

N + V Complex Predicates in Persian

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“Abstract”

Most of Persian complex predicates are N + V combinations in which the Ns refer to an action or a process and Vs seem, though semantically bleached and lacking a-structure of their own, to possess aspectual features. In this paper, we argue that the aspectual features of Persian light verbs represented in an aspectual tier combine with semantic properties of Ns and form complex predicates which like simple lexical verbs predicate grammatical clauses. We claim that N + V complex predicates are compositionally formed in the lexicon. This means light verbs select Ns whose arguments are licensed to play syntactic roles after they are selected by the light verbs.

1. Argument Structure Of N + V predicates

Persian language only possesses about a hundred simple verbs and the rest of its verbs are in complex forms. Most of Persian complex predicates are N + V combinations in which the Ns refer to an action or a process and Vs seem to lack a-structure of their own. This kind of verb is referred to as bleached or light verb (henceforth LV) in the literature (Cattell, 1984; Grimshaw and Mester, 1988; Butt, 1995; etc.). Persian LVs seem to lack a-structure since they can appear in sentences with different number of arguments and in fact what determines the number of arguments is the N component of each complex predicate. To clarify this point let us consider the data in (1) and (2). As we see the LV kardan “to do” shown in capital letters in (1a-c) appears in

three clauses with different number of arguments in each clause. Likewise in (2) the LV da:dan ‘to give’ predicates three sentences with different number of arguments; one argument in (2a), two in (2b) and Three in (2c). This is in the case that the simple (lexical) equivalents of these two LVs are cross linguistically two and three place-argument verbs respectively. Note we will refer to N + V complex predicates as Light Verb Constructions (LVCs) from now on.

- (1) a. Ali [raqs KARD]. (Intransative)
 Ali dance did
 “Ali danced.”
- b. Ali Mariam-ra: [ra:hnama:ʔi KARD]. (Transitive)
 Ali Mariam-DOM¹ advice did
 “Ali advised Mariam.”
- c. Ali keta:b-ra: be Mariam [ʔehda: KARD]. (Dative)
 Ali book-DOM to Mariam present did
 “Ali gave the book to Mariam (as a present).”
- (2) a. Ali [ʔesteʔfa: **DA:D**]. (Intransative)
 Ali resignation GIVE-Past
 ‘Ali resigned.’
- b. Ali Sasan-ra: neja:t **DA:D**. (Transitive)
 Ali Sasan-DOM rescue GIVE-Past
 ‘Ali rescued Sasan’
- c. Ali ʔota:q-ra: be Sasan ʔextesa:s **DA:D** (Dative)
 Ali room-DOM to Sasan allocation GIVE-Past
 ‘Ali allocated the room to Sasan.’

¹ . DOM stands for direct object marker.

The data in (1) and (2) may persuade us to believe that LVýs do not have any role in determining the number of arguments in a clause and what determines the argument structure of LVC is the N component in each LVC. However, when we look at the data such as those in (3-4), we find out that LVs are not neutral with respect to argument structure realization. For instance in (3a-b) and (4a-c), we have the same Ns but different LVs. Depending on the type of LV the number of arguments regardless of the existence of the same N varies from one sentence to another. Consider the number of arguments in each of the clauses in (3-4). In (3) we have the same N combined with different LVs and the number of arguments is different; three in (3a) but two in (3b). We have an identical case in (4). The evidences in (1-4) indicate that both Ns and LVs influence the argument structure of LVCs. However, this raises the question how the Ns and LVs combine and how the components LVCs constitute the argument structure of LVCs compositionally.

- (3) a. Ali keta:b-ra: be Mariam [?ehda: KARD.] (Dative)
 Ali book-obj.marker to Mariam present DID
 “Ali gave the book to Mariam (as a present).”
 b. keta:b be Mariam [?ehda: šOD.] (Inchoative)
 book to Mariam present BECOME
 “The book was presented to Mariam.”

- (4) a. Ali ?ota:q-ra: be Sasan [?extesa:s **DA:D**] (Dative)
 Ali room-DOM to Sasan allocation GIVE-Past
 ‘Ali allocated the room to Sasan.’
- b. ?ota:q be Sasan [?extesa:s **YA:FT**] (Inchoative)
 room to Sasan allocation FIND-Past
 ‘The room was allocated to Sasan.’
- c. ?ota:q be Sasan [?extesa:s **DA:šT**] (Stative)
 room to Sasan allocation have-Past
 ‘The room was in the possession of Sasan.’

2. Dual Nature of LVC

Persian LVCs seem to have a dual nature. Sometimes, they function like a single word and in some occasions they behave like a phrase. The dual characteristics of LVCs might indicate that they are both morphological and syntactic units. Thus, they have both lexical and phrasal properties (Goldberg, 1995). In this section, we will attempt to bring to light the lexical and phrasal (syntactic) properties of this class of verbs.

2.1. Lexical Properties of LVCs

LVCs show some symptoms which make them look like single lexical units. Identical to their lexical equivalents, they can function as a single verb predicating the same number of arguments in a clause. In the same line, they can be subjected to some morphological rules which might again indicate that they

are lexical items and probably good candidates to be considered as ‘morphological objects’ in Di Sciullo and Williams’ (1987) sense. In this subsection, your attention will be drawn to some of the facts that reveal the lexical properties of this class of verbs.

2.1.1. Predication: LVCs can function as a predicate exactly like any other main verb and there is no difference between LVCs and heavy verbs as far as predication is concerned. For example, in (5a) and (5b) an LVC and its lexical counterpart predicate the same clause with the same number and types of arguments respectively.

- (5) a. man pul-ra: **parda:xt kard-am.**
I money-DOM payment DO-Past-1st Sg.
‘I paid the money.’
- b. man pul-ra: **parda:xt-am.**
I money-DOM pay-Past-1st Sg.
‘I paid the money.’

2.1.2. Derivation: LVCs can at least undergo four types of derivation: A) gerundive nominalization, B) agentive nominalization, C) past participle adjective formation, D) derivational adjectives. Note that LVCs and single lexical verbs identically undergo these processes and there is no difference between them in this respect.

A) Gerundive Nominalization: The morpheme -an is added to the stem of the LVCs (i.e. N + LV stem) and forms gerundive nominals as in (6).

(6) a. da:d zadan (Lit: shout + TO BEAT) ‘to shout’

da:d zad + -an → da:d zad-an ‘shouting, to shout’

b. ?este?fa:? kardan (Lit: resignation + TO DO) ‘to resign’

?este?fa:? kard + -an → ?este?fa:? kardan ‘resigning, to resign’

B) Agentive nominalization: The affix -ande² (= -er in English) is suffixed to the stems of LVs in LVCs and changes them into agentive nominals. Consider the following examples:

(7) a. taza:hora:t kardan (Lit: demonstration + TO DO) ‘to demonstrate’

taza:hora:t kon + -ande → taza:hora:t konande ‘demonstrator’

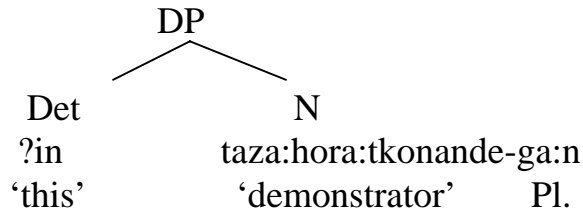
b. goza:reš kardan (Lit: report + TO DO) ‘to report’

goza:reš kon- + ande → goza:reškonande ‘reporter’

Note that the outputs of the rules (A) and (B) are single Ns, X⁰ level heads, which can head a DP and take plural morpheme as in (8). They can also appear in subject (9a), object (9b) and prepositional object (9c) positions, so they can develop to XP level.

² In some cases, it is not necessary to attach this affix to the LVCs and the combination of a PV with the stem of an LV forms an agentive nominal. ba:zi ‘play’ + kon- ‘DO’ = ba:zikon ‘player’ is an example of this type of nominalization.

(8)



- (9) a. **taza:hora:tkonande-ga:n** ma:-ra: didand.
demonstrator-Pl. us-DOM saw
‘The demonstrators saw us.’
- b. ma: **taza:hora:tkonande-ga:n-ra:** didim.
we demonstrator-Pl.-DOM saw
‘We saw the demonstrators.’
- c. ma: ba: **taza:hora:tkonande-ga:n** sohbat kardim.
we with demonstrator-Pl. talk DO-Past.Pl.1st
‘We talked to the demonstrators.’

C) Past Participle Adjective (PPA) Formation: In Persian, PPAs are formed by attaching the passive particle ‘-e’ to the stem of verbs. LVCs may undergo this operation and form PPAs. Consider the following examples:

- (10) a. šekast xordan (Lit: defeat + COLLIDE) ‘to be defeated, to suffer defeat’
šekast xord- + **-e** → šekastxorde ‘defeated’
- b. sa:zema:n ya:ftan (Lit: organisation + TO FIND) ‘to be organised’
sa:zema:n ya:ft- + **-e** → sa:zema:n:ya:fte ‘organised’
- c. tim-e **sa:zemanaya:fte šekastxorde** be xa:ne nemi?a:yad.

team-Ez. organised defeated to home not come
'The organised team does not come home defeated.'

D) Derivational Adjectives: -i is added to nouns and forms relational adjectives as in Iran-i (i.e. Iran + -i) 'pertaining to Iran'. The same morpheme, when attached to verb stems, functions like the English suffix '-able', for instance, xordani (xordan 'to eat' + i) 'edible' is derived through this process. LVCs might also yield to this process of adjective formation. Consider the adjectival forms of LVCs hefz kardan (Lit: memorising + TO DO) 'to memorise' and ya:d gereftan (Lit: memory + TO TAKE) 'to learn' in (11).

(11) ?in masa:ʔel **hefzkardan-i** nistand, **ya:dgereftan-i** hastand.
this issues memorising aren't learnable are
'These issues shouldn't be memorised, they should be learned.'

2.1.3. Manner Adverbials: Some of Persian lexical verbs and LVCs can yield to a morphological process in which the suffix -a:n is attached to the stem of a verb and produces a derived manner adverbial. For example, the LVC gerye kardan (Lit: cry + TO DO) 'to cry' changes into an adverbial of manner as in (12), after it undergoes this lexical process.

(12) Ali **geryekona:n** ?a:mad.

Ali cry-DOING came
'Ali came while crying.'

One might suppose that the inputs to the processes in (2.1.2-3) are phrases, rather than morphological units. This cannot be true since when we use the Ns of these LVCs with definite articles and adjectives, they cannot be subjected to these processes. For instance, when the noun gerye 'cry' is modified by the adjective tula:ni 'long', it cannot be used as an input to the process at work in {2.1.3}. Compare (12) with (12').

(12') Ali ***gerye-ye-tulani-kona:n** ?a:mad.
Ali cry-Ez-long-DOING came
'Ali came while crying long.'

2.1.4. Modification and non-separability: The fact that in some cases the PVs and LVs cannot be separated by the direct object of the LVCs (13a) and the nominal elements of the LVCs might not be modified (130b) indicates that LVCs are zero-level lexical, V^0 , units.

(13) * a. Ali dar yek sa:l **ya:d** zaba:n-e engelisi-ra: **gereft**.
Ali in one year memory language-Ez³ English-DOM TAKE-Past
'Ali learned the English language in a year.'

³ . Ez stands for Ezafe particle -e which appears between a noun and its complement.

- * b. Ali be ra:dyo **guš**-e xubi **kard**
Ali to radio ear-Ez. good DO-Past
'Ali listened to the radio well.'

2.2. Syntactic Properties of LVCs

Although it seems that LVCs, as illustrated above, are lexical units capable of undergoing morphological rules, there is some reason to believe that the syntax and syntactic rules are not blind to the internal structure of LVCs. That is, the components of LVCs, in some cases, can be separated, moved or gapped by syntactic rules and operations. Specifically, it is attested that the two recently grammaticalised auxiliaries, da:štan 'to have' and xa:stan 'will', can appear between Ns and LVs as in (14). Bear in mind that the former normally appears before the Ns, but it can be inserted between the Ns and LVs as well. In addition to the separation of the components of LVCs by auxiliaries, the nominal element of an LVC, in contrast to (15b), may have a specific reading as in (15b, c). In such cases the Ns, can be modified by adjectives, and seem to function as syntactic phrases. That is, an N might be part of a predicate in some cases (14a), while on other occasions it heads a DP which apparently functions as the direct

object (15b, c). Moreover, the Ns may be relativised (16b), gapped (16c) and co-ordinated (17). Finally, the PV nouns can be the focus of Wh-interrogatives (18).

- (14) a. man bezudi ?este?fa:? **xa:ham** da:d.
 I soon resignation Fu. Aux. GIVE-Past
 ‘I will resign soon.’
 b. ba: Ali harf **da:ram** mizanam.
 with Ali talk Prog. Aux.Impf-BEAT-Sg. 1st
 ‘I am speaking to Ali.’

Note that these auxiliaries are finite and they carry the agreement features.

- (15) a. tegarg be ba:q-e-man **latme zad**.
 hail to garden-Ez-I damage BEAT-Past
 ‘The hail damaged my garden.’
 b. tegarg **latme-ye** bad-i be ba:q-e-man **zad**
 hail damage-Ez. bad-Def.Par. to garden-Ez.-I BEAT
 ‘The hail caused bad damage to my gardens. / The hail damaged my garden badly.’
 c. tegarg-e diruz ?in **latme-ra:** be ba:q-e-man **zad**.
 hail-Ez. yesterday this damage-DOM to garden-Ez.-I
 BEAT
 ‘The yesterday’s hail caused this damage to my garden’

We should note that here not only is the N modified by an adjective (15b), preceded by an determiner (i.e. ?in ‘this’) (15c) and assigned direct object case (15c), but also the LVC is broken

by the PPs be ba:q-e man ‘to my garden’ (15b, c) (cf. also be Sasan ‘to Sasan’ in (18b)).

- (16) a. tegarg be ba:q-ha: **latme mizand**.
hail to gardens damage Imp.-BEAT
‘Hail damages the gardens.’
- b. **latme**-?i ke tegarg be ba:q-ha: **zad** jobra:nna:pazir ?ast.
damage-Def.Par. that hail to gardens BEAT irretrievable is
‘The damage caused by the hail to the gardens is irretrievable.’
- c. tegarg be ba:q-ha: **latme mizanad**,?ama: bara:n ---
nemizanad.
hail to gardens damage Imp-BEAT but rain ...doesn’t BEAT
‘Hail damages the gardens, but rain doesn’t.’
- d. Ali-ra: **zenda:ni** -----, ?ama: **šekanje nakardand**.
Ali-DO imprisonment, but torture Neg-DO-Pl.3rd
‘(They) imprisoned Ali, but (they) didn’t torture him.’

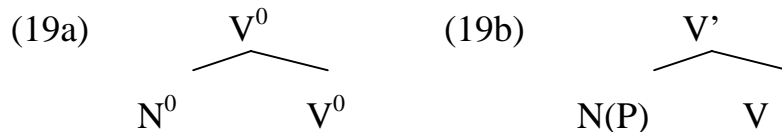
We see that not only can the N be moved by a syntactic rule (16b), but also both N (16c) and LV (16d) can be gapped. Moreover, the Ns may be co-ordinated (17) and focused on by Wh-interrogatives (18).

- (17) sa:l-ha: Sasan-ra: **šekanje** va **?aza:b** da:dand.
years Sasan-DOM torture and bother GIVE-Past-Pl. 3rd
‘They tortured and bothered Sasan for years.’

- (18) a. Ali be Sasan **qowl da:d**.
Ali to Sasan promise GIVE-Past
‘Ali promised Sasan.’
- b. Ali **ce qowli** be Sasan **da:d?**

Ali what promise to Sasan GIVE-Past
'What sort of promise did Ali give to Sasan?'

To close this section, we ought to note that the dual nature of LVCs has given rise to controversy among researchers. The lexical properties of these verbs introduced in (2.1) have led some linguists (Ghomeshi and Massan, 1994; Goldberg, 1995) to believe that LVCs have zero level structure as depicted in (19a). To these scholars the LVCs are formed in the lexicon. On the other hand, the phrasal and syntactic-like characteristics of LVCs, pointed out in (2.2), have inclined other researchers (Heny and Samiian, 1992; Vahedi-Langrudi, 1995) to find a syntactic solution to the issue. Accordingly, they suppose that LVCs are syntactic units formed by syntactic rules with a structure like (19b).



The observation of the data in (1-18) may raise several interesting questions for syntactic and morphological theories. Among them: a) what is the role of each of the components of an

LVC in determining the argument structure of an LVC and how do the semantic features of the components of an LVC combine to form the overall semantic structure of an LVC? b) How and where do the components of an LVC combine together and how can we account for dual nature of LVCs? We will try to focus on the former issue in section {3} and the latter will be dealt with in section {4}.

3. Argument Structure Formation in LVCs

We observed that both Ns and LVs seem to be significant in determining the number of arguments in a clause predicated by an LVC. But what remains as a problem is the fact that it is not easy to understand to what extent each of the components plays roles in forming the argument structure of LVC. To tackle this issue we need to uncover the nature of each of the components in more detail. It was mentioned that each LVC contains an N and an LV. The Ns are mainly abstract nouns which refer to actions similar to actions designated by their verbal forms. That is, as in cases like (20) where the word parda:xt is both a simple verb and an N component of an LVC (20b) in both cases we have almost the same actions in which someone pays some money or in both we have actions in which two arguments are

involved. Therefore, Ns similar to simple verbs refer to actions or processes in which arguments play roles.

- (20) a. man pul-ra: **parda:xt-am.**
I money-DOM pay-Past-1st Sg.
'I paid the money.'
- b. **parda:xt-e** pul tavasote man
paying-EZ money by me
'paying money by me'

The second members of LVCs are LVs. Although LV seem to lack full argument structure of their own, there are some indications that LVs possess some aspectual properties. In order to reveal the aspectual properties of LVs, we will classify them into aspectual groups. There are different systems of classification of verbs and researchers have agreed on some kinds of tests to differentiate between verbs with different aspectual properties. We will employ some of these tests and criteria in order to categorise LVs based on their aspectual properties. In the following parts, we will show that Persian LVs can be categorised into Statives (4c) and Dynamics (Transition LVs and Initiatory Lvs).

3.1. Statives vs. Dynamics

Stative LVs, though not referring to states on their own, form LVCs which refer to states. States do not happen or involve change. In contrast, Dynamic LVs appear in LVCs which refer to events. Events, unlike states, happen or take place. Below, we will see how Stative LVs and Dynamic LVs fall into two groups. To do so, the two groups of LVs will be subjected to a variety of tests.

The progressive tense has been used as one of the ways of differentiating between Stative and Dynamic verbs. Since statives do not often form progressive forms, we will use the Persian progressive auxiliary da:štan as a test to distinguish Stative LVs from dynamic ones. This progressive auxiliary is added to the imperfective form of verbs and makes progressive forms. We, therefore, assume the progressive auxiliary da:štan as one of the tests to differentiate stativity from non-stativity. This auxiliary, though compatible with Dynamic LVs, does not co-occur with Stative LVs as illustrated in (21).

(21) *a. man da:ram ?etela:? (mi)da:ram
 I Prog.Aux information (Imp)HAVE
 'I know'

* b. ?in ?ota:q da:rad be Ali ?extesa:s (mi)da:rad.
 this room Prog.Aux to Ali allocation (Imp)HAS

- ‘This room is being belonged to Ali.’
- * c. man da:ram šak (mi)da:ram.
I Prog.Aux. doubt (Imp)HAVE.
‘I am not being sure. / I am being in doubt.’
 - * d. da:rand nazm (mi)da:rand.
Prog.Aux. order (Imp)HAVE
‘(They) are being organised’

Another test used in the literature for distinction between aspectual classes of events is the addition of aspectual / temporal adverbs such as ‘suddenly’ and ‘gradually’. This type of adverb can be used in clauses referring to dynamic situations in which something happens or changes. They are odd with Statives, since states do not refer to any change or dynamic action. The Persian temporal adjectives betadrij ‘gradually’ and na:gaha:ni ‘suddenly’ refer to the manner that an event takes place. States don’t happen, so they should not be modified by these adverbs. This prediction is born out because the clauses containing the Stative LV daštan (21a-d) become ungrammatical when used with these adverbs, while those with Dynamic LVs (e.g. 22-23) are well-formed with these adverbs.

Finally, it is observed that Statives do not normally occur in imperative forms and they do not yield to passivisation. Also, aspectual verbs such as ‘begin’ cannot be used with Stative verbs

(Smith, 1991; McClure, 1995). Each of these tests can be used to differentiate the Stative LVs from the Dynamic LVs.

3.2. Transition LVs vs. Initiatory LVs

Now let us focus on the Dynamic LVs and find out if they can be further subcategorised. The Dynamic LVs fall into two aspectual classes: Transition LVs and Initiatory LVs. A Transition LV appears in telic VPs referring to events in which a patient argument is affected or undergoes a change of state. The change of state of the argument seems to bound the event structure of the VPs. Unlike Transition LVs, Initiatory LVs are not necessarily telic. They may allow LVCs with atelic readings. They usually appear in clauses referring to events in which an entity initiates an action. Let us say Initiatory LVs may have atelic readings, while Transition LVs resist having atelic activity readings. For example, the Initiatory LV zadan 'TO STRIKE' is capable of forming atelic clauses (22), but the Transition LV xordan 'COLLIDE' resists atelic readings (23) and restricts LVCs with different Ns to a telic reading. To differentiate between telic and atelic sentences, we use temporal in/for phrases.

(22) a . Ali bemodate / (*dar) yek sa:ʔat daraxt payvand zad.

- Ali for (in) one hour tree graft STRIKE
 ‘Ali grafted trees for / (*in) an hour.’
- b. Ali bemodate / (*dar) yek sa:?at qadam zad.
 Ali for / (in) one hour step STRIKE-past
 ‘Ali walked for / (*in) an hour.’
- (23) a. daraxt-(ha:) dar/ (*bemodate) yek sa:?at payvand
 xord(and).
 tree-(Pl.) in / (for) one hour graft COLLIDE-
 past.(3rd.Pl.)
 ‘The trees got / were grafted in / (*for) an hour.’
- b. Ali dar / (*bemodate) panj daqiqe gul xord.
 Ali in (for) / five minute deception COLLIDE.
 ‘Ali was deceived in / (*for) five minutes.’

What we are interested in is why Initiatory LVs can form VPs with an atelic reading and can appear in clauses with external arguments (22), while Transition LVs uniformly cannot have an atelic reading and their subject argument is an internal argument (23). Minimal pairs such as (22a) and (23a) where we have the same N but different LVs indicate that LVs, but not Ns, are responsible for the relationship between a/telicity and the realisation of the different types of arguments of Ns.

3.3. Process of Argument Structure Formation

Having scrutinized the nature of Ns and LVs, we are in a position to return to the problem of argument structure in LVC.

The data in (1-2) show that the Ns have a dominant role in argument structure formation of LVCs because when the Ns vary the number of argument varies too. Moreover, the Ns may head noun phrases referring to actions in which arguments play roles; cf (20b) with (20a). These observations incline us to assume that Ns have thematic roles as a part of their lexical conceptual structure (LCS) represented as a thematic tier identified by ThR standing for thematic role in (24-26) below. On the other hand, (21-23) show that Ns do not have any function in determining whether the clauses are Stative, initiatory or transitional. Therefore, Ns lack aspectual features or Event Roles (ER) in their lexical representation and Event roles are contributed only by LVs. Certainly any LV, depending on its aspectual class discussed above, contains one of the Event roles, Initiatory, Transition or Stative shown as Ini, Tra and Sta respectively in (24-26). The process of argument structure (AS) formation is illustrated in (24-26). The Initiatory LVs as in (24a) contain an Initiatory role which is compatible with an agent (Ag) role, so all thematic role of the N in (24b) including Ag role are licensed as syntactic arguments shown as external (x), internal (y) and indirect internal (z) in (24c). The LVs in (25-26), lacking Ini Event role and containing Tra and Sta roles incompatible with Ag role, cannot

license x arguments so they can form LVCs with two arguments (y, z) as in (25c) and (26c).

(24) a. da:dan 'TO GIVE' $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{LCS} \left[\text{ER} [\text{Ini}] \right] \end{array} \right]$

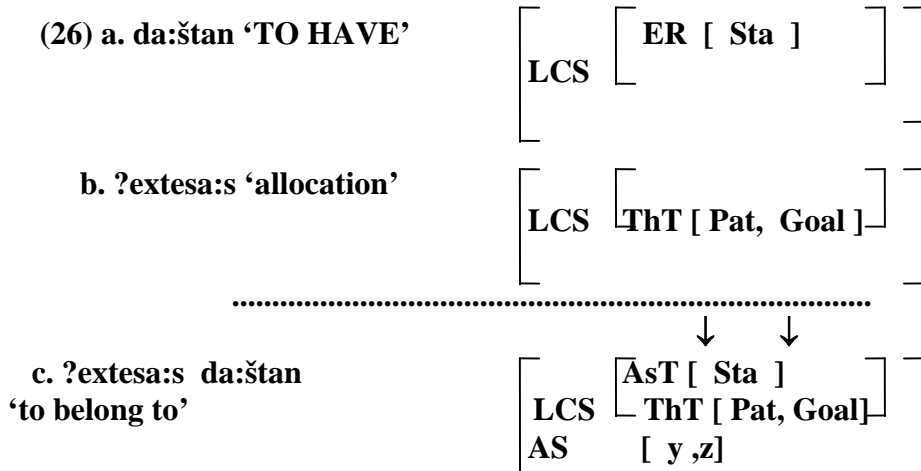
b. ?extesa:s 'allocation' $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{LCS} \left[\text{ThR} [\text{Ag}, \text{Pat}, \text{Goal}] \right] \end{array} \right]$

c. ?extesa:s da:dan 'to allocate' $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{LCS} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{ER} [\text{Ini}] \\ \text{ThR} [\text{Ag}, \text{Pat}, \text{Goal}] \end{array} \right] \\ \text{AS} [x, y, z] \end{array} \right]$

(25) a. ya:ftan 'TO FIND' $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{LCS} \left[\text{ER} [\text{Tra}] \right] \end{array} \right]$

b. ?extesa:s 'allocation' $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{LCS} \left[\text{ThT} [\text{Ag}, \text{Pat}, \text{Goal}] \right] \end{array} \right]$

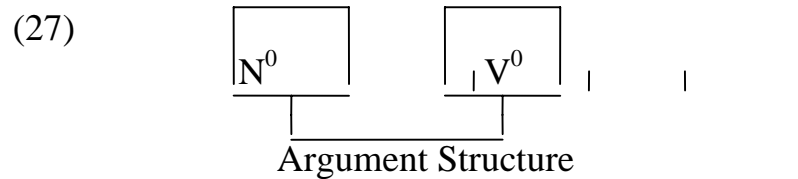
c. ?extesa:s ya:ftan 'to be allocated' $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{LCS} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{ER} [\text{Tra}] \\ \text{ThT} [\text{Pat}, \text{Goal}] \end{array} \right] \\ \text{AS} [y, z] \end{array} \right]$



3.4. Syntactic and Lexical Properties of LVCs

Now we come back to the second issue which is the dual nature of LVCs. It was demonstrated that LVCs may behave like single lexical entries {2.1} or like phrases separable by syntactic roles and elements {2.2}. We believe that it is possible to account for the dual nature of LVCs in the framework assumed in this work. In this approach the Ns and Vs are two zero level elements $[N^0 V^0]$ combined by a process in which the components become adjacent when the semantic features of both members compositionally constitute the semantic features of LVCs. When the LVs and Ns combine to form an LVC, they don't undergo a

pure morphological or syntactic operation to change them into a unit of either type. The result is a unit which is morphological because though having two members they still have a zero status as shown in (27) so recognizable by morphological rules as lexical elements. Or the reason that LVCs can be subjected to morphological rules as in section {2.1} is the fact that they have lexical or zero status.



But Why is the internal structure of LVC visible to syntax? The answer is that LVC formation as assumed above does not change the syntactic categories of LVC members and syntactic rules and elements recognize the members as N and V respectively. Therefore, they can develop into syntactic phrases separable or movable by syntactic rules. Likewise; syntactic heads, recognizing LVC components as N and V, may select them exactly identical to ordinary syntactic categories such as normal Ns and Vs.

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