Abstract

This paper presents a comparative investigation contrasting Brazilian Portuguese and European Portuguese with respect to raising constructions. We provide an account of the attested fluctuation among raising, control, and impersonal constructions based on the Case- and \( \theta \)-properties of the structures involved in each dialect. We also discuss the pervasive spreading of raising constructions (including cases of overt and “covert” hyper-raising) in Brazilian Portuguese and its relation to the loss of referential null subjects in this dialect.

0. Introduction

This paper discusses the general similarities and differences between Brazilian Portuguese (BP) and European Portuguese (EP) with respect to a variety of raising structures. In addition to discussing standard cases of DP raising from the subject position of an infinitival clause to the subject position of a finite clause, we will also examine the close knit relationship among impersonal, raising, and control structures, and discuss instances of “hyper-raising” (A-movement out of finite clauses; see Ura 1994). By undertaking a detailed comparison between the two dialects, which are identical in some aspects but

* Parts of this work were discussed in a presentation with Maria Eugênia Duarte (see Duarte, Martins, and Nunes 2002) at the 3.º Colóquio “Português Europeu e Português Brasileiro – Unidade e Diversidade na Passagem do Milénio”, which was held at the Universidade de Lisboa, on 23-25/09/02. Thanks to the audience of the colloquium and the editors of this volume, Mary Kato and João Peres, for their comments and suggestions. We are especially grateful to Maria Eugênia Duarte for her invaluable contributions to this paper. The second author would also like to thank the support he received from FAPESP (grant 2002/00114-1) and CNPq (grant 300897/96-0).
distinct in others, we hope to offer some new insights with respect to the nature of syntactic variation regarding the availability of raising structures in a given grammar.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 1 discusses the relationship between impersonal and raising constructions (including *tough*-movement constructions) and the Case differences between them. Assuming Hornstein’s (1999, 2001) analysis of obligatory control in terms of movement to thematic positions, section 2 examines the interplay between impersonal, raising, and control constructions and provides an account of the differences between BP and EP in terms of other independent properties that distinguish them. Section 3 then discusses A-movement out of finite clauses both in the overt and the covert component. Finally, section 4 presents a brief conclusion.

1. Impersonal, Tough-, and Raising Constructions

1.1. Towards Raising

As illustrated in (1) and (2) below, a set of impersonal predicates came to give rise to raising predicates both in BP and in EP. In the impersonal structures, these predicates select an inflected infinitival clause (cf. (1a) and (2a)), whereas the raising version selects an uninflected infinitival (cf. (1b) and (2b)/(2c)).

(1) a. *Impersonal:*
Demorou muito tempo para os organizadores começarem lasted-3SG much time for the organizers start-INF-3PL a entender o problema. (BP/EP: OK)
to understand the problem

b. *Raising:*
Os organizadores demoraram muito tempo para começar the organizers lasted-3PL much time for start-INF a entender o problema. (BP/EP: OK)
to understand the problem

‘It took the organizers a long time to understand the problem.

(2) a. *Impersonal:*
Calhou vermos o acidente. (BP: ??; EP: OK)
happened-3SG see-INF-1PL the accident

b. *Raising:*
Nós calhámos de ver o acidente. (BP: OK)
we happened-1PL of see-INF the accident
c. *Raising:*
Nós calhámos a ver o acidente. (EP: OK)
we happened-1PL to see-INF the accident

‘We happened to see the accident.’
Such an alternation can be accounted for, if the infinitival complement of these constructions is optionally specified for assigning nominative Case. If Case is assigned, which is signalled by agreement on the infinitival verb, the embedded subject is trapped within the embedded clause and we get an impersonal construction; if instead Case is not assigned, the embedded subject then moves to the matrix [Spec, TP], yielding a raising construction, as sketched in (3).

(3) a. Impersonal: \[[TP \text{TeCase} V [TP DP \text{TeCase} \ldots ]]\]

b. Raising: \[[TP DP, \text{TeCase} V [TP t, \text{TCase} \ldots ]]\]

One could hypothesize that the fluctuation between impersonal and raising predicates in BP is due to the weakening of its verbal agreement morphology (see Duarte 1995) with consequences for nominative Case assignment in infinitival clauses. Although this may certainly play a role, it cannot be the whole story, for EP has a stable rich paradigm of verbal agreement morphology, but nonetheless also allows such variation between impersonal and raising constructions for some predicates. What clearly sets BP apart from EP is the fact that raising structures are more deeply rooted in BP. The raising option has spread more extensively throughout the BP lexicon and the frequency of use of the raising alternative is much higher in BP than in EP (see Duarte 2003, 2004).\(^1\) The debilitation of the pro-drop property in BP\(^2\) appears to be the main factor behind the strong preference for raising over impersonal structures displayed by BP. In a sense, this can be seen as the effect of the general “avoid-pronoun” strategy (see Chomsky 1981) as applied to null expletives (see Duarte 2003, 2004).

The widespread replacement of null expletives by moved elements in BP ended up yielding new kinds of raising constructions, which are completely ruled out in EP. This is particularly interesting in the case of tough-constructions. A sentence such as (4) below, for example, may mean in both dialects that it is hard to praise João (the tough-interpretation). Remarkably, in BP (4) is actually ambiguous. As originally noted by Galves (1987), it can also mean that John rarely praises someone (the raising interpretation).\(^3\) The

---

1. This difference between the two dialects can be illustrated by speakers’ reactions to the sentences in (1) and (2). Whereas all EP speakers judge (1a) and (2a) as fully grammatical, some may judge (2c) as marginal. By contrast, all BP speakers judge (1b) and (2b) to be fully acceptable and (2a) to be marginal, which suggests that the preference for raising in BP seems to be rendering some impersonal constructions obsolescent.


3. For further discussion of the derivations underlying the two readings of (4) in BP, see Ferreira (2000).
agreement with a plural subject in (5) below makes it clear that under the raising interpretation, *o João* in (4) occupies the subject position of the matrix clause:

(4) O João é difícil de elogiar.  the João is difficult of praise-INF

*Tough*-reading: ‘It is hard to praise João.’  (BP/EP: OK)

Raising reading: ‘João rarely praises someone.’  (BP: OK; EP: *)

(5) a. É difícil esses professores elogiarem.  is difficult these teachers praise-INF-3PL

‘These teachers rarely praise (someone).’

b. Esses professores são difíceis de elogiar.  these teachers are hard-3PL of praise-INF

*Raising*-reading: ‘These teachers rarely praise (someone).’  (BP: OK; EP: *)

Given that both dialects allow the corresponding impersonal construction with a *tough*-predicate, as shown in (6), it is arguably the case that the raising interpretation arose as a by-product of the generalized reanalysis of impersonal as raising constructions in BP.

(6) É difícil o João elogiar.  is difficult the João praise-INF

‘João rarely praises (someone)’

To summarize, although EP and BP both display an alternation between impersonal and raising constructions for some predicates, BP seems to be undergoing a wholesale reanalysis of impersonal constructions, replacing them by their raising correspondents. As we will see in section 3 below, this strong preference for raising in BP may also affect impersonal constructions with finite complement clauses. But before we get to that, let us first discuss the role of prepositions preceding the infinitival complements in the raising counterparts of impersonal constructions.

1.2. Raising and Case Assignment to Infinitival Clauses

The data in (2), (4), (5), and (6) above suggest the following generalization: once the alternation between impersonal and raising arises for some predicates, a preposition must precede the infinitival clause in the raising construction (including *tough*-movement, as in (5b)). Or to put it differently, preposition insertion is required when the matrix subject position is clearly
Raising issues in Brazilian and European Portuguese

57

filled (cf. (2b)/(2c), (4), and (5b)). 4 The question then is what derives this state of affairs.

Preposition insertion before infinitival clauses in raising constructions is reminiscent of the paradigm in (7) (see Raposo 1987).

(7) a. o professor receia [ ser despedido ]
the teacher fears be-INF fired
‘The teacher fears being fired.’

b. o receio (de) [ ser despedido ]
the fear of be-INF fired
‘the fear of being fired’

c. o professor está receoso *(de) [ ser despedido ]
the teacher is fearful of be-INF fired
‘The teacher is fearful of being fired.’

Raposo (1987) proposes that the infinitival morpheme in Portuguese is a [−V,+N] element. As a nominal element, the infinitival morpheme (or its projection) is subject to the Case Filter. Thus, the infinitival clause of (7a) can be Case-marked by the verb recear ‘fear’ and satisfy the Case Filter. On the other hand, the infinitival complement of a cognate noun, as in (7b), or a cognate adjective, as in (7c), requires the insertion of a dummy preposition (de ‘of’) in order to be Case-marked, given that these elements are not Case-assigners.

Raposo’s proposal can be straightforwardly extended to account for the generalization mentioned above with respect to the need for preposition insertion in raising constructions. Take the contrast between (5a) and (5b), for instance. In (5a), esses professores ‘these teachers’ receives/checks nominative within the infinitival clause; hence, the nominative Case of the matrix clause is still available to be assigned/checked and may license the infinitival clause. 5 In (5b), on the other hand, esses professores checks the Case of the matrix T and the infinitival clause can only be licensed if a dummy Case-marker such as the proposition de is inserted.

4 BP actually allows preposition insertion in some impersonal constructions, as well, as illustrated in (i) below (see Ximenes and Nunes 2004). In this paper, we will restrict our attention to the raising cases where this insertion is obligatory.

(i) a. Calhou de vermos o acidente. (BP: OK; EP: *)
hapenned-3SG of see-INF-1PL the accident
‘We happened to see the accident.’

b. É difícil desses professores elogiarem. (BP: OK; EP: *)
is difficult of-these teachers praise-INF-3PL
‘These teachers rarely praise someone.’

5 This analysis entails either that null expletives do not require Case-checking or that impersonal constructions may not involve null expletives to begin with (see Viotti 1999 for relevant discussion).
Independent evidence for an analysis of the contrast between (5a) and (5b) along these lines is found in Nunes’s (1995) proposal for the distribution of infinitival “sentential subjects” in Old English. Lightfoot (1979) has observed that from the 10th to the 14th century, infinitival sentential subjects in Old English were preceded by the preposition to only when they occurred in “extraposed” position. Interestingly, before the phonological weakening of its inflectional morphology, English used to have an overt infinitival morpheme, -an, which would surface as *-anne or -enne when preceded by to, thus exhibiting inflection for the dative Case assigned by to (see Callaway 1913). Based on the fact that Old English infinitivals display nominal morphology, Nunes (1995) analysed the distribution of infinitival clauses in impersonal constructions as sketched in (8).

\[ (8) \quad \text{a. [TP [ infinitival clause T\text{eCase} V \ldots ]] } \]
\[ \text{b. [TP hit\text{expl} T\text{eCase} V \ldots *(to) [ infinitival clause ]] } \]

In (8a), the infinitival clause occupies the matrix subject position and can be Case-licensed. By contrast, in (8b) the matrix clause is filled by the Old English expletive hit, which checks the available nominative Case, and the dummy preposition to must be inserted in order for the infinitival clause in the “extraposed” position to be Case-licensed (see Nunes 1995 for further discussion). Thus, here we have another example of preposition insertion to license infinitival clauses when there is no Case available. Though less transparent, we find a similar interplay between lack of Case-licensers for infinitival clauses and preposition insertion in more complex paradigms

---

6 A tricky question is to determine how Portuguese infinitivals that are complements of modals, the auxiliary ir ‘go’, or standard raising verbs like parece ‘seem’, as in (i) below, are Case-licensed. Notice that the nominative Case of the matrix clause is checked by the raised subject and therefore the infinitival clause appears to be left unlicensed. Our suggestion is that modals and some raising verbs assign inherent Case (in the sense of Chomsky 1986) to their infinitival complements and therefore need not resort to dummy prepositions.

(i) a. Ele pode (*de) resolver o problema.
   he can of solve-INF the problem
   ‘He can solve the problem.’

b. Eles vão cantar.
   they go sing-INF
   ‘They are going to sing.’

c. Ele parece (*de) estar doente.
   he seems of be-INF sick
   ‘He seems to be sick.’

Interestingly, in Old Portuguese and some contemporary BP and EP dialects, the modal dever ‘may’ displays optionality in this regard, taking either a bare or a prepositional infinitival, as illustrated in (ii).

(ii) Ele deve (de) estar contente.
    he may of be-INF happy
    ‘He’s probably happy.’
involving impersonal and control structures such as the ones to be discussed in the next section.

2. Control and Raising Constructions

With his formulation of a minimalist program for linguistic theory, Chomsky (1995) promoted a substantial reevaluation of the whole theoretical apparatus available in GB. Assuming that only levels of linguistic representation that are motivated by interface conditions should be postulated, Chomsky argued that theory-internal levels such as D-Structure should be dispensed with. The abandonment of D-Structure as a theoretical primitive in turn has radical consequences within the model.

Take the control and raising constructions in (9), for instance.

(9) a. [John, tried [PRO, to solve the problem]]
   b. [John, seems [t, to have solved the problem]]

In both simplified representations in (9), we have two syntactic positions belonging to two different clauses, but associated with the same referent (John), as indicated by the indices. Within GB, the differences between these two constructions (see Hornstein, Nunes, and Grohmann 2005: chap. 2 for an overview) were standardly attributed to their different properties at D-Structure: in (9a) John is generated in the matrix clause, whereas in (9b) it is generated in the embedded clause, more specifically, in the position where PRO in (9a) is generated. The main motivation for postulating PRO in (9a) was the D-Structure well-formedness condition requiring that all θ-positions should be filled. Once PRO was assumed, an additional grammatical module, the control module, also had to be incorporated into the model in order to ensure the appropriate interpretation of PRO. However, if D-Structure is to be eliminated for not being an interface level, the grounds for postulating PRO and the control module become considerably shaky.

With considerations such as these in mind, Hornstein (1999, 2001) proposes an alternative model where control is subsumed under movement, as will be briefly reviewed in section 2.1. We will adopt Hornstein’s theory here and show in section 2.2 how it can shed light on the similarities and differences between BP and EP in what regards control structures.


Hornstein (1999, 2001) argues that obligatorily controlled PRO should be eliminated as a theoretical primitive, by allowing θ-role assignment to license syntactic movement. The distributional and interpretational properties of

---

controlled PRO are then taken to follow from general well-formedness conditions on movement operations. The fact that PRO requires an antecedent that must be the closest c-commanding DP, for instance, follows from the fact that movement operations are constrained by the Minimal Link Condition (see Chomsky 1995). From this perspective, obligatory control gaps are DP traces/copies left by movement of the “controller”. Thus, the essential distinction between control and raising structures is that movement of the embedded subject targets a thematic position in the case of the former, but a nonthematic position in the case of the latter.  

As pointed out to us by Inês Duarte (p.c.), the fact that the nominative indefinite clitic se in Portuguese can be freely associated with control predicates, but not with raising predicates (see Matos and Duarte 1985) appears to argue against a unified treatment movement analysis of raising and control structures. Although the point is well taken, there seems to be so much variation in Portuguese with respect to the acceptability of se with specific raising verbs that it is unclear how to interpret the facts. For example, speakers who do not accept the example in (i) below, which was attested in the Portuguese press, may allow se with other raising verbs such as demorar ‘take some time’, as illustrated in (ii). In addition, all speakers accept se with copular verbs such as ser ‘be’ and estar ‘be’, as shown in (iii), which arguably function as raising verbs.

(i) Athens entered into decadence, excesses follow one after the other, and political references of conduct in the city seem to have been lost.

(ii) It took us a long time to solve the problem.

(iii) When one is happy, life is an eternal smile.

In this land, one is never sad.

These facts point to the conclusion that there is no intrinsic incompatibility between raising verbs and impersonal se (see Cinque 1988, Mendikotxea 1999, and Bartra Kaufmann 2002, among others). However, why Portuguese speakers may display the variation reported above remains rather mysterious (see Raposo and Uriagereka 1996:794–796, in particular footnote 54). For further discussion on the variation of se constructions, see Martins 2003, 2005.
The relevant steps involved in the derivation of subject, object, and adjunct control structures under Hornstein’s system are illustrated in (10) to (12):  

(10)  
\[ \text{a. John tried to buy the car.} \]  
\[ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{vP buy the car}]])]]]]]  
\[ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{vP tried [\text{TP John} \ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{vP buy the car}]])}]})] \]

(11)  
\[ \text{a. Mary persuaded John to buy the car.} \]  
\[ [\text{TP Mary} \ [\text{TP Mary} \ [\text{vP persuade+V [\text{TP John} \ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{vP to [\text{TP John} \ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{vP buy the car}]])}]})]})] \]

(12)  
\[ \text{a. John called Mary after buying the car.} \]  
\[ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{TP John} \ [\text{vP v [ called Mary })]]) \]

In all the derivations above, \textit{John} receives the external \(\theta\)-role associated with \textit{buy} and moves to the embedded \([\text{Spec, TP}]\) to check the EPP. From there, it further moves to a thematic position of the matrix clause, the external argument position in (10b) and (12c) and an internal argument position in (11b). In (11b), \textit{John} has its Case licensed in this position, whereas in the other constructions, it will have its Case licensed after it moves to the matrix \([\text{Spec, TP}]\).  

Deletion of the lower copies (see Nunes 2004) then yields the sentences in (10a), (11a), and (12a). The only relevant difference between the derivations of (10a) and (11a), on the one hand, and (12a), on the other, is that the latter employs “sideward” rather than upward movement. However, as argued in Nunes (2001, 2004) and Hornstein (2001), once movement is decomposed in the basic operations of Copy and Merge under the copy theory, “upward” and “sideward” movement are simply indistinguishable.

Let us now examine control structures in both BP and EP under Hornstein’s system, keeping the term control from now on as a purely descriptive term.

---

9 For expository purposes, we will assume that the embedded clause of a control structure is a TP.

10 Sideward movement describes the result of copying a given element from within a syntactic object and merging it to another independent syntactic object (see Nunes 2001, 2004 for relevant discussion). In (12b), for example, \textit{John} is copied from within the syntactic object \(K\) and merged with \(L\), yielding \(M\) in (12c).

11 For presentational purposes, we will ignore the possibility that in (11b) \textit{John} could also move overtly to \([\text{Spec, vP}]\) to check its Case.
2.2. Fluctuation between Control and Raising Structures

By and large, there is much more similarity than difference between BP and EP regarding control structures. And this is indeed what we should expect. The similarities should follow from the general architectural properties of the computational system once control is assimilated to movement, whereas the differences should be related to thematic properties of individual lexical items in each dialect or to deeper differences in their Case systems.

Adjunct control, for instance, seems to be the case where there is no difference between the two dialects. Let us consider why. In standard cases of subject and object control, the embedded clause out of which the “controller” moves is an argument (cf. (10b) and (11b)); hence, only verbs that can take infinitival complements may allow subject or object control and changes in the selection or Case properties of these verbs may in principle have consequences for the licensing of the control structure, as we will see below. By contrast, given that in adjunct control the clause from which the “controller” moves is an adjunct (cf. (12c)), it should in principle be insensitive to thematic or Case properties of the predicate that the adjunct clause modifies. In other words, although one may list the subject or object control verbs of a given language, there is no comparable list of “adjunct control verbs”. The fact that there seems to be no substantial difference in adjunct control structures between BP and EP is therefore not surprising at all. Adjunct control simply follows from the general availability of sideward movement in the grammar (see Nunes 2001, 2004 and Hornstein 2001). In this regard, subject and object control structures constitute the adequate set for investigating potential dialectal variation.

In fact, lexical idiosyncrasies aside, BP and EP do not differ substantially with respect to subject control. They however confirm the crosslinguistic observation that diachronically, control verbs tend to give rise to raising verbs and that it is not uncommon to find pairs of control and raising verbs with the same phonological realization. Such lexical ambiguity is found in both dialects with respect to some modal (e.g. poder ‘be able’/’be likely’, dever ‘ought to’/’be likely’), aspectual (e.g. parar ‘stop’, começar ‘start’), and, more interestingly, “volitional” verbs (e.g. prometer ‘promise’/’be likely’, ameaçar ‘threaten’/’be likely’, and querer ‘want’/’show signs of’), as illustrated in (13)-(17).

(13) O director pode demitir os funcionários.
The manager can/may fire-INF the employees.

Control: ‘The manager has the power to fire the employees.’ (BP/EP: OK)
Raising: ‘The manager is likely to fire the employees.’ (BP/EP: OK)

(14) a. Control:
O João decidiu começar a trabalhar. (BP/EP: OK)
The João decided start-INF to work-INF
‘João decided to start working.’
b. **Raising:**

O tempo *começou* a melhorar. (BP/EP: OK)

‘The weather started to improve-INF’

(15) a. **Control:**

Eles *prometeram* fazer a tarefa. (BP/EP: OK)

‘They promised to do the homework.’

b. **Raising:**

Ele *prometia* ser um bom poeta. (BP/EP: OK)

‘He promised be-INF a good poet’

(16) a. **Control:**

Eles *ameaçaram* denunciar o plano. (BP/EP: OK)

‘They threatened to denounce the plan.’

b. **Raising:**

O desemprego *ameaça* alastrar. (BP/EP: OK)

‘Unemployment is likely to spread-INF’

(17) a. O João *tá querendo* ficar doente. (BP)

the João is wanting become-INF sick

b. O João está *a querer* ficar doente. (EP)

the João is to want-INF become-INF sick

Control: ‘João wishes to get sick.’ (BP/EP: OK)

Raising: ‘It seems that João is getting sick.’ (BP/EP: OK)

The lexical ambiguity underlying the fluctuation between control and raising can be accounted for if the external 0-role of some verbs that take nonfinite clausal complements may be optional. If the 0-assigning version of these verbs is chosen, DP movement out of the embedded clause will first target the specifier of the subcategorizing verb before targeting [Spec, TP], yielding a control structure. By contrast, if the non-0-assigning version is chosen, movement proceeds directly from [Spec, TP] to [Spec, TP], resulting in a raising structure. Notice that the point here is not that GB could not account for the lexical ambiguity of these verbs by resorting to optional external 0-role assignment. Rather, the problem for GB is that, given its postulation of a fundamental D-Structure difference between raising and control structures, the fact that control and raising verbs in general tend to overlap comes out as completely accidental. On the other hand, by analysing both control and raising structures under movement, Hornstein’s (1999, 2001)
theory actually makes room for the pervasive lexical ambiguity between raising and control for some classes of verbs.\textsuperscript{12}

As for object control, there are two cases to consider. The first one involves standard object control structures such as (18), where the “controller” is assigned (structural) accusative Case by the matrix verb.

\begin{empheq}[box=box]{align}
(18) & Eu convenci a Maria a viajar. \quad \text{(BP/EP)}
\begin{align*}
&\text{I convinced the Maria to travel-INF} \\
&\text{‘I convinced Maria to travel.’}
\end{align*}
\end{empheq}

The two dialects differ with respect to this type of structure only when the controller is a third person pronoun. As is well known (see Tarallo 1983, Duarte 1986, Galves 1987, 2001, Nunes 1993, Cyrino 1993, 1997, Corrêa 1991, and Kato 1993, among others), BP has lost third person accusative clitics, replacing them with weak pronouns with nominative morphology. Thus, a sentence such as (19a) is characteristic of written BP, whereas (19b) is only admitted in some nonstandard EP dialects.

\begin{empheq}[box=box]{align}
(19) & a. Eu convenci-a a viajar. \quad \text{(written BP /EP: OK)}
\begin{align*}
&\text{I convinced-her(CL) to travel-INF} \\
&\text{‘I convinced her to travel.’}
\end{align*}
\end{empheq}

The second type of object control structures involves control by an inherently Case-marked dative clitic and with respect to these structures, BP and EP behave differently, as illustrated in (20).

\begin{empheq}[box=box]{align}
(20) & a. Como nos custou a contratar \quad \text{(BP: *; EP: OK)}
\begin{align*}
&\text{how us(DAT) cost-3SG to hire-INF} \\
&\text{aquele empregado!} \\
&\text{that employee} \\
&\text{‘How hard it was for us to succeed in hiring that employee!’}
\end{align*}
\end{empheq}

\begin{empheq}[box=box]{align}
& b. O chefe não percebeu que nos demorou \quad \text{(BP:*; EP: OK)}
\begin{align*}
&\text{the boss not realized that us(DAT) lasted-3SG} \\
&\text{a resolver o problema.} \\
&\text{to solve-INF the problem} \\
&\text{‘The boss didn’t realize that it took us some time to solve the problem.’}
\end{align*}
\end{empheq}

\textsuperscript{12} In accordance with our suggestion made in footnote 6, the infinitival complements of the raising alternatives in (13), (15b), (16b), and (17b) should be licensed by an inherent Case assigned by the matrix verb.
Two pieces of evidence indicate that the “controller” of structures such as (20) is to be analysed as receiving inherent Case. First, the matrix predicates in (20) do not have an external argument; thus, in consonance with Burzio’s generalization (see Burzio 1986), these verbs should be unable to assign structural Case. And second, standard dative clitics can be replaced by a corresponding PP, but this does not happen with the dative clitics in (20), as respectively shown by (21) and (22) in EP.

(21) a. A Maria deu-lhe o livro. (EP)
    the Maria gave-him(DAT) the book
    ‘Maria gave him the book.’

    b. A Maria deu o livro ao João. (EP)
    the Maria gave the book to-the João
    ‘Maria gave João the book.’

(22) a. Custou-lhe a fazer aquilo. (EP)
    cost-him(DAT) to do-INF that
    ‘It was hard for him to succeed in doing that.’

    b. *Custou ao João a fazer aquilo. (EP)
    cost to-the João to do-INF that
    ‘It was hard for João to succeed in doing that.’

We saw in section 1.1 that impersonal constructions may give rise to raising constructions if the infinitival clause fails to Case mark its subject. This is arguably what is at stake here, as well. As shown in (23) and (24) below, not only do the constructions in (20) have parallel impersonal constructions with inflected infinitives, but they themselves cannot take inflected infinitival complements. This indicates that the only relevant difference in the cases under discussion is that the raised embedded subject lands in a thematic position, namely, [Spec, VP], as schematically illustrated in (25).

(23) a. Impersonal:
    Como custa despedirmos um empregado! (BP/EP: OK)
    how costs fire-INF-1PL an employee
    ‘How hard it is to fire an employee!’

    b. Object control:
    *Como nos custou a despedirmos aquele empregado! (BP/EP: *)
    how us(DAT) cost-3SG to fire-INF-1PL that employee
    ‘How hard it was for us to succeed in firing that employee!’
(24) a. Impersonal: Demorou a resolvermos o problema. (BP: ?*; EP: OK) lasted-3SG to solve-INF-1PL the problem

b. Object control: *O chefe não percebeu que nos demorou to solve-INF-1PL the problem

a resolvermos o problema. (BP/EP: *) ‘The boss didn’t realize that it took us some time to solve the problem.’

(25) a. Impersonal: \[TP \ldots [VP V [TP DP T_{Case} \ldots]]]\]

b. Object control: \[TP \ldots [VP DP, V'[V [TP T_{Case} \ldots]]]\]

The question then is why object control structures such as (20a) and (20b) are not possible in BP.\(^{13}\) Our suggestion is that, lexical variation aside, this is related to the fact that BP is loosing its ability to assign inherent Case to pronominal clitics, as independently shown by the data in (26), whose clitics are arguably marked with inherent Case.\(^{14}\)

(26) a. Ninguém aqui te é hostil. (BP: *; EP: OK) nobody here you(DAT) is hostile

‘Nobody here is hostile to you.’

---

\(^{13}\) At first glance, the acceptability (ia) below (without the preposition a) in BP is unexpected, as it resembles the object control structure in (iia). Notice however that structures such as (ia) allow inflected infinitivals, as shown in (ib), contrary to structures like (iia), as shown in (iib). This indicates that what we have in (i) is not an object control construction (see Duarte, Martins, and Nunes 2002 for further discussion).

(i) a. Como nos custou despedir aquele empregado! (BP/EP: OK) how us(DAT) cost-3SG fire-INF that employee

b. Como nos custou despedirmos aquele empregado! (BP/EP: OK) how us(DAT) cost-3SG fire-INF-1PL that employee

‘How hard it was for us firing that employee!’

(ii) a. Como nos custou a despedir aquele empregado! (BP: *; EP: OK) how us(DAT) cost-3SG to fire-INF that employee

b. *Como nos custou a despedirmos aquele empregado! (BP/EP: *) how us(DAT) cost-3SG to fire-INF-1PL that employee

‘How hard it was for us to succeed in firing that employee!’

---

\(^{14}\) Thanks to Inês Duarte (p.c.) for pointing out the relevance of the loss of constructions such as (26b) in BP (see Cyrino 1997 for a description of this change in BP). Mary Kato (p.c.) has pointed out to us that in her dialect a construction such as (26a) becomes acceptable if the dative clitic is the first person singular me. This indicates that the on-going loss of dative clitics in BP may affect some clitics before others (for some speakers). We have nothing to add here on the reasons for why this lexical-syntactic change should proceed in this way.
b. Inteligente, o João não o é. (BP: *; EP: OK)
   intelligent the João not it(ACC) is
   ‘João isn’t intelligent.’

With the on-going loss of inherent Case in BP, the embedded subject that has moved to the matrix [Spec, VP] in (25b) must further move to [Spec, TP] in order to be Case-licensed, as sketched in (27) and illustrated by the sentences in (28).\footnote{This construction differs from traditional subject control structures in that the controller moves through [Spec, VP], rather than [Spec, vP], the external argument position (cf. (10) and (12)).}

\[(27) \quad [TP \text{ DP}, T_{\text{Case}} [VP \text{ t}, [\text{V} \text{ t}, T_{\text{Case}} \ldots ]]]\]

\[(28) \quad a. \quad \text{Eu custei a contratar aquele} \quad \text{I} \text{ cost-1SG to hire-INF that}
   \text{employee}
   \quad \text{‘It was hard for me to succeed in hiring that employee.’}
   \text{empregado!} \quad (BP; nonstandard EP: OK)

   b. \quad \text{O chefe não percebeu que os organizadores demoraram a resolver o problema.} \quad \text{The boss didn’t realize that it took the organizers some time to solve the problem.}
   \text{to solve-INF the problem} \quad (BP/EP: OK)\]

Here, we find once again the types of low level differences between BP and EP regarding the acceptability of raising and impersonal constructions (see section 1.1), with some raising constructions judged as nonstandard in EP (cf. (28a)) and some impersonal constructions becoming obsolescent in BP (cf. (24a)). At the same, the data discussed in this section exhibit another instantiation of the intimate connection between control and raising as expected under Hornstein’s (1999, 2001) theory.

3. Overt and Covert Hyper-raising

As is well known, null subjects in BP are severely restricted (see references in footnote 2). (29) below, for instance, shows that null subjects in BP require an antecedent in the sentence, which must be the closest c-commanding one.
(29) Elei disse que [o pai d[ o Pedro thinks que \( \varphi_{\psi,\nu} \) vai ser promovido that goes be promoted]

BP: ‘He said that [Pedro’s father] thinks that he e\( \varphi_{\psi,\nu} \) is going to be promoted’

By assuming movement to \( \theta \)-positions, Ferreira (2000, 2004) and Rodrigues (2002, 2004) provide an illuminating account of the restricted interpretation of null subjects in BP. Technical differences aside, Ferreira and Rodrigues assume that with the substantial weakening of its verbal morphology (see Duarte 1995), BP is no longer able to license a “referential” null pro in subject position. They propose that what appears to be a null subject in constructions such as (29) is actually a trace (a deleted copy) left by movement to a \( \theta \)-position. Once movement is invoked, the relevance of c-command and minimality then becomes straightforward.

Assuming Ferreira’s and Rodrigues’s general account of null subjects in BP in terms of movement, we will restrict our discussion to Ferreira’s specific analysis of “hyper-raising” cases such as (30b) in BP.\(^ {16} \)

(30) a. Parece que o João comprou um carro novo.

seems that the João bought a car new

‘It seems that João bought a new car.’

b. O João parece que comprou um carro novo.

the João seems that bought a car new

‘João seems to have bought a new car.’

According to Ferreira, the weakening of verbal morphology in BP led finite T to become an optional Case assigner. If the Case-assigner version of T is selected, it will assign nominative to the DP in its Spec, freezing it for further A-movement. This is arguably what happens in (30a), with João being Case-marked in the embedded clause. If the non-assigning version of T is selected instead, the DP in its Spec will have to undergo further movement in order to have its Case checked. Ferreira argues that this is what goes on in the derivation of the hyper-raising construction in (30b), where João moves from

\(^ {16} \) Ura (1994) coined the term hyper-raising to describe cases where the subject of a finite embedded clause moves to the subject position of the subordinating clause, as illustrated in the examples below (Ura 1994:68).

(i) Dholuo (Nilotic language) (Creider 1989)

Un, u-calɔ [ nɪ t i, u-sìn ]

you(PL) 2PL-seem COMP 2PL-unhappy

‘It seems that you are unhappy.’

(ii) Xhosa (Bantu language) (du Plessis and Visser 1992)

Ábântwànà, bá-mêlè [ ūkúbá t i, bá-fùndɛ ]

children 3PL-necessary COMP 3PL-study

‘It is necessary that children study.’
the embedded [Spec, TP] and can be licensed in the matrix clause (if its T is of the Case-assigning type). In a sense, hyper-raising illustrates in the finite domain the same kind of phenomenon examined earlier with respect to raising out of impersonal infinitival constructions. The big difference is that hyper-raising out of finite clauses is restricted to BP, as will be discussed below.

Ferreira presents two types of evidence to show that constructions such as (30b) in BP really involve moved subjects, rather than topics. First, the DP in question triggers agreement with the matrix predicate, as shown in (31) below, and second, elements that cannot occur in a marked topic position in BP such as the weak pronoun cê ‘you’ or the quantifier alguém ‘someone’ can appear in hyper-raising constructions, as shown in (32). Another example of the second type that we would like to add to Ferreira’s diagnostics is that idiom chunks cannot be topicalized, but can be hyper-raised, as shown in (33).

(31) a. Eles parecem que compraram um carro novo. (BP) they seem-3PL that bought-3PL a car new ‘They seem to have bought a new car.’
   b. Eu ’tou parecendo que ’tou doente. I am seeming that am sick. ‘I seem to be sick.’

(32) a. *Cê/*alguém, o João me disse que está doente. (BP) you/someone the João me said that is sick ‘João told me that you/someone were/was sick.’
   b. Cê/alguém parece que está doente. (BP) you/someone seems that is sick ‘You/someone seem to be sick.’

(33) a. A vaca foi pro brejo. (BP) the cow went to-the swamp
   Idiomatic reading: ‘Things went bad.’
   b. A vaca, o João disse que foi pro brejo. (BP) the cow the João said that went to-the swamp
   Idiomatic reading (‘João said that things went bad.’): *
   c. A vaca parece que foi pro brejo. (BP) the cow seems that went to-the swamp
   Idiomatic reading (‘It seems that things went bad.’): OK

It is worth observing that there is no intrinsic asymmetry between matrix and embedded finite Ts in Ferreira’s (2000, 2004) system: both can freely be of the Case-assigning or the non-Case-assigning type. It just happens that the derivation of hyper-raised sentences such as (30b) will only converge if the T head selected from the numeration and inserted in the embedded clause is not a Case-assigner and the one inserted in the matrix clause is. See Ferreira (2000, 2004) for a discussion of this point, as well as some conjectures on how such a property can be acquired based on primary linguistic data.
To summarize the discussion so far, BP exercises an option that is generally restricted to nonfinite clauses in other languages, namely, it allows raising out of a finite embedded clause when its T is not a Case assigner. If such movement targets a θ-position, we have a control-like structure as in (29); if it targets a nonthematic position, we get a hyper-raising construction as in (30b).

With this general picture in mind, let us now consider colloquial BP sentences such as (34), with a “double subject” (see Duarte 2003, 2004).

(34) a. O João parece que ele está doente. (BP)  
the João seems that he is sick  
‘João seems to be sick.’

b. Os meus pais parecem que eles vão viajar. (BP)  
the my parents seem-3PL that they go-3PL travel  
‘It seems that my parents are going to travel.’

Constructions such as (34) appear to present a paradox. On the one hand, they differ from hyper-raising constructions in the sense that their matrix DP behaves like a topic. Hence, they are systematically incompatible with quantified expressions, as shown in (35), and idiom chunks, as shown in (36)-(37).18

(35) Algum aluno parecia que (*ele) ia viajar. (BP)  
some student seemed-3SG that he went-3SG travel  
‘It seemed that some student was going to travel’

(36) a. A vaca foi pro brejo. (BP)  
the cow went to-the swamp  
Idiomatic reading: ‘Things went bad.’

b. A vaca parece que (*ela) foi pro brejo. (BP)  
the cow seems that it went to-the swamp  
Idiomatic reading: ‘It seems that things went bad.’

(37) a. A cobra vai fumar. (BP)  
the snake goes smoke  
‘It’s going to be a mess.’

18 In this regard, these double subject constructions also differ from English “copy-raising” constructions such as (i) below, in that the latter is compatible with quantified elements and idiom chunks, as illustrated in (ii). For a recent overview of the properties of copy raising constructions and an analysis in terms of movement, see Fuji (2005).

(i) John seemed as if he was sick.

(ii) a. Someone seemed as if he was tired.

b. The cat seems as if it was out of the bag. (from Rogers 1971)
b. A cobra parece que (*ela) vai fumar (BP)
   the snake seems that it goes smoke
   Idiomatic reading: ‘It seems that it’s going to be a mess.’

On the other hand, the matrix DPs of constructions such as (34) do not seem to behave like topics in that they must be in a local relation with the embedded subject. In other words, although a regular topic may be associated with an embedded object pronoun “skipping” the embedded subject, as shown in (38a), this is not possible in the construction under consideration, as shown in (38b).

(38) a. Esses professores, parece que a Maria gosta deles. (BP)
   these teachers seems that the Maria likes of-them
   ‘It seems that Maria likes these teachers.’

b. *Esses professores parecem que a Maria gosta deles. (BP)
   these teachers seem-3PL that the Maria likes of-them
   ‘It seems that Maria likes these teachers.’

We suggest that this apparent paradox is related to another salient property of BP grammar: the pervasive use of base-generated topics. Let us assume that “unmarked” topics in BP check their “topic Case” in a position above TP (see Martins 1994, for instance) and that finite T in BP optionally assigns Case, as proposed by Ferreira (2000, 2004). That being so, the derivation of a sentence such as (39), for instance, should be along the lines of (40) (with English words for ease of exposition).

(39) Esses professores parecem que eles gostam da Maria. (BP)
   these teachers seem-3PL that they like of-the Maria
   ‘It seems that these teachers like Maria.’

(40) [XP [ these teachers ]] [TP t_i T_Case [VP seem [CP that [TP they_T_Case [vP t_i like Maria ]]]]]]

In (40), the embedded subject moves from its 0-position to the embedded [Spec, TP] to check the EPP. Given that the selected embedded T in (40) is not of the Case-assigning type, the pronoun only checks the agreement of the embedded clause, and still has to check its own Case. In hyper-raising constructions, this is achieved after the embedded subject overtly moves to check the EPP of the higher clause, thereby reaching a position where it can have its Case feature appropriately checked if T is a Case-assigner. In (40), however, a DP marked with topic Case merges with the matrix TP, checking the EPP, before moving to the position where it can have its topic Case

checked. Suppose that these teachers in (40) may check the agreement of the matrix clause, but not the nominative Case of T, given that it is specified for “topic Case”. Under this scenario, the derivation reaches Spell-Out with the embedded pronoun and the matrix T with their Case-features unchecked. The derivation can however converge if the formal features of the embedded subject move in the covert component (see Chomsky 1995) and adjoin to the matrix T, allowing their Case-features to be checked.

To sum up, by assuming that the matrix DP in constructions such as (39) is indeed a topic, we account for its incompatibility with quantified expressions and idiom chunks, as seen in (35)-(37). On the other hand, by invoking covert movement to check the Case-feature of the matrix T, we account for the fact that only the embedded subject is a suitable checker. Were an embedded object pronoun to check the Case of the matrix T in the covert component, the embedded subject should induce a minimality violation; hence, the contrast between (36b) and (39). Constructions such as (39) are thus hyper-raising structures in the covert component.

Given that overt and covert hyper-raising is contingent on optionality of Case-assignment by a finite T, which in turn is related to verbal morphology impoverishment, we should not expect to find any instances of hyper-raising in a morphologically rich language such as EP. In this regard, one should not be misled by apparent cases of hyper-raising constructions such as (41) below, which are indeed acceptable in EP. The agreement contrast in (42) clearly indicates that in EP, the matrix [Spec, TP] in (41) is filled by a null expletive and the left-peripheral DP is a “marked” topic sitting in a higher position (see Duarte 1987). This is further confirmed by the complete unacceptability of what we have analysed as covert instances of hyper-raising such as (34),

---

20 As we saw in (32a), the weak pronoun ê ‘you’ in BP cannot appear in a marked topic position. However, it can appear in a “double subject” structure, as illustrated in (i) below. As argued in Martins and Nunes (2005), this is due to the fact that the “topic-subject” in sentences such as (39) does not sit in the left-periphery position reserved for marked topics, but in a lower position that is targeted by unmarked topics and does not exclude weak pronouns. Independent evidence for this is provided by the data in (ii). The marked topic construction in (iia) allows only the [+human] interpretation for the pronoun ele, whereas the “double subject” structure in (iib) allows both the [+human] and the [-human] readings. This contrast indicates that we are dealing with a strong pronoun in (iia) but a weak pronoun in (iib).

(i) Cê parece que ê sabe a resposta.
you seem that you know the answer
‘You seem to know the answer.’

(ii) a. Ele, a Maria disse que caiu.
pro-3SG the Maria said that fell
‘Maria said that he fell down.’ [e.g. ele = ‘João’]
*‘Maria said that it fell down.’ [e.g. ele = ‘the book’]

b. Ele parece que ele caiu.
pro-3SG seems that pro-3SG fell
‘He seems to have fallen down.’ [e.g. ele = ‘João’]
‘It seems to have fallen down.’ [e.g. ele = ‘the book’]
repeated below in (43) (Note that in (43a) *O João* is not to be interpreted as a hanging or marked topic).

(41) **O João parece que vai viajar.** (EP)
    *the João seems that goes travel*
    ‘It seems that João is going to travel.’

(42) a. **Eles parecem que vão viajar.** (EP)
    *they seem-3PL that go-3PL travel*
    ‘It seems that they are going to travel.’

b. **Eles parece que vão viajar.** (EP)
    *they seem-3SG that go-3PL travel*
    ‘It seems that they are going to travel.’

(43) a. **O João parece que ele está doente.** (EP)
    *the João seems that he is sick*
    ‘João seems to be sick.’

b. **Os meus pais parecem que eles vão viajar.** (EP)
    *the my parents seem-3PL that they go-3PL travel*
    ‘It seems that my parents are going to travel.’

To sum up, hyper-raising structures arise when a finite T fails to assign Case to its subject position. Once we find such defective finite Ts, nothing in principle should prevent hyper-raising from taking place in the covert component, as well. BP hyper-raising structures with “double” subjects instantiate this theoretical possibility, lending support for the whole approach. By contrast, given that EP finite Ts are well-behaved Case-assigners, both overt and covert instances of hyper-raising are excluded in this dialect.

4. Conclusion

Exploiting the natural fluctuation between control and raising structures, BP uses raising as a strategy to fill the matrix subject position and to compensate for the loss of inherent Case. The subject raising strategy is further extended to finite domains in order to license subjects that are not assigned Case within finite embedded clauses. Hence, in BP some raising structures are progressively replacing their control counterparts, a number of nonraising predicates such as tough-structures are being reanalysed as raising predicates and new subject raising constructions are appearing which involve A-movement from a finite clause. By contrast, in EP the fluctuation between control and raising structures tends to remain stable, there being no grammatical motivations for one structure to be preferred over the other. In addition, hyper-raising from finite clauses or tough-structures is not available.
The empirical contrasts between BP and EP described along the paper are natural outbursts of a divergence pattern setting BP and EP apart in what concerns the pro-drop property, the strength of their verbal morphology, and the licensing of inherent Case. Finally, it is worth noting that BP and EP pattern alike not only with respect to the fluctuation between control and raising structures, but also with respect to the tendency to reanalyse impersonal as raising structures. But sure enough, even in these pockets of similarity, the path towards generalized raising is visibly more entrenched in BP.

References


Raising issues in Brazilian and European Portuguese

Ana Maria Martins
Dept. de Linguística Geral e Românica
Faculdade de Letras da
Universidade de Lisboa
Alameda da Universidade
1600-214 Lisboa
Portugal
anamartins@fl.ul.pt

Jairo Nunes
Dept. de Linguística, FFLCH
Universidade de São Paulo
Av. Prof. Luciano Gualberto 403
Cidade Universitária
05508-900 São Paulo, SP
Brasil
jmnnunes@usp.br