Sells 1986:32). These and many other constraints in Government and Binding help to ensure well-formedness.

The three other critical levels at which various conditions are applied to filter out illicit phrase markers include S-Str, LF and PF as noted earlier. At the S-Str, Logical Form and Phonological Form as noted earlier. At the S-Str level of representation, the case filter, the projection principle, the subjacency conditions, the Theta criterion and the Empty Category Principles (ECP) are the principles that ensure that structures at the S-Str are well-formed. The S-Str is thus the point in a derivation at which the grammatical

information required by the phonology splits off from the information required for meaning. Logical Form and Phonological Form only relate in virtue of being derived from a common S-Str, phrase markers. The Phonological Form and Logical Form thus make up the interpretive components of the grammar, with the PF component being associated with the audio-perceptual properties of an utterance. Phonological rules in addition to low level transformational processes like deletion and contraction are considered at this level of representation (Yuka,1998:40). The LF is an intermediate component between the S-Str and Semantic representation (Haegeman,1991:45). The S-Str is mapped into the LF representation through move- α . At this stage, the Projection Principle, the Control theory, Binding theory, the Theta criterion and the ECP operate to guarantee well-formed structures.

The X-bar theory is concerned with the internal structure of constituent in natural languages. This theory attempt to identify a syntactic features common to all natural human languages. The X-bar convention determines the configuration of the D-Str and also account for word order. The X-bar theory came into existence as a result of the inadequacies of the Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) which recognizes only two categories: lexical and phrasal categorizes. The PSG does not account for, nor recognizes the existence of intermediate categories which are smaller than the phrasal but larger than the lexical categorizes. The proponents of the X-bar theory believe that there exist intermediate categorizes which must be accounted for. PSG is too constrained or restricted in the number of possible projections and the categories it allows.

The universality of grammar which is an important aspect of TGG is fully emphasized in P&P model. The P&P theory is mainly characterized by modules in which emphasis shifted from a system of rules to that of principles. The modules act as filters on how two or more grammatical properties can interact. Associated with each principle is a set of parameters with a set of binary values.

The lexicon in this model refers to the total list of words in a language and specifies their peculiar features: morphological, syntactic, categorial and contextual features. The Dstr in this model retains most of the features of the deep structure in the ST and D-str in REST. The move- α rule relates the D-str and S-str and both maintain their identities as in REST. The two other levels of representation are the Phonetic Form (PF)-the level where the physical structures are represented phonetically and Logical Form (LF)-the level where meaning is represented.

However, we will employ three sub-theories of the GB for the analysis: the X-bar theory, and Move- Alpha and the Theta theory of the models of the theory.

3.1.1 X-Bar Theory

The X-bar theory is one of the core modules of GB theory. The X-bar theory was first proposed by Chomsky (1970), and was introduced into syntactic analysis by Jackendoff (1977). X-bar theory is a system of analyzing phrases and sentences using tree diagrams which shows the function of the constituents and the relationship between them. The idea of the X-bar theory was to account for the perceived weaknesses in phrase structure

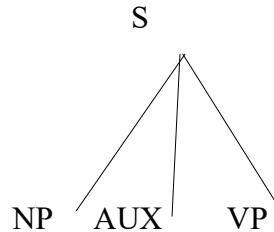
grammar (PSG) model. The difference between the X-bar theory and the earlier Phrase structure grammar model, are: The levels of projection, the type of tree branching, and a change in the symbol for sentence.

The PSG model recognises two levels of constituents or categories in the hierarchical analysis of constructions, they are the Lexical categories (Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Prepositions) and Phrasal categories (Noun phrase (NP), Verb phrase (VP), Adjectival phrase (AdjP) and Prepositional phrase (PP)). While, the X-bar theory distinguishes three levels of projection: The minimal projection (X or X°), Intermediate projection (X') and the Maximal projection (X'' or XP). It is important to note that X represents any Lexical category. Within the X-bar theory, the tree diagram adopts the binary branching principles or the bipartite projection, and the ultimate (maximal) projection is X'' or XP . Where the first branching node of the Specifier (Spec' position) and the X' (intermediate) projection.

While, within the PSG model, the tree diagram adopts the ternary branching principles or the tripative projection. Where the ultimate projection is S (sentence), the inflections are housed under Aux (auxiliary) and the analysis of sentence is: NP-AUX-VP. Where;

NP is the Noun phrase, AUX is the auxiliary and the VP is the verb phrase.

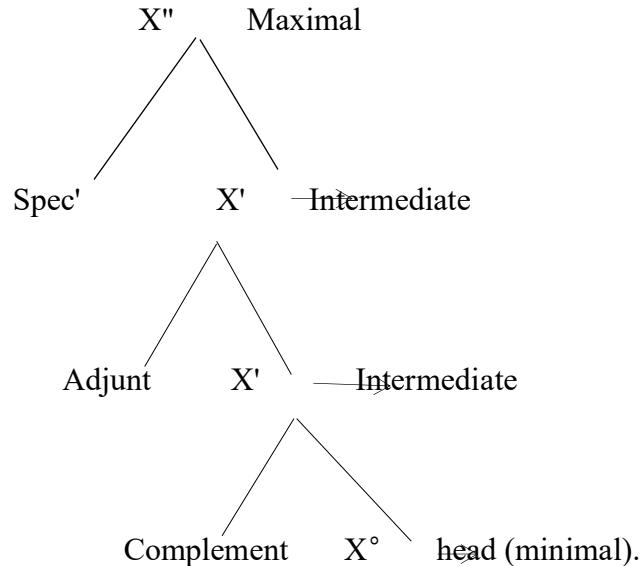
FIG.3: THE TERNARY BRANCHING PROJECTION OF THE PSG MODEL



Adapted from Okolo and Ezikeojiaku (1999:196).

In the X-bar theory, the specific positions for each of the four constituent functions In a phrase Head are Minimal projections (X or X°), Complements combine with X to form X' -projections (intermediate projection); adjuncts combine with X' to form another X' projection (intermediate projection); while specifiers combine with the topmost X' to form XP (X'').

FIG.4: THE STRUCTURE OF THE X-BAR THEORY



Adapted from Cheryl, (1998:5).

Also, the theory stipulates that all phrase have one head; this is referred to as the 'principle of endocentricity'. The head node gives the essential character to the phrase, that is, a particular phrase is named after the head. The head is an obligatory constituent of the X-bar theory. In the X-bar theory, the Specifier, is an obligatory constituent and it refers to the syntactic position itself. The Adjunct is constituent that attributes some property (e.g. definiteness, manner, place etc.) to the head. The adjuncts is an optional constituent in the X-bar theory. The complement is a constituent, required for interpretation of the head; for example, transitive verbs need an object noun phrase. The complement is an obligatory constituent in the X-bar theory.

So, the specifier, head, and complement are obligatory; hence, a phrasal category XP must contain one specifier, one head, and one complement. On the other hand, the adjunct is optional; hence, a phrasal category contains zero or more adjuncts.

3.1.2 MOVE α (Move Alpha)

Move α is a feature of many transformational-generative grammars, it was first developed in the Revised Extended Standard Theory (REST) by Chomsky in the late 1970s and later part of government and binding theory (GB) in the 1980s and the Minimalist Program of the 1990s. The term refers to the relation between an indexed constituent and its trace t . The Move α is an underlying concept in GB framework, which states that a category can be move anywhere (Okon & Udosen, 2019).

In syntax, Move α is the most general formulation of possible movement permitted by a rule. More specific rules include Move NP and Move wh. We will focus on the Move NP or the NP movement of the move-Alpha. NP Movement is a syntactic process that moves a noun phrase (NP), from its original position to a new position in a sentence. This movement is often to the subject or Object position. NP Movement is important in understanding how sentences can be re-arranged while still maintaining their meaning. NP Movement is crucial for forming passive constructions, raising to Subject construction and possibly in construction with ergative verbs.

NP Movement is different from Wh-movement, which involves moving from an argument position to a non-argument position. NP-movement on the other hand, involves

moving from one argument position to another. Movement from one Argument position to another argument position, is known as A-Movement (Argument movement). A-movement or movement to the subject position, is an argument position. Lasnik and Uriagereka (1988: 20) defines argument movement as “movement of a category from a position that is potentially a recipient of θ-role to another such position, (for example, from object to subject position, or from an embedded subject position to a higher subject position”. Ndimele (2004) says that passivization, ergative structures, middle sentence constructions, and NP raising are good instances of argument movement process in which a pre-posed constituent is moved to occupy an empty argument position symbolized as [NPe], meaning Noun Phrase empty. Cases of A-movement to be considered here include passive, and raising constructions. Passives are the most well-known constructions involving movement to the subject position. GB seeks to explain the synonymy between the active and passive sentences. This is done by expanding the lexical entries to include semantic roles. (Cheryl, 1998:29). Udosen & Okon, (2019:43), states that "Passivization involves moving a target NP in the object position into the empty NP slot in the SPEC-I' position". (Ndimele, 1992) defines a passive sentence as "that in which the patient (i.e. the entity that feels the impact of the verb) occurs as the subject of the sentence, while the agent or force (i.e. the entity that initiates the action that affects the object) optionally occurs as the complement of the NP".

Raising is a type of argument promotion and another instance of A-movement. Trask (1993:228) defines raising as "a linguistic operation in which a target linguistic element

appears in a higher clause than is semantically appropriate". Ndimele (2004) says that " it involves the movement of a target NP category out of the subject position of an embedded clause into the subject position of a matrix clause". NP-movement in raising structures is through the SPEC-I' node. Chomsky (1981), states that the landing site for NP movement is the Spec' position, and that a theta role can be assigned to the Spec' position.

3.1.3 Theta Theory

Theta theory is one of the (sub) theories of the Government and binding (GB). Its main principles is the Theta criterion, which requires that every argument is assigned just one theta role and that every theta role is assigned to just one argument. Its main role is to determine the positions to which NP-movement is possible. (Crystal, 1980:28).

Theta Theory deals with the functional relationships between a predicate and its argument: a predicate is said to assign theta role to each of its arguments, that is, the semantic relationship between the verb and noun phrases of a sentence, such as agent, theme, location, instrument, goals, source (theta roles), etc. Part of theta theory is the theta criterion, which is a requirement that each argument of the verb receives one and only one theta role and each theta role is assigned to one and only one argument, on the other words, theta criterion is the proposed universal principle stating that a particular thematic role may occur only once in a sentence. Taken together, these principles ensure that a verb will be associated with just the right number of Lexical arguments.

(Abdulkareem, 2023). The theta theory has 11 thematic/theta roles as stated by (Saeed, 2016). They are:

1. AGENT: The initiator of some action, capable of acting with volition. For example:
 - 9a) John ate the Apple.
2. PATIENT: The entity undergoing the effect of some action, often undergoing some changes of state.
 - b) John moved the boat.
3. THEME: The entity which is moved by an action, or whose location is described. For example:
 - c) John threw the ball.
4. EXPERIENCER: The entity which is aware of the action or state described by the predicate but which is not in control of the action or state. For example:
 - d) John saw the deer.
5. BENEFICIARY: The entity for whose benefit the action was performed. For example:
 - e) John built a house for Peter.
6. INSTRUMENT: The means by which an action is performed or something comes about. For example:

f) John opened the door with a key.

7. LOCATION: The place in which something is situated or takes place. For example:

g) The ball is on the table.

8. GOAL: The entity towards which something moves, either literally or metaphorically.

For example:

h) John walked to school.

9. SOURCE: The entity from which something moves either literally or metaphorically.

For example:

I) John ran from home.

10. RECIPIENT: A subtype of Goal involved in actions describing possessions. For example:

J) John sold the car to Mary.

11. STIMULUS/PERCEPT: The entity which is perceived or experienced. For example:

K) John fears thunder.

The theta-criterion is the process of assigning thematic roles, it is sometimes called the "theta assignment". This term refers to the grammatical activity of spreading information from the verb to its noun phrase and prepositional satellites. A universal principle has

been proposed called the "theta criterion", which states in part that a particular thematic role may occur once in a sentence. (Abdulkareem, 2023).

Uniformity of Theta Assignment Hypothesis in (Baker, 1988:46), makes the claim that the THEME role is always assigned to the direct object when it is present, since that is its position in normal transitive verbs; the RECIPIENT role is assigned to the indirect object, etc. Though the semantic roles are assigned at D-structure through the lexical entries, another assumption forbids any movement from changing the linking between syntactic arguments and semantic roles. The semantic role stays with the original position rather than moving with the phrase; the semantic role is not part of the tree but part of the lexical subcategorization that goes with the D-structure position. Movement into a position linked to a semantic role is not allowed, since it would cause the moved element to take on that semantic role, and thus alter the original linking. The coindexed trace left after movement provides the link between the moved element and the position it occupied at D-structure. It is important to note that theta roles are assigned at the deep structure, not at the surface structure.

3.2 THEORETICAL APPLICATION TO THE CURRENT STUDY

The reason for adopting Government and Binding Theory in this study is based on its comprehensive framework, which is well-suited for the detailed analysis of syntactic structures and constituent movements. GB theory focus on universal principles and parameters, aligns well with the objectives of this research, which aims to explore the

underlying mechanisms of relativization in Yoruba. By utilizing the X-bar theory, Theta theory and movement of the GB theory, this study intends to provide a thorough syntactic analysis of Yoruba relative clauses and contribute to the broader understanding of syntactic theory.

3.3 SUMMARY

Government and Binding Theory (GB), proposed by Noam Chomsky, is a syntactic framework used to analyze sentence structures. This theory operates on the principle that syntax is governed by universal rules and language-specific parameters. It explains syntactic phenomena through concepts such as deep structure, surface structure, and the movement of sentence elements.

GB theory has been widely applied to various languages, aiding in the understanding of complex syntactic processes such as movement and the formation of relative clauses. While Government and Binding Theory has been utilized for the analysis of relativization in a dialect of the Yoruba language, it has not been applied to standard Yoruba Language.

In this study, the Theta theory, X-bar theory, and Movement of the GB theory will be applied to account for the derivation of relative clauses in Yoruba, aiming to fill a research gap in this area. The adoption of GB theory is driven by its comprehensive approach, which is well-suited for examining the syntactic nuances of Yoruba and contributing to a broader understanding of universal and language-specific syntactic principles.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with the presentation and the analysis of data collected on relativization in standard Yorùbá Language. It focuses on the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy as propounded by Keenan and Comrie (1977), and the types of relative clauses in the language. .

4.1 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

In standard Yorùbá, relative clause is introduced by the relative clause marker (RCM) "tí" which functions similarly to the English relativizer "who," "which," "whom" and "that", this relative clause marker "tí" appears immediately after the relativized NPs. In the data below each of the Simple declarative sentence in (a) is the underlying form from which its (b) counterpart is derived. The data will be analysed based on the different NP position accessible to Relativization, and the types of Relative clauses, and we shall begin the analyses by applying the Theta theory to assign theta roles to the entity, and then apply the NP movement of the Move Alpha, and the X-bar theory to show the formation of Relative Clauses.

It is important to note that in Standard Yoruba Language, most simple sentence contains the definite article 'náà' which is interpreted as 'the'. This definite article occurs immediately after the noun in the construction but , when this construction becomes relativized with the relative clause marker 'tí', the definite article becomes Non-overt. In cases where there are two Nouns in a construction the definite article occurs immediately after the Noun that the Verb preceeds in the construction. The indefinite article 'a or an' has no overt marker in Standard Yorùbá Language. The symbol, t, represents trace, showing the original position of the moved constituent, while the symbol, 'i', shows that the moved constituent is co-indexed with its trace.

4.1.1 Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy

The first in the NPAH in Standard Yorùbá language is, subject [Su], followed by direct object (DO), indirect Object (IO), genitives (GEN) and lastly, oblique (OBL) as shown below.

4.1.1.1 The Subject Position

Subject relativization in standard Yoruba Language is achieved by moving the NP element to be modified into the Spec, Rel IP, that is, the specifier of the matrix clause.

Consider the following constructions:

10a) Ajà ní gbó

Dog PROG bark

"A dog is barking".

b) Ajài [tí ói ní gbó]

Dog REL RSP PROG bark

"The dog that is barking".

11a) Okùnrin jí àwọn àso

Man steal PL. cloth

"A man stole the clothes".

b) Okùnrini [tí ói jí àwọn àso]

Man REL RSP steal PL. cloth

"The man who stole the clothes".

12a) Fola je ẹbá líle

Fola eat eba strong

"Fola ate strong eba."

b) Folaí [tí ói je ẹbá líle]

Fola REL RSP eat eba strong

"Fola who ate strong eba."

13a) Ewurę bí ọmọ métä

Goat beget child three

"A goat beget three kids".

b) Ewure [tí óí bí ọmọ métä]

Goat REL RSP beget child three

"The goat that beget three kids".

Using example (13) as an illustration:

At the D-structure, the Theta assignment assigns the role of Agent to "Ewure", the entity performing the action of begetting, and assigns the role of Theme to "Omọ métä", the entity affected by the action of begetting, in accordance with the lexical entry of the verb "bí" meaning 'beget'.

FIG. 5.1. D-STRUCTURE

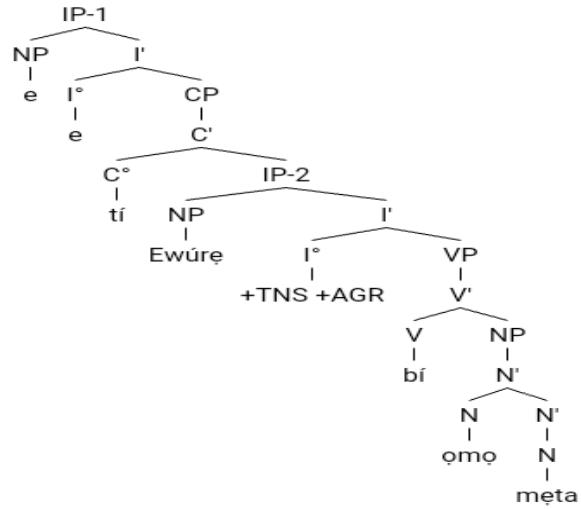
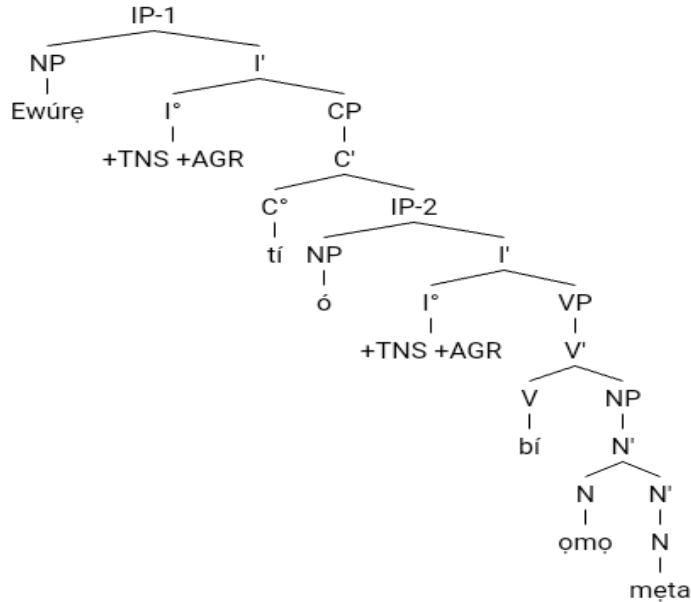


FIG.5.2 S-STRUCTURE



From the above trees, the subject NP "Ewúre" is relativized. At the D-Structure, the NP element, 'Ewure' moves from the specifier position in the IP (Inflectional phrase) of the lower clause to the empty [Spec, Rel IP], thereby leaving a trace that is occupied by a resumptive pronoun 'ó', which is interpreted as 'he/she/it', this resumptive pronoun is co-indexed with the moved constituent at the Surface structure. This movement accounts for the formation of the relative clause: "tí ó bí ọmọ métà" which is interpreted as:" that beget three kids" in (10b). This clause provides additional information about the noun "Ewure", it modifies. The clause specifies the particular goat being referred to by mentioning it has three kids.

4.1.1.2 The Direct Object Position

Direct object relativization in Standard Yorùbá Language, is achieved by moving the NP element to be modified into the [Spec, Rel IP]. Consider the following constructions:

14a). Mo ta ḥokó

1SG sell car

"I sold a car."

b) Ḫokói [tí mo tà t̄]

Car REL 1SG sell

"The car that I sold".

15a). Á ra àgùntàn

1PL buy sheep

"We bought a sheep".

b) Àgùntàni [tí á rà t̄]

Sheep REL 1PL buy

"The sheep that we bought".

16a) Títí jé burèdi kù

Titi eat bread remain

"Titi left over the bread."

b) Burèdi [tí Títí jẹ kù t̄]

Bread REL titi eat remain

"The bread that titi leftover".

17a). Bólúwatifé ní jé ọsàn

Bólúwatifé PROG eat orange

"Bólúwatifé is eating orange".

b) Ọsàn [tí Bólúwatifé ní jé t̄]

Orange REL BólúwatiféPROG eat

"The orange that Bólúwatifé Is eating".

Using example (17), as an illustration:

At the D-structure, the Theta assignment assigns the role of Agent to "Boluwatife", the entity eating the orange, and assigns the role of Theme to "Osán", the entity affected by the action of eating, in accordance with the lexical entry of the verb "jẹ" meaning 'eat'.

FIG.6.1 D-STRUCTURE

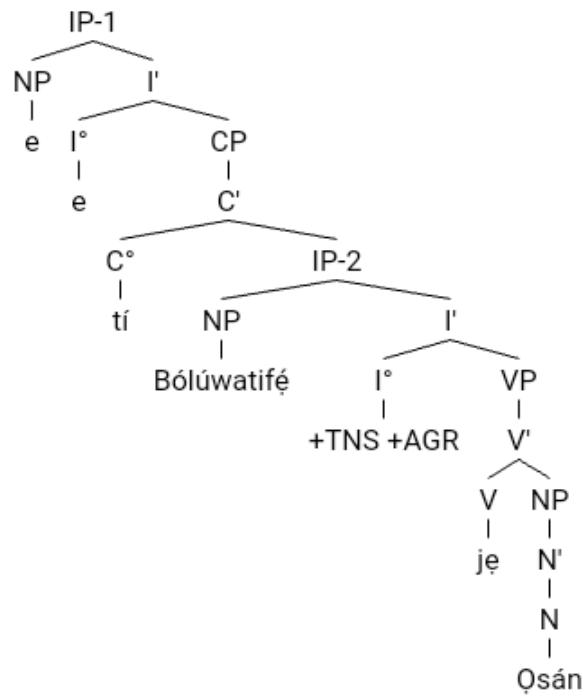
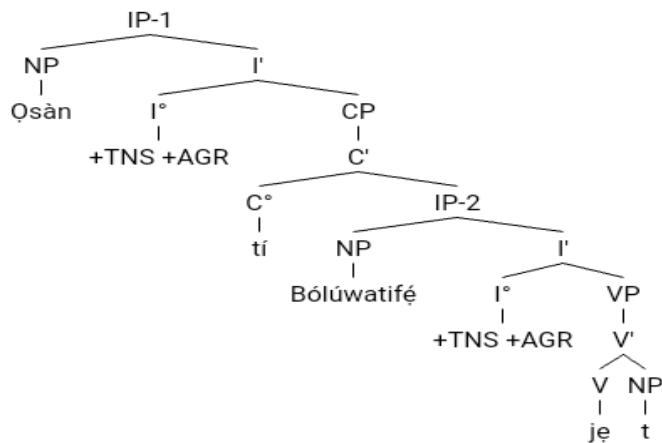


FIG.6.2 S-STRUCTURE



From the trees above, the direct object of the monotransitive verb 'níje', which is interpreted as "eating" is relativized. At the D-Structure, the relativized direct object NP 'Osan', moves from the object Position of the lower clause, to an empty NP position in the [Spec, Rel IP], that is, the specifier of the matrix clause/main clause, thereby leaving a trace at the original position (the direct object position) where it was moved, and this trace (ti) Is co-indexed (i) with the moved NP/constituent 'Osan', which is also the antecedent. This movement accounts for the formation of the relative clause: " tí Bólúwatífé ní je", which is interpreted as: "that boluwatife is eating" at the S-structure. This clause provides information about the object NP "Osán" it modifies, by noting that boluwatife is currently eating it.

4.1.1.3 The Indirect Object Position

In standard Yorùbá simple declarative sentences, the indirect object occur after a transitive preposition. Indirect object NP relativisation is achieved by moving the NP element to be modified into the [Spec, Rel IP]. Consider the following constructions:

- 18a) Mo rà Ilè işe burèdi fún Bòṣé

1SG buy house work bread for bose

" I bought a bakery for Bose".

- b) Bòṣé [tí mo rà Ilè işe burèdi fun ti]

Bose REL 1SG buy House work bread for

"Bose whom I bought bakery for".

19a). Ìyá mi rá sokoto fún mi

Mother me buy trouser PREP me

“My mother bought trouser for me.”

b) Èmi [tí ìyá mi rá sokoto fún t.]

I REL mother me buy trouser PREP

“I who my mother bought trouser for”.

20a) Mo fo kéké fún Túndé

1SG wash bicycle PREP Túndé

“I washed bicycle for tunde”.

b) Túndé [tí mo fo kéké fún ti]

Tunde REL 1SG wash bicycle PREP

“Tunde who I washed bicycle for”.

21a) Bòde jì owo fún kunle

Bode steal money PREP kunle

"Bode stole money for kunle".

b) Kunle [tí bode ji owo fún t̄]

Kunle REL bode steal money for

"Kunle whom bode stole money for".

Using example (21), as an illustration:

At the D-structure, the Theta assignment assigns the role of Agent to 'Bode" who performs the action of stealing, assigns the role of Theme to "Owo", the item stolen, and assigns the role of Beneficiary to "Kunle", for whom the money was stolen, in accordance with the lexical entry of the verb "ji" meaning 'stole'.

FIG.7.1 D-STRUCTURE

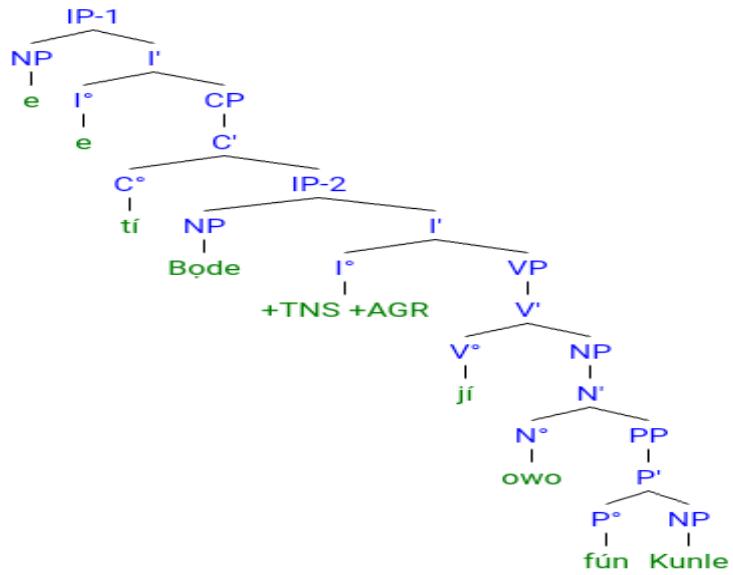
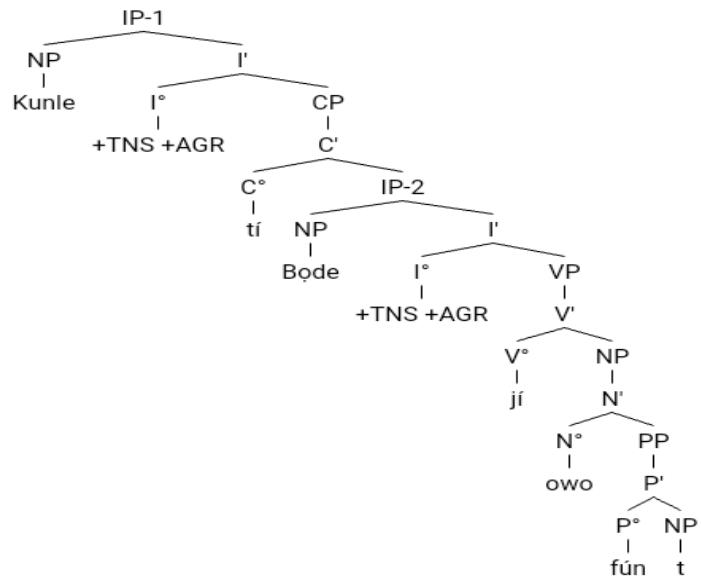


FIG.7.2 S-STRUCTURE



From the trees above, the indirect object of the transitive preposition "fún", meaning "for" is relativized. At the D-structure, the relativized indirect object NP "kunle", that is, the [NP, PP], moves from the object Position of the transitive preposition in the lower clause, to the empty NP position in the [Spec, Rel IP] or the [Spec, IP], that is, the specifier of the matrix clause, thereby leaving a trace at the original position (the indirect object position) where it was moved, and this trace (ti) Is co-indexed (i) with the moved NP/constituent antecedent "kunle", and the preposition "fún", is left stranded. This movement accounts for the formation of the relative clause: "tí bode jì owo fún", which is interpreted as: "whom bode stole money for", at the S-Structure. This clause provides information about the indirect object NP "Kunle" it modifies, by stating the specific person bode stole money for.

4.1.1.4 The Genitive Position

In standard Yorùbá simple declarative sentences, the possessed nouns usually occur before the possessor; and it is always a Noun-Noun construction.

Genitive Np relativization, in standard Yoruba is achieved by moving the NP element (the possessor) to be modified into the [Spec, Rel IP]. Consider the following examples below:

22a) Iwájú ilè-iwe fẹ

Front house-book wide

"The school's front is wide.

b) ilè-iwe_i [tí iwájú rẽ[’] fe]

House-book REL front PRO wide

"The school whose front is wide".

23a) Ará ọmọ obìrin náà ò ya

Body child woman ART NEG fine

"The woman's child is not fine".

b) Obìrin_i [tí ará ọmọ rẽ[’] ò ya]

Woman REL body child PRO NEG fine

"The woman whose child is not fine".

24a) Kókóraq Niké sònù

Key Nike lost

"Nike's key is missing".

b) Niké_i [tí kókóraq re_i sònù]

Niké REL key PRO lost

"Nike whose key is missing".

Using example (24), as an illustration:

At the D-structure, the Theta assignment assigns the role of Possessor to "Nike", the owner of the lost key, and, assigns the role of Theme to "Kökörö", the entity undergoing the state of being missing, in accordance with the lexical entry of the verb "şonu" meaning 'lost'.

FIG.8.1 D-STRUCTURE

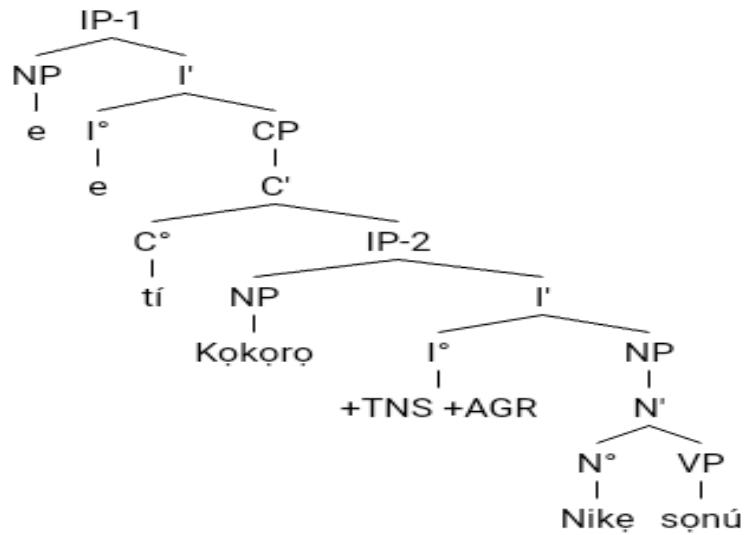
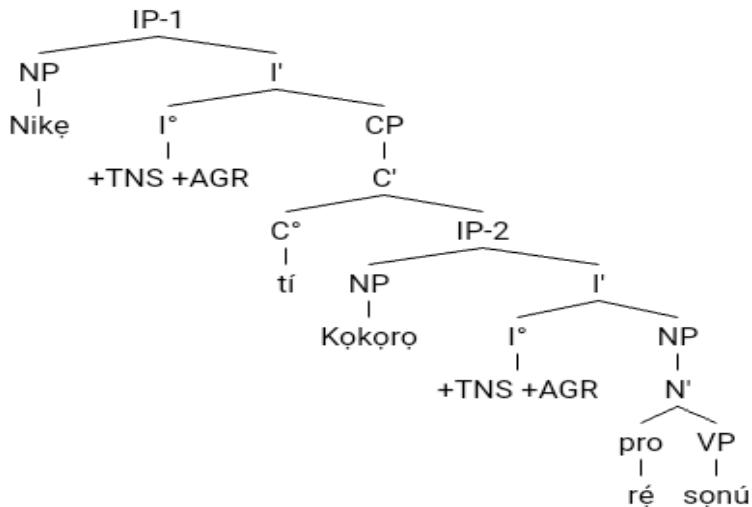


FIG.8.2 S-STRUCTURE



From the trees above, the genitive qualifier or the possessor is relativized. At the D-structure, the genitive qualifier "Nike" (the possessor of the missing key) moves from the

genitive position of the lower clause to the empty NP position in the [Spec, Rel IP], or the specifier position of the matrix clause. After movement, the genitive qualifier "Nike", leave a trace at the original position where it was moved and this trace is occupied by a possessive pronoun "rè" meaning "his/hers", which is co-indexed with the moved NP/ constituent antecedent. This movement accounts for the formation of the relative clause: "tí kókóro rè sónù", which is interpreted as: "whose key is missing" at the S-structure. This clause provides information about the modified NP "Nike" by mentioning that her key is missing.

4.1.1.5 The Oblique Position

In standard Yorùbá simple declarative sentences, prepositional phrases (PPs) occur immediately after the direct object of the verb. The Noun which occurs after the preposition in a prepositional phrase, is referred to as, "the object of the preposition". The object of the preposition stays in a position known as the "Oblique position", and it can be relativized when it moves to the specifier of the matrix clause. Consider the following constructions:

25a) Kunle rá aşo fun mi

Kunle buy cloth for me

"Kunle bought clothes for me"

b) Èmi [tí Kunle rà aşo fun t]

I REL kunle buy cloth for

"I who kunle bought clothes for"

26a) Mo gbé bátá si tábílí

I put shoe PREP table

"I place the shoe on the table".

b) Tábílì [tí mo gbé bátá si t_i]

Table REL i put shoe PREP

"The table which I place the shoe on ".

27a) Ìfẹ kọ lẹta si shade

Ife write letter PREP shade

"Ife wrote a letter to shade".

b) Shade [tí ìfẹ kọ lẹta si t_i]

Shade REL Ife write letter PREP

"Shade who ife wrote a letter to"

Using example (27), as an illustration:

At the D-structure, the Theta assignment assigns the role of Agent to "ìfẹ", who performs the action of writing, assigns the role of Theme to "lẹta", the item affected by the action,

and assigns the role of Goal to "Shade", the recipient of the action, in accordance with the lexical entry of the verb "K_o" meaning 'wrote'.

FIG.9.1 D-STRUCTURE

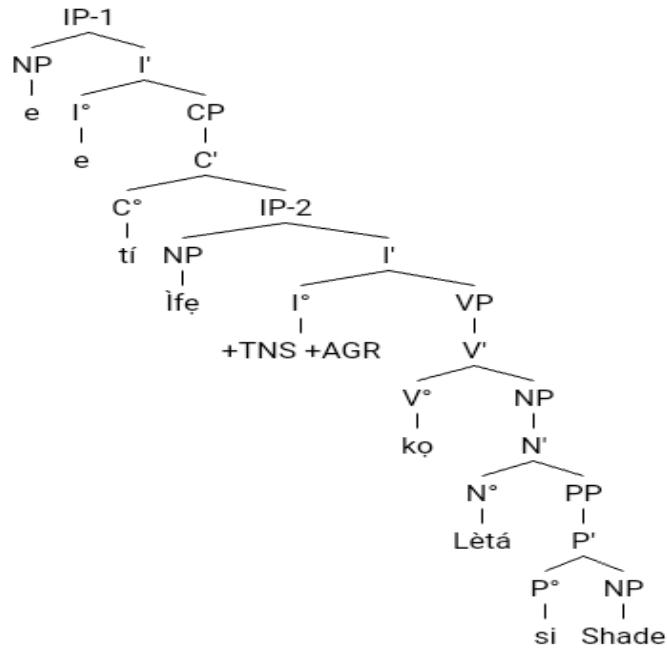
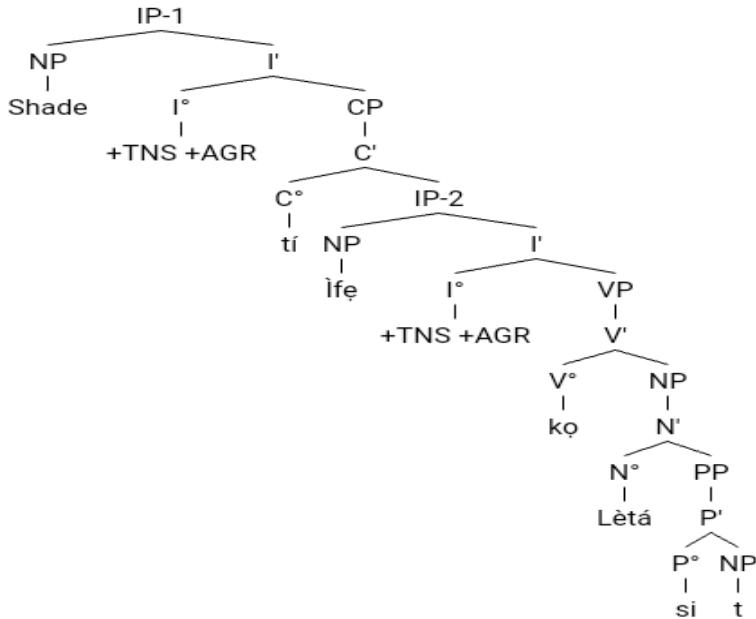


FIG.9.2 S-STRUCTURE



From the trees above, the object of the preposition "si", meaning "to" is relativized. At the D-Structure, the object of the preposition "Shade", in the construction moves from the oblique position of the lower clause to the empty NP position in the [Spec, Rel IP], or the specifier of the matrix clause. After movement the object of the preposition "Shade" leaves a trace at the original position where it was moved, and this trace(ti) is co-indexed(i) with the moved NP/constituent, leaving the preposition "si" stranded at the sentence final position. This movement accounts for the formation of the relative clause: "tí ife kó lètā si", which is interpreted as: "who ife wrote letter to" at the S-Structure. This clause provides information about Shade by noting that Ife wrote a letter to her.

4.1.2 Types of Relative Clauses

Relative clauses performs two functions, either they provide essential information about the Subject or Object NP they modify, or they provide additional or non-essential information about the head. Castillo (2003:25), states that relative operator that introduce Restrictive relative clause (RRC), are raised to the C° (head) within the CP (Complementizer phrase), while for Non-restrictive relative clauses (NRRCs) it is moved to the [Spec, CP]. Consider the types of relative clauses in standard Yorùbá language below:

4.1.2.1 Restrictive Relative Clauses

In Standard yorùbá, Restrictive relative clauses provides essential information about the subject or the Object NP they modifies. When Subject or Object NPs are moved and relativized, Restrictive relative clauses tell us specific information about them. Consider the following constructions:

28a) Ṣomọ́ ní sún

Child PROG sleep

"The child is sleeping".

b) Ṣomọ́i [tí ói ní sún] ti jí

Child REL RSP PROG sleep is wake

"The child who is sleeping is awake".

29a) Mo ni àgo əwo

1SG have clock hand

"I have a wrist watch".

b) Àgo əwɔi [tí mo ni tɔ] fúnfún ni

Clock hand REL 1SG have white is

"The wrist watch that I have is white".

39a) Mo ra əkɔ ni əsə to kojá

1SG buy car in week that pass

"I bought the car last week."

b) Əkɔi [tí mo ra ni ti əsə to kojá] ti bajə

Car REL 1SG buy in week that pass is spoil

"The car that I bought last week is broken."

Using example (39), as an illustration:

At the D-structure, the Theta assignment assigns the role of Agent to "Mo", the entity performing the action of buying, and assigns the role of Theme to "Oko", the entity

affected by the action of being bought, in accordance with the lexical entry of the verb "ra" meaning 'bought'.

FIG.10.1 D-STRUCTURE

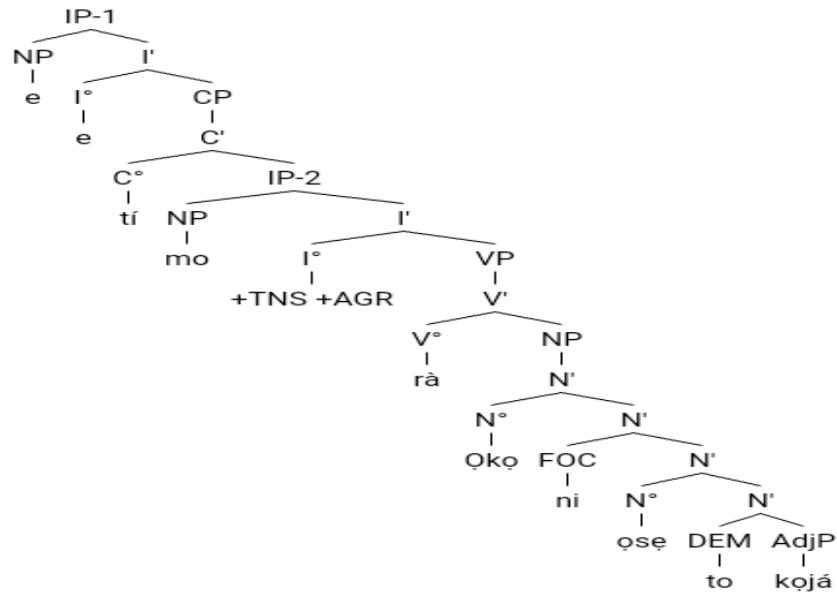
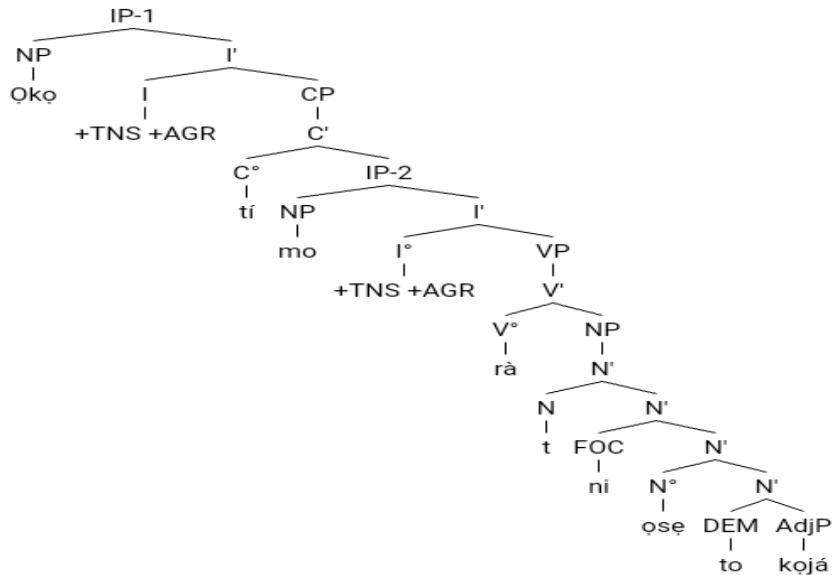


FIG.10.2 S-STRUCTURE



From the trees above, the Object NP of the monotransitive verb "Okó" is relativized and moved to the Specifier position of the matrix clause. This movement accounts for the formation of the Restrictive relative clause, "tí mo ra ni əsə to kojá", which is interpreted as "that I bought last week", this clause modifies the Object NP "Okó" providing essential information to identify which specific car is being referred to. If the restrictive relative clause "tí mo ra ni əsə to kojá" Is removed, the sentence

"Okọ tí baje", meaning "the car is bad", does not specify which car is being referred to, making the original clause crucial for clarity.

4.1.2.2 Non-Restrictive Relative Clause

In Standard Yorùbá, Non-restrictive relative clauses provides additional or non-essential information about then Subject NPs only. Consider the following constructions:

40a) Okọ pupa wà nì itá

Car red present in outside

"The red car is parked outside".

b) Okọi, [tí ói pupa], wà nì itá

Car REL PRO red present in outside

"The car, which is red, is parked outside".

41a) Giláàsi dúdú ti fọ

Glass black is break

"The black glass is broken".

b) Giláàsi, [tí ói dídú], ti fo

Glass REL RSP black is break

"The glass, which Is black, is broken".

42a) Aja Fúnfún gé mi je

Dog white cut me eat

"The white dog, bit me".

b) Àjá, [tí ói fúnfún], gé mi je

Dog REL RSP white cut me eat

"The dog, which is white, bit me".

Using example (42), as an illustration:

At the D-structure, the Theta assignment assigns the role of Agent to "Ajá fúnfún", the entity performing the action of biting, and assigns the role of patient to "mi", meaning 'me', the entity affected by the action of being bitten, in accordance with the lexical entry of the verb "gé" meaning 'bit'.

FIG.11.1 D-STRUCTURE

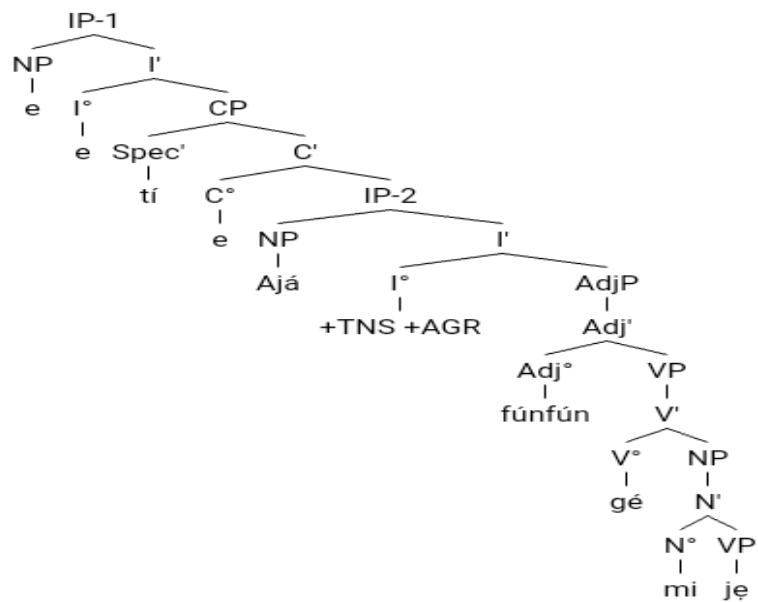
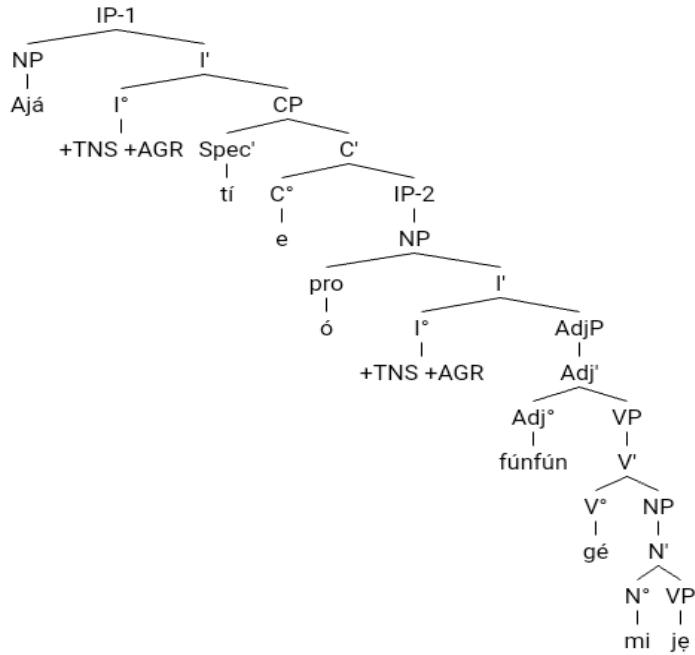


FIG.11.2 S-STRUCTURE



Here, the Subject NP "Ajá" is relativized and moved to the Specifier position of the matrix clause. This movement accounts for the formation of the Non-restrictive relative clause "tí ó fúnfún", which is interpreted as "which is white", this clause provides additional information about the dog by stating the Colour "fúnfún". Since, the clause is set off by comma, the information it provides about the Subject NP, "Ajá" is non-essential, because if the relative clauses "tí ó fúnfún" is removed, and we are left with "Aja gé mi je", which is interpreted as "the dog bit me", the message remains clear that the speaker is bitten by a dog and not by a snake.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we present the findings and conclusions drawn from our analysis of relativization in standard Yorùbá within the framework of Government and Binding (GB) theory. This chapter synthesizes the results of our research, highlighting key patterns and anomalies in the data.

5.1 FINDINGS

In our research about relativisation in standard Yorùbá, we discovered that standard Yorùbá uses raising construction, where the NP element which serves as a subject of the embedded clause moves into the subject position of the matrix clause, and pronoun retention of the case coding strategy, which involves a case where a pronoun or a pronominal marker referring to the head of the relative clause to achieve Subject NP relativization. The extraction site (the position from which a constituent moves), from which the relativized subject NP moves is never empty in standard Yorùbá, because the pronominal element "Ó" (he, she, it), which is also known as a resumptive pronoun, fills or replaced the original position of the moved constituent.

Direct object NP relativization is achieved through Non-case coding strategy and passivization, where the relativized direct object NPs move from the object position of the monotransitive verb "njé", to the specifier position of the matrix clause.

Indirect object NP relativization is achieved through the case coding strategy, where the transitive prepositions "fún", is always left stranded at the sentence final position; and passivization, where the indirect object of the transitive preposition moves from its object position to the [Spec, Rel, IP]. For direct object and indirect object NP relativization, we observe that no pronominal replacive occur at the extraction site, rather, the extraction site is left empty leaving a trace that is co-indexed to the moved constituents.

Genitive NP relativization is achieved through passivization, where the Genitive NP moves from its position to the [Spec, Rel IP], and the case coding strategy, where the possessive pronoun "rè" is referring back to the head of the relative clause or the moved NP/element. We also observe that, when this constituent (the Genitive NP) moves, the extraction site is never empty, instead a possessive pronoun "rè" meaning "his/hers" fills the extraction site, and this possessive pronoun is co-indexed with the moved Genitive NPs/constituent.

Oblique NP relativization, is achieved through passivization, where the relativized oblique NP moves from its position to the empty specifier of the matrix clause, that is, the [Spec,IP] of the matrix clause, and the case coding strategy, where prepositions are left stranded sentence finally. we observe that no pronominal replacive occur at the

extraction site, rather, the extraction site is left empty leaving a trace that is co-indexed to the moved constituents.

We discovered that standard Yorùbá has Non-restrictive relative clauses because most yorùbá scholars who worked on relativisation mentioned nothing about it. Standard Yorùbá restrictive relative clause modifies Subject and Object NPs and they are achieved through passivization (for object NP), and raising construction (for subject NP). Restrictive relative clauses provides information that are integral to the head, because they help to provide clarity, without them the specific subject or object we are talking about won't be understood. While Standard Yorùbá Non-restrictive relative clauses, provides additional or non-essential information about only Subject NPs using Adjectives, and they are achieved only through raising construction.

Hence, standard Yorùbá restrictive relative clauses are modifiers because they provide essential information about the Subject or Object NP they modify, while Non-restrictive relative clauses are not because they do not modify the antecedent and have no syntactic relation to its host/antecedent, because even with their removal the core meaning of the sentence remains unchanged. We also observed that thematic roles assigned to any entity remains the same even after transformation.

5.2 CONCLUSION

This study presented the phenomenon of relativisation in standard Yorùbá. A close look at the surface structure of Yorùbá relative clauses (RCs) reveals that there is a word order

change in their derivation processes. The modified NPs are moved to the specifier of the matrix clause and are followed by relative clauses which function as modifiers. Relativization is an obligatory transformation, that provides information about the NPs they modifies, and it is achieved through Passivization and Raising construction of the NP movement in standard Yorùbá. The relativizer "tí" functions as the clause introducer and Standard Yorùbá uses both case coding and Non-case coding of Keenan and Comrie's (1977), relativisation strategy to derive relative clauses. Cases in which Pronouns, such as: Resumptive Pronouns and Possessive Pronouns fill the extraction site of the moved NPs and stranded prepositions are carefully examined. We also discovered that while restrictive relative clauses are modifiers, in standard Yorùbá, Non-restrictive relative clauses are not.

The research filled the gap in Standard Yorùbá by introducing the Government and Binding (GB) theory of Chomsky (1981) to achieve Relativisation in the language. The X-bar theory and Move Alpha of the Government and binding theory appears to be more adequate for the derivation of relative clauses in Standard Yorùbá. However, this research is an effort to provide the basis for further studies on the topic and the Language.

REFERENCES

- Abdulkareem, M.A. (2023). Theta theory. Retrieved from
https://academia.edu/37577676/Theta_Theory.
- Abdulwaheed, O.O & Joseph, O.O. (2023). Relativization in uro and Arigidi dialect : A Government and Binding Approach. *International Journal of Social science Humanity & Management research*, 02, 68-77.
- Akintoye, O.S. (2017). Relative and Conditional Clause Constructions in iyàgbà Dialect. *Journal of Language and Education*, 3(2), 14-18.
- Akintoye, S.A. (2010). *A History of the Yorùbá People*. Dakar: Amalion Publishing.
<https://www.Jstor.org/stable/23236904>
- Akinkugbe, O.O. (1978). *A Comparative Phonology of Yorùbá Dialects; Itsekiri and Igala*. University of Ibadan dissertation.
- Alexiadou, A., Law, P., Meinunger, A., & Wilder, C. (Eds.). (2000). *The Syntax of Relative Clauses*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Anyanwu, O. (2007). Language of Nigeria. In Yusuf, O. (Ed.), *Basic Linguistics for Nigerian Language Teachers*. MandJ Orbit Communications Ltd. (pp. 169-184).
- Awobuluyi, O. (1975). *Relativization and nominalized sentences in Yoruba*. Paper presented at the Department of Linguistics and African Languages, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- (1978). *Essentials of Yoruba grammar*. Ibadan, Nigeria: Oxford University Press.
- Bamgbose, A. (1967). *A short Yoruba grammar*. Ibadan, Nigeria: Heinmann Educational Books Ltd.

- (1975a). *Relative clause and nominalized sentences in Yoruba*. Paper presented at the Linguistics and African Languages Department Seminar, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- (1975b). *Relativization and nominalization? Case of structure versus meaning in Yoruba*. Paper presented at the Linguistics and African Languages Department Seminar, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- (2011). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Butt , M.(2013). *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Castillo, C. (2003). The Difference between Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses.
Atlantis, 25 (2), 25-38. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/41055114>
- Cheryl, A.B. (1998). *A Step by Step Introduction to Government and Binding theory of Syntax*.
SIL-Mexico branch and University of North Dakota.
- Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic Structures*. Hague: Mouton & Co.
- (1957). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. MA:MIT Press.
-(1981). *Lectures on Government and Binding*. Dordrecht: Fortis Publication.
- Cinque, G. (1981). On Keenan and Comrie's Primary Relativization Constraint. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 12, 293-308.

- (2008). Two types of Non-restrictive relatives. *Empirical issues in Syntax and semantics*, 7, 99-137.
- (2009). Five Notes on Correlatives. *University of Venice Working Papers in Linguistics*, 19, 35-60.
- Crystal, D. (1980). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Australia: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Emenanjo, E. N. (2015). A grammar of Contemporary Igbo, Constituents, Features and Processes. *Linguistic Association of Nigeria (LAN)*, 405-411.
- Garzar, G. (2007). *Cognitive Linguistics: An Introduction*. Oxfordshire: Routledge.
- Grimes, B.F., (Ed.). (2000). Ethnologue. *Languages of the World*, 1. Dallas: SIL International.
- Haegeman, L. (1991). *Introduction to Government and Binding Theory*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Igboanusi, H. & Peter, L. (2005). *Languages in Competition*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- International African Institute. (1980). *Provisional survey of Major Languages in the Independent states of Sub-Saharan Africa*. P.Baker (Ed). UNESCO: International African Institute.
- Obayemi, A.M. (1976). Cultural Evolution of Northern Yorùbá, Nupe, and Igala, Part II, before A.D. 1800. *Quarterly Journal of the Kwara State Council for Arts and Culture*, 200-250.

- Okon, E.A. & Udosen, E. (2019). GB Syntax on NP movement to Argument position in
 Ùdá. *NigerianLanguage project*, 1, 1-53
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/368459504>
- Jackendoff, R. (1977). *X-bar Syntax: A Study of Phrase Structure*. Cambridge: MJT Press.
- Keenan, E.L. & Comrie, B. (1977). Noun Phrase Accessibility and Universal Grammar. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 8(1), 63-99. <https://www.Jstor.org/stable/4177973>
- Kuteva, T. & Comrie, B. (2005). *The Typology of Relative Clause formation in African Languages*. In F.K. Erhard Voelte (Ed.), *Studies in African Linguistics Typology*, 209-225.
- Lasnik, H. & Uriagereka, J. (1988). *A course in GB Syntax: Lectures on Binding and Empty Categories*. Cambridge. MIT Press.
- Mbah, B. M. (2016). *Principles and parameters: Theories of Linguistics*. Nsukka: University of Nigeria Press Ltd.
- Ndimele, O. (1992). *Cause-internal Movement as a Response to Case Summons*. Port-Harcourt: University of Port Harcourt.
- (2004). *The Parameters of Universal Grammar: A Government-Binding Approach*. Port-Harcourt: African Educational Services.
- Nordquist, R. (2020). Relativization. Retrieved from <http://thoughtCo.com>.
- Okolo, B.A. & Ezikeojiaku, P.A. (1999). *Introduction to Language and Linguistics*. Ugbowo:Mindex Publishing Company Limited.
- Olarerwaju, E.O. (2017). Ife Relative Clause. Retrieved from Yorubaforacademicpurpose.blogspot.com

- Omoruyi, T.O. (1989). Some features of Edo Relative Clauses and a Wh-Question type. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, 1(38), 137-153.
- Oyetade, S.O. (2007). Language Endangerment in Nigeria: Perspectives on Akoko Languages of the Southwest. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 169-184.
- (2011). The Yoruba Language in Diaspora: Lesson From The English Language. *Yoruba: Journal of the Yoruba studies Association of Nigeria*, 6(5), 1-24.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, G., Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (1972). *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman.
- Pinker, S. (1994). *The Language Instinct*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.
- Saeed, J.I. (2016). *Semantics* (4th Ed.). Oxford: Blackwell publishing Ltd.
- Schachter, P. (1985). Parts of Speech Systems. In T. Shopen (Ed.), *language Typology and Syntactic Description: Clause structure*, 1, 3-61.
- Sells, P. (1986). *Lectures on Contemporary Syntactic theories: An Introduction to Government and Binding Theory, Generalized phrase structure grammar, and Lexical Functional grammar*. Centre for the Study of Language and Information, Stanford. University of Chicago Press. (pp. 1-34).
- Steffani, S.A. & Dachtyl, L.A. (2007). Identifying Embedded and Conjoined Complex Sentence: Making it Simple. *Contemporary Issues in Communication Science and Disorders*, 34, 44-54. http://doi.org/10.1044/cicsd_34_S_44
- Stockwell, R.P. (1977). *Foundations of Syntactic theory*. Englewood Cliffs, New Delhi: Prentice-Hall.

Tafoya, D. (2017). *It's all relative (clauses)*. San Jose: San Jose State University writing Center.

www.sjsu.edu/writingcenter

Trask, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1993). *A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics*. London and New York: Routledge.

Uwasomba, B.U , (2024). Relativization in Ikwuano Dialect of Igbo. *In journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics Studies*, 6(1), 129-142.

www.scholink.org/ojs/index.php/eltls

de Vries, M. (2006). Possessive Relatives and (Heavy) Pied Piping. *Journal of Comparative Germanic Linguistics*, 9, 1-52.

..... (2018). Relative clauses in syntax. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Linguistics*. Retrieved from <http://linguistics.oxfordre.com>

Williamson, K. & Blench, R. (2000). *Niger-Congo in Heine. African Languages: An introduction*. B. & D. Nurse (Eds.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.