## Exhaustive Control as Movement: The case of Wolof

Martina Martinović McGill University

#### Abstract

In this paper I present arguments in favor of Grano's (2012, 2015) claim that Exhaustive Control (EC) and Partial Control (PC) are derived via different mechanisms. I investigate the Niger-Congo language Wolof, where control exists with both cross-linguistically typical EC predicates and with typical PC predicates, but it is always only Exhaustive. Interestingly, two other characteristics of typical EC (but not PC) verbs—that they are also restructuring verbs, and that they are exclusively monotransitive (i.e. that they do not take nominal complements)—are also true of all control verbs in Wolof. This confirms a correlation between EC, restructuring, and monotransitivity argued for by Cinque (2004, 2006) and Grano (2012, 2015), which lead them to propose that EC verbs are functional heads in the inflectional layer, meaning that such constructions involve only one subject. I however argue that this bundle of properties cannot be a simple consequence of monoclausal syntax, as typical PC verbs, which Grano claims are lexical, also appear to be lexical verbs in Wolof, yet exhibit many of the properties of EC verbs. I therefore propose that the analysis which involves only one subject, which moves from the infinitival into the matrix clause, must be available in bi-clausal constructions as well, supporting the view that at least one type of control is derived via movement, and does not involve PRO (Hornstein 1999 et seg.). Finally, I argue that infinitival complements come in different sizes, as argued in Wurmbrand (2014c, 2015); Wurmbrand and Lohninger (In press), which I use to explain the differences between typically restructuring and typically non-restructuring predicates: the latter, but not the former, allow embedded tense and non-controlled subjects.

## 1 Introduction

Control predicates have been shown to fall into several categories, each characterized by a different set of properties. One of the main issues in the literature on infinitival complements concerns the split between those control constructions that are transparent with respect to some clause-bound processes, and those that are not. The former have been termed restructuring constructions, and the class of core restructuring verbs—modals, aspectual, and motion verbs—has been shown to be largely stabile cross-linguistically (Rizzi 1978; Wurmbrand 2001). A well known restructuring diagnostic is the ability of clitics that are arguments of the embedded infinitive to climb into the matrix clause, as illustrated in the Italian examples in (1), with the restructuring verb want. The verb detest, on the other hand, does not allow clitic climbing, shown in (2) (examples from Cardinaletti and Shlonsky 2004).

- (1) Restructuring
  - a. Vorrei [andarci con Maria] would.want.1sg [go.there with Maria] 'I would want to go there with Maria.'

- b. Ci vorrei [ andare con Maria ].
- (2) Non-restructuring
  - a. Detesterei [ andarci con Maria ]. would.detest.1sg [ go.there with Maria ] 
    'I would detest to go there with Maria.'
  - b. \*Ci detesterei [ andare con Maria ].

Most accounts of restructuring treat restructuring constructions as monoclausal (e.g., Cinque 2004; Grano 2012, 2015), or as either monoclausal or involving a reduced (i.e., smaller than CP) infinitival complement, depending on the predicate (e.g., Wurmbrand 2001).

The second property distinguishing the two classes of predicates has to do with the identity of the embedded subject position in control constructions, and how this relates to two types of control: Exhaustive Control (EC), as in (3a), in which the controller exhaustively determines the referent of the controlled position, and Partial Control (PC), where the controlled position is interpreted as a proper superset of the controller, exemplified in (3b) (Wurmbrand 1998; Landau 1999, et seq.). Wurmbrand (1998) first observed that EC predicates are also restructuring predicates, and that PC predicates generally do not restructure.

(3) a. Frodo<sub>1</sub> tried [e<sub>1</sub> to take the ring to Mordor (\*together)].
b. Frodo<sub>1</sub> promised [e<sub>1+</sub> to take the ring to Mordor (together)].
PC

The third way in which EC/restructuring predicates differ from PC/non-restructuring predicates is that the former usually do not support finite complementation, while the latter do, as in (4). Grano (2012, 2015) uses this as an argument that the complements of EC predicates are not clausal, while the complements of PC predicates are.

- (4) a. \*Frodo tried [ that he carried/should carry the ring to Mordor ].
  - b. Frodo decided [ that he should carry the ring to Mordor ].

And finally, already Kayne (1989) notes that restructuring predicates are almost exclusively monotransitive (i.e., they do not take nominal complements), leading Cinque (2004) to propose that EC/restructuring constructions are monoclausal, with those control predicates being functional instead of lexical verbs.

Against this backdrop, this paper investigates infinitival complements in the Niger-Congo language Wolof, which exhibits the following properties. First, all control predicates in Wolof allow only EC. Second, clitic climbing occurs in all control constructions, both those that typically restructure, as with modal and aspectual verbs, and those that cross-linguistically do not restructure, including verbs that usually take propositional complements, such as think and believe. (5a) illustrates clitic climbing with the typical restructuring/EC verb jéem 'try', and (5b) with taamu 'prefer', which is usually a PC/non-restructuring predicate.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Unless otherwise noted, all Wolof data were collected by the author during primary fieldwork in Saint-Louis and Ndombo, Senegal, through direct elicitation. All sentences were elicited in context, so that speakers would be given a context, and then either asked how the target sentence would be said in Wolof (the contact language is French), or they would be given a sentence in Wolof and asked if it is appropriate in the provided context. The bulk of the data on control come from three 6-week long trips, in 2018, 2019, and 2022. All of the data were collected from five speakers; parts of the data were additionally checked with another three

- (5) Clitics climb in all control constructions in Wolof
  - a. Jéem-na=a=**ko** jënd. try-C=1sG=3sg.obj buy 'I tried to buy it.'
  - b. Taamu-na=a=ko naan suba si. prefer-C=1SG=3SG.OBJ drink morning the.SG 'I prefer to drink it in the morning. 2

Clitic climbing is obligatory with typical restructuring verbs, and optional with non-restructuring ones, meaning that there is still a difference between the two sets of predicates in Wolof.

The third property of EC/restructuring verbs, that they are only monotransitive predicates, is also the property of all obligatory control verbs in Wolof. Verbs that also take NP complements, as in (6), can embed non-finite complements, but they must have overt subjects, and most of them do not pass the tests for obligatory control.

(6) <u>Ditransitive verbs do not allow control</u>
Daf-a= $\emptyset_1$  ñaan jàngalekat=am<sub>2</sub> [ mu<sub>1/2/3</sub> dem teel ].
do-C=3SG ask teacher=POSS.3SG [ 1SG leave early ]
'S/he<sub>1</sub> asked her/his teacher<sub>2</sub> that s/he<sub>1/2/3</sub> leave early.'

Finally, typical non-restructuring verbs can embed finite complements in Wolof as well; additionally, they can all embed complements with non-controlled subjects, as in (7). Typical non-restructuring predicates disallow this.

(7) a. \*Magatt jéem na=∅ [ xale yi lekk téel ].

Magatte try C=3sg child the.PL eat early

intended: 'Magatte tried for the children to eat early.'
b. Magatt taamu na=∅ [ xale yi lekk téel ].

Magatte prefer C=3sg child the.PL eat early

'Magatte prefered for the children to eat early.'

Features of the two sets of control predicates in Wolof are summarized in Table 1.

	Typically restructuring	Typically non-restructuring
Clitic climbing Infinitival subjects	obligatory only controlled	optional controlled or non-controlled
Type of control Transitivity	only EC monotransitive	only EC monotransitive

Table 1: Two sets of control predicates in Wolof

I argue here that these properties are the result of the following characteristics of control in Wolof:

speakers. Any disagreement in judgments are noted for relevant examples.

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ Abbreviations: VEN = venitive

- (i) typically restructuring predicates are vP- or AspP-sized, while typically non-restructuring predicates are TP-sized, and
- (ii) control in Wolof is established only through movement of the subject from the embedded to the matrix clause.

I continue to refer to the first group of predicates as *restructuring* and the second one as *non-restructuring* for convenience, even though clitic climbing is possible out of infinitival complements of all control verbs in Wolof.

I propose that the size of the infinitival clause is responsible for the differences between the two types of control predicates. Specifically, I argue that clitic climbing is obligatory out of infinitives that do not contain the inflectional layer, but optional out of infinitives that do. The relevance of the inflectional layer can be observed when infinitival complements of typically restructuring verb contain Aspect, which renders clitic climbing optional, just like with typically non-restructuring predicates. The presence of the TP-layer is argued to be necessary to license non-controlled subjects, which is why they are impossible with restructuring predicates. Wurmbrand (2014c, 2015), Wurmbrand and Lohninger (In press) extensively argue that infinitival complements come in different sizes; the previously undescribed facts from Wolof discussed in this paper support this.

The fact that Wolof only allows EC and that control exists only with monotransitive verbs is proposed to be the consequence of the strategy that establishes control in Wolof: movement. Specifically, I argue that Wolof supports theories according to which EC and PC are derived via different mechanisms. This mixed approach to control is advocated by Grano (2012, 2015), who, following Cinque (2004, 2006), proposes that EC involves monoclausal constructions, with control predicates actually being functional verbs in the inflectional layer of the clausal spine. These constructions consequently have only one subject, explaining why only EC is available. PC structures, in Grano's view embed CP complements which contain PRO subjects.

Control constructions in Wolof give support for the split between the two different paths to control, as only one exists in Wolof: Exhaustive Control. Unlike Cinque/Grano, I propose that movement of the subject from the embedded into the matrix clause occurs not only in mono-clausal, but also in bi-clausal constructions. The fact that movement is allowed from all monotransitive control constructions in Wolof also explains why clitic climbing is always possible: all infinitival complements that exhibit control are smaller than a CP, and therefore movement is unempeded. Finally, I propose that ditransitive predicates take CP-sized complements, which results in the absence of control and the ban on clitic climbing – movement is not possible out of non-wh-CPs in Wolof. Given that no other path to control is possible in Wolof, I argue that Wolof does not have PRO.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses the syntactic characteristics of infinitival clauses in Wolof, and establishes the size of the different infinitival complements. Section 3 explores clitic climbing, and relates its properties to the size of infinitives. In section 4, I shows that Wolof has only Exhaustive Control, and that this is best accounted for via a movement analysis. This section also shows how the absence of control with ditransitive verbs is straightforwardly accounted for under a movement analysis. Section 5 concludes.

#### 2 The structure of Wolof infinitives

In this section, I give the necessary background on Wolof clause structure, and then discuss the properties and structure of non-finite complements.

Wolof is an SVO language with rigid word order and a rich left periphery for focused and topicalized elements. All finite indicative clauses in Wolof contain *sentence particles*, which have been argued to all be hosted by one and the same, high head (Sigma in Dunigan 1994, C in Martinović 2015, 2017a, 2021). Examples of several clause-types with different sentence particles (boxed) are given in (8).

- (8) Wolof clause types
  - a. Xale yi lekk-**na**=ñu gato bi. child the.PL eat-C=3PL cake the.SG 'The children ate the cake.'

Neutral affirmative

b. Xale yi da = ñu lekk gato bi. child the.PL do.C=3PL eat cake the.SG 'The children ATE the cake.'

Predicate focus

c. Gato bi la = ñu lekk. cake the.SG C=3PL eat 'It's the cake that they ate.'

**Exhaustive Identification** 

The notion of *finiteness* in Wolof, as is the case in primarily aspectual languages, is not tied to tense. Eventive verbs are interpreted as past tense in tenseless clauses, as in (9), and stative verbs as present tense, shown in (10). Tenseless clauses receive independent temporal interpretation only in the presence of sentence particles.<sup>3</sup> There is one tense morpheme, *oon*, which Bochnak and Martinović (2019) argue is an optional, plain past tense marker. Clauses which have been argued to be no bigger than a vP (Zribi-Hertz and Diagne 2002), as in (11), can be independent (i.e., unembedded) in running narratives, where they receive their temporal interpretation from context. They cannot contain any inflectional morphology of any kind (tense, aspect, negation). I refer to them as *minimal clauses*.

- (9) Eventive verbs are past tense
  Lekk na=∅ tàngal.
  eat C=3sg candy
  'S/he ate candy.'/#'S/he's eating
  candy.'
  - (10) Stative verbs are present tense Baax na= $\emptyset$ .
    be.good C=3sG
    'It's good.'/#'It was good.'
- (11) Minimal clause
  Mu lekk tàngal.
  3SG eat candy
  'S/he ate/eats/will eat/... candy.'

Sentence particles therefore seem to be the only morpho-syntactic correlate of what we

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>For accounts of default temporal interpretation of tenseless clauses in Wolof, see Bochnak and Martinović 2019, who base their analysis on Smith and Erbaugh 2005; Smith et al. 2007; Mucha 2013.

might call *finiteness*, to the extent that finiteness means having independent temporal interpretation. The presence of a sentence particle is also obligatory for the clause to contain negation (Njie 1978, 1982). In this paper, I use the term *non-finite/infinitival* for embedded clauses that cannot contain tense morphology or negation, and do not contain overt sentence particles, without committing to any particular notion of finiteness. Given that an optional tense morpheme does exist, I assume that a TP is projected in Wolof.

Non-finite complement clauses come in two forms. One occurs in obligatory control constructions and does not have an overt subject, as in (12a). The other, illustrated in (12b), has an overt subject and, as I will show in §4, in most cases does not pass the tests for obligatory control. What is important for our purposes is that an overt subject in the complement clause is obligatory whenever the matrix verb has a DP complement.

## (12) Non-finite complement clauses

- a. Jéem na= $nu_1$  [ \_\_\_\_1/\*\_2 may miskin yi xaalis ] try C=1PL [ give poor the.PL money ] 'We tried to give money to the poor.'
- b. Naan na= $\emptyset_1$  yaay-am<sub>2</sub> [ mu<sub>1/2/3</sub> may xale yi tangal ]. ask C=3SG mother-3SG.POSS [ 3SG give child the.PL candy ] 'S/he<sub>1</sub> asked his/her mother<sub>2</sub> that s/he<sub>1/2/3</sub> give candy to the children.'

Torrence (2005, 2013) calls complement clauses as in (12b) subjunctive. While I here argue that infinitives as in (12b) are structurally distinct from those in (12a), it is important to note that these structures do not have some common properties of subjunctive mood. Subjunctives in many languages are selected by particular groups of verbs: desideratives, directives, permissive, emotives. While many of the verbs that obligatorily select complement clauses as in (12b) do appear to fall into these groups, their crucial defining characteristic is that they also take a DP complement, in addition to the infinitival complement. Another typical property of subjunctives is that an overt pronominal subject triggers subject obviation, which does not obligatorily occur in Wolof. Finally, such clausal complements appear to be non-finite: they cannot contain the tense morpheme oon, and, crucially, they do not allow negation. All other non-indicative moods in Wolof can contain negation, as illustrated in optative and imperative clauses in (13) and (14).

# (13) Optative and imperative

- a. Na Omar lekk gato. C.OPT Omar eat cake 'Let Omar eat cake.'
- b. Lekk-al gato! eat-2SG.IMP cake 'Eat cake!'

#### (14) Optative and imperative negative

- a. B-u(l) ñu lekk gato.
  OPT.NEG 3PL eat cake
  'May they not eat cake.'
- b. B-ul lekk ceeb!

  IMP.NEG.2SG eat cake

  'Don't eat cake!'

Negation is an affix that generally occurs on the verb (though not obligatorily—see (14b)), and NegP has been argued to be in a high position in the clause, above the TP (Torrence 2005, 2013; Martinović 2015, 2019). No clause without an overt sentence particle can contain negation (Njie 1978); the only way to express this meaning in infinitives is with the verbs

 $ba\tilde{n}$  'refuse' or  $\tilde{n}akk$  'lack'. This is illustrated for infinitives in a control construction in (15), and for infinitives in a non-control construction in (16).

- (15) Control infinitives cannot contain negation
  - a. \*Jéem na=a<sub>1</sub> [ \_\_\_1 lekk-ul gato bi ]. try C=1sg [ eat-Neg cake the.sg ] intended: 'I tried to not eat the cake.'
  - b. Jéem na=a<sub>1</sub> [ \_\_\_1 bañ [ \_\_\_1 lekk gato bi ] ]. try C=1SG [ refuse [ eat cake the.SG ] ] 'I tried to not eat the cake.' (lit. 'I tried to refuse to eat cake.')
- (16) Non-control infinitives cannot contain negation
  - a. \*Naan na=a xale yi<sub>1</sub> [  $\tilde{n}u_{1/2}$  lekk-ul tangal ]. ask C=1sg child the.PL [ 3PL eat-NEG candy ] intended: 'I asked the children that they not eat candy.'
  - b. Ñaan na=a xale yi<sub>1</sub> [ ñu<sub>1/2</sub> bañ [ \_\_\_1 lekk tangal ]]. ask C=1sg child the.PL [ 3PL refuse [ eat candy ] 'I asked the children that they not eat candy.' (lit. 'I asked the children that they refuse to eat candy.')

We shall see, however, that there does appear to be an additional boundary in infinitives with overt subjects, specifically, one that interferes with movement. I shall therefore argue that, while infinitives without overt subjects are always smaller than a CP, infinitives with overt subjects contain a C-head. I postpone the discussion of infinitives with overt subjects until §4.2.

Two functional elements can occur in non-finite clauses. One is the morpheme a, usually found between the matrix and the embedded verb, as in (17a), but only if nothing interferes between the two verbs (like an embedded subject, in (17b), or an adverb, in (17c)). It is not obligatory, though speakers prefer to use it. Verb is infinitival complements are bare – there is no special infinitival morphology.

- (17) Morpheme a in infinitives
  - a. Da=ma bëgg=a=toog jën. do.C=1sg want=a=cook fish 'I want to cook fish.'
  - b. Da=ma bëgg(=\*a) mu toog jën. do.C=1sg want=a 3sg cook fish 'I want her/him to cook fish.'
  - c. Da=ma bëgg(=\*a) tëy(=\*a) toog jën. do.C=1SG want=a today=a cook fish 'Today I want to cook fish.'

Torrence (2013) considers a to be a complementizer, however, there are several arguments against this. First, as mentioned, a cannot occur when the embedded subject is overt, and

that is precisely the context where I shall argue for the presence of a C head. Second, it can occur with all control verbs, even restructuring verbs that are generally agreed not to take full clausal complements, such as modals. Additionally, clitics climb out of infinitives with a, and C usually blocks clitic climbing (Müller 1996; Wurmbrand 2001). Finally, a is in complementary distribution with the second functional element that can be found in infinitives – the aspectual auxiliary di.

Both a and di occur as one and the same aspectual morpheme in Wolof, though a is less common in Senegal, and is recognized by my speakers as the variety more used in Mauritanian Wolof. In finite clauses (i.e., clauses with overt sentence particles), di, glossed as *imperfective*, is interpreted as either present, habitual, or future, illustrated in (18);<sup>4</sup> an overt sentence particle is obligatory for these meanings to be available.

- (18) Imperfective aspect in finite clauses
  - a. Xale yi da=ñu lekk ceebujën. child the.PL do.C=3PL eat ceebujen 'The children ate ceebujen.'
  - b. Xale yi da=ñu di (>dañuy) lekk ceebujën. child the.PL do.C=3PL IPFV eat ceebujen 'The children are eating/will eat/eat (habitually) ceebujen.'

Bochnak and Martinović (2019) argue that di is a future-oriented modal, so it is a good candidate for the modal WOLL. Abusch (1985) proposes that future modals will and would contain a T head (PRES or PAST), and the abstract modal WOLL which contributes posteriority. Wurmbrand (2014a) claims that WOLL is also present in future-oriented infinitives, and Jóhannsdóttir and Matthewson (2007) (see also Matthewson 2013) propose that Gitxan (Tsimshianic) gives evidence for the existence of this element, having an overt morpheme that occurs in precisely those environments where WOLL has been posited for languages like English, crucially, future-oriented infinitives. We have reason to believe, however, that di is not WOLL. First, in infinitives which are obligatorily future oriented, the occurrence of di is optional, as in (19); in fact, speakers prefer examples without di.

(19) di is optional in future oriented infinitives

Demb Faatu fasyeene-woon na=0 (di) toogu ceebujën suba.

yesterday Fatou decide-PST C=1SG IPFV cook ceebujen tomorrow

'Yesterday, Fatou decided to cook ceebujen tomorrow.'

The morpheme di appears to also have aspectual meaning in infinitives; when asked to give contexts for the sentence in (20) with and without di, speakers usually say that using di means that the giving should occur regularly.

(20) di *in infinitives*War na=ñu [ (di) jox miskin yi xaalis ].
must C=1PL IPFV give money the PL money

 $<sup>^4</sup>$ Which meaning is available depends on the structural height of di; see Bochnak and Martinović 2018 for details.

'We must give money to the poor.'

However, the use of di is not obligatory even in a clearly habitual context, as (21) shows. The only verb where the speakers insisted on di in the non-finite complement is the verb  $w\acute{e}y$  'continue', as in (22), again apparently contributing a habitual meaning.

- di not obligatory in habitual contexts in infinitives

  War na=ñu [ (di) jox miskin yi xaalis bës bu nekk ].

  must C=1PL IPFV give poor the.PL money day C<sub>REL</sub> exist

  'We must give money to the poor every day.'
- (22) di obligatory in the infinitival complement of wey 'continue'
  Astu wéy na=0 [\*(di) lekk suukar].
  Astou continue C=3sg IPFV eat sugar
  'Astou continued eating sugar (e.g., even after her doctor forbade it).'

And finally, di can also occur with predicates which force simultaneity between the matrix and embedded events, such as  $j\acute{e}em$  'try'.

(23) di occurs with predicates forcing simultaneity
Da=ma jéem (di) jox xaalis sama-y wayjur.
do.C=1sg try IPFV give money POSS.1sg-PL parents
'I tried qiving money to my parents.'

Given all this, I treat di as an Asp head in infinitives. Since di can occur in infinitival complements of all verbs, I argue that every infinitival complement can be at least as big as AspP. For typically restructuring verbs, I will show that clitic climbing distinguishes between a smaller infinitival complement, which I argue is vP-sized, and a slightly larger one, which is an AspP.<sup>5</sup>

Whatever meaning *doon* contributes, it does not appear to parallel its meaning in non-finite clauses, where it is a past progressive. I leave *doon* aside for the time being, as it requires further research.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Additionally, the morpheme *doon*, which in finite clauses indicates past progressive, can also occur in some infinitives. For the speakers I consulted, this is only possible if the matrix clause contains the optional past morpheme *oon*, making it look like a type of tense concord. However, the judgments were extremely unclear and unstabile. For example, no speaker allowed *doon* in the complement of modal verbs (recall that *di* is allowed), it was allowed in the complement of aspectual and movement verbs for almost all speakers, not in the complement of *jéem* 'try' or *bëgg* 'want'. With desiderative verbs like *taamu* 'prefer', and *yaakaar* 'hope', for example, some speakers allowed it and some did not (and the speakers' judgments were not consistent between the two verbs either). As for its meaning, many speakers did not find a difference between a sentence with *doon* and the one without it. One speaker offered the following interpretations, but not all speakers shared this intuition:

<sup>(</sup>i) a. Tàmbali-woon na=a doon tabax ñaari kër.
begin-PST C=1SG doon build two house
'I began to build two houses.' (the addition of doon means that the building of the houses started, but then stopped)

New-oon na=a doon añ-si.
 come-PST C=1SG doon eat-VEN
 'I came to eat.' (the addition of doon means that the speaker didn't get to eat)

Briefly returning to a, given that its presence or absence produces no observable change in meaning, that it occurs only if nothing intervenes between the matrix and embedded verb, and that it can occur in all control constructions, I do not consider it to be a dialectal variant of di, even though it is in complementary distribution with di and speakers still recognize it as the imperfective in finite clauses. In the following section, we shall see that clitic climbing differentiates between a and di, but that a does behave like a syntactic head. I leave the exact position and syntactic properties of a to be worked out in future research.<sup>6</sup>

Thus far, I have argued that all control infinitives can be at least as big as an AspP, and that infinitives without overt subjects are smaller than a CP. More evidence for this will be presented in §3: I here want to discuss how Wolof behaves with respect to some other claims made in the literature having to do with the size of control infinitives. It is standardly assumed that certain infinitives are smaller, specifically, those that are complements of restructuring predicates, while non-restructuring predicates are argued to take larger (usually TP- or CP-sized) infinitival complements. The majority of the arguments made for the different size of infinitives come from various syntactic processes that the infinitival complement is more or less transparent to, as extensively discussed in Wurmbrand 1998, 2001 for German. In §3 I explore the one restructuring diagnostic that exists in Wolof—clitic climbing—and argue that it supports my claims about the different sizes of infinitival clauses. Here I wish to set up that discussion by looking at a commonly reported difference between restructuring and non-restructuring predicates, used to argue that they embed complements of different sizes. Wurmbrand (1998, 2001) proposes that the possibility to have embedded future adverbials in control structures distinguishes non-restructuring (tensed) infinitives from restructuring (tenseless) ones. The behavior of typically restructuring and non-restructuring verbs in Wolof parallels what has been reported for those verbs in other languages: predicates such as jéem 'try', modal and aspectual verbs, do not allow embedded future time adverbials, whereas predicates such as bëqq 'want', fasyeene 'decide', do.

- (24) Restructuring verbs cannot embed future adverbials
  - a. Demb mën-oon na=a jox xaalis miskin yi (\*suba). yesterday can-PST C=1SG give money poor the.PL tomorrow 'Yesterday I could give money to the poor (\*tomorrow).'
  - b. Jéem na=a demb toogu ceebujën (\*suba). try C=1sg yesterday cook ceebujën tomorrow intended: 'I tried yesterday to cook ceebujën (\*tomorrow).'
- (25) Non-restructuring verbs can embed future adverbials
  - a. Demb bëgg-oon na=a jox xaalis miskin yi suba. yesterday want-PST C=1SG give money poor the.PL tomorrow 'Yesterday I wanted to give money to the poor tomorrow.'
  - b. Fas yeene na=a demb toogu ceebujën suba. decide C=1sg yesterday cook ceebujën tomorrow 'I decided yesterday to cook ceebujën tomorrow.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>The struggle to identify the exact position of a is in some ways similar to the problems with the English to—see Grano 2015, Ch. 2, §2.7.3 for an overview of analyses and challenges.

Wurmbrand (2014c) argues that complements of non-restructuring verbs such as decide, which are future-oriented infinitives, do not involve a TP, but have a wollP (see above), whereas restructuring, non-future infinitives, complements of predicates such as try, lack a wollP. Propositional non-future infinitives, complements of verbs such as claim, are at least TPs. Wurmbrand gives arguments against the presence of T[PRES] or T[PAST] in future-oriented infinitives, but Grano (2012, 2015) argues that the facts are also consistent with the presence of T[ $\emptyset$ ] (tense obtained under 'Sequence-of-Tense'). I do not concern myself with these details here, primarily because I do not here make a distinction between non-future infinitives and propositional non-future infinitives, as most propositional and factive verbs cannot take infinitival complements in Wolof; the exception are verbs of thinking (see §4, Table 3). I therefore assume that the presence of an embedded future adverbial indicates the presence of a TP in the complement of a control predicate. A further argument for the different size of infinitival complements comes from the differences in clitic climbing between different types of control constructions, and is discussed in §3.

Additional evidence often given for the fact that non-restructuring predicates take full clausal complements comes from the fact that they (i) support finite complementation, and (ii) admit overt embedded subjects. This is also the case in Wolof. First, non-restructuring verbs generally allow both finite and non-finite complementation, whereas typical restructuring verbs do not. The contrast is illustrated in (26)-(27).

- (26) Modals cannot take finite complements
  - a. War na=a [bàyyi tox ]
    must C=1sg [quit smoke]
    - 'I must quit smoking.'
  - b. \*War na=a [ ni di-na=a bàyyi tox ] must C=1sg [ that ipfv-C=1sg quit smoke ]
- (27) Desideratives can take finite complements
  - a. Fas yeene na=a [bàyyi tox] decide C=1sg [quit smoke] 'I decided to quit smoking.'
  - b. Fas yeene na=a [ ni di-na=a bàyyi tox ] decide C=1sg [ that IPFV-C=1sg quit smoke ] 'I decided that I will quit smoking.'

Second, non-restructuring verbs allow complements with overt non-controlled subjects; typical restructuring verbs do not.

- (28) No overt subject in a complement of an aspectual verb
  - a. Magatt tàmbali na=Ø [ jàng téere bi ]. Magatte begin C=3sg [ read book the.sg 'Magatte began reading the book.'
  - b. \*Magatt tàmbali na=Ø [ ma jàng téere bi ].

    Magatte begin C=3sG [ 1sG read book the.sG ].

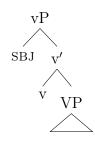
    \*(Magatte begin that I mad a back)
    - \*'Magatte began that I read a book.'

- (29) Overt subject in a complement of a desiderative verb
  - a. Mbaye taamu na=0 [dem teel]. Mbaye prefer C=3sg [leave early] 'Mbaye preferred to leave early.'
  - b. Mbaye taamu na=0 [ma dem teel]. Mbaye prefer C=3sg [1sg leave early] 'Mbaye preferred that I leave early.'

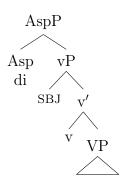
To sum up, I propose that control infinitives in Wolof come in two sizes: vP/AspP and TP. Typically restructuring verbs take vP- or AspP-sized complements, shown in (30), and typically non-restructuring verbs always take TP-sized complements, as in (31). I shall argue that infinitives with overt subjects are structurally slightly different than control infinitives; I leave them aside for now. More evidence especially for the claim that typical restructuring verbs can take either vP- or Asp-sized complements is given in §3.

## (30) Complements of restructuring verbs

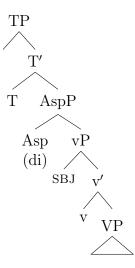
a.



b.



# (31) Complement of non-restructuring verbs



Before moving on to the main topics of the paper, a note is in order. First, it is generally accepted that at least some control predicates are functional and not lexical verbs. Wurmbrand (1998, 2001) calls this functional restructuring and takes it to involve verbs such as modals, aspectual verbs and movement verbs (in German). Cinque (2004, 2006) and Grano (2015) take all restructuring predicates to be functional verbs. I have here discussed restructuring predicates as if they were all lexical verbs. The distinction between functional and lexical restructuring will not be crucial for us, but I briefly return to this question at the end of section 3.

#### 3 Restructuring in Wolof

Restructuring is a phenomenon whereby structures that appear to be biclausal are transparent for syntactic processes that are otherwise clause-bound. It has been observed that the core class of restructuring predicates is quite stabile cross-linguistically and commonly includes modal, aspectual, motion and causative verbs. There are different accounts of the cause of restructuring phenomena. For Wurmbrand (1998, 2001), they can be the result of a variety of factors: (i) the control predicate is a lexical verb taking only a VP-sized complement, not a clause, so clause-bounded processes are not impeded; (ii) the control verb is actually a functional head, so the construction is truly monoclausal (i.e., it contains only one lexical verb); (iii) the control predicate is a lexical verb taking a vP or TP-sized complement, so some clause-bound processes are not impeded (whereas others might be). In later work, Wurmbrand argues that complement clauses fall into three classes which are determined semantically and not syntactically (i.e., there is no category/size selection); following Ramchand and Svenonius (2014), these classes are termed *Events*, *Situations*, and *Propo*sitions (Wurmbrand 2014b, 2015; Wurmbrand and Lohninger In press). While their size is not syntactically determined, they are in a containment relationship (Propositions contain Situations, which contain Events). Their transparency for clause-bound syntactic operations increases from Events to Situations, but there is cross-linguistic variation in 'degrees of restructuring' depending on a variety of factors.

On the other hand, it has been noted already by Kayne (1989) that restructuring verbs

are (almost) exclusively monotransitive,<sup>7</sup> which has led Cinque (2004) to propose that all restructuring verbs are functional heads in the inflectional layer of the clause, meaning that there is only functional restructuring. This approach is meant to account for more than restructuring; Wurmbrand (1998) was the first to observe that restructuring verbs are also verbs that allow only Exhaustive Control (EC). Cinque therefore argues that, if all restructuring verbs are functional heads in monoclausal constructions, EC follows straightforwardly, as in that case A-movement trivially occurs—there is only one subject, which moves from its base-generated position to the structural subject position. Grano (2012, 2015) agrees with this, and proposes that, while all EC verbs are functional verbs, Partial Control (PC) verbs are lexical verbs that take clausal (CP-sized) complements containing a PRO.

I argue here that a combination of these two approaches is needed to account for Wolof. I agree with Cinque and Grano that Exhaustive Control is the result of A-movement: the subject moves from the infinitival complement to the matrix subject position. I depart from Cinque and Grano in arguing that this is found not only with functional, but also with lexical verbs. Specifically, I argue that subject movement in Wolof is possible from all infinitival complements of monotransitive verbs, be they functional or lexical, because they are all smaller than a CP. A movement analysis of control explains why Wolof only has EC, and will also account for the fact that predicates with DP objects do not appear to consistently involve control. I also diverge from Grano in proposing that infinitival complements can indeed be of different sizes, as already argued for in section §2, in line with claims made in Wurmbrand 2014c, 2015; Wurmbrand and Lohninger In press. In this section I focus on clitic climbing; the movement analysis of EC is discussed in §4.

### 3.1 Clitics in Wolof infinitives

Clitic Climbing (CC), whereby clitics move from inside the infinitival complement to some position in the matrix clause, as in the Polish example in (32) (Bondaruk 2004, 154), is a well-known indicator of restructuring.

(32) Clitic climbing in Polish

Marek **ją**; zdecydował się przeczytać t<sub>i</sub>.

Mark it decided REFL read.INF

'Mark decided to read it.'

Clitic climbing does not always perfectly correlate with restructuring: some languages, like Brazilian Portuguese, never allow it, in some languages it is possible from a larger number of infinitival complements, in others it is possible from a more restricted subset of infinitives (e.g., in Wurmbrand and Lohninger's terminology, in Czech CC is possible from both Event and Situation complements, in Italian only from Event complements). I will show that in Wolof, CC is obligatory from vP-sized complements, and optional from complements that contain any projection from the inflectional layer.

Wolof has Wackernagel-like clitics that obligatorily move to the highest functional head

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Wurmbrand (2001, 2002, 2004) notes that German appears to provide one counterexample to this otherwise cross-linguistically very robust generalization: the verb *gelingen* 'manage' allows for long passive, taken to be evidence for the highest degree of restructuring, yet the controller is its dative argument.

in the extended projection of the verb (Dunigan 1994; Martinović 2020). In finite clauses, this is always immediately following the position of the sentence particle, shown in (33) for a variety of clauses. Note that clitic position is independent of both the position of the verb and the position of the optional tense morpheme *oon*, which is not always affixed onto the verb, and that clitics always follow C, regardless of whether there is anything to C's left or not, as can be seen from examples in which the lexical subject to the left of C is optional. They are therefore not true second-position clitics.

- (33) Clitics in Wolof finite clauses
  - a. (Xale yi) lekk-oon-na=ñu=ko=fi. child the.PL eat-PST-C=3PL=3SG.OBJ=LOC "The children/they are it there."
  - b. (Xale yi) lekk-ul- $\emptyset$ = $\tilde{\mathbf{n}}\mathbf{u}$ = $\mathbf{ko}$ = $\mathbf{f}\mathbf{i}$  woon. child the PL eat-NEG-C=3PL=3SG.OBJ=LOC PST "The children/they didn't eat it there."
  - c. (Xale yi) da = ñu = ko = fi lekk-oon. child the PL do.C = 3PL = 3SG.OBJ = LOC eat-PST "It's that the children/they ate it there."
  - d. Demb la **nu=ko=fi** lekk-oon. yesterday C=3PL=3SG.OBJ=LOC eat-PST "It's yesterday that they ate it there."

Clitics move in structures of all sizes in Wolof. For example, in minimal clauses which are argued to be vP-sized (see §2), a locative clitic moves over the internal argument to immediately follow the verb. The order of arguments and adjuncts is otherwise rigid.

- (34) Clitics move in minimal clauses
  - a. Ma gis xaj bi ci wañ bi.

    1SG see dog the SG in kitchen the SG

    'I see the dog in the kitchen.'
  - b. Ma gis=fa xaj bi. 1SG see=LOC dog the.SG 'I see the dog there.'

In typical restructuring constructions with modals, aspectual verbs and implicatives,<sup>8</sup>

- (i) No clitic climbing with movement verbs
  - a. New na=a [ jox=ko xale yi \_\_\_].
    come C=1sg give=3sg.obj child the.pl
    'I came to give it to the children.'
  - b. \*New na=a=ko [ jox xale yi \_\_] come C=1sG=3sG give child the.PL

This may indicate that the infinitival complement of movement verbs is an adjunct (a purpose clause with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>One group of most commonly restructuring verbs, movement verbs, does not allow clitic climbing in Wolof. Clitics only move to follow the embedded verb, as in (i).

clitics obligatorily climb to the matrix C, as in (35)-(37). They cannot climb just to the embedded verb.

```
Modals^9
(35)
                               [ jox xaalis __].
           War na=ñu=leen
           must C=1PL=3PL.OBJ [ give money __ ]
            'We must give them money.'
       b. *War na=ñu [ jox=leen xaalis ].
(36)
       Aspectual verbs
           Tàmbali na=a=ko
                                     [ tabax ___ ].
       a.
                    C=1sg=3sg.obj [build]
            'I began building it.'
       b. *Tàmbali na=a [ tabax=ko __ ].
(37)
       Implicatives
                                    [indil tangal __].
           Sàggane na=a=leen
           neglect C=1sg=3pl.obj bring candy __ ]
            'I neglected to bring them candy.'
       b. *Sàggane na=a [ indil=leen tangal _ ].
```

Clitics in Wolof can climb in all control constructions with monotransitive control verbs. It has been observed that CC is blocked in the presence of an embedded CP (e.g. Wurmbrand 2001; Bondaruk 2004; Marušič 2005; Dotlačil 2007); since CC is possible in all control constructions in Wolof, this is another argument for a reduced structure of all control infinitives in this language. Climbing to the matric C is not obligatory with desideratives, which are cross-linguistically usually non-restructuring predicates; clitics can also stay in the embedded clause, as shown in (38). This suggests that there is some sort of a boundary in control constructions with desideratives that clitics are sensitive to, which is not there with typical restructuring predicates.

(38) Clitic climbing is optional with desideratives

```
a. Faatu fas yeene na=\emptyset={ko} [ togg={ko} ]. Fatou decide C=3SG=3SG.OBJ [ cook=3SG.OBJ ] 'Fatou decided to cook it.'
```

- b. Taamu na=a={ko} [ naan={ko} suba si ].
  prefer C=1sG=3sg.obj [ drink=3sg.obj morning the.sg ]

  'I prefer to drink it in the morning.'
- c. Yakaar na=a= $\{fa\}$  [ dellusi= $\{fa\}$  léegi ]. hope C=1SG=LCL [ return=LCL soon ]

the meaning in order to...), and that CC is not possible from adjuncts. I leave this issue aside here.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>I mark the original position of the clitic, which is by hypothesis generated in the same position as its non-clitic counterpart, with an underscore. Themes generally follow goals in Wolof, therefore theme clitics are marked as originating after goals.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup>The optionality of clitic climbing is represented with curly brackets, which have a disjunctive interpretation vis-a-vis clitic position.

'I hope to return there soon.'

In the previous section, I proposed that typical restructuring and non-restructuring verbs in Wolof differ in the presence of a TP layer, obligatorily there in the complements of the latter group of verbs, but absent with the former. I propose that the difference in the obligatoriness of CC stems from this structural difference – it is obligatory from an infinitive that does not contain the inflectional layer, and optional from an infinitive that does. That the presence of the inflectional layer makes CC optional can be seen when the aspectual morpheme di occurs in complements of modals, aspectual or implicative verbs, where CC is otherwise obligatory. In the presence of di, clitics can remain in the infinitival complement following di, instead of climbing to the matrix C, as in (39a). Interestingly, the acceptablity of CC in the presence of di appears to be at least partly a phonological matter: monomorphemic clitics (e.g. ko) climb over it easier than the bi-morphemic clitic leen – the latter, as shown in (39b), is degraded for some speakers.

- (39) Clitic climbing optional in the presence of di with modal verbs
  - a. War na= $\tilde{n}u$ ={ko} [ di={ko} jox xaalis ]. must C=3SG=3SG.OBJ [ di=3SG.OBJ give money ] 'We must give her/him money.'
  - b. War na=ñu={?leen} [di={leen} jox xaalis]. must C=3sG=3pl.obj [di=3pl.obj give money] 'We must give them money.'

There seems to be a good deal of variation in when it comes to CC in the presence of di. For example, with modal verbs, as in (39), CC over di is generally acceptable for all speakers (modulo the phonological effect shown in (39b)). With the aspectual verb tambali 'begin', in (40a), CC was dispreferred by some speakers, regardless of the clitic, and allowed by others. With the aspectual verb wéy 'continue', no speaker allowed CC, shown in (40b).

- (40) Clitic climbing dispreferred or disallowed in the presence of di with aspectual verbs
  - a. Xadi tàmbali na= $\emptyset$ ={%ko} di={ko} tabax. Khady begin C=3sG=3sG.OBJ di=3sG.OBJ build 'Khady began to build it.'
  - b. Xadi wéy na= $\emptyset = \{*\mathbf{ko}\}$  di= $\{\mathbf{ko}\}$  tabax. Khady continue C=3SG=3SG.OBJ di=3SG.OBJ build 'Khady continued building it.'

Recall also that  $w\acute{e}y$  is the only control predicate which requires di to be obligatorily present in the infinitival complement. It is important to note that clitics cannot dock after the imperfective di in non-control structures, as in (41); they must climb to C.

- (41) Clitics cannot attach to di in non-control
  - a. Da=ma=**leen** di gis. do.C=1SG=3SG.OBJ IPFV see 'I will see them.'

b. \*Da=ma di=**leen** gis. do.C=1sg ipfv=3sg.obj see

With other restructuring verbs like  $j\acute{e}em$  'try', or  $s\grave{a}ggane$  'neglect', all speakers allowed CC in the presence of di:

- (42) a. Xadi jéem na= $\emptyset$ ={ko} di={ko} tabax. Khady try C=3sG=3sG.OBJ di=3sG.OBJ build 'Khady tried to build it.'
  - b. Xadi sàggane na= $\emptyset = \{ \mathbf{ko} \}$  di= $\{ \mathbf{ko} \}$  tabax. Khady neglect C=3SG= $\{ 3$ SG.OBJ $\}$  di= $\{ 3$ SG.OBJ $\}$  build 'Khady neglected to build it.'

This suggests that it is not di (or Asp) per se that interferes with CC, but that its presence in the infinitive introduces a syntactic boundary which makes CC optional. I will here set aside the complication that arises with aspectual verbs, acknowledging that this requires more research, and treat the optionality of CC in the presence of di in other typical restructuring verbs on a par with the optionality of CC with desiderative verbs, attributing it to the presence of the inflectional layer in the infinitival complement.

For the sake of completeness, (43) shows the optionality of CC with a desiderative verb in the presence of di.

(43) Clitic climbing is optional with desideratives and di Awa fas yeene na=Ø={ko} di={ko} toggu. Awa decide C=3sG=3sG.OBJ di=3sG.OBJ cook 'Awa decided to cook it.'

Clitic climbing patterns are summarized in (44).

- (44) Clitic climbing patterns
  - a. obligatory with typically restructuring verbs,
  - b. optional with typically restructuring verbs in the presence of di,
  - c. optional with typically non-restructuring verbs (with or without di).

There are then two components of clitic climbing that an analysis needs to account for: (i) Clitics climb to the edge of some domain, and (ii) Clitics obligatorily climb in the absence of the inflectional layer, and optionally climb in the presence of the inflectional layer in infinitives. Dunigan (1994) argues that Wolof clitics move to the highest functional head in the extended projection of the verb (in the sense of Grimshaw (1991)). In Martinović 2020 I propose that clitic movement is triggered by an EDGE feature, and that every extended projection of the verb carries this feature on its highest head. I abstract away from the details of clitic movement in general, and focus only on accounting for the obligatoriness or optionality of CC. I propose that clitics have a feature that needs to be checked, if possible, by a head from the inflectional domain.

Various works have attempted to formalize the intuition that the clause is divided into different domains, and that each domain is the locus of certain kinds of information/operation

– for example, Grohmann's (2003) Prolific Domains divide the clause into the  $\theta$ -domain (where theta relations are created), the  $\varphi$ -domain (where agreement properties are licensed), and the  $\omega$ -domain (where discourse information is established). I propose here that clitic climbing in Wolof reveals the basic split between a TP- or AspP-sized infinitive, and a vP-sized infinitive. I adopt Grohmann's (2003) proposal that heads in each of the clause's Prolific Domains carry some feature that groups various projections into a single Prolific Domain; he calls these 'context values':  $|\Theta|$ ,  $|\Phi|$ ,  $|\Omega|$ . I propose that clitics carry a feature, call it  $u|\Phi|$ , that can be checked by the context value feature in the inflectional domain,  $|\Phi|$ . I also propose that a clitic can only agree with  $|\Phi|$  if it moves into the inflectional domain, <sup>11</sup> but movement to the edge and the checking of  $u|\Phi|$  must be independent of one another. The checking of  $u|\Phi|$  can fail (Preminger 2011), and the derivation still converges, as evidenced by the occurrence of clitics in minimal clauses, which do not contain any heads from the inflectional layer (see (11)). Even in those clauses, clitics can occur (i.e., they do not need to be licensed in the inflectional layer), and they still move to the highest functional head, by hypothesis v.

Let us now see how this accounts for the patterns in (44). I will leave some of the technical details vague here, as this is not a paper about cliticization. My goal here is to lay out a proposal of how CC patterns can give support for the claims I make about the size of infinitival complements in Wolof.

### 3.2 Clitic climbing and the size of infinitives

With restructuring verbs, if the clausal complement is vP-sized, clitics obligatorily climb to the matrix C. I propose that this roughly works in the following way. I suggested above that the highest head in the extended projection of the verb has an [EDGE] feature, which is responsible for clitic movement. I propose that the clitic can move to any head with an [EDGE] feature and remain there; this does not have to be the highest edge in the whole structure. However, the clitic also has an unchecked  $\mathbf{u}|\Phi|$ -feature. Therefore, the derivation in which it moves to a head with an [EDGE] feature where it can also check  $\mathbf{u}|\Phi|$  will win out over a derivation in which the clitic moves to a head where it cannot have its  $\mathbf{u}|\Phi|$  checked.

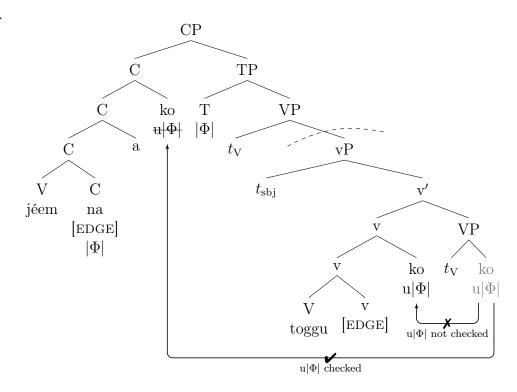
Consider the typical restructuring predicate, try, as in (45), when no di is present and CC is obligatory. The highest head in the infinitival complement, v, has the edge feature, but nothing in the infinitive has the  $|\Phi|$  feature, so if the clitic moves just to v,  $u|\Phi|$  remains unchecked. If, however, the clitic moves to the higher edge, C, then its  $u|\Phi|$  is checked as well.<sup>12</sup>

(45) Obligatory clitic climbing with jéem 'try' without di

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>This can be captured by proposing that the clitic probes downward (Chomsky 2000, 2001; Preminger 2013), contra recent literature proposing that Agree is the result of a structurally lower Probe probing up (e.g. Zeijlstra 2012; Bjorkman and Zeijlstra 2019).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup>I consider the C hosting sentence particles the final head in the extended projection of the verb. Wolof has a rich left periphery and higher, embedding complementizer, which would constitute a separate domain.



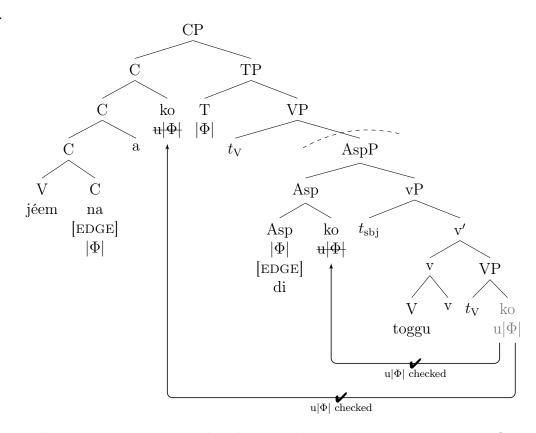


If, however, the infinitival complement also contains di, I propose that this means that it is an AspP, meaning that it contains a head which carries the context value  $|\Phi|$ . The clitic can therefore remain attached to di. Since this domain is transparent to the matrix clause (as there is no C in the embedded clause), the edge feature of the matrix C can still attract the clitic. The clitic can thus occur in two positions.<sup>13</sup>

- (46) Optional clitic climbing with jéem 'try' with di
  - a. Jéem na=a={ko} di={ko} toggu. try C=1sG=3sg.obj di=3sg.obj cook 'I tried to cook it.'

 $<sup>^{13}</sup>$ I represent the movement to the higher edge as happening in one fell swoop for simplicity; I do not exclude the possibility that it occurs in a cyclic fashion reminiscent of A'-movement (another kind of movement to the edge).





With typically non-restructuring verbs, the complement always contains the inflectional layer (whether di is present or not), so the clitic can always stay in the infinitival complement, but can also be attracted by the higher EDGE feature. Note that I assume that the verb moves to T in infinitives; Wolof verbs always precede lower adverbs, both in finite clauses and in infinitives, suggesting that they always move out of the VP (see Torrence 2003, 2013; Martinović 2015, 2019, 2021).

- (47) Optional clitic climbing with fasyeene 'decide'
  - a. Fasyeene na=a={ko} toggu={ko}.
    decide C=1sG=3sG.OBJ cook=3sG.OBJ
    'I decided to cook it.'

b. CP  $\mathbf{C}$ TP Τ VP  $\mathbf{C}$ ko  $|\Phi|$  $\mathbf{u}|\Phi|$ С ΤP  $t_{\rm V}$  $\mathbf{C}$ vPfas veene na [EDGE] Τ ko  $t_{\rm sbj}$  $|\Phi|$  $\mathbf{u}|\Phi|$ Τ  $|\Phi|$ toggu EDGE ko  $u|\Phi|$  $u|\Phi|$  checked  $\mathbf{u}|\Phi|$  checked

Finally, recall that infinitives that do not contain di usually contain the morpheme a between the control verb and the embedded verb. Clitic climbing over a is obligatory, as the ungrammaticality of (48b) shows. The clitic can move to the edge of the infinitive and attach to a, which can be seen if the whole infinitive is A'-fronted, as in (48c) (I take the inversion of a and leen to be a phonological metathesis, the result of a being an enclitic and leen being a suitable host).

#### (48) Non-finite clause fronting

- a. Da=ma=leen bëgg=a=toog. do.C=1SG=3PL.OBJ want=a=cook 'I want to cook them.'
- b. \*Da=ma bëgg=a=**leen** toog. do.C=1sg want=a=3pl.obj cook
- c. [Leen=a togg] la=a bëgg. [3PL.OBJ=a cook] C=1SG want 'To cook them is what I want.'

The example in (48c) shows that a is a functional head, as the clitic climbs to it, but one distinct from di. If my analysis of the optionality of clitic climbing in the presence of di is on the right track, this means that a is a head below the inflectional layer. I leave the exact identity of a to be resolved in future work.

Finally, I have been tacitly assuming that all control verbs are lexical verbs. This is at

odds with most of the literature, as functional restructuring is generally assumed to exist. While Cinque (2004) and Grano (2015) assume that all restructuring verbs are functional heads, Wurmbrand (2001) argues that functional restructuring verbs in German are modals, auxiliaries be, have and will, raising verbs seem and promise, motion verbs, causatives, and some perception verbs, like see and hear. In Wolof, the aspectual marker di can precede all control verbs, but it does not behave as in monoclausal constructions, where clitics can never attach to it, as shown in (41). I have also shown in §2 that di seems to contribute habitual meaning in infinitives, which is one of the meanings it has in finite clauses, suggesting it is one and the same element. Since one of the main claims in this paper is that all control constructions in Wolof, even those in which the control predicate can be reasonably argued to be a lexical verb, involve movement of the subject from the infinitival complement to the matrix clause, the answer to the question of which, if any, control predicates are functional heads is not crucial here, as those structures will trivially involve movement of the subject from its base generated position (Spec, vP) to the structural subject position (Spec, TP). I therefore leave the question of functional vs. lexical restructuring in Wolof to be resolved in future work.

In this section, I have argued that clitic climbing in Wolof supports the claim that infinitival complements with no overt subjects in Wolof are smaller than a CP, as clitic climbing is possible in all control constructions with monotransitive verbs. Additionally, I proposed an analysis of the optionality of clitic climbing with typically non-restructuring verbs and in the presence of the aspectual morpheme di with typically restructuring verbs, which relies on different sizes of infinitival complements: with restructuring verbs, they are either vPs or AspPs, and with non-restructuring verbs, they are TPs. Clitics must climb to the inflectional layer if there is one, which forces them to obligatorily climb if the infinitive is vP-sized, but optionally climb if it is AspP- or TP-sized.

I the next section, I show that all control constructions in Wolof involve only Exhaustive Control, and propose that this supports a movement analysis of control. I also argue that the absence of control with (most of) ditransitive verbs gives additional support for a movement account.

#### 4 Exhaustive control as movement

Thus far I have argued that the infinitival complements of monotransitive control predicates are smaller than a CP, and fall broadly into two groups:

- 1. Typically restructuring predicates, which take a vP- or Asp-sized complement, and
- 2. Typically non-restructuring predicates, which take a TP-sized complement.

I have shown that all constructions involving monotransitive control predicates restructure, as they all allow clitic climbing. Additionally, I have argued that clitic climbing helps us diagnose the size of infinitival complements, being obligatory with typically restructuring predicates if their infinitival complements do not involve the inflectional layer (specifically, AspP), but optional when they do, and being always optional with typically non-restructuring predicates, which always involve the inflectional layer.

One key observation about the class of restructuring predicates, first made by Wurmbrand (1998), is that, in addition to being cross-linguistically fairly stabile, it overlaps with the class of Exhaustive Control predicates, where the controller and controllee must match in all features. Predicates that cross-linguistically generally do not restructure allow Partial Control, a subtype of obligatory control, where the controller and controllee are mismatched for semantic number (Landau 2000), so that the controller is singular and the embedded predicate collective. The contrast between EC and PC predicates in such contexts is illustrated in (49) and (50) (examples from Landau 2013, p.157).

### (49) Exhaustive Control

We thought that...

- a. \*John<sub>1</sub> managed [  $\__{1+}$  to gather at 6 ].
- b. \*The chair<sub>1</sub> began [ \_\_\_\_1+ meeting without a concrete agenda ].
- c. \*Mary<sub>1</sub> is able  $\begin{bmatrix} \__{1+}$  to apply together for a grant  $\end{bmatrix}$ .
- d. \*It was rude of the chair<sub>1</sub>  $\begin{bmatrix} \__{1+} \end{bmatrix}$  to disperse so abruptly  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

## (50) Partial Control

We thought that...

- a. The chair<sub>1</sub> preferred  $[\__{1+}$  to gather at 6].
- b.  $Bill_1$  regretted  $[\__{1+}$  meeting without a concrete agenda ].
- c. Mary<sub>1</sub> wondered  $[\__{1+}$  whether to apply together for a grant ].
- d. It was humiliating to the chair<sub>1</sub>  $\begin{bmatrix} \__{1+} \end{bmatrix}$  to disperse so abruptly  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Table 2 is a condensed version of Table 2.1 in Grano 2015 (p.16), showing the empirical relationship between EC and restructuring, based on Wurmbrand 2001 and Landau 2000 et.seq.<sup>14</sup>

EC	ASPECTUAL MODAL IMPLICATIVE	begin, continue, stop, can, may, must, need, forget, fail, dare,	Restructuring
PC	DESIDERATIVE FACTIVE PROPOSITIONAL	want, intend refuse, prefer, decide, plan, offer, propose, regret, admit, claim, believe, tell,	Non-restructuring

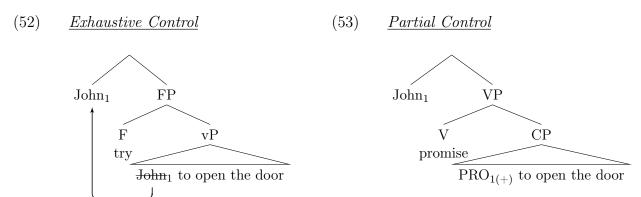
Table 2: Correlation between Exhaustive Control and Restructuring

One line of research has taken this correlation to be the result of a syntactic fact: EC constructions require full identity between the controler and the controllee, because those are one and the same syntactic element. Specifically, Cinque (2004), building on the observation that the restructuring predicates are by and large monotransitive (Kayne 1989), proposes that restructuring verbs are functional heads in the inflectional layer of the clause, and that restructuring is epiphenomenal, resulting from the monoclausality of such structures. Grano

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>The verb *want*, *intend* has mixed properties, in that it is a PC verb, but also typically restructures. This will not be relevant here; see Grano 2012, 2015 for a possible analysis.

(2012, 2015) further develops this analysis, arguing that that, while EC verbs are functional verbs, PC verbs are lexical verbs that take clausal (CP-sized) complements containing a PRO. According to this view, PC is simply a property of PRO. This also accounts for the fact that non-restructuring/PC verbs can embed finite clauses, whereas restructuring/EC predicates cannot, as shown in (51).

- (51) a. I prefer [ that Moussa leave early ]. b. \*I started [ that Moussa leave early ].
- (52) and (53) illustrate Grano's analysis of EC and PC, respectively (p.5).



This approach to the restructuring/EC vs. non-restructuring/PC distinction makes a particular prediction: if EC and restructuring are both the result of one and the same syntactic process/configuration, they should go hand-in-hand, meaning that, if we find a language where typically non-restructuring predicates restructure, we also expect that those predicates exhibit Exhaustive Control. This is exactly the state of affairs in Wolof.

I argue here that Grano's proposal that there are two strategies for control, one involving only one subject and resulting in EC, and the other in PC, is correct. I stay agnostic as to what the strategy for PC is, but I argue in this paper that the movement analysis advocated in Cinque (2004) and Grano (2012, 2015), and also more broadly in the Movement Theory of Control (Hornstein 1999; Boeckx et al. 2010), can explain why all control in Wolof is Exhaustive Control, and that it also has something to say about the fact that apparent control constructions with ditransitive predicates involve obligatory overt embedded subjects. Additionally, that all control constructions allow clitic climbing can also be accounted for under a movement analysis: the movement of the subject is possible from all infinitival complements of monotransitive verbs in Wolof because they are smaller than the CP, which I argue is also responsible for the availability of clitic climbing in all control constructions.

In the following section, I show that all control in Wolof is exhaustive, and show how a movement analysis accounts for this. In §4.2, I argue that the data from ditransitive predicates support both a movement analysis of control, and the structural claims I make about infinitival complements in Wolof.

## 4.1 Control in Wolof

Structures without an overt subject pronoun in the non-finite complement in Wolof pass the standard control tests. Co-reference between the understood subject of the non-finite verb and the subject of the matrix verb is obligatory, and the elided controlled subject has a sloppy reading under ellipsis: (54) can only mean that Magatte's husband tried to leave early himself, not that he tried for Magatte to leave early.

Verbs like *jéem* 'try' are true control verbs; for example, they do not allow inanimate subjects, as shown in (55).

(55) Jéem 'try' does not permit an inanimate subject

#Taabal bi jéem na=Ø nekk ci biir néeg bi.

table the.SG try C=3SG be in stomach room the.SG

#'The table tried to be in the room.'

No obligatory control construction with an unpronounced embedded subject in Wolof exhibits Partial Control. Examples as in (50) are ungrammatical in Wolof, as illustrated in (56), and (57). (56a)-(56b) show that the use of  $\tilde{n}oomineen$  'together' requires a plural subject. In languages like English, the understood subject of the non-finite complement of a verb such as want can be semantically plural. This is not the case with the verb  $b\ddot{e}gg$  in Wolof, shown in (56c). Similarly, the collective predicate daje 'meet' in (57) requires a plural subject. (57c) shows that this cannot be the understood subject of the non-finite complement of the predicate fas yeene 'decide'.

- (56) a. Fanta ak Binta laj na=ñu ndimbal ñoomineen. Fanta and Binta ask C=3PL assistance together 'Fanta and Binta asked for a stipend together.'
  - b. \*Fanta laj na=∅ ndimbal ñoomineen. Fanta ask C=3sg assistance together
  - c. \*Fanta bëgg na= $\emptyset_1$  [ \_\_1+ laj ndimbal ñoomineen ]. Fanta want C=3SG [ \_\_ ask stipend together ] intended: 'Fanta wanted to ask for a stipend together.'
- (57) a. Borom-dëkk ak waakaw gi daje na=ñu ci juróom benn waxtu. chief-village and villagers the meet C=3PL at five one hour 'The village chief and the villagers met at 6 o'clock.'
  - b. \*Borom-dëkk daje na= $\emptyset$  ci juróom benn waxtu. chief-village meet C=3sG at five one hour
  - c. \*Borom-dëkk fas yeene na= $\emptyset_1$  [ \_\_\_1+ daje ci juróom benn waxtu ]. chief-village decide C=3SG [ \_\_ meet at five one o'clock ] intended: 'The village chief decided to meet at 6 o'clock.'

The intended meaning in (56) and (57) can only be achieved if the subject of the non-finite complement is overt, as in (58). Such examples, however, do not involve control. Co-indexation between the matrix and embedded subjects is not obligatory, and a strict reading under ellipsis is possible – under a reading where the referents of the embedded subject pronoun  $\tilde{n}u$  'they' include Moussa, the elided clause in (58) can mean that Fatou decided as well that the same referents (Moussa + others, but not Fatou) leave early together.

(58) Musaa<sub>1</sub> fasyeene na= $\emptyset$  [  $\|u_{1+/2}\|$  dem teel  $\|u_{1+/2}\|$  fasyeene na= $\emptyset$  Moussa decide C=3sG 3PL leave early together Fatou decide C=3sG <[  $\|u_{1+/2}\|$  dem teel  $\|u_{1+/2}\|$  dem teel  $\|u_{1+/2}\|$  also 'Moussa<sub>1</sub> decided that they<sub>1+</sub> leave early together, and Fatou did too.'

Looking back at Table 2, Wolof makes the same distinction between typical restructuring predicates (aspectual, modal, and implicative verbs) as opposed to typical non-restructuring predicates (desideratives and some propositional verbs): the former take only non-finite complements and control is obligatory, while the latter can also take finite complements, and non-finite complements can have a non-controlled subject. Where Wolof is interesting is that all obligatory control is only Exhaustive Control, and that clitic climbing is possible from all infinitives, even complements of verbs that generally take propositional complements, such as verbs of thinking. There is still a difference between typical restructuring and typical non-restructuring verbs in Wolof, in that clitic climbing is obligatory with the first class of verbs in the absence of aspect, while it is always optional with the second class of verbs. Table 3 illustrates this.

	Verb class		Clitic Climbing	Complement
EC	ASPECTUAL MODAL IMPLICATIVE	begin, continue, can, must, forget, dare,	$obligatory \ w/o \ di$	$non ext{-}finite$
	DESIDERATIVE THINKING	want, intend refuse, prefer, decide, believe, think,	optional	$non ext{-}finite/finite$
no C	SAYING EMOTIVE	say, declare, deny, happy, surprised,	N/A	finite PP

Table 3: Correlation between Exhaustive Control and restructuring in Wolof

The Cinque/Grano analysis of EC and restructuring does not directly link the two phenomena; both are seen as a consequence of monoclausality. If, however, the two phenomena are related in a more direct way—for example, if they are the result of one and the same syntactic configuration or process—then we predict that they should go hand-in-hand. This is exactly what we see in Wolof: the class of predicates that are cross-linguistically not EC/restructuring exhibit both those properties in Wolof. This is a strong argument for a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>Verbs of saying take only finite complements, and emotive verbs take PP complements.

structural correlation between EC and restructuring. I argue that these phenomena are not exclusively the result of monoclausality, but that they also arise in bi-clausal structures in which the subject moves from the embedded into the matrix clause. Below, I show derivations for a control construction with the typically restructuring verb *jéem* 'try', and the verb *taamu* 'prefer', which takes a TP complement and cross-linguistically generally does not restructure.

In (59a), the verb  $j\acute{e}em$  'try', takes a vP or an AspP as a complement; I only show the clause with a vP complement here. The embedded subject, in this case the pronominal clitic  $\~nu$  'they', moves from Spec,vP in the infinitival complement, to Spec,vP in the matrix clause and then cliticizes to C as all pronominal clitics do. I skip any other possible position where the subject may move to between Spec,vP and C (e.g. Spec,TP) for simplicity. <sup>16</sup>

(59) a. Jéem-na=ñu ubi bunt bi. try-C=3PL open door the.sg 'They tried to open the door.'

b. CP С TP  $\mathbf{T}$ ñu vPthey $\mathbf{C}$ DP jéem na ñu they VP tryvPjéem DP ñu they DP V bunt bi ubi door the open

Since verbs like try cannot embed infinitives with non-controlled subjects, the movement of the subject from the embedded infinitive into the matrix clause is obligatory under the present analysis. In Cinque's (2004) and Grano's (2012, 2015) approach this fact follows from their treatment of all typically restructuring verbs as functional heads. In theories that do not assume this, something else must block a disjoint subject from occuring in complements of typically restructuring predicates. It has long been clear that temporal/agreement

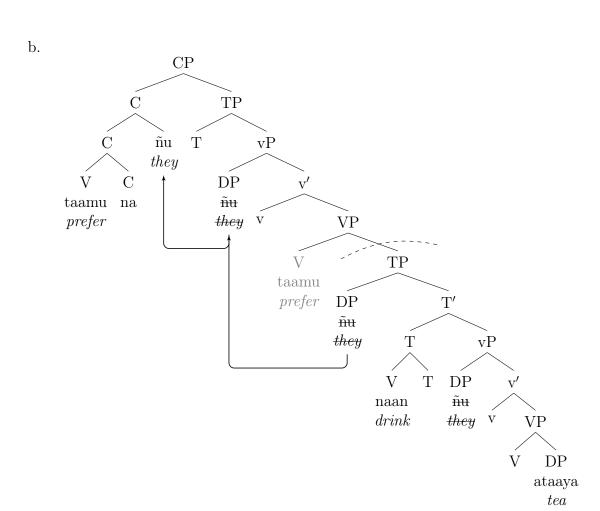
 $<sup>^{16}</sup>$ The clause-type in (59a), with the complementizer na, allows only pronominal clause-internal subjects; non-pronominal subjects can only occur in the left periphery. For extensive arguments that the subject clitic in these clauses is a pronoun, and not agreement, see Martinović 2015, 2017a, 2021.

properties of the infinitival clause have something to do with the type of subject that is licensed in a particular position.<sup>17</sup> Landau (2000, 2004) proposes that tense, agreement, and the referential features of DPs determines the distribution of subjects (see also Biswas 2014), and for Sundaresan and McFadden (2009) the distribution of subjects depends on the selectional requirements of the matrix predicate, with the interaction between the temporal/agreement properties and nominal reference of the embedded clause determining the properties of the embedded subject. In the present analysis, obligatory movement of the subject with restructuring predicates would ideally follow from the size of such infinitives, which I have argued not to project a TP. Specifically, I follow Nie (2020) and propose that every nominal must be licensed by abstract  $\phi$ -agreement with the licensing head; for subjects, that head is T. As a result, a non-controlled subject is licensed only in structures in which a TP is projected (roughly Wurmbrand and Lohninger's (In press) Situations). Given that complements of try-type predicates do not independently project T, a subject cannot be licensed in the infinitival clause, but can be if it moves into the matrix clause. Therefore, if a subject with disjoint reference is merged into the embedded vP- or Asp-sized infinitive, the derivation will fail.

Moving on to desiderative verbs, we have seen that they differ from typical restructuring verbs in several ways: they can embed finite CPs, they can embed non-finite complements with overt non-controlled (nominative) subjects, and clitic climbing is optional with them. For Grano (2012, 2015), this means that these verbs always embed CPs either with a controlled PRO as a subject, or with a disjoint subject. Recall, however, that there is evidence for a reduced size of these infinitives in Wolof: they cannot contain negation, which has been argued to be in a high position, and tied to the presence of C, and clitic climbing is possible out of all of them, even complements of verbs such as 'think'. I have argued that the infinitival complement of these verbs is the size of a TP. (60) illustrates the derivation of a control clause with the desiderative verb taamu 'prefer'. I propose that this construction involves movement of the the subject of naan 'drink' from the embedded Spec,TP to Spec,vP of the matrix clause (and ultimately to C).

(60) a. Taamu-na=ñu naan ataaya. prefer-C=3PL drink tea 'They prefer to drink tea.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup>It has also become clear that the standard Case-theoretic accounts of the distribution of subjects based on abstract Case, e.g., Chomsky (1981), cannot be right.

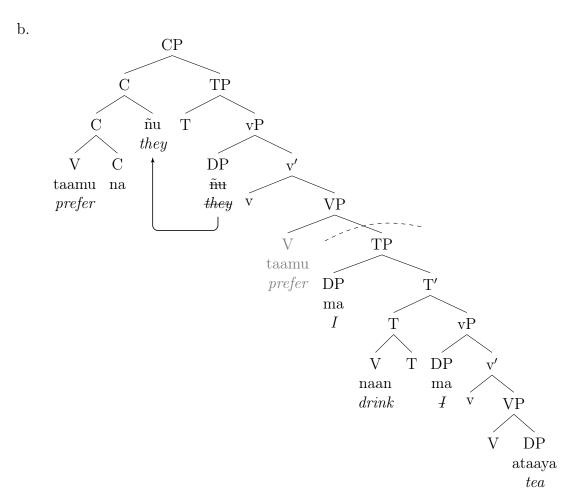


Another option with lexical control verbs is External Merge of a subject into the matrix Spec,vP, as in (61). This derives the fact that desiderative predicates can embed infinitives with non-controlled subjects.

(61) a. Taamu-na=ñu ma naan ataya.

prefer-C=3PL 1SG drink tea

'They prefer for me to drink tea.'



A non-controlled subject is licensed in this infinitive, as it contains a TP. My analysis therefore derives the fact that typical restructuring predicates cannot embed non-controlled subjects, while non-restructuring ones can, as a consequence of the size of the infinitival complement and abstract  $\phi$ -licensing of subjects, argued to be mediated by T.

This proposal involves movement into a θ-position, which has been argued for independently of control (e.g., Bošković 1994, 1997; Lasnik 1995; Bošković and Takahashi 1998). I have nothing to say about this here that has not already been discussed in other proposals that analyze control as movement (e.g., Hornstein 1999; Boeckx et al. 2010).

We now turn to structures where control is largely not possible, which, I believe, provide additional support for a movement analysis of Exhaustive Control.

#### 4.2 Ditransitives

Subjects in infinitival complements of ditransitive verbs (i.e., verbs that take a DP complement in addition to the infinitive) are obligatorily overt in Wolof. With a few verbs, such as *aaye* 'prevent' in (62a), and *dimbali* 'help' in (62b), it is impossible to get anything but co-reference between the matrix object and the embedded subject pronoun.

#### (62) Obligatory object control

- a. Da=ma aaye samay wayjur<sub>1</sub> ñu<sub>1/\*2</sub> may xale yi tàngal. do.C=1sg prevent my.PL parents 3PL give child the.PL candy 'I prevented my parents from qiving candy to the children.'
- b. Dimbali na=a sama yaay<sub>1</sub> mu<sub>1/\*2</sub> dem. help C=1SG POSS.1SG mother 3SG leave 'I helped my mother to leave.'

Such obligatorily controlled pronouns have been used as an argument for the existence of PRO, as examples as in (62) appear to contain an overt version of it (see, e.g., Landau 2013, §4.4.1, and the references therein). For my speakers, however, only the verbs aaye 'prevent' and dimbali 'help' involve obligatory co-indexation between the matrix object and the embedded subject. An overt subject pronoun in non-finite complements of ditransitive verbs such as tere 'forbid' does not pass the standard tests for obligatory control. In (63),  $\tilde{n}u$  'they' can be co-indexed with the object, or with some contextually salient antecedent (e.g., in a context where I forbade my parents from giving my children, who are staying with them over the weekend, any candy).

(63) Non-obligatory control with tere 'forbid'

Tere na=a sama-y wayjur<sub>1</sub> ñu<sub>1/2</sub> lekk tàngal.

forbid C=1sg 1sg.poss-pl parent 3pl eat candy

'I forbade my parents<sub>1</sub> that they<sub>1/2</sub> eat candy.'

Such structures can have a strict reading under ellipsis: with the verb yey 'convince' in (64), in addition to the sloppy reading of the pronoun in the elided constituent (*I did not convince Fatou that she herself leave*), the strict reading (*I did not convince Fatou that Moussa leave*) is available as well.

(64) Strict or sloppy reading under ellipsis

Da=ma yey Musaa<sub>1</sub> mu<sub>1</sub> dem, waye yey-u(l)- $\emptyset$ =ma Faatu<sub>2</sub> <mu<sub>1/2</sub> do.C=1sg convince Moussa 3sg leave, but convince-Neg-C-1sg Fatou 3sg dem>.

leave

'I convinced Moussa<sub>1</sub> that  $he_1$  leave, but I didn't convince Fatou<sub>2</sub> < that  $she_2/he_1$  leave>.'

Some other verbs where the overt embedded subject is not obligatorily co-indexed with a matrix argument are  $\tilde{n}aan$  'ask' and nax 'deceive'. I here do not discuss the mechanism that leads to obligatory control between the embedded subject and a matrix object in some ditransitive verbs, and leave this puzzle to be resolved in future research. My main goal is to argue that a movement analysis of control (at least Exhaustive Control) can explain why ditransitive predicates embed infinitives with overt, and for the most part, non-controlled, subjects.

I proposed above that infinitives with overt subjects are structurally distinct from infinitives without overt subjects. There are two reasons to suspect this. First, clitic climbing out of infinitives with overt subjects is ungrammatical, as shown in (65) (Martinović 2020).

- (65) No clitic climbing from infinitives with subjects
  - a. Da=ma bëgg [ Demba toggu ceebjën ] do.C=1sg want Demba cook ceebujen 'I want Demba to cook ceebujen.'
  - b. Da=ma bëgg [ Demba toggu=**ko** ] do.C=1SG want Demba cook=3SG.OBJ 'I want Demba to cook it.'
  - c. \*Da=ma=**ko** bëgg [ Demba toggu ] do.C=1SG=3SG.OBJ want Demba cook

Second, Fong (2022) observes that A'-extraction out of these kinds of infinitival complements results in (for my speakers optional) resumption, as shown in (66) (data mine).

(66) Resumption in A'-movement out of 'object control'

Lan la=Ø yey xarit-am mu togg(=**ko**)?

what C=3sg convince friend-Poss.3sg 3sg cook(=3sg.obj)

'What did s/he convince your friend to cook?'

A'-extraction in Wolof requires the presence of the A'-movement complementizer (l)a, as in (67a) (Martinović 2015, 2017b), and resumption is impossible. An A'-dependency into a complement clause headed by a non-wh-C, for example na, requires the presence of a resumptive pronoun, as shown in (67b) (data from Torrence 2013).

- (67) A'-movement requires the complementizer la
  - a. téeré bi=leen=fa xale yi wax ne [CP la =a=(\*ko) jënd] book C=3PL.OBJ=LOC child the.PL say that  $C_{wh}=1$ SG=3SG.OBJ buy 'the book that the children told them there that I bought'
  - b. téeré bi=leen=fa xale yi wax ne [CP jënd na = nu=\*(ko) démb] book C=3PL.OBJ=LOC child the.PL say that buy C=3PL=3SG.OBJ yesterday

'the book that the children told them there that I bought it yesterday'

The examples in (67) suggest that resumption indicates the presence of a non-wh-C, therefore resumption in A'-movement from infinitives with overt subjects, together with the ban on clitic climbing, indicates that such infinitives contain what I have been calling the CP-layer. Fong (2022) proposes that infinitives with overt subjects are ΣPs, which would be similar to Dunigan's (1994) view of what I consider complementizers, and argues that the resumptive pronoun and the overt subject pronoun are both pronounced traces of movement, though there is no analysis of why extraction out of these clauses would result in resumption. I argue instead that resumptive pronouns do not pronounce traces in Wolof; there is no movement out of CPs with a non-wh-C. This explains why there is no obligatory control with most ditransitive verbs – if EC is movement, and movement from CPs is blocked, then control cannot be established through this path. Obligatory co-indexation between the matrix object and the embedded subject with dimbali 'help' and aaye 'prevent' then needs to be accounted for in a different way.

Why would ditransitive verbs obligatorily select for a complement that is larger than a

TP? I do not give a definitive answer here, but several options are discussed in the literature. For example, Kim (2010) argues that object control infinitives in Russian express deontic modality, unlike subject control infinitives, which lack deontic interpretation, and proposes that mandative verbs in Russian select for an infinitive that is a ModP; Burukina (2020) argues that mandative verbs are overt realizations of a verb of communication that embeds a silent deontic modal, which then selects a CP as a complement. Typologically closer to Wolof, it has been shown that some West African languages possess deontic complementizers (see, e.g., Aboh (2006) on Gungbe), so the C present in these infinitives could be such an element. Further research is needed to explore whether one of these analyses could be applied to Wolof. For our purposes, it is sufficient to note that infinitival complements of ditransitive verbs can independently be shown to involve a CP-like projection, making the impossibility of subject movement into a higher clause, and consequently the lack of control established through movement, expected.

In this section, I have argued that Wolof supports a movement account of Exhaustive Control. What about the second strategy, the one that leads to PC? I here stay agnostic as to whether this strategy involves a PRO, or is the result of another (syntactic or maybe semantic) mechanism. The two ditransitive verbs that appear to require obligatory control in Wolof do not allow PC either, so whichever syntactic or semantic mechanism is responsible for OC with dimbali 'help' and aaye 'prevent' cannot be one that also results in PC. In older theories, PRO was stipulated to be an idiosyncratic lexical item, with idiosyncratic properties. Recent theories of control that retain PRO consider it to be a type of a bound pronoun (e.g. Landau 2000 et seq.; Grano 2012, 2015). PRO is often viewed as part of the theoretical machinery used to account for the control phenomenon, and not a real syntactic object, and something that should therefore be dispensed with (Hornstein 1999 et seq; Culicover and Jackendoff 2006). I have here effectively argued that PRO does not exist in Wolof, as I have proposed that a movement analysis captures the properties of control in Wolof better. It remains to be seen whether this is an accidental lexical gap. West African languages, which often have overt nominative subject pronouns in embedded infinitives, aprovide a perfect testing ground for different theories of control.

#### 5 Conclusion

I make two main claims in this paper, the first concerning the structure of infinitival complements in Wolof, and the second concerning the nature of control.

First, I show that infinitival complements in Wolof come in different sizes, and that this correlates with their syntactic properties. Specifically, I argue that complements of typical restructuring verbs, such as try, can be either vP- or Asp-P sized, whereas complements of non-restructuring verbs, such as prefer, are always TPs. No monotransitive control verb takes a CP-sized complement. This is supported by the availability of clitic climbing out of all infinitives, expected if there is no C-head that would block it. That all infinitival complements can be as large as AspPs is confirmed by the ability of the imperfective morpheme di to occur in all infinitives, which crucially effects the obligatoriness of clitic climbing. With typical restructuring verbs, clitics obligatorily climb to the matrix C, unless di is present, in which case they can remain in the infinitival clause. I propose that clitics have a feature that is checked by any head in the inflectional layer, making climbing out of the infinitive into

the matrix clause obligatory just in case the infinitive contains no inflectional heads. This paper thus gives additional support for arguments presented in Wurmbrand 2014c, 2015; Wurmbrand and Lohninger In press, showing that infinitival complements can be of different sizes, and that restructuring is therefore a gradient property.

The second main claim of this paper concerns the mechanism that leads to control. Wolof exhibits only Exhaustive Control, both in cross-linguistically typical Exhaustive Control predicates, and in those that usually allow Partial Control. Additionally, another property that goes hand-in-hand with Exhaustive Control, restructuring, is also found in all control constructions in Wolof, as noted above – both in those that cross-linguistically typically restructure, and in those that do not. I have therefore argued in support of Grano's (2012, 2015) claim that the strategy for establishing Exhaustive Control differs from the strategy for establishing Partial Control. Specifically, I claim that a movement analysis of control best accounts for the properties of these constructions in Wolof. For Grano, who follows Cinque (2004), EC is the result of there being only one subject, which follows from the monoclausality of all restructuring constructions. I here argue that subject movement must be available in bi-clausal control constructions as well. A movement analysis can explain all properties of these predicates: that they exhibit only Exhaustive Control, that they allow clitic climbing (for the same reason that they allow A-movement to occur out of them, which is the absence of the CP-layer), and that only monotransitive verbs in this category allow control. Ditransitives—verbs that, in addition to the infinitival complement, also select for a nominal complement—take infinitival complements with obligatorily overt subjects, that are, by-and-large, not controlled. I show that there is evidence that these infinitives are CPsized, which impedes any kind of movement: A'-movement requires resumption, also noted in Fong 2022 (which otherwise occurs when a non-wh-C is present in the clause), and clitic climbing is banned. A movement analysis therefore derives the lack of obligatory control with (most) ditransitive verbs.

To summarize: This preliminary exploration of control in an understudied language gives support to analyses which argue that (at least one type of) control is derived via movement, and invites a more rigorous investigation of the phenomenon of Partial Control. It may turn out that PC is not as common a phenomenon as research on mostly Indo-European languages leads us to believe. To the extent that PC is one of the stronger arguments for the existence of PRO, this should open the door to a more thorough rethinking of its role in the theory of grammar. Finally, the fact that some ditransitive verbs in Wolof appear to require obligatory control, while others do not, but all require overt embedded subjects, suggests that, in those cases, a different strategy is used for establishing control, likely a semantic one. Object control is fairly understudied cross-linguistically; languages like Wolof show that its properties are crucial for understanding the different syntactic and semantic mechanism that lead to control.

Conflict of interest: Nil

#### References

- Aboh, Enoch Oladé. 2006. Complementation in Saramaccan and Gungbe: The case of c-type modal particles. Natural Language & Linguistic Theory 24:1–55.
- Abusch, Dorit. 1985. On verbs and times. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Massachussetts Amherst, Amherst, MA.
- Biswas, Priyanka. 2014. The role of tense and agreement in the licensing of subjects: evidence from participial clauses in Bangla. *Natural Language & Linguistic Theory* 32:87–113. Special Issue: Finiteness in South Asian Languages.
- Bjorkman, Bronwyn, and Hedde Zeijlstra. 2019. Checking up on  $(\varphi$ -)Agree. Linguistic Inquiry 50:527–569.
- Bochnak, M. Ryan, and Martina Martinović. 2018. Modal height and modal flavor: The case of Wolof di. In *Proceedings of Sinn und Bedeutung 22*, ed. Uli Sauerland and Stephanie Solt, volume 1 of ZASPiL 60, 223–240. Berlin: Leibniz-Centre General Linguistics.
- Bochnak, M. Ryan, and Martina Martinović. 2019. Optional past tense in Wolof. In Selected Proceedings of the 48th Annual Conference on African Linguistics.
- Boeckx, Cedric, Norbert Hornstein, and Jairo Nunes. 2010. Control as Movement. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bondaruk, Anna. 2004. PRO and control in English, Irish and Polish: A Minimalist analysis. Lublin, Poland: Wydawnictwo KUL.
- Bošković, Željko. 1994. D-Structure,  $\theta$ -Criterioin, and movement into  $\theta$ -positions. Linguistic Analysis 24:247–286.
- Bošković, Željko. 1997. The syntax of non-finite complementation: An economy approach. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Bošković, Željko, and Daiko Takahashi. 1998. Scrambling and Last Resort. *Linguistic Inquiry* 29:347–366.
- Burukina, Irina. 2020. Mandative verbs and deontic modals in Russian: Between obligatory control and overt embedded subjects. Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics 5(1):1–37.
- Cardinaletti, Anna, and Ur Shlonsky. 2004. Clitic position and restructuring in Italian. Linguistic Inquiry 35:519–557.
- Chomsky, Noam. 1981. Lectures on Government and Binding. Foris.
- Chomsky, Noam. 2000. Minimalist inquiries: The framework. In *Step by step: Essays on Minimalist syntax in honor of Howard Lasnik*, ed. Roger Martin, David Michaels, and Juan Uriagereka, 89–155. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

- Chomsky, Noam. 2001. Derivation by phase. In *Ken Hale: A Life in Language*, ed. Michael Kenstowicz, 1–52. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Cinque, Guglielmo. 2004. "Restructuring" and functional structure. In *Structures and Beyond: The Cartography of Syntactic Structures*, ed. Adriana Belletti, 132–191. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Cinque, Guglielmo. 2006. Restructuring and Functional Heads. The Cartography of Syntactic Structures, volume 4. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Culicover, Peter W., and Ray Jackendoff. 2006. Turn over control to the semantics! Syntax 9:131–152.
- Dotlačil, Jakub. 2007. Why clitics cannot climb out of CP: A discourse approach. In Formal approaches to Slavic linguistics 15: The Toronto Meeting 2006, ed. Richard Compton, Magdalena Goledzinowka, and Ulyana Savchenko, 76–93. Ann Arbor: Michigan Slavic Publications.
- Dunigan, Melynda B. 1994. On the clausal structure of Wolof. Doctoral Dissertation, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC.
- Fong, Suzana. 2022. Pronouncing PRO in Wolof. Handout from the Penn Linguistics Conference 46, March 2022.
- Grano, Thomas. 2012. Control and restructuring at the syntax-semantics interface. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL.
- Grano, Thomas. 2015. Control and restructuring. Oxford Studies in Theoretical Linguistics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Grimshaw, Jane. 1991. Extended projection. Brandeis University.
- Grohmann, Kleanthes K. 2003. Prolific domains. On the anti-locality of movement dependencies. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Hornstein, Norbert. 1999. Movement and control. Linguistic Inquiry 30:69–96.
- Jóhannsdóttir, Kristín, and Lisa Matthewson. 2007. Zero-marked tense: The case of Gitxsan. In *Proceedings of NELS 37*, ed. Emily Elfner and Martin Walkow, 299–309. Amherst, MA.
- Kayne, Richard. 1989. Null subjects and clitic climbing. In *The null subject parameter*, ed. Osvaldo Jaeggli and Kenneth Safir Safir, 239–61. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- Kim, Bo Ra. 2010. Non-finite complements in Russian, Serbian/Croatian, and Macedonian. Doctoral Dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington.
- Landau, Idan. 1999. Elements of control. Doctoral Dissertation, MIT, Cambridge, MA.
- Landau, Idan. 2000. Elements of Control: Structure and Meaning in Iinfinitival Constructions. Dordrecht: Kluwer.

- Landau, Idan. 2004. The scale of finiteness and the calculus of control. Natural Language & Linguistic Theory 22:811–877.
- Landau, Idan. 2013. Control in Generative Grammar: A Research Companion. Cambridge University Press.
- Lasnik, Howard. 1995. Last resort. In *Minimalism and linguistic theory*, ed. Shosuke Haraguchi and Michio Funaki, 1–21. Tokyo: Hituzi Syobo.
- Martinović, Martina. 2015. Feature geometry and head-splitting: Evidence from the morphosyntax of the Wolof clausal periphery. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL.
- Martinović, Martina. 2017a. Head-Splitting at the Wolof clausal periphery. In *Proceedings* of the 34th West Coast Conference on Formal Linguistics, ed. Aaron Kaplan, Abby Kaplan, Miranda K. McCarvel, and Edward J. Rubin, 364–371. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
- Martinović, Martina. 2017b. Wolof wh-movement at the syntax-morphology interface. Natural Language and Linguistic Theory 35:205–256. DOI: 10.1007/s11049-016-9335-y.
- Martinović, Martina. 2019. Interleaving syntax and postsyntax. Spell-out before syntactic movement. Syntax 22:378–418.
- Martinović, Martina. 2020. Clitics in Wolof: Syntax all the way up. McGill University.
- Martinović, Martina. 2021. Feature geometry and Head-Splitting at the Wolof clausal periphery. *Linguistic Inquiry* Online Early. URL https://doi.org/10.1162/ling\_a\_00447.
- Marušič, Franc. 2005. On non-simultaneous phases. Doctoral Dissertation, Stony Brook.
- Matthewson, Lisa. 2013. Gitksan modals. International Journal of American Linguistics 79.
- Mucha, Anne. 2013. Temporal interpretation in Hausa. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 36:371–415.
- Müller, Gereon. 1996. A constraint on remnant movement. Natural Language and Linguistic Theory 14:355–407.
- Nie, Yining. 2020. Licensing arguments. Doctoral Dissertation, New York University New York, NY.
- Njie, Codu Mbassy. 1978. Description syntaxique du wolof de Gambie. Doctoral Dissertation, Université de Montréal.
- Njie, Codu Mbassy. 1982. Description syntaxique du wolof de Gambie. Dakar, Senegal: Les Nouvelles Editions Africaines.
- Preminger, Omer. 2011. Agreement as a fallible operation. Doctoral Dissertation, MIT, Cambridge, MA.

- Preminger, Omer. 2013. That's not how you agree: a reply to Zeijlstra. *The Linguistic Review* 30:491–500.
- Ramchand, Gillian, and Peter Svenonius. 2014. Deriving the functional hierarchy. *Language* sciences 46:152–174.
- Rizzi, Luigi. 1978. A restructuring rule in Italian syntax. In *Recent transformational studies* in *European languages*, ed. Samuel Jay Keyser, 113–158. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Smith, Carlota, and Mary Erbaugh. 2005. Temporal interpretation in Mandarin Chinese. *Linguistics* 43:713–756.
- Smith, Carlota, Ellavian Perkins, and Theodore Fernald. 2007. Time in Navajo: Direct and indirect interpretations. *International Journal of American Linguistics* 73:40–71.
- Sundaresan, Sandhya, and Thomas McFadden. 2009. Subject distribution in Tamil and other languages: Selection vs. case. *Journal of South Asian Linguistics* 2:5–34.
- Torrence, Harold. 2003. Verb movement in Wolof. UCLA Working Papers in Linguistics 9.
- Torrence, Harold. 2005. On the distribution of complementizers in Wolof. Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA.
- Torrence, Harold. 2013. The clause structure of Wolof: insights into the left periphery. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Wurmbrand, Susanne. 2001. *Infinitives: Restructuring and clause structure*. Studies in Generative Grammar 55. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 1998. Infinitives. Doctoral Dissertation, MIT, Cambridge MA.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 2002. Syntactic vs. semantic control. In *Studies in Comparative Germanic Syntax*, ed. Jan-Wouter Zwart and Werner Abraham, 95–129. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 2004. Two types of restructuring: Lexical vs. functional. *Lingua* 991–1014.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 2014a. The Merge Condition: A syntactic approach to selection. In *Minimalism and Beyond: Radicalizing the interfaces*, ed. P. Kosta, L. Schürcks, S. Franks, and T. Radev-Bork, 139–177. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 2014b. Restructuring across the world. In Complex Visibles Out There. proceedings of the Olomouc Linguistics Colloquium 2014: Language Use and Linguistic Structure, ed. Ludmila Veselovská and Markéta Janebová, 275–294. Palacký University.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 2014c. Tense and Aspect in English Infinitives. *Linguistc Inquiry* 45:403–447.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 2015. Restructuring cross-linguistically. In *Proceedings of the Northeast Linguistic Society* 45, ed. Thuy Bui and Deniz Özyıldız, 227–240. Amherst: University of Massachusetts, GLSA.

Wurmbrand, Susi, and Magdalena Lohninger. In press. An implicational universal in complementation—Theoretical insights and empirical progress. In *Propositional arguments in cross-linguistic research: Theoretical and empirical issues*, ed. Jutta Hartmann and Angelika Wöllstein. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Zeijlstra, Hedde. 2012. There is only one way to agree. The Linguistic Review 29:491–539.

Zribi-Hertz, Anne, and Lamine Diagne. 2002. Clitic placement after syntax: Evidence from Wolof person and locative markers. *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory* 20:823–884.