

# Problems of Subject Raising Constructions among Yorùbá ESL<sup>1</sup> Learners

Razaq Akolawole Raheem  
Department of English  
University of Ibadan, Nigeria  
[razaqakolawole@yahoo.com](mailto:razaqakolawole@yahoo.com); [razaqakolawole@gmail.com](mailto:razaqakolawole@gmail.com)

## Abstract

Raising is an upward movement that concerns structures whose derivation involves copy, merger, and deletion and movement operations in the Minimalist Program. The proficiency of Yorùbá ESL learners and speakers of English is hindered as a result of interference from the mother tongue and divergence in raising constructions. Thus, this study examines subject-raising constructions in English and Yorùbá to explicate the root cause of the problem and the extent to which Yorùbá learners of English could be affected. Chomsky's copy-theory of movement is adopted as the theoretical framework. Data for both languages are drawn from syntax literature. The Yorùbá data are supported with introspection. Different types of subject raising such as subject-to-subject, object-to-subject raising and raising of the clause to the subject position are carefully studied.

This study discovers that subject raising in English is different from what is permitted in Yorùbá. A raised element in Yorùbá often leaves behind a presumptive pronoun for convergence. While raising is permitted in non-finite structure in English, Yorùbá allows raising in a finite clause. Therefore, raising structures especially subject raising, are not easy for Yorùbá learners of English due to language variations. Thus, learners are forced to avoid the structure or misapply their LI knowledge on similar construction in the English language. It is concluded that teachers of English should be aware of these areas of difficulties for effective teaching and learning processes.

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<sup>1</sup> ELS is the acronym for English as a Second Language.

**Keywords:** Raising, subject raising, Yoruba learners, English as a Second Language (ESL) Copy Movement

## Introduction

Raising is a kind of construction that involves the movement of the subject of a non-finite embedded clause to the subject position of the matrix clause (Rosembaun, 1967; Postal, 1974). The trigger for the movement is the null-subject matrix verb such as *seem*, *appear* which needs a subject in the matrix clause, to fulfil the EPP condition that every clause must have its subject. Raising is a parameter of language variation (Chomsky, 1995; Ura, 1995; Ademola-Adeoye, 2010) because not all languages permit this kind of null-subject verb as English. Similarly, not all languages allow such movement as English. Since raising involves the movement of an element from a lower category to the higher category, this study explores subject raising in English and Yorùbá. It also examines how acceptable grammatical outputs are derived in these raising operations. This study attempts to investigate the nature of this concept and how it affects Yorùbá learners of English.

The raising phenomenon is considered a parameter which is a language-specific attribute. It is shown that raising constructions are problematic for L2 learners of English (Callies, 2008). It is observed that the kind of DP-raising in English is different from what is permitted in Yorùbá (Adesola, 2005). For instance, consider the examples below:

1. Bob seems [ $\emptyset$  to love Sylvia]

↑

2. Olú<sub>I</sub> jọ pé ó<sub>i</sub> fẹràn Sọlá

↑

*Olu resemble that he likes Shola*

Olu seems to like Shola

In sentence (1) above, English raises the embedded subject to the matrix subject position leaving an empty slot behind. The raised DP element in (2) which is a Yorùbá example leaves a trace - like element in form of a pronominal copy (ó) before the grammaticality of the structure could be satisfied. Raising with a pronominal copy at the extraction site is a variety of raising referred to as copy-raising (Ura, 1994 and Brook, 2016). From the foregoing,

it would be difficult for a Yorùbá ESL speaker to use such constructions effectively because their realization is different in both languages. As a result of these observations, Subject raising structures are selected to be fully examined in the sections that follow.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The proficiency of Yorùbá ESL learners and speakers of English is hindered as a result of interference from the mother tongue and divergence in raising constructions. Banjo (1969) has already observed that the Yorùbá language has more constraints than English in word order. For instance, Adesola (2005) proves that the kind of subject raising in English is different from what is permitted in Yorùbá. Han et al. (2005), Korostenskaja (2014) and Vainikka (2009) have agreed that raising structures especially subject raising are not easy for L2 learners due to language variations. Thus, learners are forced to misapply their LI knowledge on similar construction in the second language. Thus, this study examines subject raising constructions in English and Yorùbá to explicate the root-cause of the problem and the extent to which Yorùbá learners of English could be affected.

### **Aim and Objectives of the Study**

This study aims to compare raising constructions in both English and Yorùbá structures. The study intends to achieve the following objectives:

- i. To identify the areas of convergence and divergence regarding raising constructions in English and Yorùbá.
- ii. To investigate and identify areas where the Yorùbá ESL learners and users may encounter difficulties in raising constructions.
- iii. To show how a language teacher can use the knowledge of raising constructions for effective and efficient teaching and learning.

### **Theoretical Framework**

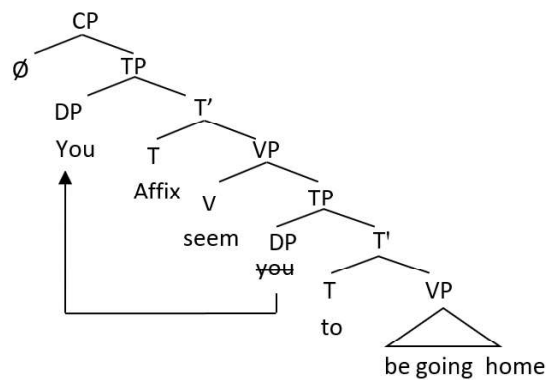
The theoretical framework adopted in this study is the copy theory of movement in the Minimalist Program. The movement in MP is diverse from what obtains in PPT. The movement operation is processed via a copy theory of movement which is a composite operation involving two sub-operations of copying and deletion. In the copy theory, the item to be moved is duplicated (copied) and a copy is adjoined to the landing site, while the original copy is deleted from the extraction site. According to the copy theory, a trace is a copy of the moving element that is deleted in the phonological component in overt movement but is available for interpretation (Chomsky, 1995: 203).

This could be exemplified through the derivation of auxiliary raising as follows:

3. [TP [D you] [T' [T will] [VP [Marry me]]]]
4. [CP [C Will] [TP [D you] [T' [T will] [VP [Marry me]]]]]

The initial TP *You will marry me* is merged with null-complementizers to attract a copy of the T-auxiliary *will* to adjoin to it forming CP *Will you will marry me*. Subsequently, the phonetic feature of the original *will* is deleted to derive *Will you marry me*, while the space is vacant. The raised auxiliary is overtly spelt out to form the derivation *will you marry me?* Raising could be illustrated with the following diagram:

5.



A schema showing DP subject raising is diagrammatic above. It shows a DP raising structure. It demonstrates how the lower DP *you* in the lower TP moves to the Spec-T in the upper TP.

### Yorùbá ESL Learners

Yorùbá is the principal language of the Western states of Ekiti, Ondo, Osun, Oyo, Ogun and Lagos of Nigeria. It is also being spoken to some extent in Kwara, Kogi and Edo states, Benin Republic and Togo (Omotoye, 1999). Yorùbá is widely used as the mother tongue and lingua franca in the South Western part of Nigeria. Yorùbá is the mother tongue of the Yorùbá learners of English in the present investigation. Yorùbá speakers represent about ten percent of Nigeria's population based on the figures of 2006 national.

English as a Second Language (ESL) is a bilingual or multilingual situation whereby English exists along with the native language or mother tongue. ESL is a form of English learned and used alongside or in addition to the first language or mother tongue in a multilingual environment. Yorùbá ESL learners are those whose native language is Yorùbá or those who are born and brought up in Yorùbá speaking communities while they speak Yorùbá as their Mother Tongue. They are learning English as a second language through their education in primary, secondary and tertiary institutions, where English is used as a medium of instruction and communication. In this way, the language proficiency of an ESL learner is often fraught with a lot of influences from either of the languages to the other. Thus, the competence of Yorùbá learners of English as a second language cannot be compared with learners who speak English as L1.

### **English as a Second Language (ESL) in Nigeria**

English as a Second Language (ESL) is a bilingual or multilingual situation whereby English exists along with the native language or mother tongue. Afolayan (1991) regards ESL as both a variety of English and a discipline. As a variety of English, ESL is a form of English learned and used alongside or in addition to the first language or mother tongue in a multilingual environment. In this way, there is a kind of interference from the First Language (L1) to the Second Language (L2) and vice versa. As a result, the use of English as a Second Language (ESL) will be different from the use of English as a Mother Tongue. ESL is concerned with learning and teaching English as a second language.

A second language is a language that is learnt after the first language has been acquired by a bilingual person. A bilingual person is anybody that can speak two languages. It is often a mother tongue of a neighboring or foreign speech community, which is modified due to interference from local flavor to suit the new environment. It is a variety of language used to conduct day-to-day formal and informal activities along with the first language. Adegbite and Akindele (2005: 49) define a second language as a language which is usually the sequentially second language of a bilingual person.' It is also 'a language that is learned and used extensively in addition to the first language' (Ogun-siji, 2015). A second language is used for different important functions such as interactions, inter-ethnic communication, education, commerce, and politics. For instance, the English language is used in Nigeria as a second language to serve these purposes.

Over the years since the English language was introduced through trade merchants, missionaries and colonial activities, the status of the English

language has continued to grow in leaps and bounds. In Nigeria, the English language is assigned the role of official language. It serves multiple purposes nationwide. It is a symbol of oneness and unity. It is the language of cross-ethnic interaction, education, politics, the media, trade and commerce, the judiciary, administration, etc. The 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria recognises Hausa, Igbo and Yorùbá as the major indigenous languages that will be used in communication. These languages exist alongside the English language.

Consequently, the mutual existence of English and the indigenous languages produced different kinds of multilingual and bilinguals in the Nigerian setting. In addition to their native languages, many Nigerians use English as a second language at different levels especially for inter-ethnic communication, educational, political, and commercial purposes. However, there are populations of Nigerians who are monolinguals. In a situation like this, scholars such as Lamidi (2003) that when two languages come in contact the indigenous language has some influences on the second language. This is because some of the speakers often adopt what is known in the native language to supplement what is yet to be known in the second language; and a tendency to switch from one language to another. This scenario has further created many challenges for ESL learners in speaking the English language, in any of the speech communities in Nigeria. Some other challenges faced by ESL learners and speakers are enumerated below.

### **Challenges of ESL in Nigeria**

Many problems are associated with speaking and learning English as a second language. Bamisaye (2004) expresses the view that learners, as well as teachers, always face a lot of difficulties in the teaching-learning process of ESL in Nigeria. Ogunsiji (2015) emphasizes that the interference of our indigenous languages on English is a major problem confronting the teaching and learning of English as a second language. In a similar study, Gan (2012) who corroborates Bamisaye (2004) identifies difficulties ESL students in Hong-Kong encounter in their speaking of the English language. This fact has underscored common problems of ESL across languages. Problems of ESL among the speakers and learners include the following:

- i. Language Variation:** English and Yorùbá are different languages. Though they correspond in terms of their word order they are varied in many grammatical structures. One of the areas of divergence is raising constructions which Yorùbá learners of English encounter difficulties due to variation in the derivation of such structures in both languages.

- ii. **The Problem of Linguistic Interference:** Nigeria is a multi-lingual environment where many citizens are either multilingual or bilinguals in the Nigerian language(s) and English. There are areas where English is like Nigerian languages especially Yorùbá and they also diverge in some other areas. The areas of divergence have been identified to be problematic to the speakers and learners as well as teachers. This variation, however, influences their transfer of the features of the native language into English in which their proficiency is affected.
- iii. **The Problem of Derived Structures:** Some structures that are derived from canonical sentences are difficult for Yorùbá ESL learners to construct. These structures include passive sentences and raising constructions. This is due to the absence or variation of these structures in the language. Subject raising constructions are difficult because of the variation that exists in the structure in both languages, while auxiliary raising is a problem for Yorùbá ESL learners due to the absence of DP-auxiliary inversion in the Yorùbá language.
- iv. **Lack of Good Models:** The Proficiency of many Yorùbá learners of English often depends on the level of their teachers whose knowledge is full of interference from the native language. These teachers at times lack basic knowledge of different syntactic structures in English. This makes them be ill-equipped to teach structures such as those involving raising constructions.
- v. **Inconsistence in the System of English:** There are a lot of disparities in the phonological and grammatical systems of the English language. There is no correlation between phonemes and orthography. Likewise, there are grammatical imbalances in tense, plural and rule formation. Learners are often confused, and they sometimes resort to over-generalization of grammatical formation in writing or speaking.
- vi. **Inadequate Vocabulary and Mastery of Grammar:** Speakers and learners of ESL are not native speakers of the language. So, they often face a shortage of vocabulary especially in interpersonal communication because they are yet to master different vocabulary for various contexts. As a result, they could not express themselves clearly and appropriately. Similarly, some grammatical rules such as subject-verb agreement, tense markers and plural markers (including third-person singular forms) are great challenges to ESL speakers and learners. Many speakers do not even observe these rules while others scarcely obey them, especially in connected speeches. To ensure grammatical accuracy, some Yorùbá ESL resorted to slow speech which often affects their fluency. In this way, ‘their learned grammatical knowledge serves as an editor or monitor’

(Krashen, 1988), but this does not always work because there may not be enough time to think about what to say.

- vii. Imperfect Pronunciation:** As a result of the non-native environment, many speakers and learners of ESL in Nigeria have the problem with pronunciation. This is borne out of lack of certain sound segments in Nigerian languages or due to interference from the mother tongue and imperfect learned pronunciation and intonation. For instance, the pronunciation of ‘think’ as /tink/ instead of /θink/ among the Yorùbá ESL speakers. Thus, the development of native-like pronunciation and intonation is difficult for an ESL speaker.
- viii. Inadequate Opportunity to Speak English:** Many Nigerian ESL speakers do not have the opportunity to speak the language where they could be corrected like in a school environment. English has assumed the status of inter-ethnic communication for mutual understanding. Yet many people don’t even have this opportunity within or across their native language due to high level of illiteracy. The learners of ESL only speak the English language in schools when they get home, they speak their various mother tongues.
- ix. Lack of Motivation:** Some of the speakers and learners of ESL often feel intimidated or shy to speak the language because they thought that their native colleagues will think that they are arrogant for speaking a foreign language rather than a native language. Some learners may not speak it because they don’t want to commit grammatical errors. These are some of the factors that discourage Yorùbá ESL speakers and learners from speaking the language.
- x. Limited Teaching-Learning Period and Linguistic Materials:** In an ESL situation like Nigeria, ‘learners and teachers usually face the problems of sparse and artificial linguistic materials’ (Bamisaye, 2004) which could be used to achieve a native-like competence. Most texts and illustrations are drawn from Nigeria which is a non-native environment where English is taught as a second language. More so, the time allocated to teaching-learning the subject in schools is not sufficient. Teaching ESL requires more contact hours.

### **Subject Raising**

Subject (DP) raising, also called raising (Radford, 2009: 264), is a ‘type of structure which involves movement of an argument expression out of one clause to become the subject of another clause’. Radford (2009:265) states that it is a movement operation by which nouns or pronouns move from the



Specifier position of a lower TP to become the Specifier of a higher TP. This means that the subject or object of an embedded clause is moved to the position of subject or object of a matrix clause respectively. It follows that some verbs select a CP-clause or infinitival clause as complement while others select a DP and an infinitival clause as a complement (Borsley, 1991:134; Jong-Bok Kim and Peter Sells, 2007: 127). Subject Raising is triggered by a class of verbs called null subject verbs and some adjectives that take expletive *there* or *it* as their subjects (Carnie, 2006; Radford, 2006). These include *seeming, appear, happen, likely, and certain*. The rationale behind such mobility is that the infinitive verb in the embedded clause lacks appropriate features (tense and agreement) which prevent it from assigning the nominative cases to its argument. Therefore, the argument moves to the subject position of the matrix clause where its syntactic features can be interpreted. It is also referred to as upward or leftward mobility.

As a syntactic rule, subject raising is motivated by the Extended Projection Principle (EPP) that every clause must have a subject (Ouhalla, 1999:125). Hence, its operation merges complement's subject (NP/DP) with main clause subject or object through some kinds of main clause verbs (Postal, 1974:284). Subject raising is classified into subject-to-subject raising, subject-to-object raising. The third classification is the raising of a clause to the subject position of a matrix clause. This is possible when a CP-clause or an infinitival clause is raised to the subject position of the main clause (Borsley, 1991:134; Carnies, 2007: 300). The data for this study shall illustrate these classifications in detail.

## **Data Analysis**

### **Subject Raising in Yorùbá and English**

The following sentences show raising constructions in English and Yorùbá languages. The sentences are presented to portray the underlying structures, as well as various ways in which raising could be derived in similar structures in both languages. In these languages, raising is not haphazardly executed but through some syntactic rules that spell out the grammaticality of the whole structure after the movement has taken place. This is exemplified in the structures in '6-18'. The examples could be categorized into three. These are raising subject to subject position, raising the object to subject position and raising clause to subject position:

#### **8.1.1. Subject to Subject Raising**

Raising subject to the subject position is performed when the subject of an embedded subject is raised to the subject position of the

matrix clause. This syntactic operation is motivated by the EPP condition that every clause must have its subject. The matrix verbs such as *seem* and *happen* as well as some adjectives which include *likely* lack subject since they are null-subject lexical items. The infinite verb in the embedded is also weak to assign a nominative case to the subordinate subject. Thus, the embedded subject is compelled to raise to the higher subject position in the matrix clause where the nominative case is assigned and served as the subject of the whole clause. Consider these examples:

6a.  $\emptyset$  seems [Joy to be happy] (ENGLISH)

b. ?It seems [Joy to be happy]

c. It seems [that he is happy]

d. \*He seems [that  $\emptyset$  is happy]

e. He seems [to be happy]

f. Joy seems [ $\emptyset$  to be happy]



7a.  $\emptyset$  is likely [that John wins the prize]

b. It is likely [that John wins the prize]

c. John is likely [ $\emptyset$  to win the prize]



8a.  $\emptyset$  jọ [pé Adé ti jẹ isu] Yorùbá

*$\emptyset$  resembles [that Ade has eaten yam]*

$\emptyset$  seems [that Ade has eaten yam]

b. Ó jọ [pé Adé ti jẹ isu]

*It resemble that Ade has eaten yam*

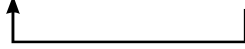
It seems that Ade has eaten yam

c. O jọ pé ó ti jẹ isu

*It resemble that he has eaten yam*

It seems that he has eaten yam

d. Ade<sub>1</sub>jọ pé ó<sub>i</sub> tí jẹ́ isù



*Ade resemble that he has eaten yam*

Ade seems to have eaten yam

9a. Ó seése [kí Olú wá sí ilé

*It is likely that Olu comes to home*

It is likely that Olu come home

b. Olú<sub>i</sub> seése kí o<sub>i</sub> wá sí ilé



*Olu likely that he come to home*

Olu is likely to come home

A careful study of the illustrations above has proven that some elements can be raised, i.e. moved leftward to another position. Examples ‘6-9’ demonstrate subject (NP) raising in Yorùbá and English. The two languages depict NP raising in different structures but the nature of such mobility are varied in both languages. In English, three raising predicates *seem*, *belief* and *likely* are used. Yorùbá differs from English in the process of raising elements from lower to a higher category.

In English, the subject of the embedded clauses in ‘6’ and ‘7’ move leftward to the subject positions of the matrix clauses, but it moves to the object position of the matrix clause in ‘6d’. Examples in (6a, 7a and 8a) show the raising predicate *seem* in its underlying form as a null-subject verb. In ‘6b’, the raising verb *seem* to take an expletive *it* as the subject and an infinitive clause as a complement. The assumption is that if the embedded clause is an infinitive, the embedded subject cannot be case-marked by the non-finite verb (Carstens and Diercks, 2013). Such sentence as ‘6b’ is thus barred. The verb *seem* also takes expletive *it* in ‘6c’ where the embedded clause is finite. The sentence in ‘6c’ is acceptable since it has a finite structure in both matrix and embedded clauses which are complete phases (CP and vP respectively).

Due to the incomplete feature of the expletive *it*, In ‘6d’, the subject of the embedded clause *Bob* moves to the matrix subject position, but such movement results in ungrammatical structure. This means that such movement is not allowed. This has confirmed Ademola-Adeoye’s (2010) analysis that raising out of a finite clause is not possible in English. She concludes that raising is only possible in a non-finite embedded clause. This is what obtains in ‘6e’ and ‘6f’ where the pronominal and nominal subjects raise from non-finite embedded clauses. Similar movement occurs in ‘7c’ where the subject of the

embedded clauses *John* raises from the subject position of infinitive clauses to the subject position of the matrix clauses.

However, derivation of grammatical sentences in (8) and (9) is achieved through the resumptive pronoun ‘*o*’ left behind by raised items. In ‘8d’ and ‘9b’, *Ade* and *Olu* are raised to the sentence-initial positions and both leave a resumptive pronoun ‘*o*’ behind at the extraction site. A variety of raising with the resumptive pronoun at the extraction site is referred to as copy-raising (Adesola, 2005; Ademola-Adeoye, 2010). Raising in English is possible in a non-finite embedded clause whereas this is not allowed in Yorùbá sentences where a resumptive pronoun is left behind at the extraction site. This is achieved as the last resort to make the sentence grammatical in the language.

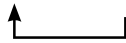
### 8.1.2. Object to Subject Raising

Unlike the subject to subject raising in which the matrix verb is a null-subject lexical item and intransitive, the English matrix verb in subject to object raising takes a subject and it is transitive, but the embedded clause must be infinite.

10a. John believes  $\emptyset$  [(that) Bobs loves Sylvia]. (ENGLISH)

b. John believes  $\emptyset$  [that Bobs loves Sylvia].

c. John believes Bob [that  $\emptyset$  love Sylvia]



d. John believes Bob [ $\emptyset$  to love Sylvia]



11a. Ó wù mí láti jẹ̀ irẹ̀sì (YORÙBÁ)

*It interest me to eat rice*

I wish to eat rice

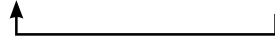
b. \*mí wù  $\emptyset$  láti jẹ̀ Irẹ̀sì



*Me interest to eat rice*

I wish to eat rice

c. Irẹ̀sì wù mí láti jẹ̀ ø



*Rice interest me to eat*

I wish to eat rice

Sentences in (10) show how the subject of the embedded clause raises to become the object of the matrix clause. In sentences (10a and 10b), the matrix verb is transitive, but it lacks an object while the embedded clause is finite. This implies that raising is not possible in the embedded clause, whereas the EPP condition in the matrix verb necessitates the object position to be filled. Hence, *Bob* which is the subject of the embedded clause is raised to the object position of the matrix clause in (10c) leaving that embedded verb without a subject. Such structure also violates EPP condition. To make the embedded clause a grammatical expression, the embedded verb is converted to infinitive because raising is not possible in a finite clause in English.

In (11), the object of the embedded clause (11a), *irẹ̀sì* is raised to the subject position at the beginning of the sentence. The matrix verb in (11) can take both expletive and nominal items as the subject. As a result of the incomplete features in the expletive *o*, there is a need to raise a close nominal item to fill the matrix subject slot. Any attempt to raise that object of the matrix clause will produce an ungrammatical structure as in (11b). Thus, the object of the embedded clause *iresi* is raised for a grammatical output in (11c).

It should be noted that the subject of the embedded clause is raised to the object position of the matrix clause in English but the reverse is the case in Yorùbá data in (11) where the object of the embedded clause is raised to the subject slot of the matrix clause.

### 8.1.3. Clause to subject Raising

Like other structures discussed earlier, subject raising could also be realized at the clausal level. It is possible to raise an embedded clause from a lower category to the subject position of the matrix clause. Clauses are raised to matrix clause position to eliminate an expletive which is regarded as an extra element in derivation. The structures below are good examples of clause raising to subject position.

12a. It is obvious that the world is round (ENGLISH)

b. That the world is round is obvious  $\emptyset$



13a. It surprised me to hear him say that

b. To hear him say that surprised me  $\emptyset$



14a. Ó dára kí á pa àgo meta (YORÙBÁ)

*It good that we erect shed three*

It is good that we erect three sheds

b. Kí á pa àgo meta dára  $\emptyset$



*That we erect shed three good*

It is good that we erect three sheds

15a. Ó wù mí bí ó \_\_\_\_\_ se múra

*It interest me how 3prs: sing do dress*

I like the way she/he dressed

b. Bí ó \_\_\_\_\_ se múra wù mí  $\emptyset$



*How 3prs: sing do dress interest me*

I like the way she/he dressed


16a. Ó burú bí ó \_\_\_\_\_ se sá lẹ

*It bad how 3prs: sing. do run away*

It is bad that she/he ran away



b. ?Ti ó                      ba                      sá lo                      burú ø



If 3prs: sing. Attempt run away bad

If she/he runs away is bad

Examples '17' refers to the manner of the action *sa lo*, '18' demonstrates the fact of the matter. Both occurrences show that the action has been completed in the past or present. Structure in '18' is a conditional statement that is probable to happen in the nearest future but '18b' is not natural which means that raising in such a structure is excluded.

### Findings

Subject Raising constructions in English and Yorùbá conform to the use of *it*-expletive to provide the obligatory subject for the null-subject clause to satisfy the EPP condition. They also display features of subject and object raising. Likewise, both languages raise clauses from sentence final to the initial position. Subject to subject raising and raising of an embedded clause to the matrix subject slot is permitted in both languages, but the English language permits the subject of the embedded to raise to the object position of the matrix clause. This is not possible in Yorùbá where the object of the embedded clause is allowed to raise to the matrix subject position.

The raised DP in subject to subject raising in Yorùbá often leaves a trace like element in form of a pronominal copy (*ó*) before the grammaticality of the structure could be satisfied. A pronominal copy of the raised DP is a pronoun that refers to the antecedent in the main clause and it has the same syntactic features as the raised DP (Ura, 1995; Adesola, 2005 and Ademola-Adeoye, 2010). It is a last resort operation that saves the sentence from crashing due to the movement of a DP (Koopman 1984: 128). This is illustrated in '8d' and '9b'. English, on the other hand, raises elements without any resumptive pronoun left behind. The existence of trace-like resumptive pronouns in some languages is what Ura (1994) and Brook (2016) refer to as copy-raising.

It is also observed that *jọ pé*, *seése*, *dára*, *burú*, and *wu* etc. behave as raising predicates in Yorùbá examples. This has confirmed Bamgbose (2010) that they are raising predicates in Yorùbá. In English, *seem*, *likely*, *interest* etc., are raising predicates. Similarly, the clauses can also be raised in both languages, where the clausal complements are raised to the subject positions of the main clause.



## Conclusion

This paper has examined the subject raising constructions in English and Yorùbá. It has achieved the focus of the paper which is to compare and contrast the structures in both languages. Both languages display clear evidence of raising constructions. They raise subject elements from the embedded clauses to the matrix clauses. The problem areas for learners of English have been identified in the disparity in subject raising constructions between the two languages. The distinctions in subject raising constructions include: the retention of a pronominal copy in Yorùbá structures, while the subject to object is possible in English, object to subject is allowed in Yorùbá. These problems can only be prevented if teachers of English equip themselves with the information on subject raising constructions for effective teaching and learning.

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