Taking Time with *Tough*-Movement

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LSA 2016, Washington D.C.
January 8, 2016

1 Introduction

- I introduce and analyze the Take-TIME Construction (TTC), exemplified in (1a).

(1) a. It took John an hour to read the article
    b. The article took John an hour to read e

- While widely used as a diagnostic for telicity (cf, (Dowty, 1979; Borer, 2005; MacDonald, 2006)), the syntactic structure of the TTC has not been investigated.

- First, I'll demonstrate that the gap in (1b) is identical to other more widely studied instances of infinitival object gaps, e.g., *tough*-constructions, *too/enough*-degree clauses, *pretty*-class adjectives, *a pleasure, a pain, so*-clauses, etc.

- Second, I'll make a theoretical claim about the how these gaps are derived: (1b) provides strong evidence against an Agree-based analysis of Tough-Constructions et al.

  – In brief, John sits between the gap and the matrix subject, and so should count as an intervener under an(y) Agree view.

- If movement is taken to be dependent on Agree, then the TTC provides a general argument against a movement analysis of infinitival object gaps (Chomsky, 2000; Hicks, 2009; Hartman, 2011, 2012), and in favor of a predication approach (Chomsky, 1977; Browning, 1987; Keine and Poole, 2015).

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1Thanks to Dominique Sportiche, Tim Stowell, Yael Sharvit, Jesse Harris, Roumi Pancheva, Peter Jenks, Claire Halpert, Mike Diercks, and especially Nico Baier, who started this project with me. Thanks also to UCLA’s Semantics Tea and Syn/Sem. All errors are, of course, my own.
• However, in light of the fact that sometimes interveners are perfectly grammatical, I'm going to propose that intervention in general is tolerated in the syntax, but not in the semantics.

  – Specifically, I make the generalization that only attitude holders (defectively) intervene, and I'll suggest a semantic constraint that derives this generalization.

**Roadmap**

§2: A/$\overline{A}$-properties

§3: Agree and intervention

§4: TTC and intervention

§5: Inactivity and raising Middle Subjects

§6: A new generalization about intervention

§7: Conclusion

§8: (Appendices)

2 A/$\overline{A}$-Properties

• TCs are known to display a variety of A and $\overline{A}$ properties.

  – Generally, there's an $\overline{A}$-step around the infinitival clause, which is linked to an argument sitting in an A-position – an **Improper Movement** configuration.\(^2\)

(2) \[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{[TP the article was difficult} \\
\text{[CP  <the article> to read <the article> ] ]}
\end{array}
\]

  – Here I demonstrate that for all relevant properties, the TTC and TC pattern identically.

\(^2\)Cross-linguistically the facts are not so clear-cut. Many languages (even English) display A-like movements in the lower clause. While I restrict the discussion to English here, in the languages I've checked, the TTC and TC still exhibit identical properties, whatever they are for that language.
2.1 Evidence for $\bar{A}$-movement in the lower clause

2.1.1 Ban on IO extraction

- There is a general ban on $\bar{A}$-moving, but not A-moving, the higher object in a Double Object construction, (3).

(3) * Who did John read $t_{wh}$ the book?

- Creating this gap in TC and the TTC is likewise ungrammatical.

(4) a. * John was difficult (for Mary) to read $e$ the book. TC
    b. * John took an hour (for Mary) to read $e$ the book. TTC

2.1.2 (Partially) clause-unbounded

- TC and the TTC have partially unbounded $\bar{A}$ dependencies. The gap cannot freely span multiple finite clauses, but it can span smaller distances not permitted under A-movement.

(5) a. * The book was difficult to say (that) John read $e$. TC
    b. * The book took an hour to say (that) John read $e$. TTC
    c. The book was easy to persuade John to read $e$. TC
    d. The book took an hour to persuade John to read $e$. TTC

- So while the $\bar{A}$-step in TC and the TTC is not a “true” unbounded dependency, it is $\bar{A}$-like in being able to be extracted across multiple verbs, and over another argument (or without passivization).3

2.1.3 Islandhood

- TC Phrases with a gap are not islands for further wh-extraction (Chomsky, 1977).

(7) a. Which violin was the sonata easy to play $e$ on $t_{wh}$ ? TC
    b. Which violin did the sonata take an hour to play $e$ on $t_{wh}$ ? TTC

3Note that this renders moot diagnostics like the Complex-NP Constraint, and wh-island constraints.
However, the conclusion that TC don’t create islands is premature. As noted by Jacobson (2000), when the size of the infinitival clause is increased, island effects resurface.

(8) a. *Which violin was the sonata easy to persuade John to play on $t_w h$ TC

b. *Which violin did the sonata take an hour to persuade John to play on $t_w h$ TTC

So again, the ungrammaticality that arises when we increase the distance of the dependency is curious, but the important point is that both TC and the TTC pattern identically.

2.1.4 Parasitic gaps

Parasitic gaps are licensed in the lower clause.

(9) a. The articles were easy to file after reading pg. TC

b. The articles took an hour to file after reading pg. TTC

2.2 Properties of TC subjects

Like TC subjects, the TTC subject sits in an A-position.

(10) Triggers agreement with the verb

a. These articles are difficult to read e. TC

b. These articles take an hour to read e. TTC

(11) Can further A-raise

a. This article seems to be difficult to read e. TC

b. This article seems to (always) take an hour to read e. TTC

A final point of similarity between TC and the TTC concerns the interpretation of the matrix subject. It has been noted that TC does not allow the TC subject to be interpreted inside the infinitival clause (Fleisher, 2014).4

Actually, the restriction is stronger than this: TC subjects cannot be interpreted anywhere below their surface position. The facts check out for the TTC as well.
(12)  a. Many articles are important to read
   ≠ It is important to read many articles
      TC
   b. Many articles take an hour to read
   ≠ It takes an hour to read many articles.
      TTC

• However, Sportiche (2006); Hicks (2009) argue that in certain cases, we do see evidence that TC subjects can reconstruct – specifically with bare indefinite NPs.⁵

(13)  a. Pictures of his friends are hard for every photographer to sell e  TC
       (Sportiche, 2006, ex (30a))
   b. Pictures of his friends take an hour for every photographer to sell e.
      TTC

• Again, for the time being, the analysis of these facts is irrelevant. What’s important is that TC and the TTC pattern identically here.

2.3 Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A-properties</th>
<th>Subject properties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IO-extraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCC</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• For all relevant properties, the gap in the infinitival clause of in the TTC is identical to infinitival gap in TCs. Moreover, the subject in both constructions has the exact same interpretative properties.

• In conclusion, we expect an identical derivation for both TC and the TTC.

3 Agree-based intervention effects

• There are two ways that Agree-based analyses can be implemented in TC.

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⁵h/t to Eric Zyman for independently pointing this out.

   The subject is generated inside the infinitival clause, and moves up to its surface position – an instance of **Improper Movement**.

   (14)  
   
   a. **Step 1: Agree**
   
   \[ T' \text{ BE important} [CP \text{ Mary to find } <Mary>] \]
   
   b. **Step 2: Move**
   
   \[ TP \text{ Mary was important} [CP <Mary> to find <Mary>] \]

2. **Predication** (Rezac, 2006; Fleisher, 2014)

   The subject is generated *in situ* and relates via Agree to an Op/pro in the lower clause, which has undergone \(\lambda\)-movement.

   (15)  
   
   \[ TP \text{ Mary} [T' \text{ BE important} [CP \text{ Op to find } <Op>]] \]

   • The main motivation for an Agree-based derivation comes from when an intervening element renders the gapped version ungrammatical.

   (16)  
   
   a. It is important to **John** (for Mary) to read the article
   
   b. * The article is important to **John** (for Mary) to read *

   • In (16a), **John defectively intervenes**. The probe on T Agrees with **John**, but **John** cannot move to satisfy T’s EPP for independent (case-related) reasons.

      – An expletive is inserted to save the derivation.

   • However, in (16b), because the probe on T has successfully found a target for agreement (**John**), it cannot continue searching past the intervener to “rescue” the argument that has moved to spec-CP.

   (17)  
   
   * \[ T' \text{ T important to John} [CP \text{ the article to read } <the article>]] \]

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6 Technically, it's generated in a non-thematic position in the matrix clause, and lambda-binds the Op/pro. T Agrees with the lower Op. I'm simplifying the details for expositional purposes, but it makes no difference to the point being made here.
• Under an Agree-movement approach, (16b) is ungenerable because the article gets “stuck” in spec-CP.

• Adopting an Agree approach for the TTC, a probe on T forms a relationship with the argument in spec-CP.

(18) a. Step 1: Agree

\[ T' \text{ take an hour} \rightarrow [CP \text{ the article to read } \langle \text{the article} \rangle] \rightarrow [\text{Agree}] \rightarrow [\lambda \text{-movement}] \]

b. Step 2: Move

\[ TP \text{ the article took an hour} \rightarrow [CP \langle \text{the article} \rangle \text{ to read } \langle \text{the article} \rangle] \rightarrow [\text{Movement}] \rightarrow [\lambda \text{-movement}] \]

• An Agree-predication approach is functionally the same: the article is generated in situ and is linked to the the Op/pro gap via Agree.

(19) \[ TP \text{ the article} \rightarrow [T' \text{ TAKE an hour} [CP \langle \text{the article} \rangle \text{ to read } \langle \text{the article} \rangle] \rightarrow [\text{Agree}] \rightarrow [\lambda \text{-movement}] \]

• The prediction that all Agree-based derivations make is that if there is a structurally intervening argument, it should count as an intervener.\(^7\)

4 (Non-)Intervention in the TTC

• Agree-based derivations fail in the TTC because of the availability of what I call a Middle Subject – using the term “subject” atheoretically.

  – There is no difficulty linking the subject and the gap across John in (20b).

(20) a. It took John an hour to read the article.

b. The article took John an hour to read e.

• Middle Subjects are applied objects on the light verb TAKE.

\(^7\)Bruening (2014) offers evidence that Agree-based derivations are unlikely since any intervening material can lead to ungrammaticality, *The pope will be tough tomorrow to get an audience with. However, his examples presumably all involve rightward extraposition around a high adjunct. Assuming that the gap must be interpreted below its antecedent, then this would straightforwardly explain his examples without recourse to “intervention” per se.
The evidence comes from reconstruction (idioms/scope), definiteness effects, the ban on IO $\bar{A}$-extraction, and languages which have overt applicative morphology. See Appendix 1.

More importantly, Middle Subjects structurally intervene between the TTC subject and the gap:

1. The Middle Subject controls PRO in the infinitival clause.
   - Moreover, this control relationship is **predicative** as opposed to **logophoric**. If Landau (2015) is correct, then there are much stricter structural conditions on the antecedent for predicative control, namely, the antecedent must locally c-command PRO. (I’ll return to this later.)

2. Middle Subjects can bind variables in the infinitival clause.

   (21) It took every boy$_i$ an hour to wash his$_i$ dog.

3. Moreover, Middle Subjects *can* be interveners, namely, when we relativize the probing for wh-features, Superiority effects surface.
   - You can extract a wh-element out of the lower clause, but not over another wh-element.

   (22) a. It took who an hour to read what? \hspace{1cm} \textbf{wh in situ} \\
    b. What did it take John an hour to read $t_{wh}$? \hspace{1cm} \textbf{Wh-extraction} \\
    c. * What did it take who an hour to read $t_{wh}$? \hspace{1cm} \textbf{Superiority}

- The Superiority facts are naturally derived if the Middle Subject structurally intervenes, but the relationship between the subject and the gap in (20b) remains mysterious. **Middle Subjects should be interveners, but aren’t.**

5 Saving Agree: Are Middle Subjects inactive?

- An Agree-based story would still be appealing if we can show that Middle Subjects are otherwise completely **inactive** for $(\phi)$-Agree.
  - An argument can be rendered inactive for Agree if all its features have already been valued/checked. Thus, a higher probe won’t be able to “see” an inactive argument (Chomsky, 2000, 2001).
• Perhaps the Middle Subject, being case-marked \textit{in situ}, is entirely inactive – doesn’t defactively intervene – and a probe on T simply skips it when forming a relationship with the argument sitting in spec-CP.

\begin{itemize}
\item (23) a. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{[T}_P \quad \text{T took John an hour [ the article to read <the article> ] ]}
\end{array}
\]
\hspace{1cm} \begin{array}{c}
\text{Agree}
\end{array}
\]
\item b. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{[T}_P \quad \text{the article } [ T' \quad \text{T took John an hour [ <the article> to read <the article> ] ] ]}
\end{array}
\]
\hspace{1cm} \begin{array}{c}
\text{movement}
\end{array}
\]
\end{itemize}

• The evidence against inactivity of the Middle Subject comes from the fact that Middle Subjects can raise into a \textbf{High Subject} position.\footnote{Here I switch to inanimates to control for a possible reading where the subject agentively “sets aside” some time. These structures involve Purpose Clauses, and are demonstrably different from the TTC discussed here.}

\begin{itemize}
\item (24) a. It took the bus an hour to arrive.
\item b. The bus took an hour to arrive.
\item c. The bus took <the bus> an hour to arrive
\hspace{1cm} \begin{array}{c}
\text{A-movement}
\end{array}
\]
\end{itemize}

• We can see evidence for such movement from reconstructed scope readings.

\hspace{1cm} – A-raising (e.g., with \textit{seem}) allows both a low and high interpretation of the quantifier \textit{every} with respect to the adverb \textit{sometimes} (which only takes surface scope).

\begin{itemize}
\item (25) Every bus sometimes seems to be broken.
\item a. \textit{every} > \textit{sometimes}: It’s true of each bus that every once in a while, that bus is broken
\item b. \textit{sometimes} > \textit{every}: Every once in a while, all the buses are broken.
\end{itemize}

• Such quantifier reconstruction is observable in the TTC.

\begin{itemize}
\item (26) Every bus sometimes takes an hour to arrive.
\item a. \textit{every} > \textit{sometimes} : Every bus is such that every once in a while, that bus takes an hour to arrive.
\item b. \textit{sometimes} > \textit{every} : Every once in a while, all the buses take an hour to arrive.
\end{itemize}
• If we wanted to stick with Agree-based intervention, we would have to stipulate that varying “levels” of activation for the Middle Subject. But this is just stipulating the surface facts into the syntax; it’s not explanatory.

• Moreover, it ends up being highly conspiratorial: only in the cases where there has been $\overline{A}$-movement in the lower clause is the Middle Subject (completely) inactive.

• Importantly, the results here are problematic for any theory of Agree-based intervention in TC/TTC, regardless of a movement or predication approach.

• But under the assumption that movement is Agree-based (Chomsky, 2000), then this is a further argument against a movement approach for TC, and in favor of a predication approach.

6 A new generalization about intervention

• The discussion above demonstrates that, at least sometimes, interveners are tolerated.

• But if that’s the case, what is the cause of intervention in (27a), but lack of intervention in (27b)? That is, if interveners are ok, why do we see ever see intervention effects?

(27)  a. * The article was important to John to read $e$. 
      b. The article took John an hour to read $e$.

• The difference between the interveners in (27a) and (27b) comes down to intensionality: John in (27a) is an attitude holder, but not in (27b).

• The clearest way to observe this difference is to look for a de re/de dicto ambiguity, which is a diagnostic for intensional contexts.
– (28a) and (28b) are extensionally equivalent, but not intensionally so according to John's beliefs.

(28) a. It's important to John to meet the president.
    b. It's important to John to meet Barack Obama.

• We can attribute to John a belief in (28), namely, “Meeting X is important”.

• In contrast, there is no *de dicto* reading of *the president* in (29) according to John's beliefs. That is, in the TTC, we cannot attribute to John a belief, “Meeting X took a month.”

(29) a. It took John a month to meet the president
    b. It took John a month to meet Barack Obama

• More formally, TC predicates are *Evaluative*; the truth of the proposition in (27a) is evaluated based on John's epistemic/doxastic state (Kölbel, 2004).\(^9\)

– The “evaluator” is a *Judge*. While the Judge is typically taken to be the speaker (or speaker-oriented) (Stephenson, 2007; Pearson, 2013a; Moltmann, 2012), an overt Judge can be supplied in a prepositional phrase.

(30) a. Mary: “It's important to read the article” implicit Judge
    \(\approx\) According to Mary, reading the article is important.

b. Mary: “It's important to John to read the article” explicit Judge
    \(\approx\) According to John, reading the article is important.

• Note that it's helpful to use adjectives that idiosyncratically license the Judge with a preposition other than *for* (like *important to*, *annoying to*, *surprising to*, ...) as this allows us to control for ambiguity with the subject of the *for*-infinitival clause.

(31) It's difficult for John to read the article.

a. It's \(\text{[AP difficult for John]}\) to read the article \(\text{Judge}\)

b. It's difficult \(\text{[CP for John to read the article]}\) \(\text{for-subject}\)

– See also Hartman (2011) for relevant diagnostics about the difference between an “Experiencer” and a *for*-subject.

• In the next couple sections, I'll show that there's a correlation between being a Judge (i.e., an attitude holder) and giving rise to intervention effects.

\(^9\)The two diagnostics for Evaluativity are Subjective Disagreement (Kölbel, 2004) and embeddability under *find* (Kennedy, to appear). I leave these out for time/space reasons.
6.1 Control

- While the Middle Subject controls PRO predicatively, unambiguous Judges control PRO “logophorically”, which (despite its name) is only available in attitude contexts (Landau, 2015). One diagnostic for the difference is that only logophoric control permits partial control.\(^\text{10}\)

\[\begin{align*}
(33) & & \text{a. } \text{John}_i \text{ started PRO}_{i+} \text{ to gather at the park} & \text{predicative} \\
& & \text{b. } \text{John}_i \text{ wanted PRO}_{i+} \text{ to gather at the park} & \text{logophoric} \\
(34) & & \text{a. } \text{It was important to John}_i \text{ PRO}_{i+} \text{ to gather at the park} & \text{TC, logophoric} \\
& & \text{b. } \text{It took John}_i \text{ an hour PRO}_{i+} \text{ to gather at the park} & \text{TTC, predicative}
\end{align*}\]

- Building on this, when we force a prepositional phrase that is ambiguous between a Judge or a for-subject to be a Judge using partial control, then the gapped version becomes ungrammatical.

\[\begin{align*}
(35) & & \text{a. } \text{It’s fun for John}_i \text{ PRO}_{i+} \text{ to gather at the park.} & \text{unambiguous Judge} \\
& & \text{b. } \text{* The park is fun for John}_i \text{ PRO}_{i+} \text{ to gather at.} & \text{unambiguous Judge}
\end{align*}\]

- Compare the same phrases with a subject that is compatible with a CP-internal for-subject.

\[\begin{align*}
(36) & & \text{a. } \text{It is fun for the students to gather at the park} & \text{ambiguous Judge/for-subject} \\
& & \text{b. } \text{The park is fun [CP for the students to gather at] } & \text{unambiguous for-subject}
\end{align*}\]

6.2 Manipulating Evaluativity

- Some adjectives are not Evaluative, and still allow infinitival gaps. No intervention effects occur.

\[\begin{align*}
(32) & & \text{a. } \text{* It was important [CP for John to gather at the park] } \\
& & \text{b. } \text{* It took an hour [CP for John to gather at the park] }
\end{align*}\]
(37) a. * The gardens were annoying to the public to visit during the summer. 
   Judge intervener
b. The gardens were open to the public to visit during the summer. 
   Non-judge intervener

(38) a. * The teacher was important to the students to meet with e after class. 
   Judge intervener
b. The teacher was available to the students meet with e after class. 
   Non-judge intervener

- Note that the public and the students in (37b, 38b) still control PRO (predicatively) and can variable-bind inside the infinitival clause, so they still c-command into the infinitival clause.

- The TTC allows us to manipulate this as well by using a more subjective measure phrase like a while, forever, an eternity, some time, although admittedly the judgments are slightly degraded.

(39) Scenario: John has been waiting for George R. R. Martin to finish the new Game of Thrones novel, but George is an extremely slow writer, and John is getting impatient
   a. ? It's taking a while to/for John for George R. R. Martin to finish the new book.
   b. * The new book is taking a while to/for John for George R. R. Martin to finish e.

- In summary, it's not the case that intervening arguments in infinitival object gap constructions always produce ungrammaticality. Rather, the semantic role of the intervener matters.

Generalization about intervention

Intervention effects in infinitival object gaps only arise in the presence of an attitude holder.

Explanation 1

- Attitude holders occupy a structurally unique position, and there's a type-mismatch (Keine and Poole, 2015).
- Problems:
  1. Not clear that there's actually a syntactic difference between the a/b examples in (37) and (38). (C-command/constituency tests are identical.)
  2. Judgements on TC intervention are not uniform (cf (Hartman, 2011, endnote 4)). A corpus search (Google, COCA et al) returns numerous instances of “failed” intervention, when we start manipulating other things (like D-linking the subject, genericity of the Judge, etc).

(40) a. What topics are most important to you to discuss in the meeting?
    b. Would that fact be surprising to you to learn?
    c. Make a list of active projects that are important to you to complete.
    d. …

Explanation 2

- Intervention effects reduce to a purely interpretative difference. Tentatively, I propose the following constraint.

(41) Constraint on Interpretation
    A syntactic object cannot be simultaneously interpreted against two different attitudinal perspectives.

- Assuming that the speaker asserts according to his/her epistemic/doxastic state (Pearson, 2013b), then a syntactic object that “crosses” a Judge intervener will be evaluated from two different perspectives.

(42) * [ The article was important to John to read <the article> ]

- The idea here is that there is a “clash” in perspective: both the speaker and John have different “concepts” of the article (cf, (Percus and Sauerland, 2003)).

- Such a constraint would explain not only the facts noted in this section, i.e., why crossing a non-attitude holder is fine, but also why preposing the Judge in TC restores grammaticality – it's functionally the same as embedding under an attitude verb.
(43) a. To John, [ the article was important to read <the article> ]
    \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \text{John's perspective} \hspace{0.2cm} \text{John's perspective}

    b. John believes that [ the article was important to read <the article> ]
    \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \hspace{0.2cm} \text{John's perspective} \hspace{0.2cm} \text{John's perspective}

- Whether something like the semantic constraint in (41) turns out to be true requires further investigation, but at minimum, the facts about intervention discussed here suggest that intensional semantics should play a role in the eventual analysis of TC.

7 Conclusion

- The TTC provides a strong argument against Agree-based accounts of intervention effects in TC et al because it grammatically allows an intervening argument – the Middle Subject – which is otherwise still active for Agree.

- This suggests that the only syntactic explanation must involve predication, not Agree-based movement.

- However, if the scope reconstruction facts noted by Sportiche (2006); Hicks (2009) are correct, then we cannot rule out a movement analysis for infinitival object gaps.

  … but we’d have to conclude that movement isn’t Agree-based.

- Lastly, I suggested that a focus on the semantics of TC, specifically on the fact that intervention effects only appear in the presence of an attitude holder, is needed to eventually give a correct analysis of Tough-Constructions.

Thank you
References


Brillman, R. (2014). *Too tough to see*: null operator constructions and hidden movement chains. handout from *Penn Linguistics Colloquium 38*.


Appendix 1: Middle Subjects are applied objects

- First, they are not derived by movement out of the lower clause, say by incorporation of the for complementizer.

(44) No idiom chuck reconstruction
a. It took a while for the cat to get out of the bag idiom interpretation
b. It took the cat a while to get out of the bag literal interpretation only

(45) No scope reconstruction
a. It took a hour for a policeman to become necessary necessary > policeman
b. It took a policeman a while to become necessary necessary > policeman

- The Middle Subject displays definiteness effects, similar to the higher object of a double object construction.

(46) a. ?? I showed lions/wildlife the carcass
b. ?? It took lions/wildlife an hour to eat the carcass

- Furthermore, as we saw earlier, the higher argument in a double object construction cannot be A-extracted.

(47) a. * Who did you read t_{who} the book?
   b. * Who did it take t_{who} an hour to read the book?

- Lastly, in languages in which applicative morphology is overt, and which have a TTC, the applicative morphology appears only when there is a Middle Subject.

(48) Logooli (Luhya, Bantu)
   a. e-a-vogor-i  muhiga mu-lala kweega  ologooli 9-TNS-take-FV 3year 3-one  INF.learn 11Maragoli
      ‘It took a year to learn Maragoli.’
   b. e-a-vogor-*{c,l}-i  Sira muhiga mu-lala kweega  ologooli 9-TNS-take-APPL-FV 1Sira 3year 3-one  INF.learn 11Maragoli
      ‘It took Sira a year to learn Maragoli.’
• This suggests the following structure, where the Middle Subject relates to a CP element as a (Low) Applicative.

(49) ... vP ... v
    VP
    TAKE ApplP
    John Appl'
    Appl CP
    an hour to read the article

7.1 Why Composite Probes do not work

• Longenbaugh (2015) argues that TC works by composite probing, where \( v \) comes imbued with both \( \phi \) and \( \overline{A} \) features (adopting (van Urk, 2015)), and can value the features independently.

• Composite Probing is assumed to operate under a kind of subset principle, where an intervening element that bears a subset of the features of the probe can be bypassed if the lower argument can satisfy more of the probe's needs.

(50) [ ... H_{\phi,A'} ... DP_{\phi} ... DP_{\phi,A'} ... ]

• This can be implemented in the TTC by allowing a composite probe on matrix \( v \) to target the DP bearing \( \phi \) and \( \overline{A} \) features in the lower clause.

  – In Longebaugh's analysis, TCs are (normally) restructuring predicates, and so there is no CP layer – which would be an intervener for him.

(51) [ ... \( v_{\phi,A'} \) ... John\( _{\phi} \) an hour \( [vP \) the article\( _{\phi,A'} \) to read <the article> ] ]
• The problem with this is that we should expect (52) to be underivable, since the composite probe on \( v \) will have to choose between an argument bearing just \( \phi \) features, and one bearing just \( \bar{A} \)-features.

(52) What did John take an hour to read \( e \)?

• Note that if we assume that \( \text{what} \) comes with both \( \phi \) and \( \bar{A} \) features (as I think we have to to derive why \( \textit{Who did John give the book to} \) is grammatical, with \( \textit{who} \) passing through \( \text{spec-}vP \)), then we have to explain why (53) is good.

(53) The article took who an hour to read \( e \)?

Appendix 2: Related constructions

1. Other light verbs

• Various other verbs can form TTC-like constructions

(54) a. It cost me $20 to print the handouts
    b. They gave me an hour to read the article
    c. I’ll need an hour to read the article
    d. There’s still an hour to read the article

• To the extent that such verbs are related via lexical decomposition to each other and \( \text{TAK}E \), then a unified analysis might be possible.

2. Other measure phrases

• While I’ve focused on temporal phrases, other measure phrase are compatible as well. The only factor that seems to matter is that the measure phrase entail (or imply?) a telos.

(55) a. It’ll take a ton of water to sink the ship
    b. It took 10 lbs to break the shelf
    c. It took $20 to get into the club

3. Purpose clauses
• There is a related construction which does not involve a measure phrase. I call this the *Causative-TTC*, as it appears to involve something like causative-y semantics, where the cause is the object of TAKE.

\[(56) \quad a. \quad \text{It took the death of her father for Mary to realize how much she loved him.} \]
\[(56) \quad b. \quad \text{It'll take an earthquake to dislodge the boulder.} \]

• The *Causative-TTC* does not permit an object gap, a Middle Subject or a High Subject.

4. Lastly, there is the *Agentive TTC*, in which the High Subject agentively sets aside time to complete the event. Note that the culmination of the event is not entailed with the Agentive TTC. These are *Purpose Clauses*.

\[(57) \quad \text{John took a year to learn Spanish (but he still doesn't speak it).} \]